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Kinship Support in Jamaican Families in the USA and Jamaica

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Families engage in frequent intergenerational contact and provide important forms of social support to members (Rossi & Rossi, 1990). However, immigrant families can face considerable challenges in providing support to family members who are geographically dispersed. Presently, about 13% of the U.S. population is foreign-born (American Community Survey, U.S. Census, 2013). Further, 62% of foreign-born family households as compared to 47% of native-born family households include children under the age of 18 (Greico et al., 2012) indicating that the children of immigrants are a substantial portion of the population. Previous research indicates that kin relations and social support are important for the economic welfare (Massey 1990; Massey, Arango, Hugo, Kouaouci, Pellegrino, & Taylor, 1993) and emotional well-being (Levine et al., 2015; Lincoln et al. 2007; Taylor et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2012) of immigrants and their families. Because many immigrants to the U.S. have immediate and/or extended family members who have remained in their country of origin, immigrant families tend to develop and maintain elaborate systems of transnational kinship relations and support. This study investigates these issues by exploring both the provision and receipt of social support among Jamaican immigrants residing in the United States (referred to as Jamaican immigrants) and Jamaicans living in Jamaica (referred to as Jamaican nationals).

Investigations of the patterns and impact of social support within U.S. immigrant families is a fairly recent area of inquiry in family studies (e.g., Taylor et al., 2014; Clark, Glick & Bures, 2009; Perreira, Chapman, & Stein, 2006). Generally, research on kin support in family and migration studies has focused on providers of support, such as giving or sending immigrant remittances, or those who receive support (e.g., dependent spouses, children, and

the elderly). Absent from studies of immigrant families have been comparisons of familial patterns and behaviors among immigrants and their non-migrating co-ethnics in the country of origin (Clark et al. 2009). For example, studies of kin support among Caribbean Black families in either host countries (e.g., U.S., Canada, Britain) or in the Caribbean have largely been ethnographic. The relatively small sample sizes of ethnographic studies suggests that particular patterns of kin support and interactions may exist within a selected number of families rather than within an ethnic population. In particular, few, if any, studies of immigrant families have utilized large-scale quantitative data to assess the patterns of social support among both immigrants residing in receiving nations and individuals in home countries.

This study addresses this gap and contributes to the growing body of literature on immigrant families by examining patterns of kin support among Jamaican immigrants in the U.S. and their counterparts in Jamaica (Jamaican nationals). Understanding patterns and levels of social support among immigrant families has substantial implications for assessing the well-being of individuals and immigrant families, patterns of social mobility, and social service usage. The literature review begins with a discussion of research on family support exchanges among immigrant families and the application of the family solidarity model from the field of family studies (Bengtson, Giarrusso, Mabry & Silverstein, 2002; McChesney & Bengtson, 1988). Following this, we examine literature on Jamaican families and social support systems with specific attention to kinship relationships and support exchanges in relation to the immigration and resettlement experience. A particular focus of this discussion considers how the tenets and processes described in the family solidarity model are enacted within a transnational family context.

Family Solidarity and Social Support among Immigrant Families

The importance of kin support and extended kinship relations in immigrant families has been highlighted in various ethnic groups, such as Vietnamese (Kibria, 1993; Thai, 2014), Caribbean Blacks (Basch, Glick Schiller & Blanc, 1994; Ho, 1999, Thompson and Bauer, 2000), and Nigerians (Akanle, 2013). However, studies of cross-national family relations, or transnational families, have been mainly ethnographic in focus, concentrating on members of the immediate family rather than extended family relations (for example, Dreby, 2010; Landolt & Da 2005 Menjivar & Abrego, 2005). An exclusive focus on relations between immediate family members can lead to a restricted construction of families that constricts or excludes the interactions, contributions, and support that many families receive from extended family members. This results in a limited understanding of the family dynamics, arrangements, and kinship expectations existing within families and which may be culturally defined.

