Black Ethnics: Race, Immigration, and the Pursuit of the American Dream

Christina M. Greer

Christina M. Greer is an associate professor of political science at Fordham University, where she focuses on American, ethnic, urban, and presidential politics. She is a frequent political commentator; produces and hosts *The Aftermath with Christina Greer*, a series of political commentary videos; and cohosts the podcast FAQ-NYC.

A Theory of Black Elevated Minority Status

Before Barack Obama exploded onto the national political scene in 2004, the Republicans, as some may remember, were giddy with excitement over their own special potential candidate for the presidency. In 1992, Colin Powell's name was being thrown around as a possible running mate for then president George H. W. Bush, and in 1995, his name was mentioned as a possible GOP presidential candidate. Powell seemed to have stepped out of a GOP's dream. He was a general in the US Army, and for many whites, he transcended race. Not only had he been quoted on the record as saying, "I ain't that black" (Gates 1997: 84), but he seemed to be the antithesis of

Jesse Jackson, the most recent serious black candidate for a party's nomination. Jackson had run for the Democratic nomination for presidency in 1984 and 1988 and was what many in white America viewed as a quintessential African American: descendant of US slavery and the South, a student of the Baptist preaching tradition, a product of a broken home, and a social agitator. General Powell, for many, was a product of arguably one of the most established institutions of American patriotism. He was fair skinned, "articulate," a product of the US military, and a leader in what many viewed as a successful Gulf War. But Powell possessed something else that made him *special*: In the eyes of some of his supporters, he was not African American. For many, it was his Jamaican heritage that made him different, that explained his discipline, professional excellence, and supreme intellect.

Fast forward to 2008, when Barack Obama, the son of a man from Kenya and a woman from Kansas, captivated the hearts of so many Americans. Many of the same conversations began linking Obama and Powell as an ideal presidential candidate, despite not being *really* African American—that is, not a descendant of US slavery and therefore possessing a different relationship with America. I wondered if Obama would have been as attractive to American voters, white voters in particular, if his background were that of a man from Detroit and a woman from Duluth, or a man from Newark and a woman from Nebraska, or a man from Oakland and a woman from Omaha. You see where I am going with this line of thought.

The subtle but significant message of his non-African American heritage was a variable both black and white voters initially discussed, debated, and ultimately digested. Many voters saw Obama as black, whether his dad was from Kenya or Kentucky. For some voters, when presented with ethnic diversity, Obama's lack of "authenticity" complicated their sense of racial attachment. For others, though, the comparisons to Jesse Jackson were endless. Whereas Jackson was portrayed as obsessed with race and racial politics, specifically black politics, Obama was presented as a "postracial" candidate. Obama had a racial identity that linked him to the black population, but he was different. For many, he did not have the same "racial baggage" as ninth-generation African Americans—the Jesse Jacksons of the world—thus begging the question, what does racial identity and ethnic distinction mean for blacks living in America? ...

The Blurred Color Line

... Over one hundred years ago, caste systems were recognized as "natural" ways of organizing individuals in American society. Rigid castelike systems no longer exist in the United States, but a new type of caste system threatens the country today. It is not one imposed by overt white power subjugating people of color into slave and indentured servant positions; rather, the new caste system that now threatens American democracy comes from within the deeply seated mind-sets of those who were once held in subservient positions. This mind-set is even shared by newly arriving

immigrants who possess a knowledge of America's past practices and who strive to position themselves as far from the "bottom" caste as possible. The modern-day caste struggle is most poignantly played out in some of the interactions between native-born black Americans and their black ethnic counterparts who understand the continued burden of the color line and the weight of race in the United States....

