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## Hidden yet visible: methodological challenges researching sexual health in Sudanese refugee communities

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Research addressing sensitive topics with people from small, minority, ethnic communities can present challenges that are difficult to address using conventional methods. This paper reports on the methodological approach used to explore sexual health knowledge, attitudes and beliefs among the Sudanese community in Queensland, Australia. The multiphase, mixed-method study involved young people 16 to 24 years of age participating in a written survey and semi-structured interview and focus-group discussions with the broader Queensland Sudanese community members. Community collaboration, the key factor to the success of this research, optimised the development of a research environment that built trust and facilitated access and subsequent understanding. Research conducted in partnership with the target community can address methodological challenges and produce meaningful information when researching sensitive topics with small but ‘highly-visible’ populations.

**Keywords:** research methods; sexual health; Sudanese refugees; vulnerable populations; Australia

### Introduction

Sensitive research topics require participants to discuss attitudes, beliefs and behaviours considered personal and private, which may lead to discomfort, social isolation or even persecution (Wellings, Branigan, and Mitchell 2000). Such research raises methodological, ethical and logistical difficulties as researchers and participants balance cultural and social values and ethical research considerations (Birman 2005). Addressing issues such as sexual health from a cultural perspective with a small, highly-visible, ‘hard-to-reach’ population has in the past resulted in the research being deemed ‘too hard’ to countenance (Hynes 2003; Ogilvie, Burgess-Pinto, and Caufield 2008; Smith and Pitts 2007; Wilson and Neville 2009). These difficulties have contributed to the dearth of research addressing sensitive topics in hard-to-access groups.

This paper reports on the methodological approach used to explore the sexual-health knowledge, attitudes and behaviours of the Queensland Sudanese community. The research utilised a descriptive, collaborative multiphase research model (Creswell and Plano-Clark 2007), involving a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches.

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Emerging from a community-led initiative to understand the variance of intergenerational sexual health attitudes and beliefs, it aimed to identify and explore the sexual health knowledge, attitudes and patterns of behaviour of 16–24-year-old Queensland Sudanese community members, together with the social, cultural and contextual perspective of the broader Queensland Sudanese community.

The importance of establishing rapport and working with the community is emphasised throughout this paper. We describe the steps taken to address the methodological challenges of sampling and recruitment, along with data collection, and highlight some strategies to address the challenges associated with these key research design issues. We contend that the challenges of conducting sensitive research with small, minority, ethnic communities can be addressed with careful planning and close community collaboration.

### *What do we know about the target population?*

The Australian Bureau of Statistics Census of Population and Housing recorded 19,050 Sudan-born people living in Australia in 2006 (Commonwealth of Australia 2009). However, it is estimated that around 28,000 people of Sudanese background have resettled in Australia since 1996 (Australian Government 2009) with approximately 62% being under 24 years of age (Commonwealth of Australia 2007). Sudan's history of over 40 years of civil conflict (Rogier 2005) has led to the majority of Sudanese community members arriving in Australia via the Humanitarian Program following protracted periods of displacement and forced migration (Commonwealth of Australia 2007). The longevity of Sudan's civil conflict also means many young Sudanese arrivals have never known life without unrest and the range of physical, psychological and social experiences that accompany forced migration and life in a refugee camp (Tempany 2009). These experiences may include trauma, torture, rape, family separation and loss, and community breakdown, along with limited access to education and health services (Copping, Shakespeare-Finch, and Paton 2010; Goodman 2004; Kizito 2001; Tempany 2009).

It is well established that forced migration is associated with sexual health vulnerabilities and increased risk of negative sexual-health outcomes (McGinn 2000). Despite this, there is scant research addressing sexual health and well-being of migrant and refugee communities in their new settlement country (Hoffman et al. 2011; McMichael and Gifford 2009; Tompkins et al. 2006, Zhou 2012). As the sexual health of refugee background communities continues to be overlooked post-resettlement in Australia (McMichael and Gifford 2010), the authors of this paper argue that this group's sexual vulnerability may continue after resettlement if the lack of research and understanding continues.