The family solidarity model is a useful framework for understanding culturally defined patterns of kin relations and support among immigrant families. The model focuses on the conceptualization of family roles, values, attitudes, and obligations within the family unit or network (McChesney & Bengtson, 1988). The family solidarity model, and the associated concept of intergenerational solidarity, examine the internal processes and dynamics of family relations and how they shape patterns and expectations of kin support (Bengtson,

Giarrusso, Mabry & Silverstein, 2002). For migrant families, the family solidarity model and intergenerational solidarity are useful for understanding family beliefs and expectations of kin contact and support as manifested across various ethnic immigrant groups.

Immigrant families from many parts of the world (i.e., Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean) have norms concerning close extended family ties and complex kinship networks. For example, studies of Hispanic/Latino groups frequently emphasize the saliency of familism as a cultural concept found within immigrant families. Familism places primacy on family obligations and kin support over the needs of the individual (Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Marin, & Perez-Stable, 1987; Landale & Oropesa, 2007). Similarly, Vietnamese (Becker, Beyene, Newsom & Mayen, 2003) and Filipino (Thai 2014, Kibria, 1993) immigrant families in the U.S. demonstrate close extended family relations and attitudes that similarly emphasize the collective well-being of the family over individual needs. Research among Nigerian (Akanle, 2013) and Black Caribbean families (Basch, et al., 1994; Chamberlain 1999a; Bauer & Thompson, 2006) indicates that they also possess cultural expectations of kin support and close family connections that include extended kin. Patterns of kinship relations and expectations for these groups tend to be culturally bound and originated in their countries of origin. In the post-migration context, these expectations and norms are manifested in the form of exchanges within immediate and extended kin in the host country, as well as and family remittances and other forms of support within transnational kinship networks.

Jamaican Families and Caribbean Kin Support

Jamaica has one of the largest populations in the Caribbean coupled with a relatively weak economy. In part because of these characteristics, over the past century Jamaicans have migrated to U.S., Canada, Britain and other parts of the Caribbean for better employment opportunities and family reunification. Throughout this period, Jamaicans have developed and maintained kin networks and exchanges of financial and non-financial support among family members with the expectation of reciprocity (Barrow, 1999; Thompson & Bauer, 2000; Bauer & Thompson, 2006). Contemporary transnational kin relations among Black Caribbean families are derived from the large kin-based support networks common throughout the Caribbean. These kin networks comprised of immediate and extended family members provide a variety of kin support such as, assisting with everyday needs of housing, meals, child care and elder care. Other support includes remittances to family members in the home country, caring for children of absent parents, the financing of initial migration, and assisting in settlement and obtaining employment in the receiving country (Basch 2001; Thompson & Bauer, 2000; Chamberlain, 1999b). Caribbean kinship relations across nations and households have been referred to as a strategy often used by families to provide economic security by reducing the risks and increasing the benefits of migration (Basch et al., 1994; Ho 1999, Gussler, 1999). Transnational Caribbean families have been interpreted as “post-modern versions of this tradition on a global scale (Ho, 1999:52).” Further, transnational relations and kinship connections have been shown to help sustain individual and community ethnic identities and buffer Black Caribbean immigrants from prejudice and discrimination post-migration (Conway, 2007; Basch et al., 1994).

Women have been shown to play significant roles in organizing and maintaining kinship relations (Plaza, 2000; Thompson & Bauer, 2000; Sutton, 1992) and the exchange of services and support (Ho, 1999) within Caribbean Black immigrant families. These findings are congruent with studies among other ethnic immigrant groups, such as Latinos (Hondagneu-Sotelo and Avila, 1997; Mahler, 1999). For Caribbean women, the size of their kin networks is related to social class. Middle class Caribbean women tend to have narrower networks and working class women tend to have broader networks that offer a variety of support (Gussler, 1999). The foundation for kin networks may be the cultural focus placed on the mother-child bond in the Caribbean and, in particular the mother-daughter bond which would lead to female-dominant kin networks (Barrow, 1999).

The family solidarity model suggests that the types and levels of kin contact and emotional closeness are positively associated with each another and with family support exchanges. Further, frequent, positive kin contact and support among Caribbean Blacks is positively associated with immigrant well-being (Jackson, Forsythe-Brown & Govia, 2007; Taylor et al., 2015). Among Caribbean Black immigrant families, kin relations and support activities represent strategies that incorporate both microsocial characteristics, beliefs and patterns operating within individual families, as well as broader macrosocial cultural and structural factors impacting the family.

