The role of culture and religion on sexual and reproductive health indicators and help-seeking behaviour amongst 1.5 generation migrants in Australia: A quantitative pilot study

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Abstract

**Background:** 1.5 generation migrants in Australia (those who migrate as children) often enter a new cultural and religious environment, with its own set of constructs of sexual and reproductive health (SRH), at a crucial time in their psychosexual development—puberty/adolescence. 1.5 generation migrants may thus have to contend with constructions of SRH from at least two cultures which may be at conflict on the matter. This study was designed to investigate the role of culture and religion on sexual and reproductive health indicators and help-seeking behaviour amongst 1.5 generation migrants.

**Methods:** 111 participants completed an online survey which included questions about their cultural connectedness, religion, sexual and reproductive health and help-seeking behaviour. Kruskall-Wallis tests were used to analyse the data.

**Results:** There was no significant difference between ethnocultural groups or levels of cultural connectedness in relation to sexual and reproductive health help-seeking behaviours. The results do suggest differences between religious groups in regards to seeking help specifically from young peoples’ parents. Notably, youth who reported having ‘no religion’ were more likely to seek help with sexual and reproductive health matters from their parent(s).

**Conclusions:** Managing cross-cultural experiences are often noted in extant literature as a barrier to sexual and reproductive health help-seeking. However, while cultural norms of migrants’ country of origin can remain strong it is religion that seems to have more of an impact on how 1.5 generation migrants seek help for SRH issues. This suggests that while 1.5 generation migrants may need to adapt to a new ethnocultural environment little about their religious beliefs or practices may require adaptation in Australia. Given that religion can play a role in young peoples’ sexual and reproductive health religious organisations are well placed to encourage young people’s help-seeking behaviours.

Plain English Summary

During a crucial time in an individual’s life—puberty—1.5 generation migrants in Australia (those who migrate as children) often enter a new environment with its own set of values and beliefs regarding
sexual and reproductive health. 1.5 generation migrants may thus have to manage values and beliefs on sexual and reproductive health from at least two cultures (which may be at conflict on the matter). This study was designed to investigate the role of culture and religion on sexual and reproductive health indicators and help-seeking behaviour amongst 1.5 generation migrants. 111 participants completed an online survey which included questions about their cultural connectedness, religion, sexual and reproductive health, and help-seeking behaviour. Managing experiences from different cultures is often noted as a barrier to sexual and reproductive health help-seeking. However, while the cultural values and beliefs of migrants’ country of origin can remain strong, it is religion that seems to have more of an impact on how 1.5 generation migrants seek help for sexual and reproductive health issues. This suggests that, while 1.5 generation migrants may need to adapt to a new environment, little about their religious beliefs or practices may require adaptation in Australia. Given that religion can play a role in young peoples’ sexual and reproductive health, religious organisations are well placed to encourage young people’s help-seeking behaviours.

Introduction

In Australia, over 27% of Australians were born overseas and another 20% have at least one parent born overseas. Australia has also committed to the resettlement of over 12000 new refugees and net overseas migration contributes to over 60% of Australia’s total population growth (1). Australia thus provides a particularly rich case study of a migrant-receiving country undergoing rapid transformation. While other countries are experiencing similar changes, Australia has a comparatively
rich range of visa schemes and a rapidly increasing overall intake of migrants. In Australian major cities, migrants make up a significant proportion of the population. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (1), cities where the migrant population is over 25% include Sydney (38.9), Perth (37.1), Melbourne (34.6), Adelaide (27.4), Brisbane (27), Darwin (25.9) and Canberra (25.3).

The cohort of interest is referred to as 1.5 generation migrants because they are not the conventional first generation migrant, who are old enough to emigrate on their own, nor are they the conventional 2nd generation migrant, the offspring of the 1st generation migrant born in the country of emigration.