An emerging body of research involving members of the Australian Sudanese community focuses mainly on this community as a part of larger collective target populations such as African (Harte, Childs, and Hastings 2009; Johnson 2007; Matereke 2009; Neale et al. 2007; Sheikh-Mohammed et al. 2006) or refugee groups (Henderson and Kendall 2011; Johnson, Ziersch, and Burgess 2008) and thus limits specific understanding of this community group. Some of these broader studies include HIV status among minority ethnic groups (Körner 2007) and working with African communities on HIV prevention (Lemoh, Biggs, and Hellard 2008). However, studies with the Australian Sudanese community as the sole target population mainly focus on issues pertaining to acculturation (Hebbani, Obijiofor, and Bristed 2009; Milner and Khawaja 2010; Poppitt and Frey 2007), settlement in Australia (Lejukole 2008; Murray 2010; Nunn 2011), English language literacy and learning (Brown, Miller, and Mitchell 2006;

99 Burgoyne and Hull 2007), mental health and trauma (Copping, Shakespeare-Finch, and  
100 Paton 2010) and not sexual health.

101 In contrast to this trend, McMichael (2008) explored sexual-health literacy among  
102 16–25-year-old refugee youth in Melbourne and identified a number of key factors that  
103 influence the sexual health of this group. However, the small sample ( $n = 142$ ) prohibited  
104 meaningful analysis of the Sudanese sub-group ( $n = 25$ ) data (McMichael 2008).  
105 Poor HIV knowledge and patterns of sexual-risk behaviour have been found in studies  
106 conducted with Sudanese communities in Sudan (Ali and Pett 2005; Allen 2007) and  
107 resettlement countries such as the USA (Tompkins et al. 2006; Willis and Nkwocha 2006).  
108 However, the dearth of studies focusing on sexual health knowledge, attitudes and  
109 behaviours within unique sociocultural contexts of individual resettlement communities  
110 continues to limit our ability to respond with appropriate interventions.

### 111 112 *Researching sensitive topics with a highly-visible community*

114 The Queensland Sudanese community, like other refugee-background communities, may in  
115 some senses be considered ‘hidden’ and ‘hard-to-reach’ (Jacobsen 2006; Spring et al.  
116 2003). Pre-arrival experiences, including mistrust of government-initiated programmes,  
117 may result in a reluctance to participate in research (Gifford et al. 2007; Hynes 2003).  
118 Fear that participating in research focusing on a socially and culturally sensitive topic may  
119 further add to discrimination and negative stereotyping already experienced post-settle-  
120 ment and create further unwillingness (Colic-Peisker 2009; Ogilvie, Burgess-Pinto, and  
121 Caufield 2008; Wilson and Neville 2009). Both these factors contribute to this group being  
122 considered hidden and hard-to-reach. However, while potentially hard-to-reach, the  
123 Queensland Sudanese community, due to their physical, racial and cultural characteristics,  
124 may be considered ‘highly visible’ rather than hidden, within the predominately ‘white  
125 Anglo-Western’ Australian community (Colic-Peisker 2009; Colic-Peisker and Tilbury  
126 2007; Dhanji 2009; Hebbani and McNamara 2010; Nunn 2011; White 2009). Despite  
127 Australia’s multiculturalism and anti-discrimination policy and legislation, visibly  
128 different individuals and communities experience discrimination and negative stereotyping  
129 (Colic-Peisker 2009; Colic-Peisker and Tilbury 2007). Fear of further discrimination, if  
130 associated with sensitive research, combined with a reluctance to participate in research due  
131 to past experiences may present difficulties when conducting research with this group.

132 Highly-visible communities are also often labelled as belonging to a collective,  
133 homogenous group by appearance and/or experiences (Dhanji 2009; White 2009). For  
134 example the Sudanese community may be labelled ‘African’ (Dhanji 2009) and/or,  
135 ‘refugee’ (Nunn 2011), as in the studies conducted in Australia noted earlier. A collective  
136 grouping labelled as refugee can create: feelings of isolation and not belonging within  
137 the Australian community; an increased sense of vulnerability and stigmatisation; and  
138 generalisation of pre- and post-arrival experiences (Nunn 2011). Collective labelling as  
139 African has the potential for researchers with limited understanding of the true  
140 heterogeneous nature of the African and Sudanese community to miss recognising the  
141 needs of specific ethnic sub-communities with their target population (Dhanji 2009).  
142 Failure to recognise unique target population characteristics may impact on a researcher’s  
143 ability to gain access and trust within the community (Wilson and Neville 2009).  
144 The success of any research with a highly-visible or hidden minority group depends on the  
145 researcher developing a level of rapport that enables sharing of these unique nuances and  
146 the sociocultural reality of participants (Wilson and Neville 2009). Research questions  
147 related to participants’ sexual health involves the exploration of personal and sensitive

148 issues and this can be particularly challenging with communities who identify this topic as  
149 culturally taboo and/or sensitive (Elam and Fenton 2003). As it is the community and  
150 individual participants who can most effectively define issues that are sensitive and  
151 identify methods to address these issues, one of the most effective ways to address the  
152 challenge of researching potentially sensitive issues is to incorporate the target community  
153 in the development of the research approach (Elam and Fenton 2003). In this study,  
154 community consultation indicated that the desire to develop greater understanding of what  
155 young people were thinking and doing in regards to relationships and sexual behaviour  
156 and how the community needed to respond, outweighed the traditional sensitivity toward  
157 sexual health.

