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## Relationship Between Perceived Language Proficiency and Economic Life Satisfaction for Migrants

John Ndunduma  
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# Walden University

College of Health Sciences and Public Policy

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Walden University  
2023

Abstract

Relationship Between Perceived Language Proficiency and Economic Life Satisfaction

for Migrants

by

John Ndunduma

MS, Amberton University, 2011

BS, Amberton University, 2008

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

August 2023

## Abstract

The United States needs migrant workers to fill the labor market gap because baby boomers are retiring from the US workforce in large numbers beginning in 2020. Approximately 2.1 million migrants came from Africa to fill the U.S. labor shortage. Many of these African migrants faced challenges with English language proficiency. There are benefits to the United States involved with increasing the economic wellbeing of migrants, such as reducing remigration, increasing the high-skilled labor force, and increasing cultural diversity. This study used Maslow's motivational theory to test significant relationships between perceptions of English language proficiency (PELP) and economic life satisfaction (ELS) among Black African migrants. This study addressed whether motivation, PELP, and demographics predicted ELS for Black African migrants. The sample was drawn from churches in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas, where Black African migrants gather for worship. The research methodology was quantitative, and the design was correlational. Data analysis for this study involved using multiple linear regression and SPSS. Findings indicated motivation for esteem and self-actualization predicted the ELS for Black African migrants living in the U.S. There was also a difference in ELS between Black African migrants who had a U.S. education and those who did not earn a US education. Positive social change will occur when migrants can improve language proficiency, enjoy a better socioeconomic status, and assimilate in the United States. Doing so contributes to higher levels of ELS among Black African migrants.

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## Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my amazing wife, Vita, whose love and support were invaluable to me as I completed this journey. I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my children, whose encouragement was the source of completing this project. Finally, I would like to dedicate this work to my late parents, Pedro, and Veronica, who inspired me to follow my dreams and work hard to achieve my goals. Most importantly, this project is for the glory of the Almighty Father, Our Creator; without Our Merciful Father, nothing is possible.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Migrating to the United States continues as a source of hope for many migrants (Quevedo, 2015). Migrants worldwide bring unique cultures to other countries, including the 1.6 million Black African-born in the United States. Although migrants benefit from living in the United States, the U.S. economy benefits from migrants by them providing labor sources and help in creating the next generation of Americans (Beckhusen et al., 2013). As migrants try to pursue the American dream, many can only survive by meeting the basic requirements of life but do not genuinely excel at high career levels or reach their highest potential (Kim, 2013). Some researchers have argued that many need help assimilating regarding education, English language skills, and socioeconomic status (SES), which affects life happiness (Pandey & Pandey, 2014).

As a host nation, the U.S. benefits when migrants assimilate properly (Pandey & Pandey, 2014). Migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa have substandard education levels compared to migrants from other parts of the globe. Asongu and Odhiambo (2020) reported that substandard education levels were due to low quality. These researchers also added that 90% of young students needed to improve in reading skills, and about 25% of the youth in that part of Sub-Saharan Africa needed help to read efficiently. Poor reading skills lead to a low perception of English language proficiency (PELP) skills (Maganaka & Plaizier, 2015). PELP is the awareness of correctly communicating in English. Low proficiency effects are evident in wage differentials between Black African migrant workers and U.S.-born American workers.



Black African migrants are less likely to catch up on their earnings with those of natives after working for 20 years. Villarreal and Tamborini (2018) pointed out that after migrant arrival to the United States, during the first 2 years, a Black African migrant's earnings are about \$25,000 annually, while their White migrant counterpart worker's earnings are about \$35,000. Twenty years later, these earnings are \$42,500 for Black African migrants and \$64,000 for White. Villarreal and Tamborini also indicated that Black African migrants without a college degree could not narrow the earning gap between native White and Black migrants with a college degree.

This study was applicable to understanding the relationship between PELP and economic life satisfaction (ELS). Additionally, public policymakers may use this study on how language proficiency affects the assimilation process for Black African migrants in the United States. Using ELS may aid in understanding one's economic needs and the ability to achieve those needs.

### **Background of the Study**

The United States is one of the world's largest countries, receiving millions of migrants yearly. Budiman (2020) reported that more than 40 million foreign-born people settled in the United States by 2018. According to Verwiebe (2014), the purpose for migrating includes economic and social reasons, and some migrate for safety reasons. Migrants are primarily motivated by procuring physiological and safety needs of life (Maslow, 1943). Elo et al. (2015) found that migrants, such as Black Africans,

experienced increases in migration of approximately 450,000 between 1992 and 1999 to large countries such as the United States.

Black African migration to the United States has increased gradually throughout the decades. According to Campbell (2014), as of 2012, approximately 1.6 million African-born migrants lived in the United States. However, Tamir (2022) asserted that as of 2019, the number of Black African migrants to the United States increased further to about 4.6 million migrants living in the United States from approximately 800,000 in 1980. Although most African migrants are of Black African ethnicity, some African migrants to the United States also include other races. In the 1950s, the United States received non-Black African migrants from Egypt, South Africa, and Morocco, who accounted for 60% of total migrants from Africa. Those three countries continued to be a source of migrant labor to the United States, and most then-African migrants were African-born Whites and other non-Black Africans (Elo et al., 2015).

The United States continues to require skilled migrant labor to fill the labor market gap (Beckhusen et al., 2013). In the 1960s, the U.S. economy transitioned from traditional agricultural economies, such as farming, hunting, mining, and manufacturing, to a knowledge-based economy (Powell & Snellman, 2004). In modern times, the baby boomer generation's retirement and low birth rates contribute to a lack of adequate labor to support the labor market, threatening the U.S. workforce's future (Chand & Tung, 2014). Kearney et al. (2022) pointed out that in 2020, the U.S. birth rate dropped to about

20% from 2007. However, between 1980 and 2007, there were approximately 65 to 70 births per 1,000 women compared to 55.8 per 1,000.

Transitioning to a new knowledge economy requires highly skilled employees (Vora, 2014). Gordon (2014) argued that baby boomers retiring in large quantities by 2030 and constantly increasing knowledge-related jobs would pressure the U.S. labor force. Gordon added that approximately 70 million people were expected to leave by then, thus creating a significant gap in the labor force. Gordon suggested that immediate action had to be taken to replace workers and that filling the labor gap required human capital with different skill sets distinct from those of retiring baby boomers.

A low population and birth rate problems are not exclusive to the United States; the UK has a declining workforce (Hewins-Maroney & Williams, 2013). The declining population in the United States is a critical problem, which may increase the labor shortage, and the United States needs to prepare better for competing in global economies that are not experiencing labor shortages (Chand & Tung, 2014). Therefore, the United States has increased migrant worker access to the country. According to Cordero-Guzman and Nuñez (2013), foreign-born workers rose from 12.9 million in 1994 to 23.9 million in 2009; however, when the United States benefits from increased migrant labor, not all migrants benefit equally (Bijwaard & Wahba, 2014).

The U.S. Constitution begins with a text about pursuing happiness as an inalienable right of all humans, including migrants. Happiness is what migrants hope for by coming to the United States. Yang and Srinivasan (2016) argued that life satisfaction

is the scientific description of personal happiness in which mental balance affects people positively and negatively. Therefore, income positively correlates with life satisfaction (Galinha et al., 2016). Maslow (1943) defined better quality food, shelter, healthcare, and education as the primary needs of humans. Human happiness includes basic needs that are positively correlated with ELS because income is a tool used to provide basic needs.

Migrants achieving levels of ELS is possible when they are proficient in English. Rajović and Bulatović (2016) stated that migrants with higher levels of education have a broad range of opportunities and resources, including higher income opportunities. Migrants' children born in the United States enjoy an improved quality of life (QoL) because of education, high PELP, and professional skills. Zhuoxin (2013) argued that teaching migrants is essential because it contributes to better employment opportunities and communication with other people. Guven and Islam (2015) contended that ELP is one type of educational skill that empowers and facilitates migrants' efficient communication, which helps with increased productivity.

Studies have indicated that not all migrants have assimilated into the American culture. Kim (2013) claimed that migrants did not assimilate regarding education and wages, regardless of their length of stay (LoS) in the United States. Some of those migrants, from several countries, came to the United States with less than a high school education and were severely undereducated compared to their native counterparts (Kim, 2013). These migrants ranked from the middle to lowest percentiles of education levels. Of those with less than a high school education, 79% were migrants, and 21% were

natives. Of those who earned a high school diploma, 60% were natives, 40% were migrants, and for those who earned a bachelor's degree or higher, natives far outperformed migrants. Lin and Weiss (2019) also noted that because many recent migrants had low-level skills and earned low wages, the skilled native-born workers suffered pay cuts. When the education and professional skills of migrants were similar to that of natives, the natives' average wage was reduced by between 3% to 4%. Natives with minor skills experienced a 9% wage reduction (Lin & Weiss, 2019).

High levels of ELP help benefit migrants and U.S.-born natives because English proficiency in a host country is a tool for accessible communication at the workplace or in various communities. Reaching the highest levels of English proficiency helps migrants communicate with the host country's population. Ketcham (2015) added that migrants who migrate directly through or to English-speaking countries were 2.6 times ( $p < .001$ ) more likely to be proficient in the English language than migrants who migrate through non-English-speaking countries. Migrants migrating through non-English speaking countries were 1.5 times ( $p < .001$ ).

Still, without promoting U.S. public policies for increasing ELP among migrants, it remains economically, politically, and socially disadvantaged (Beckhusen et al., 2013). Beckhusen et al. (2013) claimed that 32% of population growth was due to migration; however, there was an increasing number of migrants with limited ELP. The number of migrants coming to the United States with limited ELP increased from 15% to 29% of all migrants as of 2010. Other researchers added that as of 2015, the number of migrants

experiencing limited English language proficiency was about 25.9 million or 40% in 2015 compared to 44% in 1980 (Batalova & Zong, 2016).

Although new migrants energize economic activity, the United States provides little motivation or help for increasing English language assimilation for non-English speaking migrants with limited ELP. According to Beckhusen et al. (2013), the United States benefits when migrants from English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries migrate to the United States from other nations. Beckhusen et al. suggested that when migrants lack ELP, they cloistered in like communities to increase their economic benefit, thus leading to ethnic enclaves and never fully assimilating. However, Villarreal and Tamborini (2018) suggested that even though the English language was not part of their study, migrants who communicated in the English language proficiently were more likely to receive high pay from their employers than migrants with limited English language proficiency (ELP).

However, there were no studies about the language proficiency and economic satisfaction of Black African migrants. A gap remains in how acculturation factors such as language proficiency affect economic happiness—understanding the outcome of PELP benefits public policymakers when building a sustainable U.S. workforce that includes migrants worldwide (Beckhusen et al., 2013). Although English is the official language of some African countries, many do not speak English well and prefer communicating in local languages, such as Shona, Chichewa, or Tonga (Bachore, 2014; Piper et al., 2016). Poor communication in the English language leads to barriers for many Black African-

born migrants in the United States, indicating the need for the present study. After a comprehensive search of databases and a review of empirical studies, a gap was identified in the literature involving the relationship between PELP and ELS for English-speaking Black African-born migrants living in the United States.

### **Problem Statement**

Approximately over 40 million migrants have come to the United States worldwide in the last two decades (Budiman, 2020). The United States needs migrant workers to fill labor market gaps because the baby boomer generation is retiring from the U.S. workforce in large numbers beginning in 2020 (Beckhusen et al., 2013). Migrants help in filling the U.S. labor force. Anderson (2017) argued that approximately 2.1 million migrants came from Africa to fill the U.S. labor shortage and improve their economic well-being.

Among migrants for whom the English language is not the first language, PELP caused differences in terms of economic well-being (Islam & Parasnis, 2016). However, no studies have shown the effects of PELP among migrants where the English language was the official language. These benefits include reducing emigration, increasing the high-skilled labor force and cultural diversity, helping create the next generation of Americans, and increasing U.S. competitive advantages.

Many Black African migrants face challenges such as their economic well-being. Their White African counterparts thrive in the same environments. For instance, English-speaking White Africans earn, on average, \$52,144 annually in the United States, while

their Black African counterparts earn about \$28,734, less than 45% (Bideshi & Kposowa, 2012; Elo et al., 2015). Experiencing low economic well-being is a problem when Black African migrants face the same standard of living as their White African counterparts. Low-income migrants often want to return to their home country (Bijwaard & Wahba, 2014) or a third country. The specific problem was the outcome of PELP on Black Africans who migrated to the United States from English-speaking Sub-Saharan Africa.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The study aimed to use Maslow's (1943) motivational theory to address significant relationships between PELP and ELS among English-speaking Black African migrants in the United States. The independent variable in the study was PELP, and ELS was the dependent variable. The PELP variable was measured using the Adult and ESL Literacy Learning Self-Efficacy (AELLSE) scale, and ELS was measured using Cantril Self-Anchoring Striving Scale (CSSS). Other study variables included the demographics of age, gender, LoS (i.e., the number of years a migrant lived in the United States), and U.S. education level.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

RQ1: Did motivation predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_01$ : Motivation did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_a1$ : Motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ2: Did PELP predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_02$ : PELP did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.



*H<sub>a2</sub>*: PELP did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ3: Did one or more demographics predict ELS for Black African migrants?

*H<sub>03</sub>*: One or more demographics did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

*H<sub>a3</sub>*: One or more demographics did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The principle of human motivation was the theoretical framework used for examining the relationship between Black African migrants' PELP and ELS. Maslow (1943) developed the hierarchy of needs motivational theory, which was appropriate for understanding how motivation for esteem (ME) and self-actualization affect the ELS of people such as migrants. Kellerman (2014) used these motivation principles developed by Maslow (1948) to study physical and virtual spaces. Kellerman (2014) included all the motivation principles stated by Maslow (1943). However, only the upper level of needs (ME and self-actualization) motivation theory was used in this study.

These principles were also the foundation of Willis's (2016) studies on virtual workers' job satisfaction and work outcomes. Using Maslow's (1943) ME and self-actualization was appropriate when examining the relationship between PELP and ELS. Kellerman (2014) and Willis (2016) demonstrated an excellent basis for understanding factors that promoted esteem and self-actualization goals among people, such as Black African migrants living in the United States.

**Motivation**

Motivation is people's desire when accomplishing goals (Markus, 2016).

According to Dishon-Berkovits (2014), motivation is related to goal achievement and developed due to innate desires for specific outcomes. Motivated people focus on the future with inspiration and encouragement to achieve goals involving education, families, and society (Fosshage, 2013). People, such as African migrants, must first set goals before being motivated toward goal achievement, such as ELS.

Two sources of motivation are internal and external. For example, students experience motivation from internal self-confidence and external motivation toward language proficiency (Vincze et al., 2015). These motivational sources are the driving force for accomplishing goals to satisfy basic human needs for sustaining life, such as food, water, shelter, and clothing. Only after securing goals associated with external sources of motivation do people, such as migrants, become motivated to fulfill intrinsic needs, such as safety, security, love, and belonging (Cerasoli & Ford, 2014).

**Motivation for Physiological Needs**

People experience motivation due to outside sources to address physiological needs such as securing food, water, and shelter. The motivation for ensuring these needs rises when the satisfaction of these needs becomes scarce (Taormina & Gao, 2013). Harrigan and Commons (2015) argued that when satisfying basic needs for sustaining life is no longer a challenge, this extrinsic motivation diminishes, but not wholly because humans must always be able to secure physiological needs. The motivation for satisfying

food, shelter, and water necessities is only reduced when a human's motivation is redirected to other needs, such as safety and social belonging.

### **Motivation for Safety and Security**

When migrants are gratified with physiological needs, they seek the next level of motivation: safety and security. According to Maslow (1943), safety and security are the second levels in the hierarchy of needs motivation theory. Maslow (1943) claimed that when a human's (e.g., a migrant) motivation for physiological needs subsides, there is a need to seek motivation for safety and security. Motivation for safety and security needs occurs due to external motivational factors such as experiencing discrimination and living in high-crime neighborhoods or war zones (Lens, 2013). Satisfying citizens' safety and security needs is one of the government's responsibilities directed via policies and institutions (Gressgard, 2016). These institutions include police departments, departments of public safety, the U.S. Justice Department, and agencies responsible for carrying out governmental policies involving safety in the United States.

### **Motivation for Love and Belonging**

Motivation for focusing on love and belonging needs usually happens after satisfying safety and security needs. Mucedola (2015) asserted that the motivation for physiological and safety needs must be gratified before advancing toward motivation for love and belonging needs occurs. According to J. M. Lee and Hanna (2015), motivation for love includes showing acts of kindness toward family and friends.

Motivation for love and belonging include when migrant parents show kindness or love to the family by saving money so that their children or grandchildren are educated or trained. Some migrant parents' love and belonging needs are fulfilled by keeping finances for use on special occasions with community interactions, such as weddings or funerals. Migrants also fulfill love and belonging needs by connecting in society through affiliations with religious or political groups (Afroz & Tiwari, 2015; Reynolds, 2015). The motivation for belonging to a group increases when intimacy is present (Easterbrook & Vignoles, 2013). When motivation for love and belonging needs are fulfilled, the next focus is esteem and self-actualization. The following sections contain discussions of motivation about fulfilling these two intrinsic needs.

### **Motivation for Esteem**

Gratification or esteem is a psychological state of pride migrant workers experience from their peers in recognition of accomplishing goals. McClendon (2014) argued that although migrant employees need appreciation from peers, there is a relationship between the type of recognition employees have and their level of motivation. Winston (2016) also added that esteem is a source of pride and honor for that person.

Praising employees increases their self-esteem. Esteem is directly linked to employees' pride while observing and valuing employees' actions; accomplishments then create self-worth (Siviter, 2013; Winston, 2016). Esteem is the value or worth placed on a

person demonstrating the goals that person has achieved, which corresponds to that person's skill level.

Esteem between employers and employees is vital because it encourages employees to demonstrate their skills, increasing workplace productivity (Konigsburg, 2017). Employers must show dignity and honor by respecting employees' human rights, providing a safe workplace, and then honoring them by paying them fair wages (Konigsburg, 2017). Fairness also involves paying workers equally for performing the same tasks, including Black migrant workers and native Black workers, and Black migrant workers and White workers. Equal and sustainable pay is a form of human honor and dignity (Konigsburg, 2017). Understanding public policies that drive esteem among migrant workers will likely positively affect Black African migrants' social and economic statuses through better-paying positions (Castella-Sarriera et al., 2015).

### **Motivation for Self-Actualization**

Humans who need growth and development regarding their careers, education, personal skills, creativity, and responsibilities experience self-actualization when achieving those goals. D'Souza and Gurin (2016) defined self-actualization as a transition from self-centered to generous. Self-actualized people are problem-solvers and compassionate in helping their communities. Self-actualization is associated with honesty, respect, and actions that benefit the community (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016).

Vanagas and Raksnys (2014) argued that self-actualization in a workplace was directed toward employees motivated toward higher ambitions, tolerance, autonomy,

creativity, and commitment to higher levels of responsibility toward goal achievement. For example, when Black African migrants leave their native countries and migrate to the United States, they make a step toward achieving self-actualization. Additionally, these migrant employees accomplish their desired goals by completing higher educational levels, such as a master's degree or doctorate, compared to the education levels they came with from their home countries and improving their professional skills (Lu & Roto, 2016).

Experience and abilities in mechanical engineering and other technical fields are critical elements of personal growth and self-fulfillment (Savova & Stoyanova, 2012). Academic or vocational accomplishments such as a high school diploma, bachelor's degree, or training certificate usually fulfill esteem needs. Earning a master's degree or doctorate are high achievements that lead to self-actualization in people (Winterbottom & Mazzocco, 2016).

Earning educational skills and expertise leads to good-paying jobs, often increasing SES. Vera-Villarroel et al. (2015) contended that measures of economic status combined education, occupation, and income levels, leading to greater autonomy in people, increased self-determination, and higher esteem among peers. Vera-Villarroel et al. indicated that economic levels, such as income, depend on having educational skills and expertise, beginning with higher levels of PELP. Otway and Carnelley (2013) maintained that peer acceptance and respect, also known as esteem, are essential steps before self-actualization. Social and economic levels accompanied by increased levels of

pride from respect have a motivating effect toward achieving self-actualizing goals. Self-actualization goals for migrants also likely depend on LoS in the host country.

LoS is when a migrant lives in a foreign country. In the United States, LoS is determined via an alien card, also known as a resident green card (Cohen, 2015). Some of these residents become naturalized citizens of the United States. According to Cohen (2015), applying for naturalized citizenship in the United States is often possible after 5 years of residency. Chaudhury (2013) found that many migrants come to the United States for professional or academic purposes using H1-B and student visas and then pursue permanent residence and naturalization, but becoming a citizen of a country does not indicate experiencing esteem or self-actualization.

Mazurenko et al. (2014) found that foreign-trained U.S. registered nurses (RNs) were qualified, certified, and experienced esteem from peers such as other U.S.-trained RNs. Mazurenko et al. pointed out that when U.S.-trained RNs pursued additional levels of education, such as earning nurse practitioner certifications, master's degrees, and doctorate degrees, they would likely experienced self-actualization. These researchers found that migrant-RNs practicing in the United States were less likely to pursue further education to experience self-actualization.

Mazurenko argued that even though foreign-born RNs had similar training, certification, license, and experience as American-trained RNs, American-trained nurses were more likely to be motivated toward additional educational skills and leading to self-actualization compared to foreign-trained RNs. These migrant nurses were more inclined

to practice and attain work experience in various healthcare situations, which did not mean foreign-trained nurses were less qualified than U.S.-trained nurses. Kels and Kels (2013) suggested that healthcare policymakers should encourage foreign-trained healthcare professionals to pursue higher levels of education after earning essential U.S. licenses in their specialized fields.

Experiencing self-actualization is also vital because it provides an example for motivating the next generation of Americans who are immigrants. Another benefit of increasing the education levels of immigrant professionals is that highly-educated parents likely raise highly-educated children (Kao, 2014). The desire for personal growth and development is usually associated with the need to self-actualize (Bauer et al., 2015). Accomplishing self-actualization is not only about desire but also involves achieving personal growth through career, education, or business development (Keyes, 2013). The self-actualization process is lengthy, but it contributes to the satisfaction of interpersonal relationships and psychological well-being (Ivtzan et al., 2013).

Arora and Bhagat (2016) argued that personal happiness has two forms: hedonic and eudaimonic happiness or well-being. Fossas (2019) defined hedonism as the happiness associated with pleasure, such as comfort, eating, drinking, and playing games. In contrast, eudaimonic is associated with psychological well-being, including the motivation to self-actualize by striving toward a person's inner fulfillment. The type of happiness focused on in this current study was called ELS.

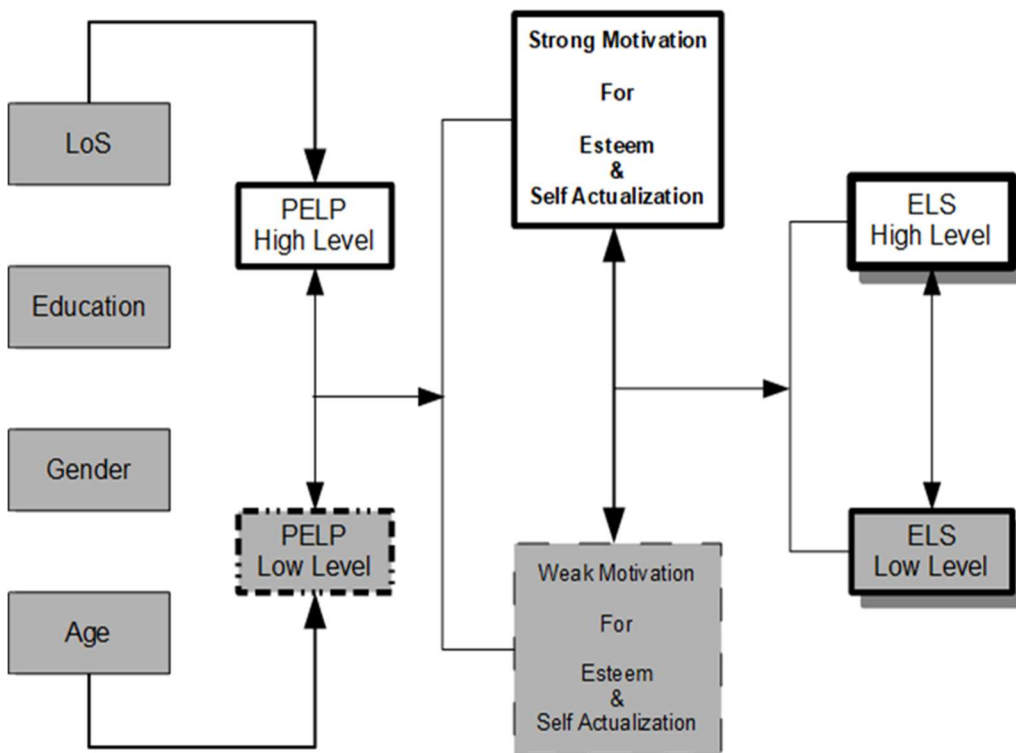


In summary, the theoretical framework used in this study was Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory. The five principles of the theory (physiological needs, safety/security needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs) were related to the present study. However, only the two listed principles (esteem needs and self-actualization needs) were the focus when conducting the present study. McClendon (2014) argued that esteem motivates accomplishing skills and careers that peers recognize and respect. McClendon used an LGBT support group to determine whether any admiration was shown among the participants. The results indicated that the participants responded with high levels of esteem. Esteem is the foundation for the motivation for self-actualization (MSA). In comparison, the MSA is the desire for people to reach their highest potential in careers or other areas of life (Winston, 2016).

