Increasing vaccination of healthcare workers: a rapid review of intervention effectiveness, and factors influencing uptake during seasonal and pandemic influenza

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List of abbreviations

B & A	Before and after study design
BMC	Biomedical Central
BMJ	British Medical Journal
CINAHL	Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature
COVID	Coronavirus
EMBASE	Excerpta Medica database
HMIC	Health Management Information Consortium
HSE	Health Service Executive
MEDLINE	Medical Literature Analysis and Retrieval System Online
MERS	Middle Eastern Respiratory Syndrome
NETSCC	NIHR, Evaluation, Trials and Studies Coordinating Centre
NHS	National Health Service
NIHR	National Institute for Health Research
PLOS	Public Library of Science
PROSPERO	International database of prospectively registered systematic reviews
RCT	Randomised controlled tr
SARS	Severe acute respiratory syndrome
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

Abstract

Background:

The UK National Health Service has the largest workforce in Europe, and the fifth largest in the world, with an estimated 1.3 million employees. Attention to staff health and well-being is a critical aspect of effective care delivery, and is of even more importance for maintaining services during periods of high demand. In most countries guidance for healthcare workers recommends annual influenza vaccination to prevent ill health during times of seasonal and pandemic influenza. However, research has frequently highlighted that uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare workers is low.

Objectives:

This rapid review forms part of a wider review of organisational-level interventions to enhance the health and wellbeing of healthcare workers during times of increased demand for services. This synthesis focuses on the literature relating to the vaccination of staff during times of seasonal and pandemic influenza.

Methods:

We searched Medline, EMBASE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, CINAHL, HMIC (Health Management Information Consortium) and Web of Science in October and November 2020. The search was supplemented by reference list checking of included reviews, and using the "similar to" function within online journal repositories.

Brief inclusion and exclusion criteria were as follows:

- Population: Staff employed in healthcare organisations.
- Intervention/comparison: Studies evaluating interventions with the aim of increasing the uptake of influenza vaccination during periods of seasonal or pandemic influenza. Also, studies which reported factors influencing the outcomes of interventions.
- Outcomes: Effectiveness in terms of uptake, vaccination rates, health and wellbeing of staff, or data regarding views and perceptions.

- Setting: Healthcare services in any high or middle income country, including both hospital-based and community-based services.
- Study design: Any study published since 2010 reporting empirical data. We prioritised examination of other reviews, and supplemented this with scrutiny of abstracts of primary studies, in particular studies published more recently than the review sources.

The search results were screened against the inclusion criteria by two reviewers independently. As this was a rapid review, quality (risk of bias) assessment was not undertaken but any weaknesses of the literature as a whole were reported. We performed a narrative and framework synthesis of the included studies.

Results:

From a database of 1065 studies we included 13 reviews and 85 primary studies. The reviews synthesised between three and 37 primary studies, with the majority having few primary studies in common. The primary studies reported results from countries around the world with differing healthcare systems. Cross-sectional and survey designs dominated the literature.

Evidence from the studies indicates that interventions to increase the uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff results in small to moderate increases in uptake for nonmandatory actions. Interventions which include mandatory requirements (such as completing formal opt-out declarations or compulsory vaccination) are more effective, but have issues of acceptability in many countries.

Interventions which include multiple elements are more effective than single actions. These elements should include evidence-based information regarding level of personal risk, methods of virus transmission, and efficacy and safety of the vaccine. Information should be specific to healthcare workers (rather than aimed at the general population), and address the individual barriers reported. Vaccinations should be freely available to staff via on-site or mobile clinics, with peer-to-peer vaccination having potential. Managerial support and the involvement of staff in planning programmes may be helpful, in particular those groups who are known to have low uptake (females and nursing staff).

The review indicates that interventions during times of pandemic require the same elements as those at other times, although additional attention to communications regarding vaccine safety and personal risk may be beneficial, as well as extra measures to extend convenient access to vaccination.

Limitations:

We carried out a rapid review to distil key messages for stakeholders, and therefore our searching methods were limited, and some relevant literature may not have been identified and included. As typical for rapid reviews we did not carry out critical appraisal of individual studies, but commented on the quality of the literature overall.