Focus of the Current Study

Kin support among Caribbean immigrant families and other ethnic groups have had a positive impact on the settlement, socioeconomic positioning, and well-being of immigrant groups. However, few, if any survey-based studies have assessed the frequency and levels of kin support among Jamaican immigrants to the United States and their non-migrating counterparts. This study addresses this gap by examining the provision and receipt of support to extended family members among U.S. Jamaican immigrants and Jamaicans residing in Jamaica using survey data from a representative sample of respondents living in the U.S., as well as a survey data from Jamaicans living in Kingston, Jamaica. A full set of demographic variables are examined (i.e., age, gender, family income, education, marital status, parental status) are included to assess their independent impact on support exchanges. Additionally, this study goes beyond the traditional investigations of immigrant remittances and provision of kin support to dependents by focusing on receiving support or assistance from all relatives and examining both giving and receiving family assistance.

METHODS

Samples

Our analysis utilizes data from two different samples of Jamaicans. The National Survey of American Life: Coping with Stress in the 21st Century (NSAL) is used for the analysis of Jamaican immigrants in the United States. The NSAL was collected by the Program for Research on Black Americans at the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research (Jackson et al., 2004). The field work for the study was completed by the Institute of Social Research's Survey Research Center, in cooperation with the Program for Research on Black Americans. The NSAL sample has a national multi-stage probability design. The interviews

were face-to-face and conducted within respondents' homes. Respondents were compensated for their time. The data collection was conducted from 2001 to 2003. A total of 6,082 interviews were conducted with persons aged 18 or older, including 3,570 African Americans, 891 non-Hispanic whites, and 1,621 Caribbean Black adults. The overall response rate was 72.3%. Response rates for individual subgroups were 70.7% for African Americans, 77.7% for Caribbean Blacks, and 69.7% for non-Hispanic Whites. This paper utilizes the Jamaican immigrant sub-sample (n=510) (see Jackson et al., 2004 for a more detailed discussion of the NSAL sample).

The Jamaican sample is a separate data collection. It was a regional household probability sample of adults aged 18 and older living in the Kingston Metropolitan Area (KMA) (which covers Kingston and urban St. Andrew) and Portmore. The 2001 Jamaica Population and Housing Census was used to develop a sampling frame of the population of all individuals in the urban areas of Kingston, St. Andrew, and Portmore who were 18 years and over. After conducting household listings, using Enumeration Districts (ED) as the Primary Sampling Unit, and households within the ED as the Secondary Sampling Units, households were randomly selected. A Kish table was then used to randomly select one eligible adult 18 or older from the household was to participate in the study. A total of 1216 interviews were collected, with an overall response rate of 76%. Interviews with study participants were conducted in August and completed in December of 2005. The sample consisted of roughly 97.4% Blacks, 1.3% Asians, and 1.4% who were classified as "Other". Our analysis is limited to Black Jamaican nationals (n=1,176).

Measures

Dependent Variables—Two dependent variables are used in this analysis: frequency of receiving support from extended family members and frequency of giving support to extended family members. Frequency of receiving support is measured by the item: "How often do people in your family -- including children, grandparents, aunts, uncles, in-laws and so on -- help you out? Would you say very often, fairly often, not too often, or never?" Frequency of providing support is measured by the question: "How often do you help out people in your family -- including children, grandparents, aunts, uncles, in-laws and so on? Would you say very often, fairly often, not too often, or never?"

Independent Variables—Several demographic variables are used in this analysis including age, gender, family income, education (less than high school graduate, high school graduate, some college/vocational school), marital status (married, partner, separated/widowed/divorced, never married), and parental status. In analysis of Jamaican immigrants to the United States, the variable foreign born is also included. The distribution for all of the dependent and independent variables utilized in this analysis is presented in Table 1.

Analysis Strategy: Standard Ordinary Least Squares Regression analysis is conducted. Each regression model contains an interaction between age and parental status (Age X Parent) based upon previous research which shows that this interaction is significantly associated with the frequency of receiving support from extended family members (Taylor, 1986).