Some studies involved understanding factors that lead to psychological well-being, as suggested by Albuquerque et al. (2014); however, there remained a gap in the literature involving relationships between acculturation factors, such as PELP and ELS, for Black African migrants in the United States. Further, there needs to be more literature regarding the relationship between motivation principles and ELS. For the reasons presented, Maslow's (1943) motivation theory was the foundation for the present study (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1**

*Theoretical Model of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory*



*Note.* A theoretical model demonstrating the effectiveness of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory. Adapted from "When is the Hierarchy not a Hierarchy? Factors Associated With Different Perceptions of Needs, With Implications for Standardization – Adaptation Decisions in Korea" by M. A. Raymond, J. D. Mittelstaedt, and Hopkins, 2003, *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 11(4), p. 15 (<https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2003.11658505>).

### **Nature of the Study**

The current study used a quantitative methodology with a correlational design using post-positivist knowledge. Because *positivism* is the belief that all knowledge is verifiable, post-positivism proposes to predict and explain the role of variables (Holtz & Odağ, 2020). The study required collecting data from Black African migrants residing in

a large U.S. city and using a self-administered close-ended questionnaire. I analyzed data by downloading responses using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) Version 28 application. The study involved examining relationships between the independent (PELP) and dependent variable (ELS) when studying Black African migrants in the U.S. Conducting a quantitative study requires testing theories, relating variables to research questions and hypotheses, and addressing validity and reliability (Bonett & Wright, 2015; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015).

### **Research Methodology**

Using a quantitative methodology is beneficial when testing theories, such as Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory. The quantitative method is also beneficial in data collection, generalization of findings, study replication, and answering research questions and hypotheses. Quantitative methodology is used when the variables assume numeric values, which is not the case with the qualitative approach. Hoffman (2015) used the expectancy theory of motivation to predict the effects of valence on academic achievement ( $R^2 = .66, p < .05$ ). When expectancy increases, valence accounts for 66% of the variance in academic achievement. Therefore, the quantitative methodology was appropriate when testing theories, such as Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation. Alston et al. (2017) defined the expectancy theory of motivation as a belief that performance leads to increased rewards when a person tries on a particular project. Therefore, the quantitative methodology also effectively tested Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory in the present study.

The quantitative methodology was also appropriate for the present study because of relating variables to the research questions and hypotheses. Social science quantitative studies involve standards for validity and reliability, as Lindh (2015) stated that analyzing validity involves determining how well a tool measured what it was designed to measure. The reliability of instruments was measured regarding consistency for measuring the same phenomenon among different populations. Deanes (2015) argued that an acceptable level of reliability for using an instrument was a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of  $\alpha \geq .70$ . Steinhoff (2016) determined the reliability of the NBLSA was  $\alpha = .80$ , indicating an acceptable standard of instrument reliability. Therefore, the current study used the validity and reliability of instruments, such as the Needs Assessment Questionnaire (NAQ), AELLSE scale, and CSSS.

The qualitative and mixed methods were inappropriate when conducting the current study. Researchers using the qualitative approach apply philosophical assumptions such as constructivism, advocacy, and participatory knowledge claim best suited for educational and learning studies (Ross-Norris, 2017). Other practices include using face-to-face and semi-structured interviews, open-ended questions, bringing personal values to the study, concentrating on a single phenomenon, and collaborating with participants (Cone, 2014; Morris, 2014; Ross-Norris, 2017). The current quantitative study did not require using any of these practices; therefore, the methodology was not applicable. A mixed-method approach is a combination of both quantitative and

qualitative approaches; therefore, it was inappropriate because the variables were non-numerical in a qualitative methodology.

### **Research Design**

The quantitative methodology includes three designs: correlational, quasi-experimental, and true experimental design (Bensch, 2017; Miller, 2016). The correlational design is appropriate when examining relationships among study variables (P. M. Robinson, 2017). Auzinger-Hotzel (2017) compared information and communication technologies and citizenship norms (autonomy, social order, or participation;  $N = 320$ ) and showed several relationships among variables, such as a predictive relationship between information and communication technologies use and citizenship norms when controlling for solidarity ( $p < .05$ ). Using a correlational design for understanding the relationship between acculturation factors and ELS for Black African migrants in the United States was appropriate for the present study. The sample for this study was from churches in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas, where Black African migrants gathered for worship.

The quasi-experimental and true experimental designs were not beneficial when conducting the present study. Though both designs are similar, using a true experimental design requires randomly assigning participants to groups (Connelly et al., 2013). Experimental designs are beneficial when testing the effectiveness of an intervention (Arthur & Hardy, 2014). Therefore, quasi-experimental and true experimental designs were not beneficial for conducting the present study. Therefore, conducting a quantitative

correlational study was appropriate for studying attitudes and opinions of Black African migrants about ELS after migrating to the United States. Using practices available via the quantitative methodology and the correlational design was suitable for conducting this present study.

### **Definitions of Terms**

*Acculturation:* Acculturation is a set of transformations African migrants underwent from their original to American culture. Agbemenu (2016) described acculturation as cultural and psychological changes a minority population experiences when interacting with a dominant culture in a majority population. For example, people adopt cultural differences in eating habits that differ from those of their original home. Oppedal and Idsoe (2015) described acculturation as a developmental method in which multicultural societies gain needed abilities and create feelings of belonging to the majority culture.

*African Americans:* African Americans are American nationals of African descent referred to as Black Americans or Afro-Americans. Newton and Jones (2016) described African Americans as having specific physical attributes and cultural identities. Physical attributes of African Americans include short or long curly hair, dark-colored eyes, and dark skin tones (Uzogara et al., 2014). Some African Americans have light skin tones because of interactions with other races, such as Whites, Asians, and Native American Indians (Commodore, 2013; Monk, 2014). For this study, African Americans referred to

Americans born and living in the United States who were not children of Black African migrants.

*Africans:* Africans are people born in Africa or descendants of the continent of Africa. Africans include different races, such as Blacks, Whites, Arabs, and mixed-race individuals. Africans predominantly have dark skin and are Black (Gutto, 2013). The continent includes diverse races made up of different tribes with many different languages. For this study, the term did not include people who were Arab or mixed races living on the African continent.

*American nationals:* American nationals are people born and living in the United States who are not migrants, even though some migrants attained U.S. citizenship via naturalization. People born in U.S. territories, such as Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, are American nationals (Internal Revenue Service, 2017). American nationals also include persons born abroad to U.S. nationals where one parent is a U.S. citizen. Those born to unknown parents or who moved to the United States before the age of 5 years are U.S. citizens and nationals (Wexler, 2008). Such nationals include persons described as U.S. citizens or nationals born in a foreign country, have been permanent residents for at least 5 years, and have undergone the process of naturalization or citizenship. Plascencia (2015) described American nationals as noncitizen nationals who are between citizens and aliens and have no right to vote. Even though all U.S. citizens are nationals, not all nationals are citizens (Tan, 2016).

*Assimilation:* Assimilation involves using English, working from 9 to 5, watching movies, and eating food, like Americans in the United States. The practices include behaviors involving a host community's language, beliefs, and traditions (Habecker, 2017). Assimilation also includes understanding information and ideas about the ways host communities live their lives (Ballarino & Panichella, 2015; Obisesan et al., 2017). Verdier and Zenou (2017) asserted that different assimilating forms included economic, educational, and social. For example, migrants can be assimilated by behaving or attempting to behave similarly to the citizens of a host country (Chang, 2015).

*Black African migrants:* For this study, Black African migrants referred to people of the Black race who migrated from English-speaking countries in Sub-Saharan Africa to the United States. People who migrate mostly from Sub-Saharan African nations voluntarily or out of necessity, such as refugees, travel to other countries, such as the United States (Germain, 2014). Sub-Saharan African countries include Northwest African countries from Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Chad, Sudan, and Eritrea Northeast of Africa, going down to countries Southern African continent. Black African migrants have mostly dark skin, curly hair, and varying facial features and speak different African languages (Adedoyin et al., 2016; Toselli et al., 2016). These migrants have cultures involving traditional African dances, songs, and folktales (Gonye & Moyo, 2015).

*Economic life satisfaction:* ELS is the fulfillment of economic life goals that include the needs of life assessment of the ability to achieve future aspirations. The overall assessment of one's QoL in economics and the need to stay alive is measured over



a particular period (Vroome & Hooghe, 2014) using social indicators such as education, job, health, wealth, neighborhood, and finances (Benjamin et al., 2014). Schutz et al. (2013) indicated that some people with high QoL experience higher levels of satisfaction with life and lower levels of depression. People who desire to harm themselves experience low socioeconomic satisfaction; therefore, they are less happy.

*Length of stay:* LoS is the length of time migrants reside in the United States as permanent residents or U.S. citizens. The period of residency a person lives in a host country other than that person's country of origin (Ijoma, 2013). Morales et al. (2013) defined LoS as a period of continuous residence of a lawful permanent resident or applicant for citizenship. LoS begins when a legal migrant receives a permanent resident alien or green card, which does not include students entering the United States on a student visa, individuals with work visas, or requiring adjustment of their legal status (Callan & Callan, 2016).

*Perceived English language proficiency:* PELP is the awareness of the ability to speak, read, write, comprehend, and apply the English language properly and solves problems at home or in workplaces (Adil & Muhammad, 2016). A person with strong PELP can use English grammar and comprehend when communicating with others (E. Nelson, 2017). Individuals with strong PELP skills usually complete elementary and high school levels of English language skills training (Casarez, 2014).

*White African migrants:* White African migrants are individuals of European descent born in Sub-Saharan Africa who migrated to the United States. Timcke (2010)

described White African migrants as Euro-Africans living in the diaspora, such as in the United States or United Kingdom, who bring with them habits and customs taught by their parents, teachers, or friends. White African migrants typically have straight hair with varying hair colors (dark or brown), blue eyes, and straight and slender noses, much like typical Europeans. For this study, White African migrants referred to individuals of European descent born in Sub-Saharan Africa who migrated to the United States.

### **Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations**

#### **Assumptions**

Several assumptions governed the present study. The first assumption was that participants sufficiently understood the English language to participate in the study. The second assumption was that participants lived in the United States for at least 1 year. The third assumption was that participants responded truthfully to questionnaires.

#### **Limitations**

The present study required addressing several limitations that could have affected the study's outcomes. The first limitation was that some participants might have experienced difficulties with their English skills because they used other common languages instead of English at home or in their tribal communities. Limited ELP among some Black Africans might have adversely affected their understanding correctly the survey questions, which might have resulted in inappropriate responses.

The second limitation was using a convenience sampling method for data collection. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method when

participants are not easily accessible such as Black African migrants. Gilliland et al. (2015) argued that convenience sampling might result in a non-normal distribution when the sample size is small. When the distribution is abnormal, it renders the study's results from the population (Black African migrants) from which the sample is drawn may be unattainable. The normal distribution can be achieved by using a large sample size. The larger the sample size, the more normal the distribution becomes (Singh et al., 2013). The results of a study from normal-distributed data are possible when generalizing the results from the sample to the population (Black African migrants) where the sample is drawn.

A third limitation of the convenience sampling method was the possibility of a low participation rate. Scott (2013) suggested that participation rates could be difficult, especially when there was a single site for data collection. Increasing participation requires using multiple data collection sites (Suhonen et al., 2015). Because data collection for this study was online, the survey link time frame was extended to provide additional time for more participants. Furthermore, sufficient personal resources, such as finances, were available for using more data collection sites and any extra time required to finish.

### **Delimitations**

This study included participants who were Black African migrants from Sub-Saharan African countries and former British colonies and used the English language as their official language. Participants were at least 18 or older and were Black African migrants residing in the United States. The participants were members of U.S.-based

African associations who were initially born or raised in Sub-Saharan African countries but resided in the United States for 1 year or more. These parameters were used to understand better the ELS phenomenon among Black African migrants.

### **Scope of the Study**

This study did not include Black African migrants from countries who did not use English as the country's official language. Black African migrants from Portuguese, French, Spanish, and Arab-speaking African countries were omitted. The study also did not include Euro-Africans, Arabs, Indians, or any other ethnic group that lived on the continent of Africa but migrated to the United States.

Furthermore, the study did not include Black Africans on temporary visas or families that were not permanent residents in the United States. The participants for this study did not include Black African migrants residing in the United States for less than 1 year or participants under 18. Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory was used by applying the upper level of needs (ME and self-actualization needs). The lower level of needs (physiological, safety, love, and belonging needs) was excluded from the study.

### **Significance of the Study**

The study results were significant in addressing the ELS of Black African migrants in the United States based on PELP. Understanding the ELS of Black African migrants is beneficial because Black Africans migrating to the United States are paid disproportionately lower wages than White African migrants who migrate to the United

States. According to Bideshi and Kposowa (2012), income correlates with ELS because low-paying jobs displaced people to live in stricken poverty.

Limited research is available on the relationship between PELP and ELS for Black African migrants. Filling the gap in the literature is possible by examining the outcome of the relationship between PELP and other acculturation factors with ELS. Results may involve increasing opportunities, such as language proficiency programs, when attracting new migrants to the United States and helping improve their ability to work, consequently improving the QoL for all migrants, including Black African-born migrants.

The results provide public policymakers awareness regarding factors affecting ELS for immigrants, such as Black Africans. Public policymakers may use these study results when influencing lawmakers to create policies involving awareness of the phenomenon. Policymakers may also promote programs and educational opportunities to improve life satisfaction for migrants starting early in the migration process. Social change occurs when migrants can enjoy better SES, improved language proficiency, and assimilation into U.S. culture. Doing so likely contributes to higher levels of ELS among Black African migrants. Improved ELS indicates that migrants are more likely to remain in the United States and contribute to society by working and producing the next generation of Americans, indicating the importance of this present study.

### **Summary and Transition**

The study's introduction discussed the background, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, theoretical framework, and nature of the study ending with the definition of terms, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and the significance of the study. The background of the study provided a summary of Chapter 2. In the problem statement, the discussion was on the problems facing some Black African migrants as they migrated to the United States.

Researchers indicated that some Black African migrants faced economic discrepancies compared to White African migrants working in the same environment. Furthermore, studies indicated that acculturation factors, showing PELP and ELS of Black African-born migrants now living in the United States, remained problematic. Therefore, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory was used as a foundation of the study to determine if the motivation of needs theory contributed to any relationship between PELP and ELS. This study provided information because studies on this topic had yet to be available. Public policymakers may use the results from this study to increase awareness of migrants with limited income, limited language proficiency, and the desire to return to their countries of origin or migrate to their countries. When the United States experiences emigration, the U.S. labor gap increases. Therefore, creating laws and policies related to attracting migration and improving the long-term satisfaction of migrant workers in the United States reduces the labor gap in the workforce.

The U.S. labor market continues to decline because of low birth rates and increasing baby boomer retirement from the workforce (Chand & Tung, 2014). Approximately 70 million people will leave the workforce by 2030, causing a labor gap to grow. In response to the expected labor shortage, the United States increased the level of migrants from 12.9 million to 23.9 million over 15 years, indicating a 46% increase. Although the United States benefits from the increase in migrant labor, not all migrants benefit equally from the move to the United States. Many Black African migrants experience wage disparities compared to their White African counterparts, and assimilation might be a factor that causes these disparities (Kim, 2013).

Additional studies indicated that Black African migrants' earnings in the U.S. workforce continue to decline compared to their fellow White African counterparts. Nawyn and Park (2019) noted that Black African-born migrant men earned 65% less annually than their White African migrant counterparts for fully educated White-collar jobs when adjusted for mean income. Furthermore, Black African migrant women earned 28% less annually than White African-born migrant women earning annually in adjusted earnings settings (Nawyn & Park, 2019). Such discrepancy in earnings between Black and White African migrants with similar qualifications creates ELS inequality, and racial and socioeconomic assimilation among African migrants is not the same between genders. Even though many migrants remain in the United States for long periods, these migrants did not assimilate in terms of education and wages, which were necessary factors in experiencing happiness.

Chapter 2 begins with a restatement of the problem and purpose statements, followed by the literature search strategy and approaches for finding appropriate literature for the study. The literature review includes a discussion of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory. The hierarchy of needs motivation theory is used to explain the ELS phenomenon of Black African migrants living in the United States. Discussions are centered on two dimensions of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, motivation, esteem, and self-actualization needs. These needs were used for grounding the present study. The discussion on ELS is also based on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory, which includes ME and self-actualization for Black African migrants in the United States.

The economic climate between Black African migrants in the United States and their fellow White African migrants made it essential to address the relationship between motivation (esteem and self-actualization) and ELS. High levels of ELS are an indicator of self-actualization and high levels of QoL. The next focus is on PELP.

People such as migrants feel secure when using English, and language security is a method of communication with the natives and other migrants. English enables some migrants to abandon their native languages as the dominant language. Speaking English in the United States is the primary way of conveying ideas from one person to another. However, using their mother tongue remains a significant obstacle for some migrants, like Black African migrants, who do not use English as their standard forms of



communication. After PELP, the discussion is followed by demographics (age, gender, education level, and LoS) and ELS.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

More than 40 million migrants came to the United States worldwide in 2018 (Budiman, 2020). The United States needs migrant workers to fill the labor market gap because the baby boomer generation is retiring from the U.S. workforce in large numbers beginning in 2020 (Beckhusen et al., 2013). Migrants have helped fill the U.S. labor force, with approximately 2.1 million migrants from Africa to fill the U.S. labor shortage and improve their economic well-being (Anderson, 2017).

Among migrants for whom English is not their first language, ELP is to blame for differences in economic well-being between native English speakers and non-natives (Islam & Parasnis, 2016). However, no studies have shown the effects of PELP among immigrants for whom the English language was the official language. The United States benefits when increasing economic well-being for migrants. These benefits include reducing remigration, increasing the high-skilled labor force, increasing cultural diversity, helping create the next generation of Americans, and increasing American competitive advantages.

Researchers have discussed disparities in economic well-being among some groups, showing that many Black African migrants faced challenges with their financial well-being (Borch & Corra, 2010). However, their White African counterparts thrived in the same environments. For instance, English-speaking White Africans earned \$52,144 per year in the United States, while their Black African counterparts earned about \$28,734, 45% less (Bideshi & Kposowa, 2012; Elo et al., 2015).

Experiencing low economic well-being is a problem when Black African migrants face the same standard of living as their White African counterparts. Low-income migrants often want to return to their home country (Bijwaard & Wahba, 2014) or a third country. The specific problem was the outcome of PELP on Black Africans who migrated to the United States from English-speaking Sub-Saharan Africa.

The study aimed to use Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory to address if there were any significant relationships between PELP and ELS for Black Africans who migrated to the United States from English-speaking African countries. The independent variable in the study was PELP. ELS was the dependent variable. Other study variables included the demographics of age, gender, LoS, and education level.

### **Literature Search Strategy**

The sources of literature for this study varied and included peer-reviewed journal articles and books. The following search engines were used: Google Data Set-Google Scholar, Political Science Complete, APA PsycBOOKS, Academic Search Complete, APA PsycARTICLES, Dissertations & Theses @ Walden University, Walden Research Center, ERIC, APA PsycINFO, Education Source (SAGE), APA PsycEXTRA, Science Direct, ProQuest Central, ProQuest Dissertation & Theses Global, and Academic Premier. These literature sources included information about various aspects of migration, new migrant homes, social and economic status (SES), and acculturation.

Sources were published between 2012 and 2023, though some literature dates back to before 2012. The most common terms used when searching for literature were

*economic life satisfaction (ELS), economic well-being, Black African migrants, perception of English language proficiency, Maslow's hierarchy of needs motivation theory, motivation, physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and belonging needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs, demographics, age, gender, education level, length of stay (LoS) research designs, correlational, quasi-experimental, true-experimental, language proficiency, assimilation, acculturation, immigration, immigrants, baby boomers, low birth rate, convenience sampling, random sampling, probability, multiple linear regression.* A discussion of the motivation theory follows.

### **Maslow's Motivation Theory**

Using theory in research is a standard for social science researchers. Byron and Thatcher (2016) argued that ideas used for supporting the studies contain the basics, such as describing the scopes of the theory, relating scopes to each other, and using the contents to explain the phenomenon addressed in the study, along with conditions governing the theory. The theory was suitable for describing the ELS phenomenon of Black African migrants living in the United States.

In psychology, many researchers have praised Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory for its simplicity. Acevedo (2018) argued that the simplicity and popularity of Maslow's (1943) theory were easily taught or explained naturally. Some researchers have praised Maslow (1943) as the philosopher of science whose impact has influenced many thinkers, such as Alderfer's (2018) existence, relatedness, and growth theory; Herzberg's (1966) motivator-hygiene or two-factor theory; and Drucker (1995),

who called Maslow (1943) “the father of humanistic psychology” (p. 20). Acevedo (2018) added that Maslow (1943) was the most distinguished and frequently cited in psychology textbooks, and the hierarchy of needs motivation theory has “stood the test of time for more than 60 years.” No other theories compare to or replace Maslow’s (1948) in the 20th century.

The theoretical progression of motivation for the innate needs of humans begins with physiological, safety and security, love and belonging, esteem, and self-actualization needs. The hierarchical advancement of motivation for each need indicates that higher needs are only as crucial to humans once lower needs are fulfilled (Acevedo, 2018). The lower level of needs of Maslow’s (1943) development consists of motivation for physiological, safety and security, and love and belonging needs (Akova et al., 2016). At the same time, the upper level of needs involves intrinsic factors: esteem and self-actualization.

This present study focused on this motivation for needs consisting of inherent characteristics that are esteem and self-actualization. Maslow (1943) argued that humans generally desire a high appraisal of themselves, high self-respect, and respect from others. Although esteem needs are related to self-respect, the term is used in professional settings where esteem refers to reputation, prestige, recognition, and importance.

Based on Maslow’s (1943) theory, these attributes relate to esteem, which is respect for others related to professional skills and accomplishments. Maslow (1948) posited that self-actualization was to experience self-fulfillment, which involved

accomplishing one's highest potential. The following section includes two dimensions of Maslow's (1943) motivation of needs theory used to ground this study.

### **Basic Needs Development**

Maslow (1943) began his work by publishing an approach to human motivation using a basic need-gratification theory. Maslow (1943) defined basic needs-gratification as a status of satisfaction of the lower level of needs and the emergence of the following higher levels. For example, when hunger, shelter, and thirst are satisfied, humans look for the next level of needs: safety and security, love and belonging. As Maslow (1948) argued, these needs are part of the lower level of needs. The gratification of lower needs motivates humans to ascend to esteem and self-actualization, which are upper levels of needs further created by Maslow (1943). Maslow (1948) argued that human needs require satisfaction and satiation, which is only possible when higher levels (esteem and self-actualization) of needs are available and when lower levels (physiological, safety and security, and love and belonging needs) are satisfied.

That formed the basis for a hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1948) proposed that human motivation for life had an organization and structure that was almost systematic, though complex. Motivation requires coordinated and orderly procedures that are primarily unitary. In addition, Maslow (1948) argued that organization for such motivational arrangements is hierarchical from lesser to greater priority. More secondary priority needs are based on gratification. For instance, when physiological needs are not

satisfied, it dominates the human mind, thus requiring all capacities into full service to satisfy these needs.

When these needs are fulfilled, the satisfaction of the need becomes obscure and hidden, allowing a higher need to emerge. Needs then occur in order of the hierarchy of needs from lowest to highest needs of humans. Maslow (1948) posited that these complex needs contribute to human happiness, which leads to positive growth. According to Tomlinson et al. (2017), this need for positive change contributes to higher needs of humans, such as esteem and self-actualization. Positive psychology shows a positive correlation between positive core beliefs about self and happiness or life satisfaction. This core belief in happiness linked to ME and self-actualization needs among Black African migrants was the focus of this present study. A discussion of the ME needs is subsequent.

### **Motivation for Esteem Needs**

Motivating workers with monetary rewards was one way to stimulate workers to perform better, but money could not be used to buy everything (Jyothi, 2016). Jyothi (2016) indicated that respect from others was one such attribute that money could not genuinely buy. According to Maslow (1943), a person's reputation, recognition of achievements, and genuine appreciation were the fourth highest needs humans and were motivated toward when lower needs were satisfied (physiological, safety and security, and love and belongingness needs). Jyothi (2016) found that monetary rewards were significant when people were younger (30 years or younger); however, as they grew

above 30, there was a greater desire for recognition of personal achievements than monetary recognition. As Maslow (1943) argued, however, this desire for non-monetary recognition only applies if previous needs have been fulfilled. Feeling self-confident, having a high sense of worth, perceiving solid capabilities, and being very useful and necessary were all associated with esteem needs (Maslow, 1943).

In a quantitative study involving ( $N = 180$ ) participants in a wood processing plant, Faletar et al. (2016) found that in times of hardship and when securing physiological needs became challenging, workers were more interested in securing their jobs than being recognized for their skills. Maslow (1943) argued that humans could focus on different levels of needs when there were life changes. Short (2016) found that increasing employee esteem through workplace recognition positively affected well-being and QoL at work. Short added that improving employee esteem needs through recognition was influential as a reward system, promoting influence on a company's values and organizational success. Short (2016) further argued that increasing employee esteem through organizational recognition was more effective than tangible rewards, such as money or other valuable items, because the recognition diminished once the monetary compensation was spent.

When organizations provided high esteem recognition to employees, this recognition and esteem-improving attributes were long-lasting and far-reaching, contributing to organizational success by reducing employee turnover. As Maslow (1943) posited, these feelings of satisfaction and high esteem led to improved self-confidence, a



strong sense of worth, and perceived usefulness to the organization. Maslow (1943) added that thwarting esteem needs produced adverse outcomes and made workers feel inferior, weak, and helpless. Personal self-esteem was then reduced, giving way to feelings of discouragement and neurotic trends.