The role of culture and religion in constructions of SRH

The cross-cultural positionality and/or religiosity of some migrants is often cited as having an impact on SRH decision-making processes (2). Cultural and religious differences between a migrant’s country of origin and that of immigration are linked with reduced help-seeking behaviour across a range of health outcomes (3) and especially with regard to sexual and reproductive health (SRH) (4). SRH may be of particular note as many cultures and religions have quite clear ideologies about sexuality, sexual behaviour, and thus SRH (5, 6). Given this reality, research indicates that when migrants feel bound to constructions of SRH as per their ethnic origins or religious doctrines they may not utilize SRH services. Migrants may perceive them to be inappropriate for their needs or that seeking such services would be perceived of negatively by their cultural or religious group (especially if strong ties are still present) thus tainting their sociocultural identity as well (6). This type of sociocultural clash may be intensified for 1.5 generation migrants who may be culturally and/or religiously from two worlds and may thus be conflicted about how to seek help for their SRH needs while at the same time maintaining the values.

Cross-cultural and intergenerational understandings of SRH

1.5 generation migrants not only contend with cross-cultural and religious understandings of SRH but must also navigate intergenerational differences in the midst of cross-cultural parenting. For example, research indicates that in the first few years of arrival 1st generation skilled Zimbabwean migrants found the ways in which Australian culture constructed and dealt with sexuality to be confronting and at odds with their beliefs and ways of understanding sexuality (7). This resulted in increased
avoidance of and resistance to Australian constructions of SRH delivered via Australian media and Australian people (7). As a result, families experienced conflict when trying to educate their 1.5 generation migrant children about SRH from a Shona-Zimbabwean lens within contemporary Australia (7). This intergenerational discrepancy may exist as the only point of reference migrant parents have about youth sexual development is from when they themselves were youths in their country of origin which they then draw on when it becomes relevant – when they have to raise youths. Until that point, contemporary youth/teenage life in Australia or their country of origin may seem irrelevant. Further, 1st generation migrant parents and 1.5 generation migrant children indicated that many parents of 1.5 generation children expected these children to comply with constructions of sexuality from their country of origin (7). In addition, these expectations were more readily expressed and enforced for 1.5 generation migrant children than for 2nd generation children/siblings born in Australia. Notable expectations include avoiding interactions with members of the opposite sex (especially enforced with girls), restrictions on participation in youth peer events (e.g., birthday parties, sleep-overs or group excursions) and restrictions on engagement with LGBTIQ people, information or media.

**Exploring SRH with 1.5 generation migrants**

Despite the dearth of research in this area evidence indicates that 1.5 generation migrants, especially of non-Western backgrounds, often enter a new cultural and secular environment when they move to Australia. This environment has its own set of constructs of SRH which 1.5 generation migrants are confronted with at a crucial time in their psychosexual development – childhood, puberty and adolescence (7). This may result in having learnt and being expected to uphold (by other members of one’s cultural community) particular norms about SRH (8) from their culture of origin while at the same time adopting and enacting Australian secular constructions of SRH – a culture clash (7). Such a clash may have immediate and far-reaching implications for the SRH of 1.5 generation migrants. For migrants arriving from countries with very different cultural, ethnic and religious values, and beliefs to those in Australia the process of adapting constructions, understandings and experiences of sexuality often results in a number of challenges. This study was therefore designed to investigate the role of
culture and religion on sexual and reproductive health indicators and help-seeking behaviour amongst 1.5 generation migrants.