At the core, all discussions of race and ethnicity for blacks in America must emphasize the duality that exists for these diverse groups of blacks. Afro-Caribbean and African immigrants living in America have experienced forms of oppression, racism, and subjugation as blacks, even by blacks. For example, residential segregation of blacks has often swiftly introduced black immigrant ethnic groups to the inequities still faced by blacks in the United States. However, this forced integration of native-born blacks and foreign-born blacks, due to segregation, has also produced tensions, mistrust, and competition among black groups (Kasinitz, Battle, and Miyares 2001; Massey and Denton 1988). The historically racist black-white paradigm has extended to black immigrants in many ways. However, this black-white paradigm has also manifested itself in more positive ways for foreign-born blacks. The historical racism and oppression in the United States seems to have either placed Afro-Caribbean and African populations with black Americans, both literally and symbolically, or have treated Afro-Caribbean and African immigrants as different, that is, harder working, smarter,

and/or "better" than native-born blacks, what <u>Rogers (2006)</u> defines as "good blacks."

The understanding of race for black newcomers is that racial formation and construction is a largely unique phenomenon applicable to the United States. New immigrants may not easily or readily accept or adhere to the racial categories ascribed to them upon their arrival in the country and therefore cannot (or should not) be expected to automatically accept or identify with the larger black American racial category or group as a whole. Studies have documented Afro-Caribbean populations expressing disillusionment with assimilation in the United States and thereby becoming "black Americans" as opposed to just "Americans," like their white immigrant counterparts (Rogers 2000; Waters 1994; Foner 1987).² ... Once black immigrants arrive in the United States, they become black American, not just American. The concepts of race, identity, and national origin have created a complex set of issues for the individual and for the larger group....

Many immigrant groups share similar obstacles when arriving in the United States. Some scholars have argued that African and Caribbean immigrants may have more in common with other immigrants from across the globe than with native-born black Americans (Portes and Rumbaut 2001). First-generation black immigrants in the United States have faced overwhelming pressures to identify only as "blacks" (Kasinitz 1992; Foner 1987). In fact, they have been described as "invisible immigrants" (Bryce-Laporte 1972),

because rather than being contrasted with other immigrants (for example, evaluating Jamaican successes as compared with Chinese), they have been compared most often to black Americans. Because racial phenotype seems to link black ethnics into one racial group, can and will substantive coalitions form? Black groups are clearly grouped together in the United States. However, whether their fates are ultimately linked is part of a larger and constantly changing black ethnic puzzle.

Linked Fates and Coalition Building

Over the past several decades, significant strides have been made by blacks achieving educational success, attaining occupational advancements, and being incorporated into the middle class. However, dark skin is still correlated with poverty in the United States and throughout the globe (Segura and Rodrigues 2006); therefore, class position, societal status, and opportunities for political and economic advancement are in many ways racially assigned in the United States. Race is obviously a physical characteristic that has been used in this country to distinguish a certain group of people with similar phenotypes. This color distinction has led to widespread discrimination and inequities, as Rogers (2006) analyzed, thus lumping phenotypically similar individuals together based on outward identity, without accounting for the existence of differing self-identifications and belief systems.

The racial socialization of people of African descent living in the United States has had distinguishing effects on black populations, one of a "blended" cultural heritage (<u>Larkey, Hecht, and Martin 1993</u>) that emphasizes and connects to African ancestry and representation, as well as subjugation in American culture (<u>Anglin and Whaley 2006</u>). Due to shared skin color with native-born populations, foreign-born black phenotype serves as a basis for discrimination in America (<u>Deaux et al. 2007</u>).

New black immigrants also discover the inequities present in America and the subsequent negotiations with race and identity that directly affect their pursuits of becoming "American" without the mandatory modifier "black." For foreign-born blacks, their American status has a permanent "black" modifier attached to it. The permanent prefix aids in preventing native-born and foreignborn populations from attaining the same American incorporation experienced by ... nonblack immigrants. Black racial classification has affected first- and second-generation black ethnics in that they did not experience the same processes of assimilation as previous white immigrant populations (Waters 1998; Kinder and Sanders 1996) Thus, black immigrants seek ways to reduce and possibly diminish the negative effects of the minority status imposed on their American status. It is because of this linking of black immigrants to native-born blacks that in-group fighting and competition decreases opportunities for substantive coalition building. As Afro-Caribbean and African black populations are occasionally promoted to elevated minority status over native-born black populations by whites,

coalitional efforts are severely jeopardized and undermined within the larger black group. In that, one group is promoted and their interests are advanced at the expense and exclusion of others.⁴ ...