### **Effects of Lack of Esteem**

Several studies posited the benefits of esteem through rewards and recognition related to well-being. Langove and Isha (2017) demonstrated that rewards and recognition were motivational tools that maximized employees' psychological well-being in the workplace. The results of that study indicated that organizations that could have implemented tools for boosting esteem among workers were in jeopardy of driving down respect among workers, leading to low commitment, productivity, and a high turnover. Ackerman (1997) was among the scholars who purported the effects of human well-being and economic growth.

The central argument was that when humans experienced moderate to high levels of economic growth, this factor indicated human well-being. The inverse was also true. A lack of economic growth was also associated with low well-being levels linked to poor esteem. The arguments indicated that if people like Black African migrants needed to succeed economically in the United States, these migrants needed to experience increased well-being through factors such as esteem. Kovac (2016) proposed that motivation for respect arose from a human need, which motivated people to satisfy that need. Later

discussions focus on how esteem affected ELS among people. Next are discussions on self-actualization.

### **Self-Actualization**

A process where people became goal-focused with activities that energized, specific, and sustained was what Ryan (2012) referred to as having a psychological perspective called motivation. Ryan argued that for people to be motivated, there had to be thoughts, beliefs, and emotions underlying the behavior. This argument underscored Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory that suggested an interaction between people's self-efficacy and behaviors, influencing their achievements.

These behaviors included activities that led people to achieve their highest potential, but only if they believed they could. This belief was what Maslow (1948) promoted in a paradigm of self-actualization and self-transcendence. Maslow (1948) argued that self-actualization was an innate belief and that, given a chance, people could accomplish lofty life goals. This belief is intrinsic and usually unchanging, which is available to everyone.

According to Goldstein (1995), self-actualization was a series of various actions directed toward goals, but these actions only occurred within the capacity of the individual, which was a necessary prerequisite. Goldstein postulated that people tended to self-actualize, which required some innate characteristics for action based on capabilities. That was where Maslow (1948) derived arguments that high order of need only became important when lower levels were realized.

### **Motivation for Self-Actualization**

Goldstein (1995) argued that different needs governed people at other times in life; however, the order of the need condition depended on the individual's living conditions. Similar to Maslow (1948), Goldstein (1995) initially argued that if humans experienced a state of hunger for long periods, people would be forced to relieve this condition before there was any focus on self-actualizing activities. Goldstein posited that what people called drives toward accomplishing lofty goals were tendencies that aligned with capacities and capabilities. Because environmental conditions also governed these capacities and capabilities, Goldstein opted for the term needs rather than drive. MSA represents emotional and spiritual fulfillment and the desire to complete remote possibilities (Tripathi, 2018).

Maslow (1948) argued that self-actualization needs were active and that although these needs got satisfied, people often experienced restlessness because self-fulfillment was somewhat abstract. Only some people's needs were of a high and lofty nature. Maslow (1948) expressed that self-actualization could be as simple as being a good mother, whereas for others, being a good mother was just a normal part of life. Maslow (1948) recapped that self-actualization was challenging. Finding people 100% satisfied with their life was an anomaly, making self-actualization illusive. Further discussions focus on self-actualization and ELS. Following are discussions on ME needs and self-actualization needs among people.

### **Esteem and Self-Actualization**

Although Maslow (1943) associated esteem needs with attention and self-confidence, Petty (2014) argued that esteem needs were also necessary to achieve goals and be recognized by peers. Although achieving personal goals increased one's esteem, this did not indicate that a person realized their highest potential. Maslow (1948) argued that a desire to reach one's fullest potential was a desire for self-fulfillment, which Maslow (1948) described as a human's highest order of needs. Xuzhou et al. (2018) argued that living out one's true calling was a subjective perception. Xuzhou et al. explained that personal achievement (esteem) was linked to satisfaction in psychology and organizational behavior. The link between esteem needs and self-actualization needs seemed clear. Accomplishing esteem goals (personal achievements) were building blocks to self-actualization (reaching one's fullest potential; Goldstein, 1995; Maslow, 1948; Xuzhou et al., 2018). As Maslow (1948) pointed out, esteem must be fulfilled before the next higher order of needs (self-actualization) can be accomplished.

Scales et al. (2016) argued a link between personal achievement and well-being or happiness. Well-being is measured as life satisfaction related to a positive outlook, a sense of purpose, and personal growth. These arguments indicated that esteem or personal achievement was related to personal happiness, albeit on a level that was not linked to finality. Scales et al. argued that people still needed to develop a sense of mastery and inner control through self-efficacy measures to achieve these goals. Scales et al. posited that because humans possessed or could develop skills for successfully

negotiating their environment, it was necessary to develop competencies for accomplishing personal achievements and being recognized for them. These arguments demonstrated that if people wanted to experience esteem, they must first develop the requisite skills and competencies necessary to be regarded with respect by peers and counterparts.

*Esteem* is a phenomenon people experience from external recognition that creates inner self-confidence and self-appreciation (Maslow, 1943). In contrast, Maslow (1943) added that self-actualization is an internal satisfaction linked to personal happiness and well-being. The difference between achieving esteem and self-actualization is that esteem might last a lifetime based on the respect of others for specific accomplishments, while self-actualization may be temporary. Maslow (1943) indicated that when people often experienced high levels of achievement, representing their fullest potential, these feelings of contentment were short-lived as discontent and restlessness developed. Further, the need for more achievements was linked to a phenomenon called transcendence.

*Transcendence* represents a striving for perfection that can never be achieved (Hoppe et al., 2017). In comparison, though of a high magnitude, self-actualization is linked to goals we could achieve. Transcendental goals seem self-defeating in that a person may never achieve them because reaching a state of perfection is elusive.

Following is the discussion on the ELS, the dependent variable for the current study.

### **Economic Life Satisfaction**

Being happy and satisfied with life is of paramount importance to a more significant number of humans on Earth (Maddux, 2018). Reshma and Manjula (2016) argued that life satisfaction research comprises two paradigms, satisfaction with life from a global perspective and satisfaction with life from a domain-specific perspective. Reshma and Manjula argued that global life satisfaction was centered on an overall evaluation of a person's life involving all aspects. The sample study was drawn from middle adults aged 40 to 55. The domain-specific life satisfaction concerns specific areas of a person's life, such as educational attainment, work, health, finance, and family. This study's focus on life satisfaction was domain-specific economic satisfaction, also known as SES, for Black African migrants now living in the United States.

SES is significantly linked to well-being because of its effects on numerous areas of a person's life (Reshma & Manjula, 2016). For instance, people who have experienced low levels of SES have the lowest levels of job satisfaction, personal development, children development, and couple relationship happiness. Reshma and Manjula (2016) added that people with low levels of SES experienced physical illness, psychological disturbances, and disorders compared to people with higher levels of SES.

Researchers found that satisfaction with life from different domains, such as economics was important to migrants because of its connection to migrants' emotional and cognitive assessments of their lives. Huang et al. (2019) argued that migrants faced more financial difficulties and uncertainties for their future. Huang et al. argued that

many migrants considered returning to their original homes, hoping their first-generation children would enjoy better economic success in their host country. In situations where migrants remained financially vulnerable, there was also a sense of powerlessness, a loss of control, and a divide in social connections, which resulted in negative life satisfaction.

Subjective well-being and objective economic indicators of QoL were well-established (Voronin et al., 2017). Higher income was associated with increased subjective well-being; however, Voronin et al. (2017) showed that increasing income did not increase overall well-being after satisfying physiological needs. These arguments indicated that an increase in migrant economic satisfaction was responsible for an increase in their overall life satisfaction. This relationship between economic and overall life satisfaction was evident in the short term; however, the relationship diminished over time.

When increasing SES, migrants needed to assimilate into their new country for the host country to utilize the skills and resources migrants brought adequately with them. According to Angelini et al. (2015), migrants brought experiences from their home countries, such as labor skills and human capital, that was useful for generating considerable economic returns for a host country. Assimilating meant being able to interact with natives by having language proficiency. Angelini et al. argued that having strong language proficiency had a significant and positive effect on the life satisfaction of migrants, even when controlled for socioeconomic conditions and employment statuses.

Researchers showed a direct link between cultural assimilation and subjective well-being, such as ELS (Angelini et al., 2015). Therefore, there are important implications for public policymakers when creating successful immigration policies, which might account for better cultural assimilation between migrants and their host countries. These policies are needed to address migrant exposure to language courses, create programs to reduce ethnic enclaves, and foster better integration between natives and migrants. These types of policies have been shown to increase migrants' subjective well-being around the world, which reduces migrants' desire to return to their home country.

### **Esteem Needs and Economic Life Satisfaction**

Researchers argued that it was important for people to have social connections. According to Eck et al. (2017), this importance was because of the physical and psychological positive benefits and association with well-being. This connection reduced ostracism (intentional or unintentional) and increased meaningful existence, a sense of belonging, and control. Belonging to and being recognized by peers was known as esteem, a basic human need. When unsatisfied, adverse outcomes prevailed in health, they influenced satisfaction with life (Maslow, 1943).

Recent changes in the economic climate in the United States made paying attention to the relationship between esteem needs and SES necessary (Diemer et al. (2013). Although this study focused on ELS, terms like SES or socioeconomic position were used interchangeably with ELS, which represented similar but distinct aspects of a



complex and multifaceted phenomenon. For this study, using the approach that migrant's ELS was similar to SES proposed by Diemer et al. (2013) was necessary. The approach was that ELS indicated control over resources, income level, occupational prestige, and security for Black African migrants. This approach supported Eck et al.'s (2017) argument that poor ELS was related to a lack of control and ostracism in society, which led to migrants' desire for repatriation.

Basit et al. (2015) argued that poor language skills were associated with low educational achievement and low SES. People with high SES attained high levels of language proficiency among the same group. Education level is a significant component of SES (Basit et al., 2015). Neely and Dumas (2016) argued that language proficiency was a source of esteem and prestige, which was also linked to SES. These arguments suggested that migrants were likely to improve their self-perceptions and esteem by increasing language proficiency levels when migrating to the United States.

Reshma and Manjula (2016) also argued that SES was significantly related to well-being because of its effects on numerous areas of a person's life. According to McCoy et al. (2013), a dominant ideology exists in the United States around status differences: people with high SES enjoy better opportunities than those of low economic status. This meritocracy theory indicated a positive relationship between self-esteem and self-perception among natives so that people who experienced higher levels of SES also believed they would experience higher levels of opportunities. In contrast, people with low SES did not experience the same high opportunities.

Many researchers have not associated the need for esteem or a person's self-perception with SES (Manstead, 2018). The focus of the research was related to demographics, sexual orientation, and nationality with SES. Manstead (2018) suggested that focusing on increasing esteem needs was paramount among migrants in an era with high social and economic inequalities. Migrants often experienced low SES, and their sense of esteem was contained in a migrant enclave rather than society.

The low level of SES among Black African migrants was affected not only by language proficiency but also by being Black and foreign (Kolawole, 2017). These factors rendered Black African migrants invisible and vulnerable to public policies or a lack thereof, harming their Blackness and their immigrant status as a foreigner to the United States. Manstead (2018) found that many people agreed that economic inequality was unacceptable and would support public policies that helped reduce such inequalities. A scarcity of studies on the effects of ME needs on ELS among Black African migrants persists, making a need for this study paramount. Conducting this study would help to fill a gap in the literature by understanding the effects of ME (e.g., increased language proficiency) on ELS, also known as SES, among Black African migrants. Following is a discussion on MSA in ESL among Black African migrants.

### **Self-Actualization and Economic Life Satisfaction**

ELS indicates self-actualization and high QoL. Browning et al. (2019) argued that self-actualization was a trait or predictor in people with transcendent strength when assessing people's QoL. Sirgy (1986) argued that human developmental theories

indicated that people progressed in life by satisfying needs hierarchically from the lowest need to the highest need, which was self-fulfillment. Sirgy also argued that people's QoL represented this hierarchy from low orders, including physiological needs to higher orders, like esteem. According to Maslow (1943), researchers found self-actualization existed because it was the highest order of human needs in this higher order of QoL.

Researchers have commonly argued about QoL in their studies that included many dimensions, such as health, economics, and the future, to name a few. Sirgy (1986) argued that people in developed societies, such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Europe, were concerned with satisfying higher-order QoL needs, such as esteem and self-actualization. That type of QoL is opposed to less-developed societies (developing nations), which focus on a lower order of physiological and safety needs (Sirgy, 1986). These arguments indicated that the higher the fulfillment of needs, the greater the QoL in each society. For Black African migrants living in the United States, this indicated that if they were not motivated toward accomplishing higher levels of QoL, such as economic goals, these migrants focused on stabilizing lower-order needs, such as physiological needs.

Maslow (1943) argued that self-actualization was a state of gratification that emerged when more current needs, such as basic human needs, were satisfied. Maslow (1943) indicated that people with self-actualizing needs no longer required esteem as a priority because what already satisfied humans no longer motivated them except in moments of a speedily passing hazard. Based on Maslow (1943, 1948), Black African

migrants were less likely to focus on esteem and self-actualizing needs if they were constantly focused on satisfying prepotent lower-level needs.

Tripathi (2018) described the QoL, including economic well-being, transitory moods, and other all-encompassing valuation of life. According to Tripathi, experiencing self-actualization was not just about experiencing a high QoL but seeing life beyond physical events. The scope of accomplishment might be beyond the present opportunities people saw and perceived, being mindful that present experiences were minuscule and insignificant compared to what was attainable in people's lives.

In summary, researchers agreed that esteem and self-actualizing needs were related to people's motivation for accomplishing goals related to the higher order of needs. The currently available literature lacked studies about the effects of acculturating factors that affected QoL for Black African migrants living in the United States, thus creating a need for this study. However, the literature showed the need for public policy that motivated people like migrants toward accomplishing higher human needs.

Appropriate public policies would help motivate migrants by reducing the necessity of focusing on lower levels of needs and increasing motivation for achieving higher levels of needs, such as esteem and self-actualizing needs. The literature indicated that these African migrants currently experienced lower wages than their White counterparts, thus suggesting their focus on low human needs. The situation also suggested that if these Black African migrants living in the United States were also

experiencing low levels of ELS, their QoL was also low even while living in a developed nation like the United States. The following discussion is on PELP.

### **Perception of English Language Proficiency**

Speaking English in the United States is a primary way of conveying ideas from one person to another. Therefore, the acquisition and use of the English language remain a principal burden for those who need to gain these skills. Braçaj (2018) posited that the use of migrants' mother tongue languages remained a significant obstacle for migrants like Black African migrants, who did not use English as their standard forms of communication. That was so because people who did not use English as their primary languages tended to rely on native language structures that hindered their proper use of the English language.

Braçaj (2018) described the term mother tongue as representing the language a person learned from their country of origin that was the dominant language. Learning and using this mother tongue language was natural to infants and children born in a country that grew up using the language. These researchers argued that English language learners might have a sense of security when using English that would enable migrants to completely abandon their use of their native language as the dominant language of their lives. These arguments indicated that using the mother tongue language encouraged the development of migrant enclaves found in host countries. Acculturation to a host country from a social and cognitive perspective requires that migrants must immerse themselves

in the English language to increase communications with natives and for improving their human development.

Global migration increased cultural and linguistic diversity. Maneze et al. (2016) found that by 2050, countries like the United States would experience an increase in minorities, thus making the minority population as high as 54%. In Canada, estimates were that by 2031, the non-White population would increase to one-third of the population. Because of global migration and the use of the English language among migrants, there were disparities among these groups in their ability to communicate proficiently in English. For instance, Maneze et al. reported that younger migrants perceived better English language abilities than older migrants. Older migrants lacked confidence when using English and often felt ashamed or embarrassed when communicating in English.

Maneze et al. (2016) found that older migrants feared their pronunciation and use of English words were wrong, making them feel deficient and foolish. Maneze et al. identified a lack of education as a dominant factor in language fluency abilities, and these low education levels were associated with low economic status. As Scarinci and Howell (2018) argued, English was recognized as the standard and universal language in the global business world. As such, migrants and their children had to increase English proficiency as part of their emerging economic, business, and survival skills in countries like the United States.

The proficient use of English was paramount in the integration process of all migrants coming to English-speaking countries, such as the United States. Liebau and Schacht (2016) argued that language acquisition was affected by the LoS in a host country by the age of migrants. Study results showed that younger migrants learned their host language quickly compared to older migrants. Younger migrants also reached native status use of language in a relatively short time, whereas older migrants struggled for most of their lives.

According to Liebau and Schacht (2016), there was a difference between older migrants and their education levels. Migrants (young and old) with higher levels of education had an easier time acquiring new language skills compared to older migrants with low levels of education. Younger migrants with low education levels eventually developed much slower than their counterparts. The results indicated that migrants with higher levels of education had more vigorous language development and, therefore, higher levels of economic status. The results also imputed that migrants who wanted to immerse in vocational professions were better equipped for success because of their abilities to absorb skills using the English language.

### **Perception of English Language Proficiency and Economic Life Satisfaction**

Many studies outlined the effects of SES on language proficiency, indicating that people with middle to high levels of SES generally experienced higher levels of language proficiency. There remained a shortage in the literature on the effects of PELP on SES for African migrants, where English was the official language but not the common language

used in the migrant's home country. African migrants were unique because although English was used in many countries as the official language, many did not use English in their daily discourse (Ariani & Ghafournia, 2016). Speaking English was associated with being elite and of high social status, and most African migrants emerged from a low to moderate SES in Africa. This situation indicated that not using English daily made these migrants' English proficiency substandard when arriving in the United States.

These results also suggested a problem for African migrants coming to the United States. Researchers agreed that most migrants did not have high levels of SES when entering a host country and that language proficiency affected the social and economic well-being of migrants (Güven & Islam, 2015). Pratomo et al. (2016) found that when income increased to a moderately high level, language proficiency increased six-fold compared to when income was low. These results demonstrated the effects of PELP on ELS.

When people earned more, they were motivated to improve their language skills. Conversely, when people's wages were low, they were not motivated to improve their language proficiency and remained in a low SES state. The inverse was also true. Migrants with low language proficiency often earned low wages and experienced low SES (Pratomo et al., 2016). These arguments indicated that when increasing motivation for improving language proficiency, a source of esteem must develop from sources other than SES. Therefore, conducting this study was crucial for filling a gap in the literature on the effects of PELP and their ELS now and in the future. The study results could



provide information on the effects of being in an English-language-speaking country for a given period (LoS) and how this factor affected the development of PELP among African migrants.

### **Length of Stay**

Researchers agreed that international migration has proliferated in the last decades and argued that many individuals live outside of their country of birth (Syse et al., 2018). Belgiojoso (2016) argued that many people believed that when migrants left their birth country, this was a permanent move. The time migrants remained in their host countries was controversial, but Belgiojoso found that migrants often wanted to return to their home countries. Belgiojoso further theorized that this desire to return home was a circular system known as the transnationalism theory that migrants activated. The transnationalism theory indicates that before migrants returned to their home countries, they visit and send remittances. The ease of contact through the cheap globalization of communication technologies allows seamless links between migrants in host countries with people in the migrant's home country. These transnationalism activities create both countries' dual allegiances, identities, and attachments (Belgiojoso, 2016).

Syse et al. (2018) argued that there were other reasons why migrants returned to their home country. Syse et al. found that the age and health conditions of some migrants were determining factors for returning to their home country. The researchers discovered that migrants wanted to die in their home country and thus returned when they became ill, old, or both. Migrants had several options when assessing the end of their migrations.

Belgiojoso (2016) posited that the options migrants had included remaining in their host countries, returning to their birth countries, living between both their home countries and their host country, or moving to another country altogether. Migrants would decide to return to their home countries based on their success or failure in economics and societal amalgamations. Belgiojoso believed that migrants decided to return to their home countries if they had accomplished goals and gathered enough wealth and human capital for reinvesting back home.

### **Length of Stay and Economic Life Satisfaction**

Scholars discussed why some migrants were willing to return to their native countries while others remained in their host countries. Nzima and Moyo (2017) argued that these decisions were made based on the success or failure of migrants in their host country. Nzima and Moyo proposed that failure came not from a monetary perspective and integrative perspective. If migrants did not integrate, this failure caused and triggered a return to their native homes or some other country. The failure was also determined by how long migrants remained in a host country where integration was unsuccessful.

Nzima and Moyo (2017) used a neo-classical economic theory proposed by Todaro (1969), indicating that the product of failed migration experiences was return migration. In other words, this theory indicates that the only reason for migrant return was a migrant failure. Nzima and Moyo (2017) found that the decision to migrate in the first place was a household decision to meet specified objectives; thus, returning decisions were aligned with similar family discussions. However, Nzima and Moyo did

not discuss discussed the length of time migrants needed to accomplish their migration goals.

The length of time migrants spent in a host country was decided on by many variables. According to Carrión-Flores (2018), most literature on migration pointed out that the difference between wages in the host country and wages in their countries of origin was the most critical consideration for LoS. Carrión-Flores argued that migrants preferred to spend as short a period away from home while earning as much as possible in their host countries. As such, the age of migrants upon entry to the host country, expected wages, and the ability to remit targeted levels to their home country were determinants of how long they remained in a host country.

Paparusso and Ambrosetti (2017) argued that there were ways to hinder migrants' desire to return to their countries of origin. These researchers suggested that home ownership in a host country had an assimilating effect and gave migrants a sense of settlement. As such, migrants who owned a home did not have a great desire to return to their home countries. Paparusso and Ambrosetti also argued that migrants who entered a host country at younger ages assimilated faster and had better opportunities for language proficiency, educational attainment, employment, and SES than migrants who migrated at older ages. Paparusso and Ambrosetti argued that young migrants were less likely to return to their countries of birth because they were likely to experience cultural, emotional, and behavioral problems upon returning.

Paparusso and Ambrosetti (2017) also found that when people experienced a high level of economic well-being in a host country, it was a deterring factor for returning. However, those researchers argued that achieving political, economic, and social status was attractive for migrants, which influenced their decisions to remain in the United States. Paparusso and Ambrosetti studied a group of migrants living in Europe with moderate to high levels of well-being. The researchers found that only 17% of all migrants had a desire to return. The rest of the sample either did not want to return (50%) or never considered returning; furthermore, 58% of those who wanted to return were males (Paparusso & Ambrosetti, 2017).

Researchers were interested in understanding whether specific characteristics were associated with migrants who returned to their native country. Aron (2018) argued similarly to other researchers (Nzima & Moyo, 2017; Paparusso & Ambrosetti, 2017) that migrants with roots in a host country were likelier to stay there for a long time. Aron (2018) defined roots as being married to a native, becoming a citizen, and buying a home. Aron found no precise determination of the effects of education and SES on the LoS migrants who remained in a country.

Aron (2018) also used Todaro's (1970) neo-classical theory that failing at integration in a host country led to re-emigration and reduced the LoS in a host country. Aron (2018) suggested that only those who experienced economic adversity were likely to emigrate or migrate to another country. Using the new economics of labor theory proposed by Stark (1999), Aron (2018) argued that socially and economically viable

migrants who were well-integrated returned to their native countries when they accumulated enough wealth.

These arguments indicated no clear distinctions between which migrants remained in a host country and which migrants returned. The literature also suggested that when some migrants became economically vital, socially integrated, and educated, they would likely remain in a host country. Therefore, migrants who remained were those with hopes of employment or were employed and those who had not accumulated enough wealth for remigration but were prosperous and integrated.

### **Gender and Economic Life Satisfaction**

Researchers have focused on well-being or life satisfaction based on gender differences (Başlevent & Kirmanoğlu, 2017); however, there remained a dearth of literature on economic well-being based on gender. Some researchers studied happiness between women who worked and women who were housewives and found no difference in life satisfaction between the group. Başlevent and Kirmanoğlu (2017) found that since the 1970s, when women's well-being or happiness was higher than men's, there was a decrease in women's happiness. Chen (2018) focused on the association between economic well-being and gender; however, the relationship between gender and happiness drew relatively less attention, especially among migrants, such as Chinese, Indian, and Black African migrants, from large populations.

Chen (2018) made a case for relative happiness among women in this study and found that for natives, women's happiness increased with higher levels of education. For

migrant females, their well-being increased with employment alone. The finding indicated that although native females derived happiness from increased education, migrants' happiness came from the ability to contribute and survive through employment; native females were not concerned about survival.

Meisenberg and Woodley (2015) also found that women's overall life satisfaction and subjective well-being declined. These researchers argued that women had higher subjective well-being than men up until the middle 1980s, but they experienced a lower level of satisfaction since then. The researchers also found that when females developed their skills and education, it led to greater gender equality in prosperous developed societies. However, a problem was found that although females experienced gender equality and higher statuses, the situation did not necessarily result in higher life satisfaction than males.

Increased subjective economic well-being appears to be associated with protracted levels of schooling (Başlevent & Kirmanoğlu, 2017; Chen, 2018; Meisenberg & Woodley, 2015). Therefore, gender equality is not significantly associated with overall well-being, except when females experience higher levels of education that increase their well-being above males. In a study about gender equality, Davis and Otto (2016) focused on gender performances between Blacks and Whites, between Black women and Whites, and the significantly low performances of Black males compared to Black women and whites. However, there were no studies on the differences in academic achievements based on gender among African migrants.