Methods
This paper is part of a larger project that used a mixed methods cross-sectional design (i.e., questionnaire, Q Methodology, and interview) to explore constructions of SRH and SRH help-seeking amongst 1.5 generation migrants in Greater Western Sydney (see 9 for results of the Q Methodology study). Greater Western Sydney was chosen as more than 50% of its, approximately, 800 000 people are migrants or their descendants (10). Further, the region has been found to have pockets of cultural concentration which allows migrants to stay connected to key aspects of their culture such as their ethnicity, community, language, and religion. To that effect it is likely that the cultural and religious norms of migrants’ country of origin remain strong and may therefore have a significant influence on how 1.5 generation migrants in this region construct, experience, and understand various aspects of SRH. This paper will focus on the results of the quantitative questionnaire portion of the project and sought to answer the following questions:

1. Does ethnicity and cultural connectedness influence 1.5 generation migrants SRH help-seeking behaviours?
2. Does religious affiliation influence 1.5 generation migrants SRH help-seeking behaviours?
3. From which sources do 1.5 generation migrants feel most comfortable seeking SRH support?
4. What barriers or facilitators do 1.5 generation migrants perceive to have an impact on their SRH help-seeking?

Survey
The survey was specifically designed for this investigation and began with demographic questions including what year the participant moved to Australia, with whom, and at what age. Participants were also asked about their religious affiliation and ethnicity. With regards to cultural connectedness
participants were asked to rank, on a 5-point Likert scale, how strongly they identified with the culture and values from their country of origin and with Australian culture. They were also asked to rank how strong relationships were with their community based on their culture of origin and the extent that cultural values created strong ties between the participant and their family. Questions on participants’ SRH history, safer sex practices and prospective SRH help-seeking were posed. With regards to help-seeking participants were asked: “If you were having a sexual and reproductive health concern, how likely is it that you would seek help from the following people/places? Please indicate your response by clicking on the number that best describes your intention to seek help from each help source that is listed.” Participants then indicated on a 7-point Likert scale the likelihood of them seeking help from an intimate partner, friends, parent, other relative/family member, sexual health clinic, the internet, doctor/GP, community/cultural or religious leader, would not seek help, or would seek help from another source not listed above. Finally, participants were also asked about barriers and facilitators to seeking SRH support.

**Participant Recruitment**

1.5 generation migrants were recruited via advertisements posted at seven Western Sydney University campuses and surrounding off-campus venues (e.g., major shopping malls). This was done in an effort to strategically engage participants from several suburbs within the Greater Western Sydney region to ensure that the data collected were from as many ethnocultural groups as possible.

**Data Analysis**

Using SPSS, quantitative data analysis software, the data was cleaned to exclude incomplete responses (x = 121) and the following analyses were run: descriptive statistics, correlations, and Kruskall-Wallis tests. Given that MANOVAs cannot be conducted on small and uneven sample sizes such as those within this study, the Kruskall-Wallis tests were used instead.

**Sample Demographics**

The sample consisted of 111 participants from across the Greater Western Sydney (see Table 1). The majority of participants were female (51.4%) with a nearly equal number of males (47.7%) and one participant identifying as transgender. Participant age ranged between 16 – 60 with a mean of 22.90
Most participants were single ($n = 82.9\%) and had no children (94.6\%). Seventy-six participants arrived in Australia between 2000 and 2009 (68.4\%) with their close kin (mother 83.8\%, father 71.2\%, sibling 46.8\%). The majority migrated from Sub-Saharan Africa (25\%) closely followed by South-East Asia (24\%) with the others migrating from East Asia (13\%), the Middle East (11\%), Eastern Europe (9\%), the Pacific (6\%), the Americas (6\%), Western Europe (4\%), and North Africa (2\%). Mean age at time of migration was 11 years old ($M = 11.90, SD = 4.67$). The majority spoke English as a primary language (66.7\%). Twenty-four languages were noted by those whose primary language was not English. The majority indicated a religious affiliation (87.4\%) with 55\% of those being Christian/Catholic. Ninety-five participants were heterosexual (85.5\%), eight were bisexual (7.2\%), five were homosexual (4.5\%), one identified as lesbian (.9\%) and one identified as other (.9\%) and prefer not to say (.9\%), respectively.