### 160 **Study design and methods**

161 This paper draws from an exploratory descriptive multiphase research project, which  
162 emanated from extensive community consultation and a pilot study phase. Conducted  
163 under ethical approval from Griffith University Human Research Ethics committee  
164 (GU Ref No: NRS/02/09/HREC), this project used a concurrent converging triangulation  
165 mixed-method approach (Creswell and Plano-Clark 2007) that involved the concurrent  
166 separate collection and analysis of data relating to the same phenomenon from three  
167 independent primary-data sources. These included (1) a cross-sectional written sexual  
168 health survey with 16–24-year-old, self-identifying members of the Queensland Sudanese  
169 community ( $n = 229$ ), (2) 11 semi-structured interviews with a sub-sample of the survey  
170 participants and (3) five community focus-group discussions with 19 adults aged between  
171 25 and 51 years. The data from these phases were then triangulated without  
172 transformation, via a process of comparing and contrasting separate findings  
173 (Creswell and Plano-Clark 2007). Identification of convergent and divergent themes  
174 provided a depth of findings that effectively answered the research questions and increased  
175 confidence in the meaning and trustworthiness of the study findings (Creswell and Plano-  
176 Clark 2007). The combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate  
177 this complex and sensitive topic provided rich data (Sandelowski 2000) and strengthened  
178 the quality and rigour of findings (Ager 2000; Creswell 1994; Creswell and Plano-Clark  
179 2007; Moffat et al. 2006). The process adopted provided a better understanding of the  
180 overlapping complexity of issues that is often lacking in single method studies  
181 (Creswell and Plano-Clark 2007).

### 184 ***Community consultation and study reference group***

185 Widespread community consultation occurred prior to commencing the study and was  
186 ongoing throughout. This helped to develop understanding of the social and cultural  
187 context of the community and foster community trust and identification with the research  
188 (Israel et al. 2005) while providing opportunity to identify their needs (Israel et al. 2005;  
189 Lantz et al. 2006; Sadler et al. 2006; Wallerstein et al. 2005). The chief researcher, this  
190 paper's first author, consulted with the community by the formation of a study reference  
191 group of community members combined with regular attendance at formal community  
192 meetings and participation in informal social gatherings. The researcher established  
193 an open, respectful communication pathway, both face-to-face and via telephone and  
194 email contact, with the reference group and other key community members to ensure the  
195 community had a direct voice in the research.  
196

197 The reference group, comprising community members aged 19–50 years from  
198 a range of Sudanese tribal affiliations, provided cultural advice to the researcher. This  
199 group was an active partner in the development of the research question and  
200 methodological approach. Membership in the reference group changed throughout the  
201 research in response to members' varying levels of availability due to competing family,  
202 community and work demands. This diversity and fluidity of membership provided the  
203 opportunity for increased community involvement and enlarged the overall community  
204 representation. It also prevented any member becoming a gatekeeper or sole voice  
205 representing the broader community (Temple and Moran 2006).

206 Community involvement included not only the establishment of the reference group  
207 but ongoing support and input from members of key Queensland Sudanese formal groups  
208 and a number of informal social networks. An email group comprising community  
209 members and participants, who expressed an interest in being kept informed of the study's  
210 progress, provided a pathway for the reverse flow of information about community  
211 issues and upcoming events, for disseminating research information and study  
212 recruitment. Young members of the reference group and the extended email consultation  
213 process provided valuable input into the development of a youth-friendly and safe research  
214 environment. It also enabled recruitment strategies that targeted youth from a range of  
215 community subgroups to be implemented. Creating a connection between the research,  
216 the young people and the broader target community was instrumental in the successful  
217 engagement and recruitment for this study.