The analyses were conducted using Stata version 12 which uses the Taylor expansion approximation technique for calculating the complex design-based estimates of variance. To obtain results that are generalizable to the Jamaican population, all of the analyses utilize analytic weights. All statistical analyses accounted for the complex multistage clustered design of the NSAL sample, unequal probabilities of selection, nonresponse, and poststratification to calculate weighted, national representative population estimates and standard errors. All percentages reported are weighted.

RESULTS

The demographic distributions of the two samples are presented in Table 1. The Jamaican sample is slightly younger, much more likely to be female than the Jamaican immigrant sample (70.23% vs. 51.4%, respectively), and has lower levels of education. Income levels provided for the Jamaican immigrant sample are in U. S. dollars while Jamaican dollars are used for the Jamaican nationals sample. The average exchange rate during the study period was \$50.85 JD to \$1 USD (Bank of Jamaica, 2015). The Jamaican sample was also less likely to be married and more likely to have never married than their immigrant counterparts. The two samples are similar with regards to the likelihood of being a parent and the number of children.

Providing Support to Extended Family Members

The frequency and importance of immigrants providing financial support or remittances to dependent relatives residing in the home country has been well documented among Caribbean, Hispanic, Asian and other immigrant groups. As expected, the frequency of provision of support for U.S. Jamaican immigrants was high and consistent with findings among other immigrant groups. Almost half of Jamaican immigrants (46.87%) indicate that give help to their family members very often and another 30.76% report that they give help fairly often. Only 2.3% of Jamaican immigrants report that they never give help to their family members. A similar pattern of the provision of support to extended family members is evident among Jamaican nationals with almost half of this group (48.28%) reporting that they give support to their family members on a very frequent basis. Thirty-one percent of Jamaican nationals indicate that they give support to their family fairly frequently, whereas 1.89% report that they never give support to their family members.

The multivariate analysis of frequency of giving support is presented in Table 2 indicates several significant differences. For Jamaican immigrants, income was positively associated with frequency of providing support and respondents who cohabit reported giving support more frequently to extended family members than their married counterparts. Among Jamaican nationals (Table 2), high school graduates reported giving support more frequently to family than their counterparts who do not have a high school degree.

Receiving Support from Extended Family Members

Thirty one percent (30.84%) of Jamaican immigrants to the U.S. report that they receive support from their extended families very often and another 21.88% report that they receive support from their families fairly often. Only 14.81% of Jamaican immigrants report that

their family members never help them. The distribution for frequency of receiving support among Jamaican nationals is similar. Twenty-six percent (26.63%) report that they receive support very often and 26.72% indicate that they receive support fairly often. One out of ten Jamaican nationals (9.71%) report that they never receive support from their extended families.

The multivariate analysis of receipt of support for Jamaican immigrants (Table 2) reveals several significant relationships. Income was positively associated with frequency of receiving support; those with higher incomes report receiving assistance more frequently. The negative relationship between age and frequency of receiving support can best be understood in the context of the significant age x parental status interaction. For respondents who have children, there is a small and positive relationship between age and receiving support (Figure 1). However, for respondents who do not have children, there is a negative relationship between receiving support and respondent age. This difference is particularly apparent for older adults. Jamaican immigrants sixty and older who have children receive assistance from their family members more frequently than do their childless counterparts.

Multivariate analysis for receipt of support among Jamaican nationals (Table 2) reveals that respondents who cohabit with a partner report receive assistance less frequently than their married counterparts. There is also a significant interaction between age and being a parent for Jamaican nationals that is identical to the previously reported interaction among Jamaican immigrants (see Figure 2). That is, the negative relationship between age and parental status for receiving assistance from family is especially evident among respondents who are 60 years of age and over: persons without children receive support much less frequently than their counterparts who have at least one child.