Table 1. Demographic Information for the Study Sample

| Demographic Information | $n$ | (%)  |
|-------------------------|-----|------|
| Gender                  |     |      |
| Male                    | 53  | 47.70|
| Female                  | 57  | 51.40|
| Transgender             | 1   | .90  |
| Marital Status          |     |      |
| Single                  | 92  | 82.90|
| De Facto                | 6   | 5.40 |
| Married                 | 8   | 7.20 |
| Divorced                | 3   | 2.70 |
| Engaged                 | 1   | .90  |
| N/A                     | 1   | .90  |
| Parent of Child         |     |      |
| Yes                     | 6   | 5.40 |
| No                      | 105 | 94.60|
| Year of Arrival         |     |      |
| 1960-1969               | 1   | .90  |
| 1970-1979               | 0   | 0    |
| 1980-1989               | 1   | .90  |
| 1990-1999               | 11  | 9.90 |
| 2000-2009               | 76  | 68.40|
| 2010-2017               | 21  | 18.90|
| Arrived with:           |     |      |
| Mother                  | 93  | 83.80|
| Father                  | 79  | 71.20|
| Sibling                 | 52  | 46.80|
| Grandparent             | 4   | 3.60 |
| Aunt/Uncle              | 6   | 5.40 |
| Extended Family         | 5   | 4.50 |
| Family Friends          | 4   | 3.60 |
### Results

The present study sought to examine the role an individual’s culture has in the construction of their sexual and reproductive health. To identify whether the salience of one’s cultural identity related to their help-seeking behaviour, Pearson product-moment correlations were performed between the measures of culture (Country of Origin, Australian Culture, Community, Family) and sources of help (Intimate Partner, Friend, Parent, Relative, Sexual Health Clinic, Internet, Doctor/GP, Community Leaders, No Help) using an alpha level of .05. As the sample was considered robust ($N = 111$), all assumptions were satisfactory. Table 2 depicts correlations between the measures of culture and sources of help. Additionally, Pearson product-moment correlations were performed between all sources of help in order to examine whether one help-seeking behaviour relates to another. Table 3 depicts correlations between the sources of help.

#### Table 2. Bivariate Correlations between Measures of Culture and Sources of Help

|                  | N  | R  |
|------------------|----|----|
| Alone            | 4  | 3.60 |
| English as Primary Language | | |
| Yes              | 74 | 66.70 |
| No               | 37 | 33.30 |
| Religion         |    |    |
| No Religion      | 14 | 12.60 |
| Catholic/Christian | 61 | 55.00 |
| Greek Orthodox   | 4  | 3.60 |
| Islamic          | 24 | 21.60 |
| Buddhist         | 3  | 2.70 |
| Other            | 5  | 4.50 |
| Sexual Orientation |          |
| Heterosexual     | 95 | 85.50 |
| Homosexual       | 5  | 4.50 |
| Lesbian          | 1  | .90  |
| Bisexual         | 8  | 7.20 |
| Other            | 1  | .90  |
| Prefer Not to Say| 1  | .90  |
| Region of Origin |    |    |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 25 | 24.00 |
| North Africa     | 2  | 2.00 |
| South East Asia  | 24 | 25.00 |
| East Asia        | 13 | 13.00 |
| Eastern Europe   | 9  | 9.00 |
| Western Europe   | 4  | 4.00 |
| Middle East      | 11 | 11.00 |
| The Americas     | 6  | 6.00 |
| The Pacific      | 6  | 6.00 |
|                      | Country of Origin | Australian Culture | Community | Family |
|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------|--------|
| Intimate Partner     | .22*              | .34**              | .36**     | .28**  |
| Friend               | .05               | .03                | .04       | .00    |
| Parent               | .20*              | .19                | .20*      | .21    |
| Relative             | .07               | .27**              | .13       | .13    |
| Sexual Health Clinic | .32**             | .33**              | .12       | .12    |
| Internet             | .20*              | .12                | .14       | .08    |
| Doctor/GP            | .40**             | .26**              | .22*      | .28**  |
| Community            | .10               | .22*               | .34**     | .23*   |
| Leaders              |                   |                    |           |        |
| No Help              | .15               | -.08               | .27**     | .28**  |

Note. Correlations marked with an asterisk (*) and double asterisk (**) were significant at p < .05 and p < .01, respectively.