218 The first author spent a considerable time attending community and youth-specific  
219 gatherings. This provided opportunity to observe and gain understanding of the cultural  
220 beliefs, traditions and sociocultural reality of the community's Queensland experience.  
221 Drawing on previous research (Cottone 2005; Harte, Childs, and Hastings 2009;  
222 Hebbani, Obijiofor, and Bristed 2010; Khawaja et al. 2008; Murray 2010; Poppitt and Frey  
223 2007; Westoby 2008) and anecdotal evidence gathered during the various consultations,  
224 she developed a closer understanding of the multi-layered issues that face the target  
225 community and its young members in their new social world. This understanding,  
226 combined with ongoing collaboration with the reference group, guided development of  
227 a contextually and culturally appropriate research environment (Westoby 2008;  
228 Wilson and Neville 2009).

229 While logistically time consuming and sometimes challenging, time spent engaging in  
230 community consultation was essential. Without this active partnership with the  
231 community and invaluable sharing of information, it would not have been possible to  
232 develop a research approach reflective of these participants' sociocultural reality  
233 (Israel et al. 2005; Nyamathi, Koniak-Griffin, and Greengold 2007; Temple and Moran  
234 2006). This approach was essential as it was acceptable to, and inclusive of, the target  
235 population and built a level of trust and rapport that facilitated recruitment of adequate  
236 participant numbers in a culturally appropriate environment, thereby, minimising  
237 selection bias and maximising research value (Birman 2005; Smith and Pitts 2007; Spring  
238 et al. 2003). This research partnership model supported the development of findings that  
239 would be perceived as relevant and meaningful to the study participants, along with service  
240 providers and health policy makers (Gifford et al. 2007; Wilson and Neville 2009).

### 241 *Why do a pilot study?*

242  
243 The pilot study phase determined feasibility of accessing the target community and the  
244 appropriateness of the methodological approach. It allowed for early identification of  
245



246 barriers or cultural practices that could hinder the research process and timely revision  
247 of the research process if required (VanTeijlingen and Hundley 2001). A convenience  
248 sample of 30 tribally diverse 16–24-year-old members of the target community was  
249 recruited into the pilot phase to assess the sexual health survey for cultural and linguistic  
250 appropriateness. This also provided an opportunity for broader consultation with young  
251 members of the community. In addition, it resulted in changes to recruitment strategies  
252 including incorporating peer recruiters as active participants in recruitment and  
253 data collection, together with the inclusion of sporting and social organisations as the  
254 primary access and recruitment sites. One community focus-group discussion with five  
255 adult members aged between 25 to 40 years was also conducted in the pilot phase. Focus-  
256 group discussions have been found to be acceptable and effective in eliciting data on social  
257 norms when researching sexual-health- and cross-cultural-related issues  
258 (Connell, McKeivitt, and Low 2004; Culley, Hudson, and Rapport 2007; Temple and  
259 Moran 2006). Findings from this pilot group gave further insight into the research  
260 question, language skill, levels of community interest and accessibility and guided  
261 refinement of the focus-group discussion guide.

### 262 263 *Sample*

264  
265 Sudan consists of over 50 heterogeneous ethnic groups, with approximately 140 different  
266 spoken languages (Kizito 2001) along with a complex and diverse array of religious and  
267 regional affiliations and sub-communities (Jensen and Westoby 2008; Moro 2004).  
268 To date, these demographics have not been captured in any Australian population data,  
269 making it difficult to define a clear sample frame for this study. Community consultation  
270 indicated that being Sudanese was not based on place of birth or language spoken as  
271 recorded on Australia census data. Therefore, for the purpose of eligibility for this  
272 research, Sudanese was defined as any person who self-identified as being Sudanese.  
273 This reflected the community's view on 'being' Sudanese.

274 Sample sizes for the interview and focus- group data collection were determined by  
275 exhaustion of emerging themes. Calculating and achieving a sample size for the survey  
276 phase posed some challenges. Based on the estimated population size of 16–24-year-old  
277 Sudanese Queenslanders, an established Needed Sample Sizes table (Reaves 1992)  
278 indicated a sample size between 230 to 240 participants was needed with an alpha of 0.05.  
279 As this represents nearly 50% of the total 16–24-year-old population, there was a concern  
280 that this may place unrealistic demand on the participants and community. Initial  
281 assessment of the logistics, cost and feasibility also indicated ~~that~~ it may have been beyond  
282 the timeframe and capacity of the research. A timeframe of 12 months was therefore set  
283 for survey data collection, when recruitment numbers would be reviewed.