DISCUSSION

This study examined both the provision and receipt of support to Jamaican immigrants in the United States and Jamaicans who reside in Jamaica. This is one of the few quantitative analyses of the provision and receipt of family support among immigrants and their non-migrating counterparts. This work provides an important complement to the majority of research in this area that employs ethnographic approaches focused on local community samples. The abundance of research in this area focuses on immigrant remittances or financial support. Our study broadens our understanding of the full range of kinship support by ascertaining how frequently respondents provide or receive help from family members which includes financial, as well as, non-financial exchanges and emotional support between kin.

The most striking finding of this study is the high levels of receiving support by both Jamaican nationals and Jamaican immigrants. Moreover, the high levels of providing support to kin among Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals combined with the levels of receiving support indicates substantial amounts of familial exchanges and support. However, both Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals indicated that they were more likely to provide support to their extended families than to receive support. Again, for both populations, roughly 1 out of 4 respondents received help from their family members very

often, almost half gave support to their family members very often, and less than 1 out of 20 respondents reported never giving support to their family members. The comparability of the two samples is particularly evident when examining the means for both receiving and giving support in Table 1. The relatively high levels of receiving and providing support are consistent with research on Black Caribbean immigrant families in general (Lincoln, Taylor & Chatters, 2012; Taylor, Chatters, Woodward & Brown, 2013).

For both Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals, there was a significant interaction between age and having a child for frequency of receiving assistance from extended families. Older adults who were childless received assistance from their extended families less frequently than older adults who had children. This finding is consistent with previous research demonstrating the importance of children in the support networks of older adults. This finding is noted in research on Black Caribbeans in general (Taylor et al., 2017), African Americans (Taylor et al., 1986) and non-Hispanic white Americans (Eggebeen, 1992). Older adults with children have a significant support advantage relative to their childless counterparts (Wu & Pollard, 1998) and children are a preferred source of assistance for elderly adults. Adult children provide social (Spitze & Logan 1992) and emotional support (Swartz, 2009), they also provide direct caregiving (Silverstein, Gans & Yang, 2006; Swartz, 2009) as well as assistance in navigating the health and social service systems in the event of physical or mental health problems (Stoltz, Uden & Willman, 2004; Van Houtven, & Norton, 2004).). On the other hand, childless elderly are particularly vulnerable. Childless elderly receive less social support (Taylor, 1986; Taylor et al., 2017), have smaller helper networks (Chatters et al., 1985) and rely more on distant kin and friends for emotional and instrumental support than elderly persons who are parents (Chatters et al., 1986).

Further, it is important to note that the interaction also indicates that at younger ages, both Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals who have children are less likely to report receiving assistance from family members than their childless counterparts. The reason for this pattern is not clear, but may suggest that being a parent is an important social marker for achieving adulthood and a more self-sufficient status vis-à-vis one's relationships with family. Family support may be directed toward younger family members who have yet to reach this status (young childless adults. Conversely, young adults with children may feel that they are not receiving enough assistance from their extended families.

Among Jamaican immigrants, there was a positive relationship between income and both receiving and providing support. The finding that higher income Jamaican immigrants receive more support from family members than their lower income counterparts, may speak to the greater viability and capacity of their family networks in providing financial and other resources. With respect to higher income Jamaican immigrants providing more support, previous work indicates that Caribbean families operate with certain expectations or obligations that successful individuals should assist their less fortunate kin (Barrow, 1999; Chamberlain, 1999b). This assistance can take the form of remittances, assistance in migration and settlement, or paying school fees for children of extended kin. For example, in Jamaica, families may designate the use of cooperatively owned family land to family members in the most need (Bauer & Thompson, 2006). This study's finding of a positive

association between income and providing support is congruent with this sociocultural context and culturally-based expectations for family assistance.