Table 3. Bivariate Correlations between Sources of Help

|                      | 1.  | 2.  | 3.  | 4.  | 5.  | 6.  | 7.  | 8.  |
|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1. Intimate Partner  | —   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2. Friend            | .22*| —   |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3. Parent            | .24*| .15 | —   |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4. Relative          | .28**| .14 | .50**| —   |     |     |     |     |
| 5. Sexual Health Clinic | .45**| .10 | .30**| .23*| —   |     |     |     |
| 6. Internet          | .34**| 1.8 | -.18| -.10| .20*| —   |     |     |
| 7. Doctor/GP         | .32**| -.03| .25**| .04 | .60**| .14 | —   |     |
| 8. Community Leaders | .11 | -.02| .46**| .44**| .11 | -.08| .17 | —   |
| 9. No Help           | -.09| -.13| -.19| -.23*| -.37**| -.01| -.19| .16 | 

Note. Correlations marked with an asterisk (*) and double asterisk (**) were significant at p < .05 and p < .01, respectively.

Analyses indicated significant correlations between identification with one’s country of origin, Australian culture, one’s community, and one’s family and various sources of help whereby stronger identifications relate to stronger inclinations toward seeking help from specific sources. Interestingly,
seeking help from an intimate partner or doctor/GP were significant across all measures of culture. Additionally, seeking help from various sources often related to seeking help from other sources. However, stronger inclinations to seek help from a relative or sexual health clinic significantly related to lower inclinations to seek no help.

To identify group differences between participant’s religious identifications (No Religion, Catholic/Christian, Greek Orthodox, Islamic, Buddhist, Other) among the various sources of help (Intimate Partner, Friend, Parent, Relative, Sexual Health Clinic, Internet, Doctor/GP, Community Leaders, No Help), Kruskall-Wallis nonparametric tests were conducted to accommodate the uneven group sizes. A statistically significant difference was identified among receiving help from parents ($X^2 [5, N = 111] = 11.30, p < .05, \eta^2 = 1.16$).

These results suggest significant differences between religious groups in regards to seeking help from parents. A series of 15 post hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using Mann-Whitney $U$ tests and an adjusted alpha of .003. No significant differences, however, were found between the six religious categories—most likely due to small group sample sizes. Table 4 depicts the degree individuals of various religious identities seek help from their parent(s).

**Table 4. Help-Seeking from Parent among Religious Identities**

| Religious Identity          | Parent | M   | SD  |
|-----------------------------|--------|-----|-----|
| No Religion ($N = 14$)      |        | 4.00| .88 |
| Catholic/Christian ($N = 59$) |       | 3.07| 1.30|
| Greek Orthodox ($N = 4$)    |        | 3.50| 1.00|
| Islamic ($N = 24$)          |        | 3.54| 1.29|
| Buddhist ($N = 3$)          |        | 3.67| .58 |
| Other ($N = 5$)             |        | 2.20| 1.10|

The present study also sought to determine which sources individuals felt most comfortable seeking help from. Table 5 indicates participants’ likelihood (in percentage) to seek help from various sources. Doctors/GP (92.7%), sexual health clinics (88.1%), the internet (84.1%), and intimate partners (81.1%) were among the most likely sources of help while community leaders (72.5%), relative(s) (60%), and no help (56.8%) were among the most unlikely sources of help.