### 284 285 *Sampling and recruitment*

286  
287 Non-probability convenience sampling, including snowball and purposive sampling in  
288 conjunction with multiple active strategies of recruitment, was chosen as the most culturally  
289 and methodologically appropriate approach for this research (Ahmed, Hussain, and  
290 Vournas 2001; Bloch 2007; Schofield 2004). Regular consultation with peer recruiters,  
291 reference-group members and participants allowed adjustment of sampling methods and  
292 active recruitment strategies to reflect local demographics. Purposive sampling was applied  
293 in order to achieve gender balance and inclusion of social and tribal/familial networks  
294 reflective of the broader Queensland Sudanese community structures. This further increased

295 the probability that the findings were reflective of the generalised normative beliefs and  
296 concerns of the wider community (Elam and Fenton 2003).

297 Distribution of information and recruitment of participants focused on established  
298 cultural, social, sporting and family networks given that strong bonds within these  
299 networks are generally formed early upon resettlement (Sheikh-Mohammed et al. 2006).  
300 Hidden and hard-to-reach populations also gather at known places (Magnania et al. 2005)  
301 and in this instance peer recruiters, study reference-group members and past participants  
302 guided the researcher to these known gathering points. This further extension of  
303 the seeding points increased opportunity for members of smaller more hidden networks to  
304 participate (Magnania et al. 2005).

305 Recruitment of adults for the focus-group discussions was mainly through  
306 convenience sampling, using established community groups such as women's support  
307 groups, community-based organisation networks and community forums and social events  
308 that the researcher was invited to attend.

309 Two young members of the reference group, one female and one male, acted as peer  
310 recruiters and were pivotal to the successful recruitment of young people for the survey  
311 and interview phases. The use of peer recruiters was strongly supported by both  
312 community feedback and the literature as a culturally-appropriate and community-  
313 accepted means to facilitate access (Correa-Velez et al. 2011; Elliott, Watson, and Harries  
314 2002; Luchters et al. 2008; Simon and Mosavel 2010; Vargo et al. 2004). The peer  
315 recruiters were from two different social, tribal and geographical groups within the  
316 community and thus were able to provide a diversity of peers and social networks to begin  
317 seeding for snowball sampling and recruitment. The use of peer recruiters also decreased  
318 the risk of overrepresentation of any one group as they continued to identify new diverse  
319 seeding points throughout the data-collection period. This included some state-wide  
320 sporting events involving African youth, World Refugee Day celebrations and formal  
321 social gatherings organised by the community association. All locations were noted  
322 as acceptable and safe by the peer recruiters, the reference group and community leaders.  
323 The researcher gave the peer recruiters information about important aspects of the study  
324 to support them in their role in recruiting eligible potential participants and data collection.  
325 This was successful and 229 participants were recruited by this process within the  
326 12-month timeframe mentioned earlier, thus achieving the previously considered  
327 unobtainable task of recruiting an adequate sample size.

### 328 329 *Data collection*

331 The data collection tools for the study were consistent with Fishbein's Integrated  
332 Behaviour Science Theory model (Fishbein 2000), the theoretical approach adopted  
333 for this research. The sexual-health survey and discussion guides for both the interviews  
334 and focus groups were developed from the 4th National Survey of Australian Secondary  
335 Students HIV/AIDS and Sexual Health (Smith et al. 2009) for comparison purposes.  
336 Reviewed for cultural and linguistic suitability in consultation with the reference group  
337 and during the pilot study, the data collection tools were adjusted accordingly. Care was  
338 taken not to change the intent of the survey questions. The Cultural Identity Schedule  
339 validated in the RELACHS study (Institute of Community Health Sciences 2003) was  
340 added to the sexual-health survey to capture cultural identity data.

341 Data collection occurred in English. While it is acknowledged poor English literacy  
342 and language skills could be a barrier, English is widely spoken in Southern Sudan  
343 (Adult Migrant English Programme Research Centre 2003) and community consultation



344 indicated that the general English proficiency would be adequate amongst potential  
345 participants. The reference group considered the use of interpreters may, in fact, reduce  
346 participants' willingness to disclose sensitive information (Fenton et al. 2002) and affect  
347 group dynamics (Culley, Hudson, and Rapport 2007). This was supported by findings from  
348 the pilot focus group. The peer recruiters and researcher also assisted eligible participants  
349 to complete the sexual-health survey when requested, thereby increasing participation  
350 of young people with lower English skills, who may otherwise have been excluded.  
351