All of the Blacks Are American. All of the Immigrants Are Latino. But Some of Us Are ...?

Black Americans have largely been categorized in comparison to whites, based on region, political affiliation, class, and education levels. Segura and Rodrigues (2006: 376) argued that the "historical construction of a racial dynamic that is almost exclusively binary, i.e., black and white ... [and] racial and ethnic interactions between Anglos and other minority groups are assumed to mimic—to some degree—the black-white experience." Simply put, Segura and Rodrigues argued that the "black-white paradigm is no longer sufficient to provide genuine understanding of the political circumstances and experiences of all nonwhite groups" (ibid.: 391)

Several nonblack and nonwhite immigrant groups have expressed feelings of an "in-between" status in which they are "not Black but not White" (Perlmann and Waldinger 1997: 905) or "native born, and not black" (Cordero-Guzman, Smith, and Grosfoguel 2001: 6; Smith 1996). This in-between status for nonblack and nonwhite immigrants extends to black immigrants as well, thereby creating a complex duality in defining race, place, and status in American society. Elationships pertaining to electoral behaviors,

partisanship, group mobilization, and other group politics cannot necessarily easily translate into similar black immigrant experiences and relationships with whites and other nonblack populations (Leighley and Vedlitz 1999). According to the US census, the face of black America now includes over 1.5 million immigrants from African nations and over 3.5 million black immigrants from the Caribbean, representing close to 10 percent of the total black population (US Census Bureau 2010).

How blacks in America imagine and create black ethnic coalitions directly relates to how scholars can apply these multifaceted relationships to numerous other ethnic communities. The physical characteristics that seem to link native-born and immigrant blacks and the inequities of resources that continue to affect black peoples in America have led to what <u>Bobo and Hutchings (1996)</u> label as ingroup superiorities, elements of ethnocentrism, and overall group hostilities. The limited access to larger political and economic goals creates intraracial tensions and resentments between native-born and newcomer populations. However, the competition among black groups jockeying for anything but last place in the social order has also created a link, bond, or even an understanding of the role of blackness in American society. Descriptive representation—that is, shared characteristics along racial and ethnic (and gender) lines helps promote feelings of "solidarity, familiarity, and self-esteem among members of that respective group" (Junn and Masuoka 2008: 731; see also Dovi 2002; Mansbridge 2003; Pitkin 1967). The jockeying for economic and political placement in civil society is

intraracial (between black ethnic groups) as well as extraracial (between other minority, immigrant, and ethnic groups). It is because of the systemic racism that has occurred, and (to the surprise of many black immigrants) still occurs, that a sense of black racial alliance can be measured....

Notes

- <u>1</u>. This label was applied to Jackson for his many protests pertaining to civil rights, equal rights, corporate divestment from South Africa, housing equity, etc.
- 2. There is a host of literature that outlines how Jewish, Italian, Irish, and other white ethnic populations became "white." However, although their paths to incorporation may have begun with an identification with blacks during the early stages of assimilation, these immigrant groups were able to transcend ethnicity and identify racially, thus shedding light on the fluidity of ethnicity and the permanence of race. Whites are grouped into a homogeneous category. Sipress (1997:181) comments: "The 'whitening' of Irish-Americans provides an example of a marginal social group that embraced a racial identity to advance its own interests." The "whitening" of the Irish race is discussed by Ignatiev (1995: 1), who notes that "whites" are "those who partake of the privileges of the white skin in this society. Its most wretched members share a status higher, in certain respects, than that of the most exalted persons excluded from it." Similar assimilation tactics were used by Italian and Jewish immigrants in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries as well (Fears 2003). These ethnic groups often used party politics and coalition building to bridge the cultural divide (Logan 2003). However, the political inclusion, participation, and ultimate assimilation of Irish, Italian, and Jewish immigrants has also been largely due to the color line in America. Whereas these immigrants were not considered white at some point in time, the color line shifted, and inclusion followed suit. [For a discussion of such a shift in the color line, see "How Jews Became White Folks, and What That Says About Race in America," by Karen Brodkin, in Part I of this volume.
- <u>3</u>. Multiracial coalitions primarily focus on the issues of racial and ethnic equality (<u>Hochschild and Rogers 2000</u>). However, this emphasis on equality in the face of diverse histories and negotiations with assimilation and incorporation often lead[s] to groups fragmenting into competitive factions. Thus, biracial and multiracial coalitions are thought to be unattainable due to past political