**Table 5. Likelihood (%) of Help-Seeking Behaviour**
The present study also sought to ascertain the most dominant barriers and facilitators to individual’s help-seeking behaviour. Among the barriers hindering individuals’ help-seeking behaviours, lack of knowledge was identified as the most dominant barrier (45.90%). This was followed by concerns regarding concealment from one’s family and community (36.00%). These results are complimented by the facilitator of help-seeking whereby an increase in knowledge was identified as the most dominant facilitator of help-seeking behaviour (63.10%). Similarly, assurance of concealment was identified as the second most dominant facilitator of help-seeking behaviour (45.90%). Tables 6 and 7 depict the barriers and facilitators of help-seeking.

### Table 6. Barriers to Help-Seeking

|                                | n     | (%)    |
|--------------------------------|-------|--------|
| I don’t know where these services are | 51    | 45.90  |
| The risk that my family/community could possibly find out | 40    | 36.00  |
| These services do not cater well to people of my ethnicity/culture | 15    | 13.50  |
| These services cost too much money | 32    | 28.80  |
| These services are too far away from where I live | 12    | 10.80  |
| Service trading hours | 16    | 14.40  |
| I have other ways of getting support/assistance | 16    | 14.40  |
| Other | 2     | 1.80   |

### Table 7. Facilitators of Help-Seeking

|                                | n     | (%)    |
|--------------------------------|-------|--------|
| I don’t know where these services are | 51    | 45.90  |
| The risk that my family/community could possibly find out | 40    | 36.00  |
| These services do not cater well to people of my ethnicity/culture | 15    | 13.50  |
| These services cost too much money | 32    | 28.80  |
| These services are too far away from where I live | 12    | 10.80  |
| Service trading hours | 16    | 14.40  |
| I have other ways of getting support/assistance | 16    | 14.40  |
| Other | 2     | 1.80   |
To contextualise the key findings participants sexual and reproductive health history was recorded. It was identified that 60.40% ($n = 67$) of the participants were currently sexually active. Of the 111 participants 49.50% ($n = 55$) used contraceptives, 11.70% ($n = 13$) do not use contraceptives, and 38.70% ($n = 43$) preferred not to answer. Table 8 depicts the types of contraceptives participants have previously used.

### Table 8. Types of Contraceptives Used

| Contraceptive                  | $n$ | (%)  |
|-------------------------------|-----|------|
| Condoms                       | 51  | 45.90|
| Birth Control Pills           | 26  | 23.40|
| Diaphragm                     | 4   | 3.60 |
| Intrauterine Device (IUD)     | 1   | .90  |
| Vaginal Ring                  | 0   | 0    |
| Implant                       | 1   | .90  |
| Patch                         | 1   | .90  |
| Emergency Contraception       | 8   | 7.20 |
| Permanent                     | 0   | 0    |

With regards to prior sexual health concerns 2.70% ($n = 3$) of participants had previously been diagnosed with an STI. Among those, 66.70% ($n = 2$) were diagnosed with gonorrhoea while 33.30% ($n = 1$) were diagnosed with herpes. Additionally, 66.70% ($n = 2$) took antibacterial medications while 33.30% ($n = 1$) sought help from a doctor. When queried about the duration leading to their help-seeking behaviours, it was revealed that 66.70% ($n = 2$) sought help within 1 – 3 days of having sex while 33.30% ($n = 1$) sought help within 4 – 7 days. Participants justified that they were not aware that they were infected with an STI ($n = 2, 66.70\%$) and that they were hoping that the STI would go away without intervention ($n = 1, 33.30\%)$. 

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**Table 8:** Types of Contraceptives Used

| Contraceptive                  | $n$ | (%)  |
|-------------------------------|-----|------|
| Condoms                       | 51  | 45.90|
| Birth Control Pills           | 26  | 23.40|
| Diaphragm                     | 4   | 3.60 |
| Intrauterine Device (IUD)     | 1   | .90  |
| Vaginal Ring                  | 0   | 0    |
| Implant                       | 1   | .90  |
| Patch                         | 1   | .90  |
| Emergency Contraception       | 8   | 7.20 |
| Permanent                     | 0   | 0    |
In terms of pregnancy, 9.00% ($n = 10$) had previously experienced an unplanned pregnancy. Among these participants, 40% ($n = 4$) kept the child, 40% ($n = 4$) terminated the pregnancy, 10% ($n = 1$) organised an adoption, and 10% ($n = 1$) preferred not to answer on the outcome of the pregnancy.