### 352 *Addressing the challenges of community data collection*

354 Many African cultures are polychronic, placing less emphasis on adhering to schedules  
355 and more importance on meeting the needs of the people they are with at the time, often  
356 interacting with multiple people at once (Hall 2012). To the more monochronic Australian  
357 culture, where people tend to arrange their lives around schedules, polychronic cultures  
358 can appear spontaneous and unstructured. In this study, this manifested itself in the manner  
359 in which participants often arrived late for scheduled meetings, which were further  
360 interrupted due to arrival of family or friends. Prior understanding of this cultural norm  
361 ensured additional time was allocated for data collection and meetings. However, the time  
362 spent waiting for participants to arrive was not wasted as it provided time to observe and  
363 converse with community members who arrived near the scheduled starting time. The  
364 sharing of stories over a cup of tea provided additional insight into social and cultural  
365 attitudes and beliefs of the community, thus further deepening the researcher's  
366 understanding and strengthening community rapport.

367 Polychronic cultures also place great meaning on family and gathering in groups and  
368 this can lead to difficulty establishing a quiet place to meet for data collection (Hall 2012).  
369 To adjust for the Sudanese polychronic nature, the interviews and focus groups were also  
370 kept flexible in nature so that participants could join late and come and go as needed. For  
371 example Sudanese women are the main care givers (Wal 2004), therefore young children  
372 were often present, requiring the discussion to be stopped to allow for participants to address  
373 their children's needs. This also posed some difficulty in recording the discussion as there  
374 was often significant background noise. To address this, a skilled medical transcriber  
375 with knowledge of cross-cultural research was used to transcribe the digital recordings.  
376 Additional time was also allocated to checking audio recordings with written field notes and  
377 transcripts by the researcher to check accuracy and ensure the intent was captured.

378 The researcher was also flexible in scheduling and changing meeting times and place  
379 to meet study participants' needs. For example, men and young participants were  
380 generally less available during the day due to work and school commitments, meetings  
381 were therefore scheduled for evenings and weekends. For the additional convenience for  
382 participants, data collection often occurred in homes and locations nominated by the  
383 participants. This provided a relaxed and safe environment to facilitate the sharing of  
384 information (Gallagher 2009; Holloway and Wheeler 2010). However, consideration  
385 needed to be given to the potential risks associated with community-based data collection  
386 and a safety plan was developed in consultation with the community and the research  
387 team and adhered to at all times (Dickson-Swift et al. 2007).  
388

### 389 **Discussion**

391 Careful planning, cultural understanding and sensitivity, and close community  
392 collaboration can overcome the methodological challenges associated with conducting

sensitive research with small, highly-visible ethnic minority communities. The research methodology needs to be acceptable and appropriate to the community and aligned with the community's sociocultural context (Wilson and Neville 2009). The research needs to reflect the voice and socialcultural reality of the target community and the only way to achieve this is to design and conduct the research in collaboration with the community (Elam and Fenton 2003; Ogilvie, Burgess-Pinto, and Caufield 2008; Wilson and Neville 2009).

The perception of a community as hard-to-reach may be an artefact of conventional research practices, limited understanding of the cultural diversity in heterogeneous groups and limited experience in collaborating and conducting research with these groups. Sampling and recruitment present real challenges, but there is a range of community-inclusive approaches that enable the culturally appropriate recruitment of participants. Research with small, highly-visible ethnic minority communities requires that research participants know that their voices are heard and included. Researchers must be committed to engage the community throughout the research process.

Involving the community and using peer recruiters undoubtedly added complexity and additional ethical considerations, but addressing the challenges was feasible and rewarding to the community, participants and the researchers. Mutuality, in terms of sharing and respect of cultural beliefs and research knowledge, is a first step to developing a culturally-appropriate environment and research methodology where the community and researchers are equal partners and beneficiaries of the research. This can only be achieved by ensuring the target community is involved in all stages of the research, as was the case of the research outlined in this paper. However, it is also important to ensure that the community partners understand the research aims and processes and are kept informed of progress and outcomes in a manner they consider beneficial to participants and the broader community (Culley, Hudson, and Rapport 2007). The reciprocal sharing of experiences and outcomes can reduce misunderstanding, disillusion and reluctance to participate.

More sexual-health research, conducted in collaboration with small but highly-visible communities, is needed. Without this, community members may not receive appropriate sexual-health care and education. The key to developing specific services and supporting health policy is for researchers and target communities to work together to address the challenges associated with this type of research in a mutually reflective way.

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