The advancement of women from a socioeconomic position over the last generation was without doubt. According to Park et al. (2015), women in the United States soared in educational attainment and made significant occupational gains. Women in the United States outperformed their male counterparts in earning college degrees as early as 1990. In this regard, Park et al. discussed how much these migrants usually measured economic advancement of migrants were able to close the racial and ethnic gaps with whites or other U.S.-born natives. These measures were for monolithic migrant group performances rather than gender differences in attainment. Park et al. suggested that further studies were needed to understand economic differences among migrant groups based on gender and how these differences affected life satisfaction in a host country.

### **Education Level and Economic Life Satisfaction**

The positive benefits of earning an education are accepted as one of the essential investments humans make in themselves. Nikolaev (2018) argued that investing in human capital provided many outcomes, such as developing tangible and intangible skills. Another benefit was that people who earned more education tended to live longer lives because they also lived healthier lives. Nikolaev argued that besides developing a higher quality of interpersonal relationships, people who earned higher education were more likely to have more excellent employment opportunities, earned higher income, and tended not to be a burden on public systems.

Jongbloed and Pullman (2016) argued that researchers and policymakers agreed that education promoted equality in societies. Society and individuals benefit when people increased their education levels because of positive outcomes from educational attainment, including prosperity, intelligence, and economic productivity. Jongbloed and Pullman indicated that increasing education among Black African-born migrants to the United States was likely to positively affect migrants and societies where these migrants resided.

In 2018, Nikolaev discussed that higher education was associated with people reaching their highest goals and enjoying personal well-being and happiness (eudemonism). Nikolaev found that people with higher education (esteem or self-actualization) experienced greater satisfaction in life domains such as finances, employment, housing, and communities. The results indicated that when people did not earn higher levels of education (bachelor's degree or graduate degree), they had lower levels of well-being and satisfaction with life. The results also suggested that people who earned higher education enjoyed more rewarding and meaningful lives; however, such attainments meant less time was available to enjoy some aspects of their lives.

Carlson and McChesney (2015) argued that increasing education levels were related to increased salaries. The argument demonstrated that the inverse was also true, so people with lower income levels also had lower education levels. Carlson and McChesney also found that a bachelor's degree was the minimum level required to keep



pace with inflation. Therefore, people could only maintain a standard of living with the salaries earned from a bachelor's degree.

Güven and Islam (2015) found that immigrants were affected by their level of language proficiency. Güven and Islam argued that those with higher levels of language proficiency also communicated better and had higher productivity levels. Güven and Islam found that in the United States, people with low ELP experienced low wages, lived in undesirable locations, had marital issues, experienced fertility issues, and their children's education level suffered. The researchers added that migrants with low ELP also had low education levels.

Language proficiency is a bridge to achieving higher education (Jang & Brutt-Griffler, 2019). Hamzah et al. (2015) found that among college students, those with limited use of the English language experienced more significant difficulties than those proficient in English. The results showed a positive relationship between ELP and academic achievements. These arguments indicated that increasing ELP was the first step to ME and self-actualization, thereby achieving ELS among migrants with low English proficiency. The next section includes information about public policy effects.

### **Public Policy Effects on Migrants**

Researchers argued that a good relationship between people and their government might be the aim when creating sound public policy. According to Yaghi and Al-Jenaibi (2018), public policy may improve people's happiness by forming policies for good governance driven by moral values (principles, duty, and virtues) and public interest

(professional, personal, organizational, institutional, and legal). These values and public interest may improve relationships between people and their governments. Yaghi and Al-Jenaibi argued that the declining satisfaction of people with their governments' administration often led to severe consequences in society and the economy. As such, good governance was a tool that could realigned citizens to their public administration through accountability, responsibility, fairness, equality, and responsiveness.

Migrants want to feel welcomed when seeking a home in a host country. Kogan et al. (2018) argued that countries like the United States were more likely to benefit by creating public policies aimed at creating a welcoming immigrant reception by offering a welcoming social setting, extending public goods provision, and creating a climate of economic equality (e.g., work opportunities and fair wages). Although economic satisfaction in a host country depended on the immigrant's SES, Kogan et al. found that when economic inequality was high, migrants' satisfaction with their lives was significantly reduced. Those migrants who had high levels of skills and education, in most cases, did not perceive the economic inequality of a host country as an obstacle to migrating or their life satisfaction.

Migrants often decide to travel to host countries to improve their quality-of-life satisfaction. Kogan et al. (2018) argued that people worldwide, including Africa, used migration to improve subjective well-being and QoL goals. The efficacy of these strategies remained ambiguous as researchers such as Kogan et al. questioned whether people such as Black African migrants moving to host countries such as the United States

ever experienced significant and long-lasting life satisfaction. Migrants' life satisfaction depends on various factors, including being legally in the host country and having a residency permit or citizenship. These assimilation processes help integrate migrants into the host community, which leads to finding jobs crucial to migrants' life satisfaction (Ambrosetti & Paparusso, 2021). Migrating to the United States for many migrants was about integrating into the culture of Americanism that was beyond political leanings and was directly related to the level of inclusiveness or exclusiveness that existed (Doucerain et al., 2018).

Many migrants struggle with being identified as American even after obtaining citizenship, which often leads to a feeling of unwelcomeness. However, a type of American identity was associated with policies that were unwelcoming, which were often hostile toward foreigners like Black African Migrants. Doucerain et al. (2018) found that many White Americans believed that American identity was exclusive and part of an inner group that included people of European descent and others sharing similar cultural characteristics with the first settlers in America. These researchers found that people with a superordinate American identity supported fewer welcoming policies toward less specific subgroups (by ethnicity and religion), such as Black African Migrants and non-Christian migrants.

Leaders of U.S. public policies aimed to make many migrants feel underprivileged and seemed to be a catalyst for discrimination against migrants if these migrants were not a specific race or of a similar culture to Europeans. Doucerain et al.

(2018) argued that being an American was based on people's racial, ethnic, and religious identities. Leaders used such policies to determine identities and classify the more privileged people, which was associated with variance in attitudes and behavioral intentions of Caucasian Americans. These attitudes and behaviors were often associated with public policies that were institutionally intolerant toward people who did not fit into the American identity, thus making socioeconomic inequalities a natural progression.

The contribution of migrants to the world economy remains undisputed. Larotta (2019) argued that migrants brought skills and productivity and increased the economic life of many countries. However, the benefits of non-cognitive skills, such as high motivation, drive, and initiative, significantly contributed to the U.S. economy. Larotta argued that immigrants played a significant role in the U.S. economic output because of the different skills they brought and that a high percentage of these migrants were likely to be working and were concentrated in the prime working ages of the workforce.

Larotta (2019) suggested that migrants to the United States often found that although they brought skills, many were unrecognized; thus, these migrants were often treated as unskilled workers. Paradoxically, Larotta found that for all their efforts, migrant workers continued to suffer low ELS in the United States and were still not welcomed in the United States. These public policies were grounded in President Trump's punitive public policies that encouraged U.S. immigration raids all over the United States. These actions were not just about enforcing laws but a deliberate attempt at increasing an anti-immigrant atmosphere in the hopes of self-deportation for some.

According to Larotta (2019), many legal immigrants experienced this anti-immigrant sentiment, which consistently generated fear, anxiety, and confusion. Many were afraid of losing their jobs and traveling outside the United States for fear of being denied re-entry. Attending English learning classes became hazardous for many legal and illegal immigrants because of their vulnerability to abuse. As such, many remained illiterate, affecting their ability to get better-paying jobs, access healthcare, become self-sufficient, and access information and knowledge.

Public policy is vital when designing laws to improve well-being through open and trusting relationships between people and government (Yaghi & Al-Jenaibi, 2018). Yaghi and Al-Jenaibi (2018) indicated that improper migrant policies weakened relationships between host governments and new migrants, which led to social distrust and economic instability for migrants. Public policy effects on migrants, such as Black Africans, might generate feelings of being welcomed; create access to public goods; and provide a sense of economic equality, accountability, and fairness among migrants (Yaghi & Al-Jenaibi, 2018).

The United States benefits when public policies helped improve the lives of migrants; unfortunately, many Black African migrants experience economic inequality and low life satisfaction (Kogan et al., 2018). These migrant workers continued suffering from low levels of ELS and anti-migrant sentiment (Larotta, 2019), which was likely to create the feeling of returning to their home or a third country. Any return of migrant workers to their homelands would add to the workforce gap created by retiring baby

boomers and low U.S. birthrates; therefore, this gap in the workforce may lead to adverse effects on the U.S. economy.

### **Literature Review Summary**

This literature review examined past studies related to the variables in this study. The first section of this review was on the theory used in the study. Maslow's (1943) motivation of human needs theory was foundational in this study for determining the hierarchy of needs that motivated humans. Many researchers have used this theory to understand various aspects of human life. Researchers agreed that two levels of human needs existed based on Maslow's (1943) theory—lower-level and upper-level human needs. The lower level of human needs included motivation for physiological needs, safety and security needs, and love and belonging needs. The upper level of needs was related to esteem needs and self-actualization needs. The focus of the present research was on the effects of upper-level needs.

Maslow (1943) posited that humans are only motivated to address upper needs when lower levels are already satisfied. Akova et al. (2016) suggested that the lower level of needs was related to extrinsic environmental factors, while upper levels were related to intrinsic psychological factors. Therefore, focusing on inherent characteristics such as reputation, recognition, prestige, self-fulfillment, and accomplishing the highest levels of one's potential was significant.

Discussions focusing on esteem needs revealed that the need to experience esteem was affected by age. Jyothi (2016) found that age 30 was a dividing point for ME needs.

The study found that when people were 30 years or younger, there were low levels of ME needs. People younger than 30 were motivated by cash rather than intrinsic factors. Above 30 years of age, people started to develop a greater sense of need for inherent satisfaction, making focusing on cashless essential. The new focus entailed earning a reputation, being known for specific expertise, and increasing self-respect. There was a caveat to such motivation at any age.

Faletar et al. (2016) found that when people experienced difficulties satisfying physiological needs, their motivation was redirected to fulfilling them. Perhaps, this was one reason people under 30 years of age had a greater focus on physiological needs, and that was because people under 30 were usually struggling to develop their careers. In contrast, people older than 30 began to settle into a career path. Baglama and Uzunboylu (2017) found a relationship between age and career decision-making. Baglama and Uzunboylu argued that as people got above 30, their self-efficacy about their career decisions and choices increased, bringing a level of security in their lives by settling into career paths different from people under 30.

Organizations often use ME to increase organizational morale by recognizing employees publicly, increasing organizational success, and reducing turnover. Maslow (1943) argued that neglecting the admiration of workers, in some cases, resulted in adverse outcomes and promoted weakness and inferiority among these workers. As Short (2016) argued, there were significant benefits to increasing esteem than just giving workers more money. Researchers like Ackerman (1997) found that other groups, such as

migrants, would also benefit from increased esteem because of its association with increased well-being. A lack of ME indicated low well-being, which could result in re-emigration among these migrants.

Discussions on self-actualization were also provided because this dimension was an upper level of Maslow's (1943) motivation of human needs theory. Ryan (2012) referred to a process where people were motivated and energized to focus on achievements. That upper-level need was only possible if all lower needs were met, and humans could still accomplish these lofty goals. Goldstein (1934) coined the term self-actualization, but Maslow (1943) further defined self-actualization as a person acting on an innate drive to accomplish goals for psychological fulfillment and suggested that self-actualization was independent of people's input.

Although the ME and self-actualization were of the upper level of human desires, these needs served different human requirements. Esteem needs are about recognition, and self-actualization needs are exhausting human potential. Researchers agreed that although people often achieved their most significant potential, this potential was short-lived because what was once a surmountable task for achievement often became standard. Esteem and self-actualizing needs often complement each other because, as Xuzhou et al. (2018) argued, recognition for personal achievement (esteem) was a building block for self-actualization.

The chapter also contained discussions on ELS by focusing on domain-specific life satisfaction, such as economic satisfaction, also known as SES. Researchers argued



that many benefits of being happy were of paramount interest to humans. Although happiness was derived from both a global perspective and a domain or personal perspective, this unique perspective was the concern of this study. Research showed that economic satisfaction was critical to migrants because of the financial difficulties often encountered in host countries. Assimilation into a host country was important for increasing interactions with natives and improving language proficiency. It was also suggested that host countries embrace migrants because many migrants brought skills with them that generated significant economic returns for host countries.

Researchers found a relationship between ME and SES factors such as ELS in the current literature. This link demonstrated that increased ELS provided increased control over income, occupational respect, and psychological needs security for migrants. Low abilities for increasing ELS also meant that migrants habitually experienced ostracism, which regularly resulted in migrants' repatriation, a problem for the United States. Researchers also found that U.S. societies practiced meritocracy, so opportunities were only available to those with high levels of SES. These studies indicated that the practice of meritocracy was a practical reason for ensuring that migrants increased their assimilation skills, such as PELP, thereby increasing their ELS.

Further study assessments showed that ELS related to self-actualization and increased SES. Self-fulfilling and transcendent behavior was only demonstrated after satisfying lower levels of needs, including esteem needs. Maslow (1943) pointed out that when self-actualization was achieved, there was no longer ME as a priority. The present

research was clear, and researchers agreed that esteem and self-actualization needs were closely aligned with life accomplishments. Many researchers focused on these motivational attributes for nationals of the United States; however, they did not provide evidence of the effects of higher-order motivational needs for Black African-born migrants living in the United States.

Research on ELP was prolific on the benefits of language skills when living in the United States. Researchers found that when migrants did not assimilate by learning the language of the host country, they remained in enclaves and migrant cocoons, which often stifled their growth, particularly in SES development. Some researchers indicated that some migrants feared using English because they perceived they had poor language skills. Older migrants tended to speak their native languages within their circles because they feared poor pronunciation and enunciation of English words. Education level was dominant in migrants' desire and ability to use English. Regardless of age, language use and assimilation increased when education level increased. The inverse was also true, which was an important factor because most Black African migrants coming to the United States were involved in vocational professions that required immersing in the English language to be successful.

Although the population for this study was Black African migrants to the United States from countries where English was the official language, these migrants did not use English regularly. Therefore, they needed better English language skills after U.S. arrival. Researchers found that using English was associated with people from higher levels of

SES and the elite in these migrant countries. Because most migrants were from lower classes of SES on the African continent, their ELP was weak. Most studies on ELP were on populations where English was not the official language; however, there were no available studies on migrants from countries where English was the official language but not commonly used among the population.

Many researchers found that migrating to the United States only sometimes meant a permanent move. There was a deep desire among migrants to return to their homeland, which was associated with the transnationalism theory. Global communication, ease of travel, and seamless links between host and migrant countries made repatriating easier for migrants. Researchers believed that the decision to repatriate was primarily based on SES in the host country. Returning home indicated that migrants had experienced esteem and self-actualizing goals, saved enough wealth, and developed a capacity to return to their home country without suffering economic disruptions.

The time migrants spent in a host country was unclear, as many variables contributed to the event. Factors such as the age of the migrant, SES, ability to remit to country of origin, wages, and more were contributors to the migrant LoS in a host country. A researcher found that the higher the SES, the lower the desire to repatriate. Social strength, economic integration, and higher education were all barriers to remigration, a benefit to the United States.

The current literature remains sparse on economic well-being based on gender, particularly for migrants. Researchers found that when women were employed, that

factor was responsible for increased happiness. However, researchers did not consider whether employment was responsible for economic satisfaction, particularly among Black African migrants. Education was responsible for increased happiness in some studies, but for migrant women, just being employed alone provided higher levels of well-being. Many of these studies found that overall, well-being among women declined after the 1980s, even though in countries like the United States, women experienced a surge in inequality and status. More studies were needed to understand whether economic differences among migrant groups based on gender contributed to life satisfaction or well-being.

Finally, education was a common theme among researchers for improving all areas of life satisfaction. Developing practical and soft skills contributed to developing all citizens, whether migrant or native. People who were more educated tended to live longer and enjoy better health. Equality in societies was mitigated by increasing education among citizens and was a significant contributor to building wealth and economic productivity. Conclusively, increasing education among Black African migrants promised a positive effect on increasing economic well-being, esteem needs, and self-actualization. Researchers clarified that increasing language proficiency was a catalyst for achieving such higher education. Such studies among Black African migrants had not been forthcoming, thus creating a need for this study.

Following is a preview of Chapter 3. The discussion begins by reintroducing the purpose statement and detailed discussions of the research design and rationale for the

procedure. This discussion starts with presenting the variables for the study, a discussion of how the design was appropriate for conducting the study, including contributions forthcoming to advance knowledge in the public policy discipline. Following were arguments on the study's methodology, where population and sample size definitions were discussed.

Sampling procedures were planned for the study, along with a power analysis outlining the parameters for the sample size calculation using the G\*power analysis application. Recruitment procedures were discussed, including plans for providing informed consent. No pilot study was planned for this study, but procedures for collecting primary data were discussed. There were discussions on the instrumentation used to observe participants and the operationalization of each variable in the study. A comprehensive data analysis plan was presented with the intended statistical test, followed by discussions on threats to validity and the ethical procedures governing this study. The research method is the following.

### Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of the present study was to test the effects of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory in terms of esteem and self-actualization on any significant relationship found between PELP and ELS for Black Africans who migrated to the United States from English-speaking African countries. The independent variable in the study was PELP, and ELS was the dependent variable. Other study variables were age, gender, education level, and LoS. Limited available studies addressed the effects of PELP on ELS for Black Africans immigrating to the United States. The lack of studies was a gap in the literature, indicating the need for the present study.

This chapter includes a discussion of the research design and rationale for using a correlational design. The discussions also include variables, the research design, research questions, and reasons for selecting the design. Furthermore, the discussion includes the target population, sampling procedures, strategies for determining sample size, participation procedures, and data collection strategies for the study. Finally, the survey instrument called Black African Migrants Satisfaction Questionnaire (BAMSQ) is explained to show its use for collecting data.

#### **Research Design and Rationale**

##### **Research Design**

The research design for this study was correlational. The correlational design determines whether a relationship exists between two or more variables through tests and prediction (Ingham-Broomfield, 2014). A correlational design is used to test, predict, or

understand relationships. This study aimed to understand whether PELP affected ELS for Black African migrants in the United States. The correlational design also established the direction and strength of relationships between PELP and ELS.

### **Rationale**

The reason for using the correlational design was to examine whether the independent variable (PELP) and covariates (motivation, age, gender, LoS, and U.S. education level) affected the dependent variable (ELS; Alatawi, 2017). The correlational design does not involve the manipulation of variables as compared to experimental designs. Quasi-experimental and true-experimental designs manipulate the variables for cause-effect relationships (Zellmer-Bruh et al., 2016). The selected design was appropriate when determining PELP and ELS, covariates (age, gender, LoS, and education level), and motivation among Black African migrants. Responding to the gap in the literature will advance knowledge among researchers and public policymakers.

### **Methodology**

#### **Population**

The population for this study was Black African migrants who migrated to the United States from English-speaking countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. These participants were from English-speaking African countries where English was the official language but not the prevalent language spoken within these countries. Black African migrants from English-speaking African countries living in the United States speak English but use languages from their countries of origin when communicating among themselves

(Ogunsiji et al., 2017). Anderson (2017) stated that approximately 2.1 million African migrants lived in the United States in 2015, making them an important population to study.

Table 1 lists countries where Black African migrants used English as their official language but not the commonly spoken language. The table includes names of each Sub-Saharan country in Africa where the target population emigrated from and former colonial powers for each country. Furthermore, each country was provided with the Human Development Index (HDI) level. The HDI was each country's rank in human capital development, as measured according to education accomplishments, life expectancy or overall health, and standard of living (Ayasreh, 2016). Table 1 indicates the HDI for each country's ranking in growth. Ranks of HDI are low (0.3–0.599 underdeveloped), medium (0.600–0.699 developing), high (0.700–0.799 developed), and very high HDI (0.800 + very highly developed).



**Table 1***Countries in Africa Where English is the Official Language*

Country	Former colonial power	HDI Index	Languages spoken	Language most used
Botswana	United Kingdom	.698 (M)	20	Setswana (Alimi, 2016)
Cameroon	France	.518 (L)	284	Creole (Bokamba, 1995)
Eritrea	Italy	.420 (L)	12	Tigrinya (Arnone, 2014)
Gambia	United Kingdom	.452 (L)	12	Mandinka (Andrason, 2014)
Ghana	United Kingdom	.579 (M)	77	Akan (Guerini, 2014)
Kenya	United Kingdom	.560 (M)	41	Swahili (Owuor, 2015)
Lesotho	United Kingdom	.497 (L)	4	Sesotho (Ekanjume-Ilongo, 2015)
Liberia	United States	.427 (L)	23	Manding
Malawi	United Kingdom	.472 (L)	8	Chichewa (Shin et al., 2015)
Mauritius	United Kingdom	.777 (H)	5	Mauritian Creole (Owodally, 2014)
Nigeria	United Kingdom	.527 (L)	450	Yoruba (Bokamba, 1995)
Namibia	Germany	.640 (M)	18	Oshiwambo (Krishnamurthy & Aston, 2015).
Rwanda	Belgium	.498 (L)	3	Kinyarwanda (Gafaranga et al., 2013)
Seychelles	United Kingdom	.772 (H)	2	Seychelles Creole (Simeon, 2015)
Sierra Leone	United Kingdom	.420 (L)	25	Krio (Glennerster et al., 2013)
Somalia	United Kingdom	Does not exist	9	Somali (Ilmi, 2016)
South Africa	United Kingdom	.666 (M)	39	Zulu (Heugh, 2016)
South Sudan	United Kingdom/Sudan	.418 (L)	60	Dinka (Zouhir, 2015)
Swaziland	United Kingdom	.541 (L)	6	Swazi (Ekanjume-Ilongo, 2015)
Tanzania	United Kingdom	.531 (L)	96	Bantu Swahili (Harrison et al., 2016)
Uganda	United Kingdom	.493 (L)	40	Swahili (Lucas et al., 2014)
Zambia	United Kingdom	.579 (M)	72	Bemba (Matafwali & Bus, 2013; Nchindila, 2010)
Zimbabwe	United Kingdom	.516 (L)	22	Shona/ChiShona (Mufanechiya & Mufanechiya, 2015)

*Note.* L = Low HDI, M = Medium HDI, H = High HDI, VH = Very High HDI.

## **Sampling and Sampling Procedures**

The sampling strategy for this study was the convenience sampling strategy. Convenience sampling is a nonprobability sampling strategy used when a target population is not readily accessible (Siregar, 2017). Therefore, participants self-identify and choose participation in the study at their convenience. Other nonprobability sampling methods include snowball sampling for participants with specific traits. Quota sampling, impractical for this study, is used when the time for collecting data is limited. Etikan et al. (2016) argued that using a convenience sampling method was advantageous when other methods, such as snowball or quota sampling, were not applicable; probability sampling methods, such as simple random sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling, were not applicable in this study.

In addition, Clark et al. (2014) argued that convenience sampling is advantageous when recruiting large numbers of participants, is quick, and is affordable. A disadvantage of convenience sampling is that study results may need to accurately reflect the (bell-curve shape) normal distribution when the study results are generalized to the population (Black African migrants) where the sample is drawn. Therefore, drawing a large sample size is necessary to reduce such biases.

Random sampling is another method used in social science (Gorard, 2014). Random sampling, also called probability sampling, is a method in which every member of the population has an equal chance of being in the sample (Setia, 2016). Random sampling is used when participants are readily accessible. I used the random sampling

method by generating a list of participants using technology applications, such as Microsoft Excel or a random numbers table (see Collins, 2017). In such cases, participants are chosen randomly and invited to participate (Duff, 2016). The random sampling method is advantageous because choosing participants allows for normal distribution of attitudes within the sample, thereby reducing bias (Kandola et al., 2014). The disadvantage of using a random sampling strategy is the difficulties of accessing unique groups, such as Black African migrants living in the United States.

A convenience sampling strategy was beneficial when conducting the current study because of a need for direct access to the target population—drawing a sample from the target population using a convenience sampling method by making invitations to the target population through migrant’s church sites. Announcements of the study were made on a church bulletin and at the online Black African migrants’ community-related sites for a link to the online survey. At their convenience, participants self-identified to meet the study requirements.

### **Sampling Frame**

The sampling frame is the source where the sample is drawn (Keita & Gennari, 2014). This study's sampling frame was from churches in the U.S. Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas area where Black African migrants' communities gathered for worship. These churches consisted predominantly of Black African migrants from English-speaking countries in Africa, and services were held primarily in English. The sampling frame excluded migrants who entered the United States as children because these participants

would have participated in U.S. schools and been exposed to English language learning. The sampling frame also excluded other African Migrants from countries where English was not the official language and those who entered the United States as students, visitors, or those who were on temporary visits to the area.

### **Sample Size**

The sample size is the minimum number of participants required for the study ( $N = 98$ ; Anthoine et al., 2014). The sample size was calculated by conducting a sample size analysis using the G\*Power application, version 3.1, created by Faul et al. (2009). P. M. Robinson (2017) also used G\*power software to determine the minimum sample size when conducting a study of homeless African American women. This study's sample size analysis was based on conducting linear multiple regression tests. The protocols for the analysis were a medium effect size, an alpha level of 0.05, a minimum power level of 0.80, and an estimate of six predictors (Wrentz-Hudson, 2015). Using a minimum sample size was necessary for the accuracy of the study's results. Two significant factors affected a study's accuracy: the sample size and the power level (Marano, 2016).

Power is the ability of a statistical test to detect a relationship in a population (M. S. Nelson et al., 2015). The test results were only deemed accurate when the sample size had a sufficiently high-power level. When the sample size or power level is too small, this condition results in Type I or II errors. A Type I error is the rejection of the is failing to reject the null hypothesis when it was false. The power level was expressed as  $1 - \beta$ . The minimum power level of .80 in social science was acceptable (Johnson & Shoulders,

2017). Researchers used the standard alpha level as an acceptable probability type I error. In social science research, alpha level ranges from 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1, which were the probabilities of Type I error occurring in a test. However, the standard alpha level used by most researchers was alpha level  $\alpha = .05$  (Johnson & Shoulders, 2017).