disagreements, individual attitudes about other groups, and fears among minority groups within the larger group (Tedin and Murray 1994). Intraracial distrust exists among black ethnic populations and has thus contributed to ethnic factions and decreased rates of collective actions (Okamoto 2003). However, possibilities for coalition building will still be greater among groups with a shared racial classification even if cross-racial migratory narratives may appear more similar. See also Hochschild, Weaver, and Burch 2012.

- 4. Betancur and Gills (2000) also argue that coalitional efforts are undermined when influential leaders advance only the interests of one group to the exclusion of others. This is most clearly demonstrated in Miami when observing the NAACP and the loss of significant numbers of members of Haitian descent. The defection of Haitian members from the NAACP as well as the National Urban League signaled a disconnect between the black American leadership and predominantly black American membership within these two organizations, and a small but growing population who felt their needs and wants (i.e., increased attention to international issues, specifically issues affecting Haitians both in Haiti and in Florida) were not being addressed by the organization elite.
- <u>5</u>. Okamoto (2003) argued that the construction of pan-ethnic boundaries and a pan-ethnic identity affect collective action efforts. Similarly, <u>Padilla (1985)</u> stated that differences in language, culture, and immigration histories also affect organizing capabilities and understandings of a common fate.

References

Anglin, Deidre M., and Arthur L. Whaley. 2006. Racial/Ethnic Self-labeling in Relation to Group Socialization and Identity in African-Descended Individuals. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 25, no. 4 (December): 457–63.

Betancur, John Jairo, and Doug Gills. 2000. *The Collaborative City: Opportunities and Struggles for Blacks and Latinos in U.S. Cities*. Garland Reference Library of Social Science, vol. 1461. New York: Garland.

Bobo, Lawrence, and Vincent L. Hutchings. 1996. Perceptions of Racial Group Competition: Extending Blumer's Theory of Group Position to a Multiracial Social Context. *American Sociological Review* 61, no. 6 (December): 951–72.

Bryce-Laporte, Roy Simon. 1972. Black Immigrants: The Experience of Invisibility and Inequality. Journal of Black Studies 3 (September): 29–56.

- Cordero-Guzmán, Héctor R., Robert C. Smith, and Ramón Grosfoguel. 2001. *Migration, Transnationalization, and Race in a Changing New York*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Deaux, Kay, Nida Bikmen, Alwyn Gilkes, Ana Ventuneac, Yvanne Joseph, Yasser Payne, and Claude Steele. 2007. Becoming American: Stereotype Threat Effects in Afro-Caribbean Immigrant Groups. *Social Psychology Quarterly* 70, no. 4: 384–404.
- Dovi, Suzanne. 2002. Preferable Descriptive Representatives: Will Just Any Woman, Black, or Latino Do? *American Political Science Review* 96, no. 4 (December): 729–43.
- Fears, Darryl. 2003. Disparity Marks Black Ethnic Groups, Report Says. Washington Post, March 9.
- Foner, Nancy. 1987. The Jamaicans: Race and Ethnicity among Migrants in New York City. In *New Immigrants in New York*, ed. Nancy Foner. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Gates, Henry L. 1997. Thirteen Ways of Looking at a Black Man. New York: Vintage Books.
- Hochschild, J., and R. Rogers. 2000. Race Relations in a Diversifying Nation. In *New Directions: African Americans in a Diversifying Nation*, edited by James S. Jackson. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Ignatiev, Noel. 1995. How the Irish Became White. New York: Routledge.
- Junn, Jane, and Natalie Masuoka. 2008. Asian American Identity: Shared Racial Status and Political Context. *Perspectives on Politics* 6, no. 4: 729–40.
- Kasinitz, Philip. 1992. *Caribbean New York: Black Immigrants and the Politics of Race.* Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Kasinitz, Philip, Juan Battle, and Ines Miyares. 2001. Fade to Black?: The Children of West Indian Immigrants in South Florida. In *Ethnicities: Coming of Age in Immigrant America*, edited by Alejandro Portes and Ruben Rumbaut, 267–300. Berkeley: Russell Sage Foundation and the University of California Press.
- Kinder, Donald R., and Lynn M. Sanders. 1996. *Divided by Color: Racial Politics and Democratic Ideals*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Larkey, L. K., M. L. Hecht, and Judith Martin. 1993. What's in a Name? African American Ethnic Identity Terms and Self-Determination. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* 12, no. 4: 302–17.
- Leighley, Jan E., and Arnold Vedlitz. 1999. Race, Ethnicity, and Political Participation: Competing Models and Contrasting Explanations. *Journal of Politics* 61, no. 4 (November): 1092–1114.