It is important to note, however, that this finding is only evident among Jamaican immigrants. Research on eastern Caribbean immigrant networks (Bashi, 2007) may be helpful in understanding why this income finding is distinctive for Jamaican immigrants. Bashi's work notes that the focal individuals of immigrant social networks tend to be persons in relatively higher income occupations such as nursing administrators, construction foreman, and other administrators that have influence in hiring practices (Bashi, 2007:83). These focal persons are instrumental in facilitating the migration process and in providing assistance to recent immigrants in the form of emotional and instrumental assistance (e.g., housing, winter clothing, and food), in addition to employment opportunities. According to Bashi (2007), immigrant social networks, are a distinctive feature of the immigration experience that involve focal persons who are well-positioned financially and use these networks to provide assistance to others. For Jamaican nationals, being a high school graduate was associated with giving more support to family members as compared to persons who had less than a high school education. Further, those with a college education were no different from those with less than a high school education in terms of giving support to family. It is not clear why completing high school is a distinctive marker for providing family support. This may be related to a combination socioeconomic factors (e.g., school fees) and educational legacies (e.g., testing in the British education system) on the island which limit the number of children able to attend high school and advance to college. Or, the result may be that in Jamaica the differences between high school and college are less distinctive than other differences in educational attainment such as between high school graduates and those with less than a high school diploma.

Married and cohabiting Jamaican immigrants and nationals were different with respect to receiving and providing kin support. Jamaican nationals who were cohabiters were less likely than their married counterparts to receive assistance from extended family. In Jamaica, for many persons, marriage is the ideal partnered relationship. However, cohabitating or common-law unions, are common particularly among the working class and working poor who are often unable to accrue the financing for a traditional wedding ceremony and reception (Barrow, 1999). Observed differences in kin assistance could be a reflection of the sociocultural preference for marriage over cohabitation. Family members, then, direct their assistance toward kin who are married as opposed to those who are unmarried and cohabitating. Patterns of Jamaican kinship relations and support are shaped by the mother-child bond, although it is unclear if the primary relationship focuses on mother-daughter (Barrow, 1999) or mother-son (Plaza, 2000). For cohabiting couples, this may mean that support is received only through the woman's side of the family. Coupled with a tendency to direct support toward married versus cohabiting couples, this may mean that overall levels of family support are especially low for family members who are in cohabiting relationships. For Jamaican immigrants, however, cohabiters gave more assistance to kin than did married couples. This may be associated with mother-child kin patterns noted in Jamaican families whereby cohabitating couples would provide assistance to members of their families of origin, particularly aging mothers and perhaps kin of maternal lineage. Further, cohabiters' more frequent provision of support to family may be motivated by a desire to demonstrate

their involvement in the family and achieve a level of acceptance by members of their extended families. This relationship was not observed among Jamaican nationals, suggesting that this may be a more significant issue in the United States than in Jamaica where cohabitation is a more common form of partnered relationship. Overall, the findings of this study indicate that both Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals are embedded in supportive extended family networks. Frequency of receiving and providing assistance were remarkably similar for both groups. Additionally, among Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals, the relationships between age and receiving assistance from family identified childless elderly as being in a particularly vulnerable position in regards to receiving assistance from extended family.

This study has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the data is cross-sectional and as such causal inferences cannot be made. Second, provision and receipt of assistance from family are the only two social support indicators that were common between the two datasets used. Other indicators of family support networks such as frequency of interaction with family members and perceptions of closeness to family would be helpful in further understanding the factors associated with provision and receipt of assistance (Lincoln et al., 2013; Taylor, Chatters, Woodward & Brown, 2013).

Significance of Research

This study's findings make important contributions to the literature in several respects. First, by focusing on kinship support in Jamaican families in the US and Jamaica, the current research builds upon and bridges prior work on Jamaican family support systems operating within the transnational context, as well as family support within Jamaica. Further, this is the first study to our knowledge based on quantitative data that investigates support exchanges among both Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals. This approach helps to connect these different literatures and demonstrates the existence of important commonalities in support processes that transcend geographic location and national context. The study findings clearly demonstrate that, similar to other ethnic groups (e.g., Mexicans, Vietnamese, and Nigerians), Jamaican immigrants and Jamaican nationals are involved in supportive exchanges with kin.