One of the factors that influenced the sample size was the effect size (Liu, 2015). An effect size was a unit that measures the strength of an effect. The rejection of the null hypothesis was determined by calculating the effect size to find the strength of that rejection. Determining the effect of PELP on the ELS of the study participants was a measure of finding that relationship.

### **Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection**

#### **Recruitment**

The recruitment of the target population involved contacting the churches where Black African migrants were mostly affiliated. Contacting the church leadership was asking permission to conduct the online study with Black African migrant communities as the sample frame affiliated with the church. After receiving approval to conduct the study, the first step was to ask a church leader to announce the study by directing parishioners to the church bulletin for a link to the online survey (see Appendix B).

#### **Participation**

Upon reaching the landing page of the survey, participants were to read the invitation letter and determine if they were qualified to participate in the study (see Appendix C). Once participants determined their eligibility for the study, they were to

read the second page of the survey, which was the informed consent form. The informed consent allowed participants to provide expressed consent of participation by reading the document and checking a box at the end of the page, thereby providing informed consent (see Appendix E).

### **Data Collection**

After providing informed consent, participants were to read the instructions for taking the survey on the study's first page. Then participants were to complete the survey by providing one answer to each question. At the end of the survey, a note was used to thank participants for their participation, marking the end. Participants then closed their browsers, indicating the end of their involvement in the study. Collecting surveys occurred by downloading all surveys for analysis. Once enough completed surveys to meet the minimum sample size were collected, the study ended. No one had access to the survey when the survey was marked closed (see Appendix G).

Questionnaires were downloaded for analysis using IBM SPSS software. SPSS, or Statistical Package for Social Sciences, is a programming software used for data analysis. IBM developed this software. The data remained kept secure and confidential. During the survey, participants were free to exit at any time if they felt to do so for personal reasons, as stated in the consent form.

## **Instrumentation and Operationalization of Variables**

### **Instrumentation**

BAMSQ is an instrument used to measure the motivation, PELP, and ELS of Black African migrants living in the United States. The BAMSQ instrument was adapted and developed from other scales by Mikulecky et al. (1996), Marvin-Humann (2008), and Cantril (1965) developed. Mikulecky et al. (1996) developed the AELLSE scale to measure the PELP. Marvin-Humann (2008) developed the NAQ and used it to measure motivation. Maslow (1943) created the hierarchy of needs motivation theory. Cantril (1965) developed the CSSS in 1958 and 1968 and used the scale to measure ELS in the last 5 years and the perceived ELS in the coming 5 years. Therefore, the present study required using the BAMSQ instrument.

The instrument also included demographic questions, such as LoS, age, gender, and educational level. Using an instrument was helpful when measuring attitudes, opinions, and behaviors among a sample or population. As such, the instrument was reliable for taking such measures. An instrument is only reliable when its Cronbach alpha level is between 0.70 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). For the present study, it was necessary to use scales with a reliability level of .80 or higher. Next are discussions on the three scales used in the present study.

### ***Adult and English as a Second Language Literacy Learning Self-Efficacy Scale***

The first scale was the AELLSE scale for measuring PELP. This scale was adapted from the Adult and ESL (English as a Second Language) Literacy Learning Self-

Efficacy Questionnaire developed by Mikulecky et al. (1996). Mikulecky et al. used the single-dimension scale to measure the self-efficacy of adult literacy for ESL people. Mikulecky et al. used the scale to test two groups on adult literacy for ESL learners at a U.S. university. They reported a reliability alpha in the first group (.80) and in the second group (.92).

The AELLSE questionnaire was appropriate when measuring people's perceptions of their ability to participate in discussions in English. The scale was also used to measure people's ability to use English anywhere they went and communicate clearly with other English speakers. The scale was suitable for measuring migrants' perceptions of their abilities in English in new communities that consisted of native and non-native English speakers. The adopted AELLSE scale was a 14-item, 5-point Likert scale type ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Mikulecky et al. (1996) granted permission to use the scale (see Appendix H).

Baleghizadeh and Masoun (2013) adapted AELLSE and used it when assessing Iranian students' ability to learn English as a foreign language. Baleghizadeh and Masoun yielded a reliability level of .86, indicating an acceptable internal consistency. Adapting the Mikulecky et al. (1996) scale for measuring the PELP among Black African migrants living in the United States was appropriate for the present study.

### ***Needs Assessment Questionnaire***

The second scale in this study was the NAQ, which was used for measuring motivation based on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory. Many



researchers developed different versions of scales for measuring human motivation (Heckert et al., 2000; Mardar, 2017). Marvin-Humann (2008) was one such researcher who developed a scale called the NAQ for measuring five areas of human motivation based on Maslow's (1943) theory. This study focused on the motivation for the upper levels of needs: the ME and self-actualization. Marvin-Humann's (2008) scale was used for measuring craving levels of people in substance abuse treatment between those who had basic needs met, as described by Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory, and those who did not have their basic needs met. The reported reliability of Marvin-Humann's (2008) study was .81, and Marvin-Humann granted permission to use the modified scale (Appendix H).

For the present study, using only two subdimensions of the NAQ was necessary when measuring the ME and MSA. The ME subscale was a six-item, 5-point Likert type ranging between 1 (*completely disagree*) to 5 (*completely agree*). The MSA subscale was a five-item, 5-point Likert type ranging between 1 (*completely disagree*) to 5 (*completely agree*). In another study, Heckert et al. (2000) developed and used NAQ when measuring students' achievement at a U.S. university. The study's results yielded reliability between .87 and .91, indicating high reliability. Therefore, using NAQ was appropriate for measuring the ME and MSA needs among Black African migrants living in the United States.

### *Cantril Self-Anchoring Striving Scale*

The third scale was the CSSS. Cantril (1965) developed the CSSS for measuring people's ELS by comparing experience with future expectations. Cantril developed the CSSS at the Institute for International Social Research between 1958 and 1965 (Cantril, 2007). The CSSS consisted of two dimensions. The first dimension measured people's perceived satisfaction with their economic life over the previous 5 years. The second dimension measured people's perceived economic life for 5 years. Cantril (2007) used the term self-anchoring so that people could use their own words to describe their ideal economic situation compared to their perceived worst economic situation. Cantril believed measuring people's past economic experience was necessary. Then, comparing people's perceived future economic life determined economic progress, thereby preparing for future economic experiences.

Many researchers have used CSSS for measuring life satisfaction in various disciplines. Molzahn (1989) was one such researcher who used CSSS when measuring the QoL of healthcare workers and patients in a Canadian healthcare facility. The scale had a reliability level of .79 in the study, indicating an acceptable consistency. Palgi et al. (2014) also used CSSS in their study when measuring people's subjective well-being. The reliability was not published. Daffon (2017) argued that according to George and Mallery (2010), internal consistency alpha levels ranging from .7 to .9 indicated an acceptable to excellent level of internal consistency. Internal consistency alpha levels of  $< .7$  indicated a questionable to an unacceptable level of reliability.

The scale measuring past and expected economic performance used a 5-point Likert-type rating ranging from 1 (*severely decreased*) to 5 (*severely increased*). Attempts seeking permission to use CSSS from Roper Center - Cornell University (2018) remained unresponsive. Permission for the scale was obtained by crediting the original author, who died in 1969 (Roper Center, Cornell University, 2018). The ELS variable determined participants' past and perceived future ELS (Porter & Garman, 1993). Therefore, the CSSS was appropriate for measuring the ELS for Black African migrants. Following are discussions on the operationalization of study variables. Next are discussions on the three scales used in the present study.

### **Operationalization of Variables**

Variable operationalization assesses a variable so that a qualitative measure has a quantitative outcome (Okeke, 2016). Measuring variables requires using three measurement levels: nominal, ordinal, or continuous (Marateb et al., 2014). A nominal measure is a measurement that places data into categories, and the information obtained from each category is frequency. For example, fish can be categorized by types, such as salmon, trout, tuna, or red snapper, and the number of fish in each category is called the frequency.

An ordinal measure is the second level of measurement. An ordinal measure is a measurement that places data into categories, and each category is ordered/ranked based on some underlying quantitative value (Kero & Lee, 2015). An example of ordinal data is rating movies by stars. The order of stars is from 1 to 4, where 1 indicates the lowest

quality of ratings, and 4 indicates the highest quality. The frequency is the number of movie-goers who report in each category. The difference between nominal measures and ordinal measures is that in ordinal measures, each category is ranked based on some underlying quantitative value, and nominal categories are not ranked (Awang et al., 2016).

The third level of measurement is a continuous measure. Correll (2015) asserted that continuous data were reported in numerical values. Examples of continuous data are scores on a test, temperature in degrees, or weight in pounds or kilograms. Continuous data provide sources of information, such as measures of central tendency that include the mean, median, and mode (Correll, 2015). A mean indicates the arithmetic average of distribution and is the most used measure of central tendency (Schindler, 2015a). A mean score is reported with a standard deviation, which is a measure used for determining dispersion around a mean (Schindler, 2015b). A mean is vulnerable to outliers, and the median is not.

Hartmann (2016) asserted that 68% of scores fall within 1 standard deviation, 95% fall within 2 standard deviations, and 99.7% fall within 3 standard deviations. Correll (2015) used scores ( $M = 10.11$ ,  $SD = 3.37$ ) when analyzing the years since patients were diagnosed with HIV; for 1 standard deviation, the period since patients were diagnosed with HIV ranged from 6.74 to 13.48 years. Two standard deviations indicated that patients were diagnosed with HIV from 3.37 years ago to 16.85 years ago, and so on (Correll, 2015).

A median is another measure of central tendency. A median statistic is a value that separates low scores from high scores on a distribution (Kutluturkan et al., 2016). For example, a median is used when analyzing the median household income in the United States. An income below the median value indicates values in the low-income category, and an income above the median indicates values in the high income (Houkamau & Sibley, 2017). Excessively high or low values do not influence the median statistic, such as when calculating a mean value; therefore, interpreting a median statistic value is best when extreme values are in a distribution (N. W. Robinson & Bell, 2014).

A mode measures central tendency, the value that most frequently occurs in a distribution (Schindler, 2015a). As an example, Farrell (2018) showed whether people were aware of the human trafficking phenomenon, and the total response was  $N = 100$ , 92 respondents answered yes, and eight answered no. The response to whether people were aware of the human trafficking phenomenon was yes. The following discussion is on this study's variables.

### ***Perception of English Language Proficiency***

The PELP indicates Black African migrants' perceived ability to use English (Adil & Muhammad, 2016). The PELP variable was measured using AELLSE developed by Mikulecky et al. (1996). The AELLSE is a continuous measure on a 14-item 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. A 1 indicates the lowest perceived English language ability level, and a 5 indicates the highest level. A 3 is a middle score indicating neither a low nor high perceived English language ability. Sample questions from the

AELLSE scale included, "I do an excellent job of participating in discussions conducted in English, I feel confident about my ability to speak clearly in English, and I can motivate myself when speaking in English."

When scores on the AELLSE survey were between 1.0 and 2.4, Black African migrants' perception of their ability to speak, write, read, comprehend, and apply the English language efficiently was low. When scores were between 2.5 and 3.5, Black African migrants' perceptions of their ability to use the English language was medium. When scores were between 3.6 and 5.0, this indicated that Black African migrants' perceptions of their ability to use the English language was high.

### ***Motivation***

Motivation is people's desire to accomplish goals (Markus, 2016). The motivation variable consisted of five motivational dimensions. This study used two motivation dimensions: the ME dimension and the MSA dimension. NAQ was developed by Marvin-Humann (2008) and represented a continuous measure used to examine the motivation of Black African migrants living in the United States. Sample questions for NAQ consist of questions for ME and MSA.

### ***Esteem Needs***

Esteem is the desire to accomplish goals such as a career or profession and then be respected and admired by peers for a person's accomplishments (McClendon, 2014). The ME dimension is a 6-item measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. A 1 indicates the lowest level of ME, and a 5 indicates the highest level of ME. A 3 is

a middle score indicating neither a low nor a high ME level. Sample questions from the ME dimension included, "I am successful in life, and my peers recognize me for being so, and I often received positive attention or recognition from my peers in my life or on my job."

When scores on the ME dimension were between 1.0 and 2.4, Black African migrants' ME needs were low. With scores between 2.5 and 3.5, Black African migrants' ME needs were neither low nor high. When scores were between 3.6 and 5.0, Black African migrants' ME needs were high. The mean score was determined by calculating the arithmetic average of scores on the ME dimension.

### ***Self-Actualization Needs***

Self-actualization is the desire to achieve one's highest potential and make one's potential a reality (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016). The MSA is a 5-item scale measured on a 5-Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. A 1 indicates the lowest level of MSA, and a 5 indicates the highest level of self-actualization. A 3 is a middle score indicating neither a low-level nor high-level MSA. Sample questions from the MSA dimension included, "My aim is self-knowledge and enlightenment in my life, and I seek and welcome reaching peak experiences."

When scores on the MSA dimension were between 1.0 and 2.4, Black African migrants' MSA needs were low. When scores were between 2.5 and 3.5, Black African migrants' MSA needs were neither low nor high. When scores were between 3.6 and 5.0, Black African migrants' MSA needs were high. The mean score was determined by

calculating the arithmetic average of scores on the MSA dimension. The final NAQ mean score was the arithmetic average taken from the ME and MSA dimensions.

### ***Economic Life Satisfaction***

The ELS was a variable indicating Black African migrants' assessment of one's satisfaction in fulfilling wants and needs determined by the economic freedom and life satisfaction positive relationship (Graafland & Compen, 2015). Cantril (1965, 2007) developed the CSSS between 1958 and 1965, a continuous measure. For this study, two time periods were assessed using the CSSS scale for measuring these periods: the last 5 years and the next 5 years of a migrant's life while living in the United States.

### ***Perceived Economic Life Satisfaction in the Last 5 Years***

This dimension was used for measuring Black African migrants' perceived ELS during the last 5 years. The dimension had 11 items, measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where a 1 indicated the lowest level of ELS, and a 5 indicated the highest level of ELS. A score of three indicated neither a low nor a high ELS level. Sample questions from this scale included the following: (a) "Did my total income severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase in the last 5 years?" (b) "Did my financial assets severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase?" and (c) "Did the ability to meet unexpected expenses severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase?"



Participant scores between 1.0 and 2.4 indicated that Black African migrants perceived ELS was low. When scores were between 2.5 and 3.5, Black African migrants perceived ELS was neither medium. When scores were between 3.6 and 5.0, Black African migrants perceived ELS was high.

***Perceived Economic Life Satisfaction for the Next 5 Years***

This scale measured Black African migrants' perceived ELS in the next 5 years. The scale consisted of eight items measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, where a 1 indicated the lowest level of ELS in the next 5 years and a 5 indicated the highest level of ELS in the next 5 years. A score of 3 indicated neither a low nor a high ELS level. Sample questions included the following: (a) “Do you believe that during the next 5 years, your total amount of income will severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase?” (b) “Do you believe the retirement ‘nest egg’ will severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase?” and (c) “Do you believe the insurance coverage will severely decrease, slightly decrease, no change, slightly increase, or severely increase?”

Mean scores between 1.0 and 2.4 indicated that Black African migrants perceived ELS was low. When scores were between 2.5 and 3.5, Black African migrants perceived ELS was medium. If scores were between 3.6 and 5.0, Black African migrants perceived ELS was high. The final CSSS mean score was the arithmetic average taken over the last 5 years and the next 5 years' dimensions.

## **Demographic Variables**

Four demographic variables are assessed for this study, including age, gender, LoS, and education level. Demographic variables were important in this research study because demographics provided information about the makeup of participants and were particularly important for this study because they are concerned with the working population (James, 2017). The demographic data are for understanding the outcome of acculturation (PELP) on the ELS of that group of migrants living in the United States—another important demographic data for understanding how different attributes of the population might affect the ELS of the population.

### *Age*

The age variable is a continuous variable measured in years and was used to allow self-reporting of the participant's biological age. Age variable provided information on measures of central tendency such as mean age, median age, and mode age of the survey participants. The legal age to participate in this study is 18 years or older; at this age, people are considered adults in the United States. Norrgran (2018) used a similar demographic variable to determine whether there were varying conclusions when studying students' attitudes toward nonmedical prescription stimulants. This study aimed to understand whether age affected the ELS of Black African migrants in the United States. A sample question included, "How old are you?" Respondents were to provide their ages in years based on their last birthdays.

### ***Gender***

The gender variable was categorical for measuring the number of males and females in the study. This study aimed to determine the number of Black African migrant males and females participating. Decoline (2014) used a similar variable to determine whether there were varying conclusions between variables when studying individuals diagnosed with bipolar disorders. Studying gender was important for understanding whether there was a difference between males and females on the effects of ELS. Understanding the effect of ELS between males and females was important for knowing in what ways males and females are the same or they differ. The survey question included, "What is your gender?" Respondents were to state whether they were male or female.

### ***Education***

The education variable is an ordinal variable where the education level was measured using an ordinal scale (Sitton, 2018). Bellows (2014) defined a similar demographic variable, education level, as the years people completed their education. Anchustigui (2016) used a similar demographic variable (education level) to determine whether there were varying conclusions when studying life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and unemployed spouse. Anchustigui categorized educational level as less than high school, high school/GED, some college/no degree, undergraduate degree, and graduate degree.

This study aimed to determine whether the education levels of Black African migrants living in the United States affected the ELS. For this study, the educational levels were ranked from the lowest diploma to the highest. Sample questions included, "What is your highest education completed in the United States?" Participants responded by marking in the squared spaces whether a participant had less than a high school, high school diploma, bachelor's, master's, or doctorate.

### *Length of Stay*

The LoS variable is a continuous variable measured in years migrants lived in the United States other than in the migrants' own home country of origin, such as Black African migrants living in the United States. When participants, such as Black African migrants, responded to the LoS question, they provided the number of years they lived in the United States. These responses are measures of central tendency such as mean LoS in years, medium LoS, and mode LoS. Lopez (2013) used a similar demographic variable to determine whether there were varying conclusions between variables (LoS) when studying the motivation needs of Mexican migrants to the United States. This study aimed to determine whether the LoS affected the ELS of Black African migrants. Sample questions included, "How long have you lived in the United States?" Respondents were to provide the number of years they lived in the United States.

## **Data Analysis Plan**

### **Software Package**

Data analysis required using IBM SPSS Version 28. There were several types of statistical software applications for data analysis in the market. For example, software applications accessible online via the internet and software applications that were purchased directly from warehouses and installed on personal computers for use. SPSS was an approved software that was effective for organizing, maintaining participants' survey responses, and detecting irregularities (Elswick, 2014). Ojih (2016) used the SPSS software when analyzing data for the study on risk factors associated with hypertension of migrants living in the United States. Ojih emphasized that the benefits of using SPSS included analyzing large numeric data sets when conducting quantitative analysis. For this study, the SPSS application was appropriate for analyzing study data.

### **Data Cleaning**

Data Cleaning was the process of screening for missing data on a questionnaire by participants (Bannon, 2015). Participants might have several reasons for leaving blank responses, such as not being willing to answer specific survey questions, leaving answers blank in cases where they did not know the answer, or accidentally missing questions on the survey (Bannon, 2015). In a study, Spineli et al. (2018) also asserted that missing data was caused by various reasons leading the survey participant to withdraw from the study, which created a significant risk of inaccurate data analysis. Therefore, screening for missing data was imperative to minimize the study outcomes' distortion.

Bannon (2015) argued that some essential tools for resolving missing data included assessing the amount of missing data and the pattern of missing data. Bannon suggested that a way for treating missing data was a process called imputation, which was a method of calculating a variable mean score and then replacing the missing data with the variable mean score. Imputation was the most used method for missing data (K. J. Lee & Simpson, 2014). If participants responded to 85% or more of all survey questions, utilizing the imputation method was appropriate. If participants responded to less than 85% of all survey questions on the survey, their participation was withdrawn from the study because of the high level of incompleteness (Dong & Peng, 2013). For this study, using the imputation process was appropriate when cleaning data for missing values from the survey questionnaires for Black African migrants living in the United States.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

RQ1: Did motivation predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_01$ : Motivation did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_{a1}$ : Motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ2: Did PELP predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_02$ : PELP did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_{a2}$ : PELP did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ3: Did demographics predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_03$ : Demographics did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_{a3}$ : Demographics did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

### **Analysis Plan**

The data analysis plan is provided for each research question and hypothesis. Using descriptive and inferential statistics in data analysis was for interpreting data results for the study (Halfens & Meijers, 2013). The descriptive statistical analysis shows summary responses for all variables. Inferential statistics, such as multiple regression analysis, analyze sample data and respond to research questions and hypotheses, allowing inferences about the population based on sample results (Bruning, 2016). Next is a discussion on descriptive statistics.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

For straightforward interpretation, descriptive statistics summarize data in various forms, such as charts, graphs, and tables (Bruning, 2016). Descriptive statistics provide an analysis of the summary of variables. These variables were nominal (gender), ordinal (education level), and continuous measures (PELP, motivation, LoS, age, and ELS) for the study.

### **Nominal Measures**

Gender is a nominal variable consisting of two categories that were male and female (Marateb et al., 2014). Categorical variables were responses of frequency for each gender. Reporting frequency analysis is necessary because the levels of males and females represented the population of Black African migrants living in the United States.

### **Ordinal Measures**

The education variable was an ordinal measure for measuring the educational level of participants. Education level in the United States was measured using categories, such as less than high school, high school, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctorate. The education variable consisted of categories ranked from the lowest level to the highest level of education (Steele, 2018). Reporting frequency analysis indicated the number of Black African migrants living in the United States with different educational levels (Brix et al., 2018).

### **Continuous Measures**

There were several continuous measures assessed in this study. These continuous variables were PELP, motivation, age, LoS, and ELS. Descriptive statistics analysis for these measures was reported based on central tendencies, such as mean, median, mode, standard deviations, and range. Reporting a mean for the sample was important because the sample mean provided estimates about the population means (Jankowski & Flannelly, 2015).

For example, the mean indicated the average score of people's attitudes toward the PELP. A standard deviation was reported with the mean score, a standard measure below and above the mean score on a distribution. The importance of reporting the standard deviation was to show the amount of variation around the mean responses (Schindler, 2015a). Schindler (2015b) stated that 68% of the scores fell within 1 standard deviation, 95% within 2 standard deviations, and 99.7% within 3 standard deviations.



That indicated that 1 standard deviation included approximately 68% of responses from Black African migrants living in the United States on all continuous variables.

The median was another measure of central tendency assessed in this study. The median value was a middle point of the responses that could create categories such as low and high (Kutluturkan et al., 2016). For example, the median was used when separating participants with low PELP scores and high PELP scores. Another vital benefit of reporting a median value was that outliers did not affect the median (N. W. Robinson & Bell, 2014). The mode was another measure of central tendency assessed in this study. Reporting the mode results was essential when showing participants' survey responses most frequently occurring scores (Schindler, 2015a). For example, if 30 years of age was the mode age, it indicated that more people in the group were 30 years old than any other age. Reporting a mode value was necessary for determining the most prevalent attitude or behavior reported within variables.

The final measure discussed was the range. Schindler (2015b) described the range as one of the measures for determining the width of variability on a distribution. The range was determined by finding the difference between a distribution's highest and lowest scores. An example was determining the range of scores on the LoS variable between the shortest and most prolonged time participants lived in the United States. The result would provide the period participants lived in the United States. Descriptive analyses on continuous, nominal, and ordinal measures for all variables helped determine the Black African sample's general attitudes and behaviors of Black African migrants.

Therefore, this analysis would provide the capabilities when making inferences about the population of Black African migrants living in the United States.

Gender was a nominal variable comprising two male and female categories (Marateb et al., 2014). Categorical variables were responses of frequency for each gender. Reporting frequency analysis was necessary because the levels of males and females represented the population of Black African migrants living in the United States.

### **Multiple Regression Analysis**

Using multiple linear regression was to analyze whether PELP, motivation, age, gender, LoS, and education level significantly predicted a value on the ELS of Black African migrants living in the United States. Multiple linear regression analysis was by using predictor variables for predicting values on the dependent variable (Tawadrous, 2014). The results of multiple regression analysis would therefore be used for assessing the hypothesis and answering the research question (Bruning, 2016). An equation ( $Y = a + b_1x + b_2x + \dots + b_6x$ ) was used to predict the effects of predictor variables on the outcome variable.

The equation used in the model for predicting the ELS variable was  $Y = a + b_1(\text{PELP}) + b_2(\text{motivation}) + b_3(\text{LoS}) + b_4(\text{age}) + b_5(\text{gender}) + b_6(\text{education level})$ . This equation was interpreted where Y represented the dependent variable, a (constant) represents a value where the slope intercepted the Y-axis when  $X = 0$ , and b represented the beta coefficient of each variable (Bruning, 2016). When using the regression equation, a significant beta coefficient value for each predictor variable (X) would

influence the dependent variable (Y) by either increasing or decreasing in value (Obisesan et al., 2017).

$R^2$  was the value that showed the level of variance when predicting a value on the dependent variable based on all the independent variables in the model. The confidence interval (CI) was a range within which 95% of the estimated value of the population parameter fell (Zapf et al., 2016). The 95% CI indicated that the results were statistically significant when a zero is not included in the interval (Zapf et al., 2016). The  $p$ -value was the level of significance required for rejecting the null hypothesis. When the  $p$ -value was  $\leq 0.05$ , the null hypothesis was rejected, and when the  $p$ -value was  $> 0.05$ , the null hypothesis was retained (Smith, 2017).