**Discussion**

This study was designed to investigate the role of culture and religion on sexual and reproductive health indicators and help-seeking behaviour amongst 1.5 generation migrants using a quantitative survey. Overall, the results suggest that 1.5 generation migrants feel most comfortable seeking help from doctors/GP (92.7%), sexual health clinics (88.1%), the internet (84.1%), and intimate partners (81.1%) regarding clinical SRH issues. For support on non-clinical SRH matters, the results suggest that 1.5 generation migrants feel the least comfortable seeking SRH support from community leaders (72.5%) and relative(s) (60%). These findings can be further contextualised when culture and religiosity are considered.

With regards to the role of cultural connectedness on 1.5 generation migrants SRH help-seeking behaviours the results indicate significant positive correlations between strong identification with one’s country of origin and seeking help from an intimate partner, parents, a sexual health clinic, the internet, and a doctor. Stronger identification with one’s family positively correlates with seeking help from an intimate partner, a doctor, community leaders, and seeking no help. This is in line with research indicating that some young people of minority and migrant backgrounds often struggle to engage with their parents when they experience an SRH concern for fear of the consequences of transgressing ethnocultural or religious protocols held in high esteem by their parents (11, 12). However, this was not the case for all the 1.5 generation migrants in this study. This may be because these young migrants feel more connected to their parents in line with their collectivist ethnocultural values (13). For those who sought help from parents it could also be that both the young people and their parents have acculturated more than popular discourses give them credit for (13).

In this study, strong identification with Australian culture positively correlates with seeking help from an intimate partner, relatives, a sexual health clinic, a doctor, and community leaders while stronger identification with one’s community positively correlates with seeking help from an intimate partner,
relatives, a doctor, community leaders, and seeking no help. Other studies highlight culture as a significant factor in SRH help seeking (5) however the findings of this study suggest that 1.5 generation migrants are not as influenced by culture to the same extent as their older counterparts (13). These findings suggest that the colloquially perceived ethnocultural values between more recent migrants and those with a longer history in Australia are not so incongruent (13). These findings can inform contemporary discourses about young migrants and their SRH help-seeking needs.

The study inquired about whether religious affiliation influenced 1.5 generation migrants’ SRH help-seeking behaviours. The analyses identified a significant difference only between religious affiliation and seeking help from a parent. This may be because increased religiosity has been linked to difficulties in seeking help for SRH issues from close family members due to fear of social sanctioning as contemporary Australians youths’ sexual behaviour is often at odds with religious doctrine (9).

Notably, those with no religious affiliation were slightly more likely to seek help from parents yet there were no statistically significant differences between the six religious affiliations. The findings therefore suggest that more inquiry is needed into the role of religiosity and SRH help seeking amongst young migrants and culturally and linguistically diverse youth.

To support access to SRH supports, the reduction of barriers and increase in facilitators is required. In this study, the top three barriers as perceived by 1.5 generation migrants were; not knowing where to access SRH services (45.90%), ensuring that their family and community did not find (36.00%) and not having enough money to pay for SRH services (28.80%). Likewise, being made aware of where the services are (63.10%), being confident that no one would find out (45.90%) and access to services which are free/low cost (36.90%) were identified as the most dominant facilitators of help-seeking behaviour. These findings are aligned with Australian and international research with minority youth indicating that increased awareness of services that provide inconspicuous access to free SRH services improve young people’s SRH outcomes (14-17). For instance, SRH supports provided at university campuses can offer confidentiality from family and community and often including billing options for local and international students that require minimal to no payment upfront (16, 18, 19).