Second, the focus on both giving and receiving support highlights the reciprocal nature of family support exchanges. Further, by demonstrating that different factors are associated with these processes, the distinctiveness of giving and receiving support is emphasized. Importantly, study findings also indicated several commonalities and differences in the predictors of support for Jamaican immigrants and nationals. In particular, the significance of parental status for receiving support among older adults was evident for both groups and is consistent with findings from other studies (Taylor et al., 2017). This finding has broader implications for understanding the connection between family composition, migration patterns, and residency and the family support needs of older adults of multigenerational families. Finally, study findings indicated that both individual characteristics (e.g., marital status, age, income) and social and cultural features of family and the immigration process are important for understanding support exchanges within these groups. In this regard, study findings confirm the basic tenets of the family solidarity model in understanding kin support

exchanges. In addition, exploring aspects of the family solidarity model with Jamaican immigrants in the U.S. and Jamaican nationals extends its application and usefulness in understanding kin support in diverse family settings and circumstances.

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Figure 1.
Interaction of Parental Status and Age on Receiving Support Among Jamaican Immigrants

Figure 2.
Interaction of Parental Status and Age on Receiving Support Among Jamaican Nationals

Table 1

Distribution of characteristics of Jamaican immigrants in the National Survey of American Life (NSAL, 2001–2003) and the Jamaican national sample.

	Jamaican Immigrants in the U.S. n = 510	Jamaican Nationals n = 1176
Receiving Support, Mean (SE)	2.69(.11)	2.70(.03)
Giving Support, Mean (SE)	3.22(.06)	3.26(.02)
Age, Mean (SE)	44.66 (1.69)	37.18 (0.42)
Gender, n (%)		
Men	201 (48.6)	362 (29.77)
Women	309 (51.4)	854 (70.23)
Income, Mean (SE)	46,060 (3029.9)	468,773 (19,886)
Education, n (%)		
Less than HS Graduate	100 (21.94)	315 (26.08)
High School Graduate	156 (32.72)	626 (51.82)
Some College	254 (45.34)	267 (22.10)
Marital Status, n (%)		
Married	178 (42.7)	236 (19.46)
Cohabit	44 (14.74)	165 (13.60)
Separated/Widowed/Divorced	130 (18.9)	103 (8.49)
Never Married	158 (23.6)	709 (58.45)
Foreign Born, n (%)		
Born in United States	103(18.94)	--
Born in a Foreign Country	406(81.06)	---
# of Children, Mean (SE)	2.77(0.12)	2.39(0.07)
Parental Status, n (%)		
Parent	401(81.68)	918(75.74)
Not a Parent	105(18.32)	294(24.26)

*
 $p < 0.05$

**
 $p < 0.01$

 $p < 0.001$

Note: Column total may not sum to total sample size due to missing data.

Regression models for the Receiving and Giving of Support to Extended Family Members by Jamaican immigrants in the United States and Jamaican Nationals^a

Receiving Support from Extended Family Members			Giving Support to Extended Family Members			
	Jamaican Immigrants in the U.S.			Jamaican Nationals		
	B	S.E.	B	S.E.	B	S.E.
Age	-0.015**	0.00	-0.18***	0.00	-0.00	0.00
Gender	-0.13	0.17	-0.05	0.06	-0.12	0.13
Income	0.04*	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.03*	0.01
Education						
High School Graduate	-0.35	0.33	-0.01	0.08	0.01	0.14
Some College, Technical, Vocational School	-0.45	0.26	-0.14	0.09	-0.33	0.21
Marital Status						
Cohabit	0.15	0.36	-0.32**	0.10	0.37*	0.15
Sep/Div/Wid	0.40	0.32	0.17	0.12	-0.13	0.11
Never Married	0.24	0.21	0.04	0.08	-0.11	0.14
Foreign Born	-0.17	0.22	--	--	0.04	0.16
#of Children	-0.07	0.05	0.02	0.02	-0.01	0.04
Parental Status	-0.83	0.39*	-0.85***	0.19	0.05	0.30
Age X Parental Status	0.02*	0.01	0.02***	0.01	-0.00	0.01
Constant	3.39***	0.46	3.41***	0.20	3.24***	0.21
N	461		1140		492	
Model F-value	3.22*		3.81***		4.04**	
R-Square	0.08		0.04		0.09	

^aRegressions control for age, gender (1=male), income, education (0=less than high school degree), marital status (0=married), parental status (0=Parent) and the number of children in the household. Regressions for Jamaican Immigrants additionally control for Immigration Status (0=U.S. born).

* p < .05;

**
p<.01;

100 > d

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