Atakora (2014) used multiple linear regression to predict the effects of gender, education, marital status, ministry, location, employment, and job description on absenteeism. The results indicated that only gender, ministry, and downsizing were significant predictors of absenteeism. The analysis ( $R^2 = .26$ ) showed that three predictor variables were responsible for 26% of the variance in absenteeism. The study results were significant ( $p < .00$ ), indicating the rejection of the null hypothesis. The 95% confidence interval for gender was .17 to .40 with a beta value of .28. The results showed that a 0 value was not included in the CI, supporting that a beta value of 0 was unlikely in the population.

The results for the present study were interpreted similarly using statistics, such as  $R^2$ , CI, and  $p$ -value. Therefore, a multiple regression model was appropriate for the

present study when testing whether PELP, motivation, LoS, age, gender, and education level were used to predict ELS for Black African migrants living in the United States. The following discussion is on threats to validity.

### **Threats to Validity**

*Validity* is the degree to which an instrument measures what it was designed to measure (McKibben & Silva, 2016). Research studies showed threats associated with validity that could affect the usefulness of an instrument when conducting quantitative methodology research. Those threats originate from external and internal sources and impede the ability of the researcher to reach valid study conclusions (Steele, 2018).

External validity is the extent to which the sample study's results are generalizable about the population from where the sample was drawn (Chalamandaris et al., 2016). Internal validity refers to whether there is a relationship between the independent and dependent variables and whether the outcomes are attributed to that relationship (Broniatowski & Tucker, 2017; Woodman, 2014).

External threats to validity included participants' geographical compositions, background, the time effect of past or future study results, and the researcher's ability to generalize (Fenner, 2017). These types of threats only affect studies that include experimental or quasi-experimental designs. The present study used the correlational design to examine the relationship and prediction between variables (see Hanson, 2018). Therefore, these types of threats to validity did not apply to this study.

Internal validity threats include many issues from history, testing, instrumentation, maturity, statistical regression, experimental mortality, selection biases, causal time order, compensation, compensatory rivalry, and others (Meyer, 2015). A few threats to internal validity applicable to the present study were statistical regression and selection biases. Statistical regression occurred when some scores on the dependent variable were outside the normal distribution, also known as outliers (Krenik, 2014). Such extreme scores presented a risk of affecting the mean scores and the ability to predict the dependent variable accurately. Excluding these outliers from the dataset became necessary as a remedy; therefore, studying a large sample size from the population became beneficial for mitigating this internal threat to validity (Auzinger-Hotzel, 2017).

Selection bias could threaten internal validity by excluding some members of the population (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010). An example of selection bias is for a researcher to target participants specifically and only with high or low experience with the phenomenon under study. The results of such a study could provide misleading results and lead to inaccurate conclusions. For the present study, mitigating this type of threat occurred by not restricting participants that otherwise qualify to be in the study regardless of their experiences with the phenomenon under study (Meyer, 2015).

## **Construct Validity**

### ***Perception of English Language Proficiency and Economic Life Satisfaction***

Construct validity is how well an instrument is capable of measuring what it was designed for measuring the relationships between PELP and ELS (Orr et al., 2018). The current construct provided theoretical relationships between all independent and dependent variables. Amit and Bar-lev (2015) defined construct validity as demonstrated between language proficiency and life satisfaction. Amit and Bar-lev found a relationship between Hebrew language proficiency and life satisfaction among migrants living in Israel. The results indicated that when language proficiency increased, migrants experienced increased life satisfaction. This empirical relationship indicated construct validity between PELP and ELS and was suitable for study among Black African migrants in the United States.

### ***Motivation for Esteem and Economic Life Satisfaction***

Construct validity is how well an instrument is capable of measuring what it was designed for measuring the relationship between ME and ELS. Vroome and Hooghe (2014) demonstrated construct validity when studying a relationship between experiencing esteem among social peers and life satisfaction. Esteem and life satisfaction were used as independent and dependent variables, respectively, and the study results indicated an empirical relationship between perceived social support (esteem) and life satisfaction among migrant groups. The results of the study showed that when migrants were not able to achieve esteem because of economic deprivation, their life satisfaction

was also reduced. The results demonstrated the empirical relationship between esteem needs and life satisfaction and the construct validity among these variables. This example was suitable when studying the ME and ELS among Black African migrants living in the United States.

### ***Motivation for Self-Actualization and Economic Life Satisfaction***

Construct validity is how well an instrument is capable of measuring what it was designed for measuring the relationship between MSA and ELS. Sortheix and Schwartz (2017) studied whether personal growth and self-actualization influenced people's life satisfaction. Sortheix and Schwartz used personal growth and self-actualization as independent variables and life satisfaction as the dependent variable. The study showed an empirical relationship between people experiencing personal growth and self-actualization, and life satisfaction. When the motivation for growth and self-actualization increased, life satisfaction increased. The study indicated an empirical relationship between these variables, establishing construct validity among MSA and ELS when studying Black African migrants in the United States.

### ***Length of Stay and Economic Life Satisfaction***

Construct validity is how well an instrument is capable of measuring what it was designed for measuring the relationship between LoS and ELS. Brunson (2018) determined construct validity between the LoS and life satisfaction by investigating a relationship between the LoS as an independent variable and life satisfaction as a

dependent variable. Brunson examined the post-military life satisfaction and social support, education attainment, and LoS of military service members in the United States.

The study's results indicated an empirical relationship between service members' LoS and their life satisfaction. The fewer LoS of the service members in the military, the less satisfied with life these servicemen were. This relationship indicated an empirical relationship between these variables, establishing construct validity among LoS and ELS when studying Black African migrants living in the United States. The empirical relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the current study showed no threats to construct validity when studying these group migrants.

### **Face Validity**

#### ***Perception of English Language Proficiency***

Face validity is an assessment of an instrument that, on its appearance, was designed so that from the items on the construct, the instrument could measure what it was intended to measure (Sanner, 2016). The AELLSE scale used for measuring the PELP variable demonstrated face validity because the instrument was designed to measure people's efficacy in speaking English. Some statements participants needed to respond to on the instrument included the following: (a) Whether people believed they did an excellent job participating in discussions conducted in English, (b) whether participants believed they were fine speaking in English when needed, and (c) whether participants understand English well when speaking with people in authority. These items



showed face validity for measuring people's perceptions of their ability to communicate in English.

### ***Motivation***

The NAQ was used for measuring ME needs, based on Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory. The scale was developed to measure people's motivation for achieving esteem among peers. Some statements participants were asked to respond to include the following: (a) Whether they are successful in life and are recognized by their peers for being so, (b) whether they feel confident about their abilities and themselves at work or in general, and (c) whether they received positive attention and recognition from their peers in their lives or at their jobs. These items demonstrated face validity because the questions measure whether Black African migrants living in the United States experienced esteem among peers for their accomplishments in life.

The NAQ was used for measuring MSA needs based on the hierarchy of needs motivation theory developed by Maslow (1943). The scale was developed to measure people's motivation for achieving self-actualization goals. Examples of statements included the following: (a) Whether people aimed for self-knowledge and enlightenment in their lives, (b) whether the most important thing for participants' lives is realizing their ultimate potential, and (c) whether people seek and welcome reaching peak experience. Items on this instrument demonstrated face validity because the questions were focused on whether Black African migrants living in the United States were motivated toward achieving their ultimate potential in life.

***Economic Life Satisfaction: Last 5 Years***

The CSSS was developed to measure the ELS of participants in two periods: the last 5 years and the next 5 years of their lives. Items for measuring economic satisfaction in the last 5 years were designed to determine if participants were happy with their economic lives during the last 5 years. Some examples of statements included the following: (a) Whether their total income increased or decreased in the last 5 years, (b) whether the participants' financial assets increased or decreased in the past 5 years, and (c) whether people's ability to meet their monthly living expenses increased or decreased during the last 5 years. Items on this instrument demonstrated face validity because the questions assessed whether participants experienced satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their economic situations in the last 5 years.

***Economic Life Satisfaction: Next 5 Years***

The second part of the CSSS measured participants' perceived ELS in the next 5 years. Some example statements included the following: (a) Whether participants' total income will increase or decrease during the next 5 years, (b) whether people's retirement nest egg will increase or decrease during the next 5 years, and (c) whether participants' insurance coverage will increase or decrease during the next 5 years. Items on this instrument established face validity because the questions assessed whether participants perceived ELS would increase or decrease in the next 5 years.

Each instrument demonstrated face validity, and therefore there was no indication of threats to face validity when studying Black African migrants living in the United

States. On its appearance, each item in each scale was valid for measuring the attitudes and behavior related to each variable used in this study. The following section contains discussions about the ethical procedures used to collect data from human subjects.

## **Ethical Procedures**

### **Access to Participants**

Conducting social sciences research involving human subjects requires complying with ethical procedures to protect participants (Hyatt, 2015). The Collaborative Institutional Training Institute (CITI) provided training on protecting the rights and dignity of human subjects (see Appendix F). Accessing participants for data collection started with the approval of the community partner agreement (see Appendix A). The target population was recruited by contacting churches and organizations where Black African migrants were most affiliated. Church leadership granted permission to announce, and the link for the online study was provided. Participants were meant to access the online package, which included the invitation letter (Appendix C), the informed consent form (Appendix E), and the survey.

### **Ethical Treatment of Human Subjects**

Participants were to read the invitation letter, download it, and keep the letter for their records. The invitation was to introduce the researcher and to invite members of the selected population who met the qualifications for participation. The invitation letter contained information about the eligibility for the study and the voluntary nature of participation. Participants would then determine their eligibility after reading the

invitation letter. After qualifying to participate in the study, participants who decided to participate were to read each section of the informed consent form. The first section of the form described why participants were asked to participate in the study. The next section of the form was for describing the purpose of the study.

The following section of the form was the volunteer section. It used to describe that participating in the study was voluntary and that not participating in the study, skipping questions, or stopping at any time were permitted. The next section of the form described the risks and benefits of being in the study, including the possibility of experiencing light stress or anxiety. The section also described the benefits of being in the study, such as influencing public policymakers in creating policies and programs for helping migrants improve their English language skills through better access to education and training programs.

The compensation section of the form expressed gratitude for participating in the survey because no compensation was available for the study. The confidentiality section of the form described that no personal information would be collected or disclosed to anyone. The final sections provided information on whom participants might contact if they had questions and concerns about the study. Finally, participants were to indicate their willingness to participate in the study by checking the yes box. This action would indicate agreeing to the terms of the informed consent form for participating in the study.

The next step was to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire. Participants were to read the instructions at the beginning of the questionnaire, choosing a

number between 1 and 5. A 1 indicated the lowest level of agreement, and a 5 indicated the highest level of agreement with each statement. In the demographics section, participants were to provide their ages in years, their genders as male or female, education levels by degree, and their LoS in years. At the end of the survey, participants received a "thank you" note that indicated the end of their participation in the study.

### **Treatment of Data**

When participants completed their survey, participants were to close their browsers, indicating the end of their involvement in the study. The collected data were inspected for completeness. The survey was completed if participants completed 85% of the questionnaire. If participants completed less than 85% of the questionnaire, the surveys were considered incomplete and would be set aside. The goal of collecting data and protecting human subjects was to keep collected data anonymous and confidential.

Anonymity is the nondisclosure of participants identifying information, such as name, address, or any identifying features; furthermore, a survey does not ask for or request any identifying data associated with participants' responses (Helm, 2017).

Confidentiality of data is the process of keeping data secret or private from unauthorized persons. However, data were not released to anyone unrelated to the study. The collected data would be transferred to a password-protected electronic device. The electronic device and the original paper surveys would be kept in a locked safe that is also password protected at a private residence.

Confidentiality of data entailed keeping data safe from unauthorized use by unauthorized people or organizations (Jamal et al., 2014). No one was to have access to collected data who were indirectly associated with the overseeing institution. The overseeing institution mandated keeping and storing data safe and locked. Original data will be stored for 5 years and then destroyed according to institutional guidelines (Sanusi, 2018). The process for destroying original data in paper form would use paper shredding equipment. Researchers have used paper shredding to destroy confidential documents (Rue-Pastin, 2015). Reformatting the device would entail removing all of the data contents and then destroying the device by crushing the electronic storage device with a heavy object, making the device inoperable (Sanusi, 2018).

Conflict of interest is when participants are involved in several interests that would damage one another or the secondary interest (Bero, 2016). Research interest conflicts often affect confidentiality when participants such as friends, family members, or acquaintances are known to a researcher. Although there could be a minor risk of being familiar with some potential study participants, there was no direct association with participants, or their responses, or connecting responses to participants during data collection. Following these anonymity and confidentiality guidelines helped reduce the risks of creating biases when collecting data from human subjects and reporting study findings (Sanusi, 2018).

## Summary

Discussions in Chapter 3 concerned the benefits of using the quantitative approach with correlational design. The correlational design examined the outcome of any relationship between PELP, motivation, age, gender, educational level, and LoS on ELS for Black African migrants living in the United States. The population under study was Black African migrants from countries where the official language is English. Sampling for this study was the convenience sampling strategy, the only sampling method when participants were not readily accessible when collecting data for this study. The sampling frame included churches in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas, of Black African migrants living in the United States who were 18 or older and worship at these churches.

The study sample size was determined by conducting a power analysis using the G\*Power application. Calculating the minimum sample size was based on a medium effect size, a standard alpha level, and a suitable power level, resulting in a minimum sample size of 98 participants. Recruiting participants required creating community partnerships with local churches. The recruitment process involved making appeals verbally, using announcements, and placing advertisements on the community websites. Participants were then self-qualified for participation in the online survey. The BAMSQ was the instrument for the study consisting of three scales: the AELLSE scale, NAQ, and the CSSS. These scales had high reliability when used by other researchers, and items on the instrument included demographic questions.

Preparing data for analysis consisted of inspecting the questionnaire for completeness, accounting for missing data, and creating a spreadsheet from data for analysis. Determining the outcome of the independent variable and covariates on the dependent variable entailed analyzing a corresponding hypothesis and responding to the research question by conducting a multiple regression analysis statistical model. Threats that might affect the validity of the study were discussed. External threats to validity did not apply to this study. Several internal threats to validity were discussed, and only two were applied to this study: statistical regression and selection bias. Statistical regression threat occurs when extreme scores in the distribution and selection bias occur by excluding certain groups of participants from the study. Discussions on mitigating these validity threats occurred in this section.

Construct validity was discussed by establishing empirical relationships between the study's independent and dependent variables. For this study, discussions about construct validity showed theoretical relationships between PELP and ELS. Similarly, discussions showed an empirical relationship between ME and ELS, MSA and ELS, and LoS and ELS. The discourse about face validity was about the appearance of the BAMSQ instrument, which provided the ability to measure what the instrument was designed to measure.

The following discussion on ethical procedures was about actions taken concerning the anonymity and confidentiality of participants. It demonstrated the actions proposed for maintaining the concealment and privacy of participants' information by not



disclosing data to unauthorized entities and properly storing data securely. Data sharing was only permissible to people associated with the research, such as the research committee.

Discussions in Chapter 4 include the results of study findings from statistical analyses. Additionally, Chapter 4 includes descriptive statistical results, graphs, tables, and charts. Analyses of the statistical model allowed inferences about the populations from which the sample was drawn.

## Chapter 4: Results

I aimed to determine whether there was any relationship between PELP and ELS among Black African migrants living in the United States. A quantitative correlational design was used to test whether that relationship existed. Other variables in the study were motivation (esteem and self-actualization) and demographics, such as age, gender, education level, and LoS. The main variables were the independent variable of PELP and the dependent variable of ELS. This chapter includes the three levels of measurement used when reporting the study results. Nominal measures were used for gender, ordinal measures for education level, and continuous measures were used for PELP, motivation, age, and LoS migrants who lived in the United States.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

RQ1: Did motivation predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_01$ : Motivation did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_a1$ : Motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ2: Did PELP predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_02$ : PELP did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_a2$ : PELP did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

RQ3: Did demographics predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_03$ : Demographics did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_a3$ : Demographics did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

## Descriptive Analysis

### Gender

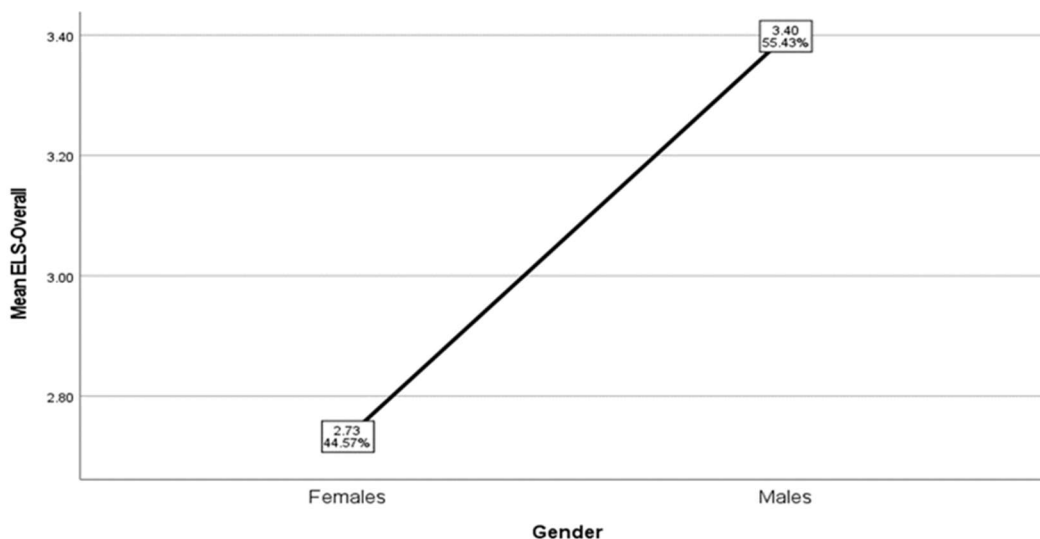
This analysis included both genders. Females ( $n = 71$ ) comprised 70% of the proportion of the sample. The female-to-male ratio was approximately 2:1. An analysis showed that males, on average experienced more significant levels of ELS ( $M = 3.40$ ,  $SD = .55$ ) over females ( $M = 2.73$ ,  $SD = .87$ ). The lowest level of satisfaction possible was one and the highest was 5. The differences ( $MD = .67$ ) were significantly different from zero. In the population, the difference was as low as .32 and high as .95. Figure 2 shows the difference in ELS between females and males. A summary of ELS based on gender is shown in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Summary of Economic Life Satisfaction Based on Gender*

Gender	<i>n</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
Female	71	2.73	44.57
Male	30	3.40	55.43

*Note.* Total Participants ( $N = 101$ ).

**Figure 2***Line Graph of ELS Based on Gender***Education**

An analysis was also conducted on participants to determine their level of education. Results showed that about 47% of participants ( $n = 47$ ) were not educated in the United States, the most significant proportion of this group. Results also showed that among the rest of the sample who received a U.S. education, those who earned a bachelor's ( $n = 26$ ), master's degree ( $n = 23$ ), or doctorate ( $n = 2$ ), the majority accounted for 52% of participants, demonstrating that a large proportion was highly educated in the United States. The level of earned education outside the United States was still being determined.

A summary of ELS based on education alone is in Table 3. These results showed that those who earned a master's degree experienced the highest level of ELS, followed by those who earned a bachelor's degree and an HS diploma. Surprisingly, those who did

a doctorate experienced a lower level of ELS than those with lower degrees but less common than those with no U.S. education. Results indicated a significant difference in ELS between those who earned a U.S. education, compared to those who did not have a U.S. education. A line graph in Figure 3 shows the difference in ELS based on education levels.

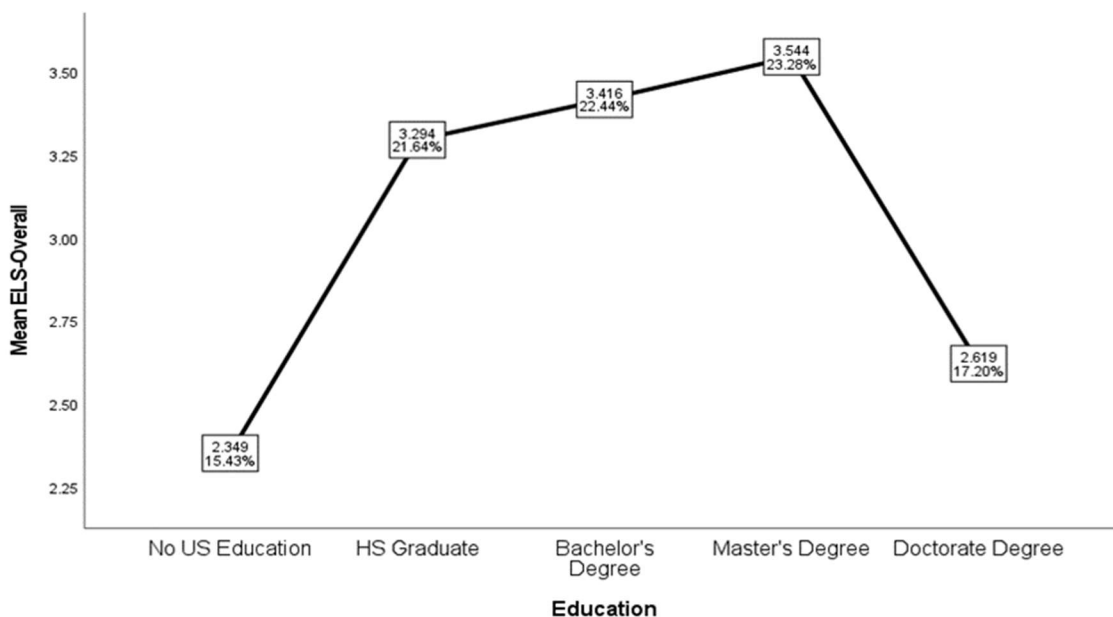
**Table 3**

*Summary of Economic Life Satisfaction Based on Education Levels*

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	95% <i>CI</i> for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower	Upper		
No U.S. education	47	2.35	.75	.11	2.13	2.57	1.90	4.22
High school graduate	2	3.29	.11	.08	2.26	4.33	3.21	3.38
Bachelor's degree	27	3.42	.52	.10	3.21	3.62	2.51	4.60
Master's degree	23	3.54	.53	.11	3.31	3.78	2.29	4.22
Doctorate	2	2.62	.63	.44	-3.02	8.26	2.17	3.06
Total	101	2.93	.84	.08	2.76	3.10	1.90	4.60

**Figure 3**

*Line Graph of ELS Based on Education Levels*



### **Perception of English Language Proficiency**

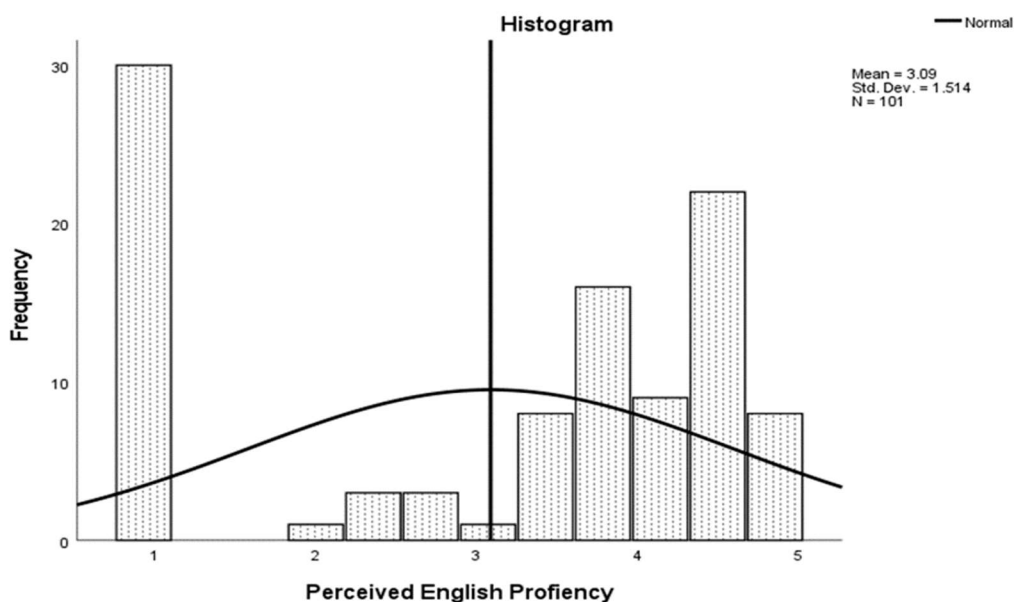
This sample size included participants ( $N = 101$ ), Black African Migrants living in the United States. Participants' level of PELP was measured using the AELLSE, measured on a scale from 1 to 5. A one represented the lowest level of PELP, and a five indicated the highest level of the variable. Participants indicated that their level of PELP was slightly above the midrange ( $M = 3.09$ ,  $SD = 1.51$ ). These results indicated that approximately 2 of 3 participants believe their PELP was as high as 4.60 and as low as 1.58. Approximately 50% of the sample indicated their level of PELP was above the median range of 3.86.

The negative skewness of  $-.54$  demonstrated that most scores were above the mean values, but values on the low side of the bell curve were represented on the left side of the mean ( $Kurt = -1.43$ ). The 95% CI indicated that in the population, PELP was just below to just above the average ( $CI = 2.79$  to  $3.39$ ). A histogram in Figure 4 shows the distribution of these responses for PELP. A histogram found in Figure 4 shows that most responses were not within the bell curve, suggesting that scores for this variable might not be normally distributed. A standardization test was conducted to determine if these scores met normality.