However, such services are only accessible to those whose social determinants allow them the
privilege of attending university. Considering that religion was an important influence in help-seeking religious organisations may be well placed liaisons between youth, their families and communities and SRH services.

Limitations
The study findings reiterate the role of cultural connectedness and religiosity in SRH help-seeking for migrant youth. The study has also highlighted key areas which require further consideration and investigation. The purposeful nature of the sampling strategy helped to achieve a varied sample with the aim of capturing perspectives from various ethnic, religious and migration histories. However, the country of origin of the sample was not proportional as most participants were from sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, the majority of participants were Catholic or Christian which may not reflect many 1.5 generation migrants who do not prescribe to Christianity. This cultural similarity may mean the full breadth of cross-cultural SRH help-seeking perspectives and behaviours have yet to be explored.

Further, the analysis was restricted as MANOVAs could not be conducted on the studies small and uneven sample sizes as such the Kruskall-Wallis tests were used instead. Ultimately, generalisations cannot be made about the different perspectives among such groups, and further study is recommended to assess the effect of diverse religious backgrounds on SRH help-seeking amongst young migrants in Australia.

Although participants of this study were recruited from a number of Western Sydney suburbs this was done in relation to seven Western Sydney University campuses and surrounding off-campus venues (e.g., major shopping malls). As a result, the participants are likely to have been university students or staff and therefore well-educated. In such a case the participants would potentially have a heightened capacity to both understand and critically analyse the statements before sorting them. As such the sample may not be representative of the many 1.5 generation migrants who may not have high levels of education. With lower levels of education come lower levels of health literacy (20). Consequently, participants’ perspectives on health care services and the engagement of those services with migrants may be influenced by their increased ability to scrutinise, navigate and mediate their experiences within the Australian health care system Compared to other groups of
migrants. Expansion of this study to include a broader variety of 1.5 generation migrants is therefore required.

Conclusion

The influence of a cross-cultural upbringing is often noted in extant literature as a potentially challenging factor in migrant youths’ sexual and reproductive health help-seeking. Amongst the 1.5 generation migrants in this study there was no significant differences between ethnocultural groups or levels of cultural connectedness in relation to sexual and reproductive health help-seeking behaviours. While cultural norms of migrants’ country of origin can remain strong it is religion that seems to have more of an impact on how 1.5 generation migrants construct, experience, understand and engage with various aspects of SRH. The present study’s results suggest differences between religious groups in regards to seeking help specifically from young peoples’ parents. Notably, participants who reported having ‘no religion’ were more likely to seek help with sexual and reproductive health matters from their parents. Given that religion can play such an important role in young peoples’ sexual and reproductive health religious organisations may be well placed to encourage young people’s help-seeking behaviours. This may be a means of addressing the barriers that young people perceive to accessing support in ways that ensure equitable and easy access to confidential and low to no cost sexual and reproductive health services.

List Of Abbreviations

SRH: Sexual and reproductive health

STIs: Sexually transmitted infections

Declarations

**Ethical approval and consent to participate**

This study is part of a larger research project examining the SRH of 1.5 generation migrants in Australia and ethical approval was received from the Human Research Ethics Committee of Western Sydney University [H11168]. In addition, informed consent to participate in this study was obtained from the participants.

**Consent for publication**

As part of the ethics procedures participants were advised of the outcomes of the research including
the publication of de-identified data in academic literature. This was done before all participants either signed a consent form or verbally provided consent indicating their consent to participate and for the data to be shared in a de-identified format.

**Availability of Data and Materials**

The data from this study will not be shared as neither the participants nor the university ethics committee approve of the researchers to do so.

**Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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**Authors’ contributions**

TD and JP conceived and designed the study. DA participated in the collection of survey data. TD, ZM and JT performed the initial analysis and interpretation of the results with JP and VM assisting in the interpretation of factors and socio-demographic data. TD drafted the manuscript and all authors read and approved the final draft.

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