- Logan, John R. 2003, July. How Race Counts for Hispanic Americans. Retrieved June 15, 2006, from http://mumford1.dyndns.org/cen2000/BlackLatinoReport/BlackLatino01.htm.
- Mansbridge, Jane. 2003. Rethinking Representation. *American Political Science Review* 97, no. 4: 515–28.
- ______. 1999. Should Blacks Represent Blacks and Women Represent Women? A Contingent "Yes." *Journal of Politics* 61, no. 3 (August): 628–57.
- Massey, Douglas S., and Nancy A. Denton. 1988. The Dimensions of Residential Segregation. *Social Forces* 67, no. 2: 281–315.
- Padilla, Felix. 1985. *Latino Ethnic Consciousness: The Case of Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in Chicago*. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Perlmann, Joel, and Roger Waldinger. 1997. Second Generation Decline? Children of Immigrants, Past and Present—A Reconsideration. *International Migration Review* 31, no. 4 (Winter): 893–922.
- Pitkin, Hanna. 1967. *The Concept of Political Representation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Portes, Alejandro, and Rubén G. Rumbaut. 2001. Legacies: The Story of the Immigrant Second Generation. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Portes, Alejandro, and Alex Stepick. 1993. *City on the Edge: The Transformation of Miami.* Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Rogers, Reuel Reuben. 2006. *Afro-Caribbean Immigrants and the Politics of Incorporation: Ethnicity, Exception, or Exit.* New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Identity. In *Black and Multiracial Politics in America*, edited by Yvette M. Alex-Assensoh and Lawrence J. Hanks, 15–59. New York: New York University Press.
- Segura, Gary M., and Helena Alves Rodrigues. 2006. Comparative Ethnic Politics in the United States: Beyond Black and White. *Annual Review of Political Science* 9: 375–95.
- Sipress, Joel M. 1997. Relearning Race: Teaching Race as a Cultural Construction. *History Teacher* 30, no. 2 (February): 175–85.
- Smith, Robert C. 1996. Mexicans in New York City: Membership and Incorporation of New Immigrant Groups. In *Latinos in New York: Communities in Transition*, edited by Gabriel Haslip-

- Viera and Sherrie L. Baver. Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.
- Tedin, Kent L., and Richard W. Murray. 1994. Support for Biracial Political Coalitions among Blacks and Hispanics. *Social Science Quarterly* 75, no. 4: 772–89.
- Waters, Mary C. 1998. Multiple Ethnic Identity Choices. In *Beyond Pluralism: The Conception of Groups and Group Identities in America*, edited by Wendy F. Katkin, Ned Landsman, and Andrea Tyree, 28–46. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Waters, Mary C. 1994. Ethnic and Racial Identities of Second-Generation Black Immigrants in New York City. *International Migration Review* 28, no. 4 (Winter): 795–820.