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted. The result summarized in Table 4 shows that PELP scores were significantly non-normal,  $K-S(101) = .22, p < .001$ . A summary of these descriptive analysis results is in Figure 4.

#### Figure 4

*Histogram Showing Dispersion of PELP Scores*



**Table 4**

*Summary of K-S Test Results Showing Nonnormal Distribution Scores*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	p	Statistic	df	P
PELP	.22	101	<.001	.80	101	<.001

*Note.* a. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

### **Motivation**

Participants responded to two scales to determine their level of motivation ( $N = 101$ ). Two dimensions were used to measure motivation on the NAQ: ME Needs and Self-Actualization Needs. Both dimensions were measured on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 indicated complete disagreement with statements, and a 5 indicated complete agreement.

These scores were combined to determine the motivation for the upper level of needs for the study. Participants indicated a moderate level of motivation ( $M = 3.23$ ,  $SD = 1.62$ ), indicating that approximately 68% of the sample had low motivation levels of 1.62 and as high as 4.85. These results also indicated that motivation was as low as 2.91 and as high as 3.55 in the population. The lowest and highest motivation levels were reported, accounting for a range of 4. The negative skewness indicated that most of the scores were reported on the higher side of the mean, while lower scores were heavily clustered on the left tail of the distribution.

Approximately 50% of all participants reported a high level of motivation, with a median value of 4. The lowest level of motivation was one, and the highest reported was 5, with a range of 4. Most participants reported a low level of motivation as one was



modal. The data are displayed in the histogram found in Figure 4, indicating that much of these responses are not within the bell curve; as such, data are likely not normally distributed. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted. The result summarized in Table shows that PELP scores are significantly non-normal,  $K-S(101) = .22, p < .001$ . A summary of these descriptive analysis results is in Table 5.

**Table 5**

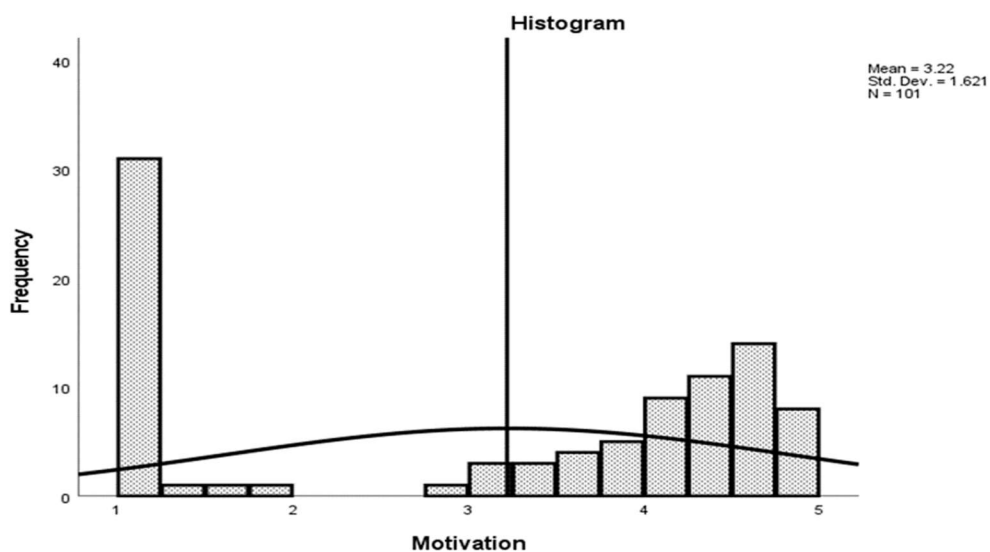
*Summary of K-S Test Results Showing Non-Normal Distribution of Scores*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	<i>p</i>	Statistic	df	<i>P</i>
Motivation	.22	101	<.001	.80	101	<.001

*Note.* a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

**Figure 5**

*A Histogram Showing the Distribution of Motivation*



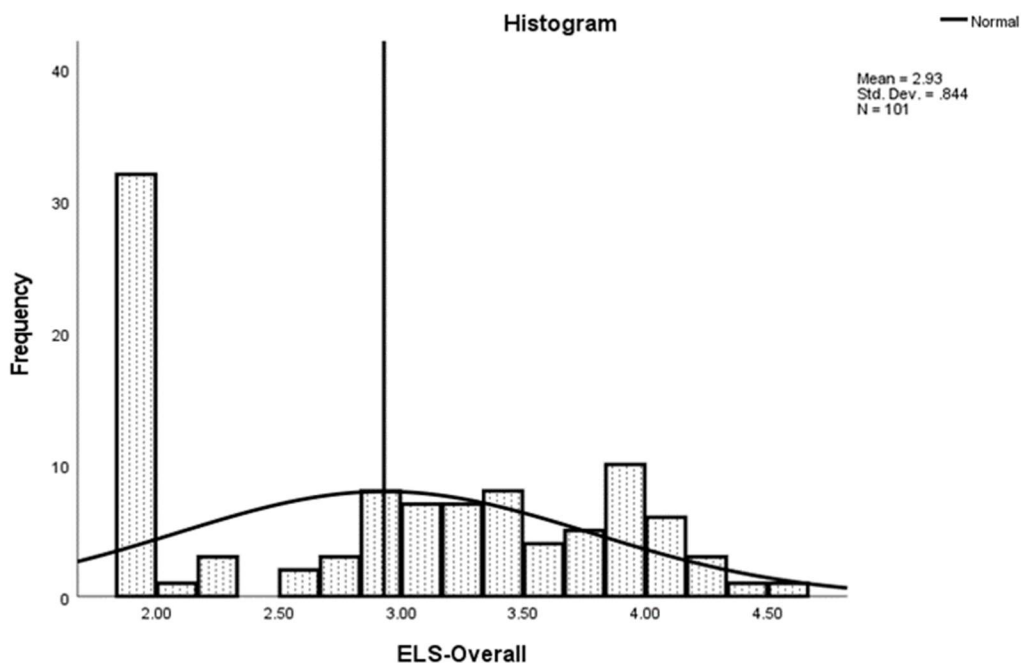
### **Economic Life Satisfaction**

Participants were asked to state their levels of ELS. This variable was measured using the CSSS, which measured ELS over the past 5 years and the expected satisfaction in the coming 5 years. The scale was measured using a Likert scale from 1 to 5. A 1 indicated a severe decrease in ELS, and a 5 indicated a severe increase in ELS. Overall, participants did not have a strong expectation of high ELS ( $M = 2.93$ ,  $SE = .84$ ), indicating that approximately 68% of the sample's ELS was as low as 2.09 and as high as 3.77. Approximately 50% of the sample's ELS was less than 3. The lowest score reported was 1.90, and the highest was 4.60, accounting for a range of 2.70.

A histogram was created to observe the distribution of ELS, which is found in Figure 5. Most of the results for ELS were on the left side of the mean, thus a tiny positive skewness of .01, while Kurtosis indicated that most minor results were in the distribution's right tail. A test for normal distribution was also conducted to determine if the distribution was significantly different from a normal distribution. The results show that although close, this distribution significantly differed from normal  $K-S(101) = .21$ ,  $p < .001$ ). These results are summarized in Table 6.

**Figure 6**

*A Histogram Showing Distribution of ELS*

**Table 6**

*Summary of K-S Test Results Showing Nonnormal Distribution of Scores*

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
ELS-Overall	.21	101	<.001	.88	101	<.001

*Note.* a. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

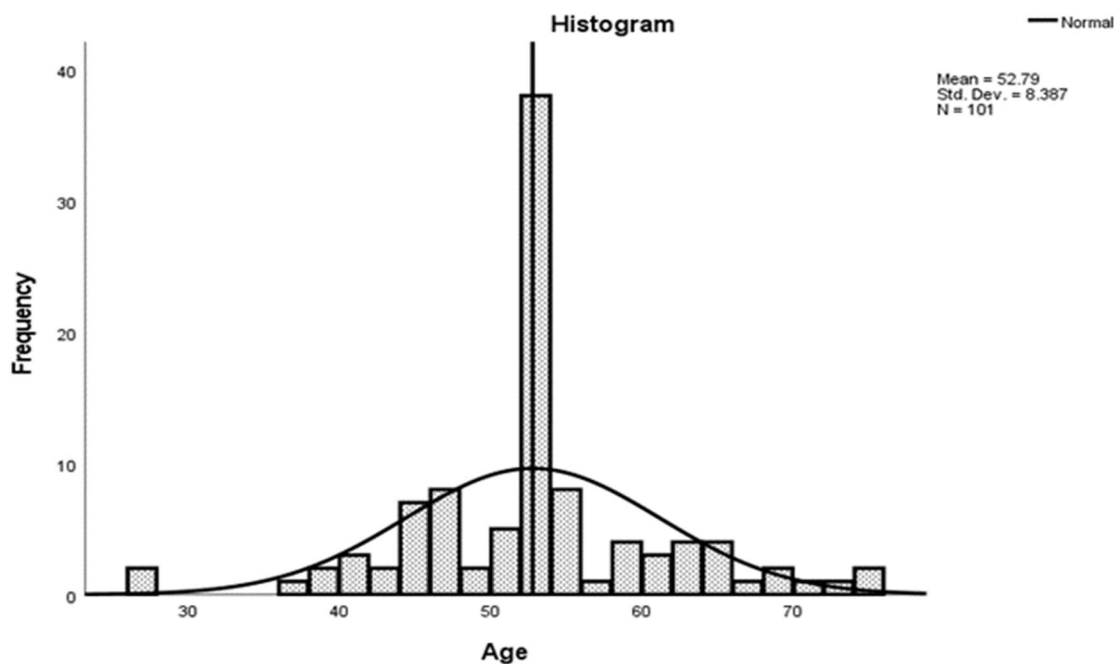
## Age

The ages of participants were observed in the demographic section of the survey. This sample was average middle-aged ( $M = 52.79$ ,  $SD = 8.39$ ). The results indicated that approximately 68% of the model was as young as 44.40 and as old as 61.18,

demonstrating a mature group. The youngest age in the sample was 27, and the oldest was 75, accounting for a range of 48 years. Approximately 50% of the models were older than 53 years. The small Skewness and Kurtosis indicate that symmetry was not affected by the distribution of participants' ages. Most scores were clustered in the middle of the distribution, suggesting normality in the distribution of participants' ages. A histogram in Figure 7 shows the normal distribution of participants' ages. A summary of these descriptive results is found in Table 7.

**Figure 7**

*Histogram Showing Distribution of Participants' Ages*



### **Length of Stay**

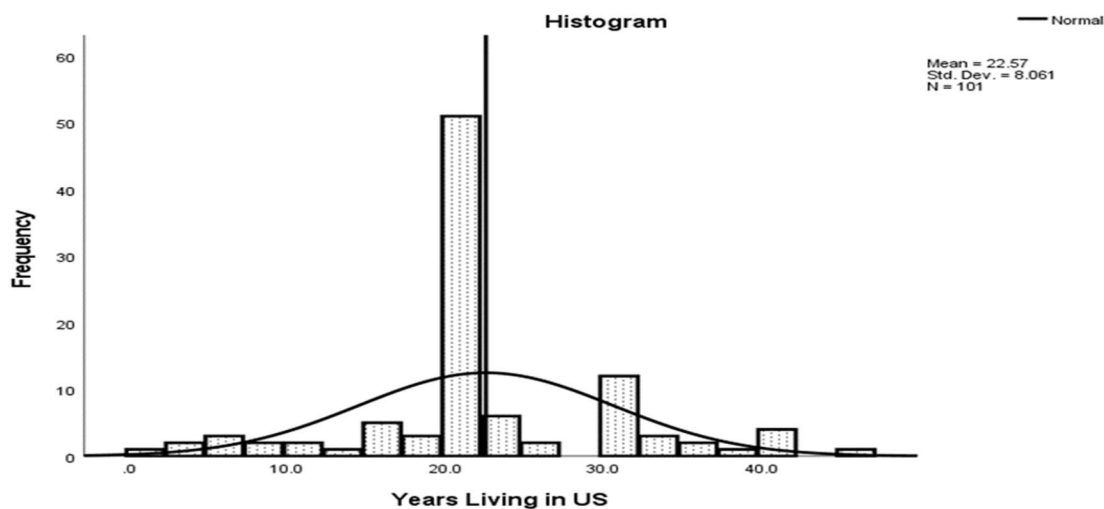
Participants were asked to state how long they lived in the United States. The minimum stated response was 1 year, and the maximum was 46 years, accounting for a

spread of 45 years living in the United States. On average, participants lived in the United States for around two decades ( $M = 22.57$ ,  $SD = 8.06$ ), indicating that approximately 68% of the sample lived there for as little as 14.51 years and as much as 30.63 years. Results also showed that 50% of participants lived in the United States for over 22 years.

The histogram in Figure 8 shows the dispersion of these results. Most of the score's dispersion on the graph was to the left of the mean, thus a tiny positive skewness. The tails of the distribution of scores were heavy, indicating minor frequencies in both tails, more in the right tail than the left. These frequencies did not affect symmetry, thus indicating normality in the distribution (see Table 6).

### Figure 8

*Histogram Showing Distribution of Length of Stay*



**Table 7***Summary of Descriptive Results*

Variables	<i>N</i>	Range	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perceived English Proficiency	101	4	1	5	3.09	.15	1.51	-.54	-1.43
Esteem	101	4	1	5	3.35	.17	1.69	-.54	-1.54
Self-Act	101	5	1	6	3.10	.16	1.62	-.30	-1.58
ELS-Overall	101	3	2	5	2.93	.08	.84	.01	-1.42
Age	101	48	27	75	52.79	.83	8.39	-.05	1.44
Years Living in the United States	101	45	1	46	22.57	.80	8.06	.09	1.11

**Results****Research Question 1**

RQ1: Did motivation predict ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_{01}$ : Motivation did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_{a1}$ : Motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to determine if having motivation such as esteem and self-actualization predicted ELS among Black African migrants. The results of the analysis were significant,  $F(1, 99) = 193.99, p < .001$ , and  $t(100) = 14.25, p < .001$ . Additionally, the 95% confidence interval for the regression slope did not include a zero value, demonstrating that no motivation occurred in the population. Therefore, these results supported the rejection of the null hypothesis that motivation did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants. The adjusted  $R^2$  indicated that ME and self-actualization needs accounted for 66% of the variation in ELS, and the effect was

significant. The positive beta value indicates that as motivation increases, so does ELS. The results showed that in the population, the lowest motivation was .36 and the highest was .48. These results are presented in Tables 8 to 11.

An examination of the P-P plot found in Figure 8 shows the predicted and residual values, which form a pattern to determine if the variables' linearity and variance assumptions' homogeneity were violated. The plot shows that these violations were absent, and the results are reliable. The regression equation for predicting the overall motivation on ELS is  $ELS = 1.56(\text{Constant}) + .42(\text{motivation})$ . These results indicate that for every unit of increase in motivation, such as earning esteem and self-actualizing skills, there was a unit increase in ELS.

**Table 8**

*Summary of Regression Analysis Descriptive Results*

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
ELS-Overall	2.93	.84	101
Motivation	3.22	1.62	101

**Table 9**

*Model Summary of Regression Analysis*

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>S.E.</i>	Change statistics				
					<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> change	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>df</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>P</i>
1	.81 <sup>a</sup>	.66	.66	.49	.66	193.96	1	99	<.001

*Note.* a. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation b. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall.

**Table 10***ANOVA Results*

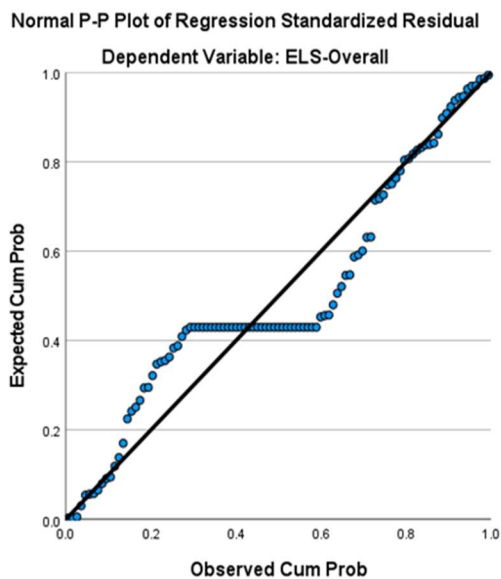
	Model	SS	df	MS	F	P
1	Regression	47.19	1	47.19	193.96	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	24.09	99	.24		
	Total	71.28	100			

Note. a. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall b. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation

**Table 11***Summary of Coefficients*

Model		B	SE	$\beta$	t	p	95% CI for B		R
							Lower	Upper	
1	(Constant)	1.56	.11		14.25	.000	1.35	1.78	
	Motivation	.42	.03	.81	13.93	.000	.36	.48	.81

Note. a. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall.

**Figure 9***Normal P-P Plot for Motivation*



## Research Question 2

RQ2: Did PELP predict the ELS for Black African migrants?

H<sub>0</sub><sub>2</sub>: PELP did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

H<sub>a</sub><sub>2</sub>: PELP did predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

A bivariate linear regression analysis was conducted among the sample ( $N = 101$ ) to test the null hypothesis that PELP did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants. The ELS ( $M = 2.93$ ,  $SD = .84$ ) was moderate and PELP ( $M = 3.09$ ,  $SD = 1.51$ ) was also moderate. The results of the test were significant,  $F(1,99) = 151.09$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $t(100) = 13.15$ ,  $p < .001$ , therefore rejecting the null hypothesis. These results indicated that PELP does predict the ELS for Black African migrants, and the positive beta value ( $\beta = .78$ ) showed that as PELP increased, there was an increase in ELS. The 95% CI of .36 to .50 supported rejecting the null hypothesis because the range did not include a 0.

The adjusted  $R^2$  indicated that PELP alone was responsible for approximately 60% of the variance in a linear relationship between PELP and ELS. These results were vital because the correlation effect size ( $R = .78$ ) was high. The equation predicting ELS was that  $ELS = .43(PELP) + 1.59(\text{Constant})$ . These results indicated that for every unit of increase in PELP, such as having a good sense of English and being able to communicate well in English, there was a unit increase in ELS. A summary of these results is presented in Tables 12 to 14.

**Table 12***Model Summary of Regression Analysis*

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adj. R <sup>2</sup>	SE	Change statistics				
					R <sup>2</sup>	F change	df1	df2	P
1	.78 <sup>a</sup>	.60	.60	.53	.60	151.09	1	99	.001

Note. a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived English Proficiency b. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall.

**Table 13***ANOVA Results*

Model	SS	df	MS	F	P
Regression	43.06	1	43.06	151.09	<.001 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	28.22	99	.29		
Total	71.28	100			

Note. a. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall b. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived English Proficiency.

**Table 14***Summary of Correlation Coefficients*

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized			95.0% CI for B		Correlations
	B	SE	$\beta$	t	p	Lower	Upper	Partial
(Constant)	1.59	.12		13.15	.000	1.352	1.83	
Perceived English proficiency	.43	.04	.78	12.29	.000	.36	.50	.78

Note. a. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall.

**Research Question 3**

RQ3: Did demographics predict the ELS for Black African migrants?

$H_{03}$ : One or more demographics did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

$H_{a3}$ : One or more demographics do predict the ELS for Black African migrants.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether demographic variables such as age, gender, LoS in the United States, and U.S. education predicted ELS for participants. A summary of descriptive results is in Table 13. The model was significant,  $F(4, 96) = 24.25, p < .001$ , indicating that the null hypothesis is that one or more demographics do not predict the ELS for Black African migrants. The coefficient results showed that gender and U.S. education contributed significantly to ELS among participants. The 95% CI for each coefficient did not include a 0, supporting rejecting the null hypothesis.

These results indicated that being male,  $t(100) = 2.55, p < .02$ , and having a U.S. education,  $t(100) = 7.96, p < .001$ , contributed significantly to ELS, and that women, even though they had a U.S. education were less likely to have increased ELS. The collinearity and VIF indicated that each variable measured different factors. In addition, the partial correlations were small to medium, respectively, for each variable. Overall, the model significantly predicted ELS for the sample, predicting approximately 48% of ELS among participants. The equation used to significantly predict ELS was that  $ELS = .35(\text{Gender}) + 1.00(\text{U.S. education}) + 2.96 (\text{Constant})$ . These results indicated that having a U.S. education contributed approximately three times more to ELS than being male. Being male was beneficial to men, and being female was not beneficial to women's ELS. These results are summarized in Tables 15 to Table 17. Table 18 is a summary of the hypothesis results.

**Table 15***Summary of Descriptive Results*

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
ELS-Overall	2.93	.84	101
Age	52.79	8.39	101
Years living in the United States	22.57	8.06	101
Gender	1.30	.46	101
U.S. education	.53	.50	101

**Table 16***Model Summary of Results*

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Adj. <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>SE</i>	Change statistics				
					<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> change	<i>F</i> change	<i>df</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>df</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>p</i>
1	.71 <sup>a</sup>	.50	.48	.61	.50	24.25	4	96	<.001

*Note.* a. Predictors: (Constant), U.S. Education, Age, Gender, Years Living in United States b. Dependent Variable: ELS-Overall.

**Table 17***Summary of Coefficients*

Model	Unstandardized		Standard	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95.0% <i>CI</i> for <i>B</i>		<i>R</i> Partial	Collinearity	VIF
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>			Lower	Upper			
(Constant)	2.96	.45		6.60	.00	2.07	3.84			
Age	-.02	.01	-.15	-1.77	.08	-.03	.00	-.18	.68	1.46
Years in the United States	-.01	.01	-.08	-.97	.34	-.03	.01	-.10	.69	1.45
Gender	.35	.14	.19	2.55	.01	.08	.63	.25	.92	1.09
U.S. education	1.00	.13	.59	7.96	.00	.75	1.25	.63	.93	1.08

**Table 18***Summary of Results*

Hypotheses	Decision
$H_01$ : Motivation did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Rejected
$H_a1$ : Motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Accepted
$H_02$ : PELP did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Rejected
$H_a2$ : PELP did predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Accepted
$H_03$ : One or more demographics did not predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Rejected
$H_a3$ : One or more demographics did predict ELS for Black African migrants.	Accepted

**Summary and Transition**

The summary of the findings for Chapter 4 indicated the response to RQ1 that ME and self-actualization predicted the ELS for Black African migrants living in the United States. The answer to Q2 was that PELP predicted the ELS for Black African migrants. Finally, the response to RQ3 was that one or more demographics predicted the ELS for Black African migrants. For example, the results, in a summary of ELS based on education levels, indicated a difference in ELS between Black African migrants who had a U.S. education and those who did not earn a U.S. education. Participants in the study with no U.S. education experienced lower levels of ELS than those with U.S. education levels. Furthermore, there was a significant difference in ELS levels between genders. Males experienced high levels of ELS than female migrants, indicating from the findings that one or more demographics predicted ELS among Black African migrants.

Chapter 5 includes a summary and interpretations of the findings, limitations of the study, and implications for positive social change, followed by recommendations and a conclusion. Some recommendations are related to additional studies using motivation, PELP, and ELS to determine whether findings could be within the bell curve. This study

entailed studying the U.S. labor gap for migrants migrating to the United States and contributing to the U.S. workforce from which they benefit. When migrants' desires to return to their original countries increase, the U.S. workforce gap increases because of retiring baby boomers and low birth rates.

## Chapter 5: Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusions

### Summary of Findings

When conducting this study, three hypotheses were used to determine whether these hypotheses did not predict or predict the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. When analyzing the first hypothesis, the findings showed significant analysis results. The first null hypothesis was rejected because, using the  $F$ -test and the  $t$ -test, ELS increased when the ME and self-actualization among Black African migrants increased. Rejecting the null hypothesis meant motivation did predict ELS for Black African migrants. Second, the results showed that PELP predicted a positive relationship with ELS for Black African migrants, indicating that the null hypothesis was rejected because significant test results indicated that PELP predicted ELS for Black African migrants. When migrants improved their ability to communicate proficiently in English, their ELS was enhanced.

The third null hypothesis entailed determining whether one or more demographics, such as age, gender, level of education, and LoS in the United States, predicted or not the ELS for Black African migrants. The findings revealed that being a Black African migrant male and having a U.S. education improved ELS levels. However, for women with U.S. education, their levels of ELS remained the same.

Additionally, the findings indicated that being a male had more benefits than being a female. Women's ELS levels did not improve despite having a U.S. education. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected because one or more demographics (gender

and having a U.S. education level) did not predict ELS for Black African migrants. Results indicated that being male,  $t(100) = 2.55, p < .02$ , and having a U.S. education,  $t(100) = 7.96, p < .001$ , contributed significantly to ELS. These findings revealed that the alternative hypothesis was accepted because being male and having a U.S. education level, as one or more demographics, predicted ELS for Black African migrants.

### **Interpretation of the Findings**

Conducting this study was by drawing the sample from churches in the Dallas-Fort Worth area, Texas, where Black African migrants gather for worship. Study results indicated a significant relationship between motivation, PELP, one or more demographics, and ELS. In this study, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory was used to examine whether the independent variable (PELP) and the covariates (motivation, age, gender, U.S. education, and LoS) had any relationship with the dependent variable (ELS also known as SES) among Black African migrants. The scores of the two dimensions (esteem and self-actualization) were combined to determine the motivation for the upper level of needs (esteem and self-actualization).

### **Hypothesis 1**

The findings indicated that most participants were motivated toward achieving U.S. education and professional skills and were respected by their peers; however, two participants had achieved their doctorate degrees, showing that some Black African migrants had reached their full potential but did not experience high levels of ELS. Langove and Isha (2017) indicated that most workplaces in Malaysia did not improve



productivity because the level of motivation among Malaysian IT employees was low or nonexistent, leading to low productivity and high turnover. Productivity and high turnover were measured by the number of pieces of equipment being manufactured, the number of employees leaving the workplace, and the number of new employees being hired. Langove and Isha demonstrated that when Malaysian employees' esteem increased, their productivity increased, and the information technology industry's output improved.

Although there are scarce studies on the outcome of motivation on ELS among Black African migrants, the Malaysian employees' study provided an example of the outcome of motivation. The findings showed that motivation did predict the ELS among participants. Self-actualization is the fifth principle in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of motivation theory, but about 2% of the participants were self-actualized by achieving their doctorate degrees. However, their ELS had yet to reach their highest potential. Self-actualization is an intrinsic feeling when a participant is motivated to fulfill life's highest needs (Goldstein, 1934).

Reaching the highest human potential includes personality, identity, and achievement development as part of ELS or improved QoL. A person or community experiences improved QoL through economic well-being, comfort, happiness, or health (Tripathi, 2018). Therefore, there was a lack of literature about motivation's effects on QoL for Black African migrants in the United States.

The NAQ was used as a measurement scale, and the findings indicated that participants' level of motivation was moderate ( $M = 3.23$ ,  $SD = 1.62$ ), indicating that the

sample had low levels of motivation of 1.62 and 4.85 high. The findings showed that about 50% of all participants had a high level of motivation, with the range being 4, indicating the difference between the lowest motivation of 1 and the highest 5. However, using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the scores indicated non-normal significance,  $K-S(101) = .22, p < .001$ , as shown in Table 6. Although all participants' levels of motivation was 50% or more, self-confidence, perceptions of having educational and professional skills, and a sense of worth were associated with esteem needs, indicating participants achieved their accomplishments goals.

A linear regression analysis was used to verify whether the ME and self-actualization predicted ELS among Black African migrants. Results were significant,  $F(1, 99) = 193.99, p < .001$ , and  $t(100) = 14.25, p < .001$ . The 95% CI for the regression slope also did not include a zero value, which showed no motivation among participants. Therefore, the findings indicated the rejection of the null hypothesis that motivation did not predict ELS among Black African migrants. Hence, the alternative hypothesis was accepted because the results revealed that motivation predicted ELS among Black African migrants.

## **Hypothesis 2**

The findings showed that participants with middle-to-high ELS levels, as measured using CSSS, experienced high levels of PELP. However, there were limited studies on the effects of PELP, measured using SES or ELS for Black African migrants from countries where English was the official language. Many African countries, as listed

in Table 1, use English as the official language but do not use it at home. For example, in Nigeria, English is used in offices, but when people are at home, they communicate in Yoruba, Igbo, and 400 other dialects (Bokamba, 1995; Uguru, 2015).

Using migrants' mother tongue languages was a significant problem (Braçaj, 2018). For example, Black African migrants who did not use English as their standard communication not using the English language did limit their proficiency. Speaking English or any European colonizing language in Africa is associated with being elite and belonging to a high social status in Africa. African-educated elite migrants emerged from low to moderate African SES (Guyen & Islam, 2015). Although there are over 400 dialects in Nigeria, for example, and over 800 languages spoken in other African countries, there is a tendency for the Black elite and educated Africans to dislike indigenous languages (Adedeji, 2015). Most English-speaking African countries use English as the official language of communication, and the aristocracy and the educated Africans behave as belonging to a different social class, showing a difference in SES compared to non-educated or non-English-speaking Africans (Pratomo et al., 2016). Therefore, using the English language in African countries also influences the ELS of the African elite.

The findings also showed that about 50% of the sample their level of PELP was above midrange ( $M = 3.09$ ,  $SD = 1.51$ ). A linear regression analysis was conducted among the sample to test the null hypothesis that PELP did not predict the ELS for Black African migrants. The results indicated that participants' PELP predicted the ELS for

Black African migrants. Therefore, the tests were significant,  $F(1, 99) = 151.09, p < .001$ ,  $t(100) = 13.15, p < .001$ , hence rejecting the null hypothesis. These findings revealed that the 95% confidence interval of .36 to .50 demonstrated that the range did not include 0, which rejected the null hypothesis. That indicated the acceptance of the alternative hypothesis; therefore, PELP predicted the ELS for Black African migrants. The results showed that when PELP increased, there was an increase in ELS.

### **Hypothesis 3**

Demographics were used to determine whether one or more demographics, such as age, gender, education, and LoS, had any relationship with ELS among Black African migrants living in the United States. However, the findings were about migrants who migrated to the United States at 18 years or older, their genders, U.S. education levels, and time lived in the United States. Studies showed a difference between older migrants and their education level (Liebau & Schacht, 2016). However, younger migrants below 18 assimilated into the U.S. culture quickly and with few impediments compared to older migrants. Additionally, younger migrants were more likely to acquire new language skills and higher U.S. education levels.

Researchers found that women's happiness decreased when women's well-being was higher than men's (Başlevent & Kirmanoğlu, 2017). Other studies indicated that the relationship between gender and life satisfaction was paid less attention to, especially when dealing with migrants in large populations like Chinese, Indians, and Black Africans (Chen, 2018). However, Chen (2018) found that when native women increased

their education levels, their happiness increased; for migrant females, their well-being only increased with employment. This finding was controversial because native females' well-being increased with education, while migrant females' well-being increased with the job. Nevertheless, further studies were needed to understand the differences among migrant groups, such as Black African migrants, based on gender.

The following findings are the length of time a migrant lived in the United States and if that period determines an increase in ELS. The results indicated otherwise because one or more demographics predicted the ELS for Black African migrants. Nzima and Moyo (2017) argued that decisions by some migrants to stay in the United States or return to their country of origin are based on success or failure in the host country. The failure was due to finances and assimilation into the U.S. culture. The literature showed that migration to a host country was based on the LoS, considering the difference in wages between the host country and their country of origin (Carrión-Flores, 2018). Although migrants were in the United States, some remitted their earnings to their countries of origin for family support, business, or related projects, which were determinants of how long those migrants would stay in the host country. Younger migrants tended to remain in the host country where their assimilation into the host culture was higher than in their countries of origin.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether one or more demographics, such as age, gender, years living in the United States, and U.S. education, predicted the ELS for participants. Using the coefficient results of gender and U.S.

education levels significantly contributed to the relationship between one or more demographics and ELS among participants. The model,  $F(4, 96) = 24.25, p < .001$ , indicated the rejection of the null hypothesis, as the 95% CI for each coefficient did not include a zero, leading to supporting the rejection of the null hypothesis. Other demographics like age and LoS had a significant value ( $p > .08$  and  $p > .34$ ) or more than .001, respectively, indicating retaining the null hypothesis.

The results revealed that most participants not educated in the United States comprised most of the sample. The results also indicated that the percentage of Black African migrants who received a U.S. education earned a bachelor's degree, master's degree, or higher education, was about 52%. That percentage demonstrated that a large proportion was educated in the United States, with the master's degree holders experiencing high levels of ELS, followed by those who earned a bachelor's degree and an HS diploma. Unexpectedly, those who earned a doctorate experienced a lower level of ELS. The study showed a significant difference in ELS between Black African migrants who earned a U.S. education and those who did not have a U.S. education.

Furthermore, the findings indicated that being male,  $t(100) = 2.55, p < .02$ , and having a U.S. education,  $t(100) = 7.96, p < .001$ , contributed three times more to ELS compared to being female. A significant relationship between one or more demographics and ELS because of U.S. education and gender; therefore, the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Men with U.S. education increased their ELS, while women with U.S. education did not increase their ELS.

### **Limitations of the Study**

There were three main limitations of this study. The first limitation was that some African migrants might have experienced difficulties perceiving ELP skills. Limited English proficiency might have negatively affected some migrants' understanding of the survey questions, resulting in incorrect responses. Those were problems that some Black Africans might experience, starting from the awareness of the ability to communicate proficiently in English, especially with Black African migrants whose common language was not English. Black African migrants with high levels of PELP skills had generally completed high school and high levels of English language training. High levels of training allowed people to write, read, or communicate effectively at home or in workplaces.

The second limitation was using a convenience sampling method for data collection. Using convenience sampling was typical when the target population was not readily accessible (Fabris et al., 2021). The convenience sampling method might be non-normally distributed when the sample size is small. Inferring the results to the entire population was impossible when the distribution was abnormal. Participants self-identified and participated in this study at their convenience using a link to the online survey.

The third limitation was the likeliness of a low participation rate. Participation rates would have been challenging for data collection when involving time restrictions. Mitigating these limitations would entail using a large sample size, extending the time for

participants to access the survey, and opening the availability of personal resources for completing the study.

### **Recommendations**

This study's findings indicated that when migrants' motivation (upper level of needs) increased, their ELS also increased. However, that increase only applied to some participants because most experienced low motivation. The findings also indicated that some responses were not within the bell curve, so data were not normally distributed. Because most participants indicated low motivation levels, it is recommended that another study be conducted to find out the reason for low motivation levels. Reaching high levels of motivation was linked to personal achievements and getting one's fullest potential, which was ME and self-actualization (Maslow, 1948; Xuzhou et al., 2018). Therefore, African migrants could only experience high levels of ELS with high levels of motivation.

The second finding was related to PELP, where the results indicated that participants' level of PELP was above the median range. The findings also showed that the responses were not within the bell curve. Therefore, the data were not normally distributed. PELP should be used in future studies as a variable to determine whether the responses to the future survey will have normally distributed data.

The last part of the recommendations was the findings from demographics. The results about the participants' ages indicated that their responses to the survey were not affected by their ages. Most scores clustered in the middle of the distribution, suggesting



the normal distribution of participants' ages. Similarly, LoS indicated normality in the distribution. However, the findings in the study on gender indicated a difference in ELS between the groups. Males experienced higher levels of ELS than females. I recommend additional future studies on ELS levels of Black African women compared to males, as there were limited studies on the ELS among migrants like Chinese, Indians, and Black African migrants (see Chen, 2018).

Education benefits people, including migrants, and is an essential investment humans make for themselves (Nikolaev, 2018). People with high levels of education tended to live longer and healthier lives. Additionally, Nikolaev (2018) confirmed that people with higher levels of schooling earned higher incomes and were not a burden to public systems. The findings in this study indicated that half of the participants needed a U.S. education. Participants with a U.S. education had a high school diploma, a bachelor's degree, a master's degree, and a doctorate, accounting for over half. Participants with a U.S. education experienced higher levels of ELS than those with no U.S. education. Further studies are recommended for comparing U.S. education and individual African countries' education programs concerning accreditation.

### **Implications for Social Change**

When Black African migrants experienced disparities in their economic well-being, some of those migrants with low language proficiency skills tended to be motivated toward improving those skills. That motivation led migrants to training centers and improved their English language skills. Other migrants pursued additional

professional skills, which made them find better-paying jobs. Experiencing low economic well-being was a problem for many migrants with limited language proficiency.

Additionally, some low-income migrants had a strong desire to return to their home country (Bijwaard & Wahba, 2014). The return of migrants to their countries of origin was not beneficial to the United States because it increased the labor market gap. The United States needed migrant workers to fill the labor market gaps caused by the baby boomer generation retiring from the U.S. workforce. Therefore, the problem was understanding the relationship between PELP and ELS for Black African migrants from English-speaking African countries living in the United States.

Demographics, such as age, gender, education level, and LoS, from the study indicated that some demographics affected positive social change in the new country migrants called home. Younger migrants adapted to the new culture, became proficient in English language skills, and earned U.S. education levels, leading to finding better jobs. According to the findings, male migrants found better-paying jobs than females, not only because of having earned a U.S. education but also from being male.

The LoS of migrants in the United States was controversial. Some researchers argued that people believed migrating to a host country was a permanent move; studies also indicated that it was not always accurate because some migrants desired to return to their home country (Belgiojoso, 2016). The results played an essential role for public policymakers when attracting new migrants, such as Black African migrants, to the United States. A positive social change occurred when migrants improved their language

proficiency, enjoyed better SES, and contributed to their community as they assimilated into the U.S. culture.

This study's sample was drawn from Black African migrants from English-speaking countries in Africa but living in the United States. Participants were 18 years or older and were born originally in Sub-Saharan Africa. Black African migrants from countries that did not use English as the official language were excluded. Also excluded were Euro-Africans, Arabs, Indians, or other ethnic groups living in Africa. Black Africans in the United States with a student or temporary visa or their families who were not permanent residents were omitted.

### **Conclusion**

The labor gap in the United States has been increasing for several years because of the baby boomers retiring and the low birth rate. Filling the U.S. labor gap, migration to the United States continued to be not only the source of labor for migrants but to fill up the U.S. labor market with new skills. These migrants come from all over the globe, including millions of migrants from African countries. As migrants joined the U.S. workforce, some migrants did not fulfill their dreams. These migrants, like Black Africans, lived on low-paying jobs compared to their fellow White African migrants (Bideshi & Kposowa, 2012; Elo et al., 2015). Some researchers posited that lack of assimilation, low education levels, and ELP affected these migrants' ELS (Bideshi & Kposowa, 2012; Elo et al., 2015); therefore, the problem for this study was whether there

was any relationship between ELP and the ELS of Black African migrants living in the United States.

For this study, I used Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivation theory to determine whether there was any connection between motivation for the upper level of needs (esteem and self-actualization) and ELS among Black African migrants in the United States. Furthermore, one or more demographics (age, gender, education level, and LoS) were used to determine whether one or more demographics influenced PELP levels on ELS. The quantitative methodology related the independent (PELP) and dependent variable (ELS) to the research questions and hypothesis.

The correlational design was used to determine the relationship between the variables. Other techniques, such as quasi and true-experimental, were not applicable because of requiring intervention. Therefore, the focus of this study was to find out what determined Black African migrants living in the United States would be paid less than other racial groups. Conducting this study implied that public policymakers may create successful immigration policies to help migrants assimilate into host countries' cultures.

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## Appendix A: Community Partner Agreement

This form is the first step of the required ethics approval process for doctoral capstones and all other student/staff research projects that would be linked to Walden University in any way (i.e., published with a Walden affiliation, funded by Walden).

You can view a video introduction to this form and the ethics review process by clicking [here](#). Your responses to this form will allow Walden's Office of Research Ethics and Compliance (OREC) to determine which ethics form(s), partner approvals, and Institutional Review Board (IRB) review steps your project would require in order to be in compliance with university policies and federal regulations.

The Office of Research Ethics and Compliance (OREC) is charged with ensuring that every study affiliated with the university meets the institution's ethical standards. This includes the protection of human subjects as well as ethical partnerships with sites and appropriate usage of scholarly tools. All doctoral capstones require ethics approval from OREC, even those that might be considered exempt from IRB oversight at other institutions.

After reviewing the applicant's responses within this form, OREC will email the applicant one of the following within 10 business days:

- (a) a list of the documents and approvals that will be required for ethics approval of the proposed project; or
- (b) a request for more information in order to determine which forms and documentation are needed for ethics approval of the project.

**Directions for doctoral students:**

**You may submit this form any time after your chair has uploaded the proposal for the URR into the MyDR system.**

**Please note that ethics approval cannot be finalized until after the proposal is fully approved in the MyDR system. (OREC will be automatically notified when this occurs and will reach out to you within 2 business days to ask you to update your IRB documents with any minor changes that were made as a result of the proposal approval process).**

**Data collection that is begun prior to receiving explicit IRB approval from [IRB@mail.waldenu.edu](mailto:IRB@mail.waldenu.edu) does not qualify for academic credit toward degree requirements. Student researchers must remain enrolled in a course with their faculty supervisor during data collection.**

**Researchers may NOT begin recruiting individual participants (i.e., obtaining consent form signatures) prior to IRB approval.**

## Appendix B: Permission to Conduct Research

[REDACTED]

Dear [REDACTED],

Re: Permission Letter to Conduct Research at Your Site

I am a doctoral student at Walden University, in the School of Public Policy and Administration. This letter is for asking permission to carry out a research project at your church facility. As per our verbal discussion last November, the time has come to seek an official permission letter from the [REDACTED]

I would deeply appreciate an email response granting the permission to carry out the study at the church facility.

Sincerely,

John Ndunduma  
Walden University Doctoral Student  
School of Public Policy and Administration  
Email: [REDACTED]

**From:** Chuka <[REDACTED]>  
**Date:** January 22, 2018 at 7:29:59 PM CST  
**To:** John Ndunduma <[REDACTED]>  
**Cc:** [REDACTED]  
**Subject:** Re: Seeking Permission Letter

Dear [REDACTED],

The pastor and session of the church have approved your request to proceed with your doctoral research project in our church - [REDACTED]. I will be your point of contact while you conduct your research with our church members.

Per my conversation with our members, majority of them prefer to fill out hard copies of the questionnaire instead of the electronic version via email. Can you send me the questionnaire in word or pdf format so that I can print and distribute to them? Please let me know if you have any questions. You can as well call me on my mobile number - [REDACTED].

God bless you,

[REDACTED]

## Appendix C: Letter of Invitation

Dear Participant,

I am John Ndunduma, a student at Walden University, completing the final requirements for a doctorate degree.

I am inviting you to participate in the study on the effects of people's perception of their level of English language proficiency on economic life satisfaction for Black African migrants living in the United States.

The study survey takes about 15 to minutes of your time to complete.

You are chosen to participate because you are a part of the Black African migrant community living in the U. S. The chairperson of my research committee is [REDACTED] and he can be contacted via email: [REDACTED].

To be eligible to participate in the study you must meet the following criteria:

- (a) You were born in a Sub-Saharan African country where English is the official language of the country but may not be the common language used in the country.
- (b) You migrated to the U.S. at the age of 18 years or older.
- (c) You lived in the U.S. more than one year.

I am also a Black African migrant from a Sub-Saharan African country and I understand the value of your time.

There is no financial compensation for your participation, but I will be very grateful for your participation. All the information provided in the study is strictly confidential and all the data kept in a highly secured and protected environment. However, no names, addresses, or any other information is requested in the study. None of that information is a requirement to participate in the study.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to help U.S. public policy makers address the economic life satisfaction of Black African migrants in the U.S. Another benefit is providing public policy makers with information for increasing opportunities to new migrants by funding programs needed by some migrants.

To voluntarily participate in the study, please read the consent form. At the end of the form you will be asked to agree with the terms outlined in the form by checking the yes box.

John Ndunduma  
PhD Doctoral Candidate  
[REDACTED]

## Appendix D: Bulletin Ad Seeking Research Participants

# Seeking Research Participants

**Help!**  
Study on Black African Migrants Living in the  
U.S.

Are You from Sub-Saharan Africa?  
I Need You.  
100 Research Participants Needed **Click this  
link for access**

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/BAMSQ>

## Appendix E: Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative



Completion Date 13-Mar-2021  
Expiration Date N/A  
Record ID 38319746

This is to certify that:

**John Ndunduma**

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

Not valid for renewal of certification through CME.

**Student's**  
(Curriculum Group)  
**Doctoral Student Researchers**  
(Course Learner Group)  
**1 - Basic Course**  
(Stage)

Under requirements set by:

**Walden University**



Verify at [www.citiprogram.org/verify/?w59ec9b2e-87c9-4e84-b725-5831e9535128-38319746](http://www.citiprogram.org/verify/?w59ec9b2e-87c9-4e84-b725-5831e9535128-38319746)

## Appendix F: Black African Migrants Satisfaction Questionnaire Instrument

Thank you for participating in this important survey. Remember that your responses are confidential and remain anonymous. We appreciate your honest responses.

**Directions**

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements by choosing one number that closely indicates your answer. Please answer all questions to the best of your ability.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

### Survey Questions

Please indicate your agreement with the						
Section 1: Adult and ESL Literacy Learning Self-Efficacy (AELLSE)						
3.	I do a good job of participating in discussions conducted in English.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I am good at using English language skills wherever I go.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I have no problem speaking in English with other people.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I do not have any problem speaking in English when I should.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	I always think I am good at speaking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	I feel confident about my ability to speak clearly in English.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	I can motivate myself to speak in English.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	I understand English well when speaking with people in authority.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	I am good at communicating with the native and non-native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	I can learn and use new English words in my conversation easily.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	My speaking ability does not worry me.	1	2	3	4	5
		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

I am able to keep speaking in English even when people tease me.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I decide to say something in English, I go ahead and say it.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
It is not difficult for me to concentrate while speaking in English with others.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Please check one box to indicate how best this statement describes you. There are no right or wrong answers so please be as honest as possible. Please answer all the questions.</b>					
1	2	3	4	5	
Completely disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Completely agree	

### Needs Assessment Questionnaire (NAQ)

#### Section 2: Motivation for Esteem (ME)

I am successful in life, and I am recognized by my peers for being so.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am satisfied with the responsibility and role that I have in life, my status and reputation, and my level of self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have been able to achieve competence in a specialized area (such as welding, teaching, etc.) in my career or life.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel confident about my abilities and myself at work or in general.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consider myself to be independent and I am able to do things that I want to do in life.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I often received positive attention or recognition from my peers in my life or on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### Section 3: Motivation for Self-Actualization (MSA)

I feel as though I have done everything I can do to be the most successful I can be in, my life.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I currently have achieved all or most of what I want in life as of today.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My aim is self-knowledge and enlightenment in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The most important thing to me in life is realizing my ultimate personal potential.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I seek and welcome reaching "peak" experiences in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The following statements describe some ways families experience economic strain. Please, circle the response for each of the statements below indicating how often the situation that is described applied to you.

<b>Section 4: Cantril's Self-Anchoring Striving Scale (CSSS)</b>					
<b>Over the last five years ...</b>					
1	2	3	4	5	
Severely decreased	Slightly decreased	No change	Slightly increased	Severely increased	
<b>My total income has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My financial assets have...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My total financial situation has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My retirement "nest egg" has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My standard of living, the things that I purchase, such as housing, food, transportation, and recreation has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My ability to meet my usual monthly living expenses has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>The amount that I am able to save and invest has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My ability to meet unexpected expenses has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>The total consumer debt that I owe has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>How often I worry about the amount of money I am required to pay on my month debts has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>My use of credit cards has...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>In the next five years...</b>					
1	2	3	4	5	
Severely decreased	Decreased	No change	Increased	Severely increased	
<b>My total amount of income will...</b>	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



My ability to save and invest will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
My ability to meet large emergency expenses will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
My retirement "nest egg" will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
The amount of debt I have will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
The total financial situation will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
My insurance coverage will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
My standard of living, the things I purchase such as housing, food, transportation, and recreation will...	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Demographic Questionnaire</b>					
Please tell us your age.	----- Years				
Please state your gender.	Male <input type="checkbox"/>				Female <input type="checkbox"/>
What is your highest level of education completed in the U.S.?	Less Than H/S    high school    Bachelors    Masters    Doctorate				
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
How many years have you lived in the U.S.?	----- Years				

Thank you for taking part in this survey

## Appendix G: Permission to Use the Needs Assessment Questionnaire

[REDACTED]  
January 22nd, 2018

Dr. Marvin-Humann,

Re: Permission to use part of the Needs Assessment Questionnaire

My name is John Ndunduma, a doctoral student at Walden University and working on my dissertation project. With the deepest respect that I am contacting you seeking permission to use part of the questionnaire instrument of your research on "The relationship between motivation, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, time, and craving levels in the mandated substance abuse treatment population."

I am seeking permission to use the measurement for the study I am presently conducting which is the effects of acculturation on the economic well-being of Black African migrants living in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas area.

The measurement tools are found on pages 122, Appendix C, of the ProQuest publication: Marvin-Humann, K. (2008). The relationship between motivation, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, time, and craving levels in the mandated substance abuse treatment population (Order No. 3335429).

I would deeply appreciate if you would grant that permission to use the instrument.

Sincerely,

John Ndunduma  
Walden University – Public Policy and Administration student  
[REDACTED]

**From:** Kristin Marvin <kmarv786@hotmail.com>  
**Sent:** Wednesday, January 31, 2018 6:53:55 PM  
**To:** John Ndunduma  
**Subject:** Needs assessment scale

Hi John, what an interesting email to receive. Absolutely you may use that needs assessment scale. Good luck with your dissertation and I'd love to hear how it turns out.

Dr M

## Appendix H: Permission to Use the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

John Ndunduma  
[REDACTED]

February 15th, 2018

Dr. Mikulecky,

Re: Permission to use the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

My name is John Ndunduma, a doctoral student at Walden University and working on my dissertation project. It is with my deepest respect that I am contacting you seeking permission to use the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire you developed for "Adult and ESL Literacy Self-Efficacy Questionnaire."

I am seeking permission to use the measurement to adapt to the study I am presently conducting which is the effects of acculturation on the economic well-being of Black African migrants living in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas area.

The measurement tools are found on pages 21 - 22, Appendix, of ERIC publication: Mikulecky, L., Llyod, P. & Huang, S. C. (1996). Adult and ESL literacy learning self-efficacy questionnaire. ERIC#: ED394022.

I would deeply appreciate if you would grant that permission to use the instrument.

Sincerely,

John Ndunduma

Walden University – Public Policy and Administration student  
[REDACTED]

From: Mikulecky, Larry J. <mikuleck@indiana.edu>  
Sent: Thursday, February 15, 2018 11:35:51 AM  
To: John Ndunduma

Subject: Re: Seeking Permission to Use the Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

John,

You certainly have my permission. Good luck with your work.

Larry Mikulecky  
Sent from my iPad