Conclusions:

Non-mandatory interventions to increase uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff have small to moderate effectiveness, with rates often remaining low. Mandatory measures are more effective, but require ethical debate. Interventions with multiple strands have greater effectiveness than single components, with ease of access and evidence-based information particularly important during pandemics. Exploration of barriers amongst those least likely to be vaccinated (females, nursing staff) may be beneficial.

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Plain English summary

The National Health Service (NHS) in the United Kingdom has an estimated 1.3 million workers. It is important to look after the health of these workers for their own wellbeing, and to make sure there are enough staff to deliver effective services. This is particularly important when services are stretched and staff are under pressure, such as during high winter demand or pandemics.

Guidance for healthcare workers recommends that they have the annual flu jab. However, research shows that only around 30% of staff are vaccinated. Those who are not vaccinated may get ill and be unable to work, or could pass infections on to their colleagues or patients. This rapid review looked for research published since 2010 on the flu vaccination of healthcare staff in developed countries. We wanted to know what might help more staff get vaccinated against seasonal and pandemic flu.

We looked at 13 other reviews in detail, and also closely examined recently published studies to check we weren't missing anything. The results suggest that actions taken by healthcare organisations which are not compulsory (such as providing information, having publicity campaigns, or establishing on-site or mobile clinics) can lead to small or moderate increases in the number of vaccinated workers. The number vaccinated however, often stays low (around 50 to 60%). Compulsory requirements (such as completing opt-out forms or mandatory vaccination) can lead to up to 97% of workers being vaccinated, but may not be acceptable to staff.

Programmes which use several different strategies are most effective. Staff need tailored, evidence-based information about levels of personal risk, methods of virus transmission, and efficacy and safety of the vaccine. Easy access to vaccination is crucial, especially during pandemics. Nurses and females may be less likely to get vaccinated, so exploration of their particular barriers is needed.

Scientific summary

Background

Guidance for healthcare workers in most countries recommends annual influenza vaccination to prevent ill health during times of seasonal and pandemic influenza. However, research has frequently highlighted that uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare workers is low. Attention to staff health and well-being is important at all times, but especially during periods of high demand on services, such as winter pressures or times of pandemic.

Aims and objectives

The review aimed to answer the following research questions:

What is the evidence of effectiveness of system-level interventions to support influenza vaccination of healthcare staff?

What factors may enable or act as barriers to the uptake of influenza vaccination and implementation of these interventions?

What is the evidence regarding effectiveness for different sub-groups of staff such as professionals versus lower paid staff, different professions, or those working in different services?

Are there particular features of effective interventions during pandemic versus seasonal influenza?

Methods

We searched Medline, EMBASE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, CINAHL, HMIC (Health Management Information Consortium) and Web of Science in October and November 2020. Brief inclusion criteria are as follows:

Population: All staff employed within services providing healthcare in high and middle income countries.

Intervention: Activities to increase vaccination of healthcare staff against influenza. The intervention could take place in hospital and/or primary care settings.

Context: Extended periods of higher than usual demand for healthcare services including during pandemics or periods of high seasonal demand.

Outcomes: Any measure of effectiveness including number of staff vaccinated or intention to be vaccinated, outcomes for staff health and wellbeing, and also views and perceptions of healthcare staff.

Study design: Studies providing quantitative or qualitative data

Other criteria: Studies published since 2010.

Retrieved citations were downloaded to a reference management database (EndNote version 9). All citations were screened at title and abstract level by two members of the review team against the inclusion criteria, with any queries resolved by consensus during regular team meetings. In order to rapidly produce findings of relevance to stakeholder, we prioritised extraction of data from other existing reviews of relevance, and supplemented this with carrying out a brief extraction from the abstracts of primary studies. We drew on methods of framework synthesis to extract and tabulate key data from the included review papers, and then examine abstracts from the included primary studies.

Results

From a database of 1065 studies we included 13 reviews and 85 primary studies. The reviews included between three and 37 primary studies, and most had few primary studies in common. The primary studies reported results from many countries around the world, with cross-sectional and survey designs dominating. Evidence from the included studies indicated that interventions to increase the uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff resulted in small to moderate increases in uptake for non-mandatory actions. Interventions which include mandatory requirements such as completing formal opt-out declarations are more effective, but tend to have challenges of acceptability in many countries.

Interventions which include multiple elements are more effective than single actions. Interventions should include evidence-based information regarding level of personal risk, methods of virus transmission, and efficacy and safety of the vaccine. Information should be specific to healthcare workers (rather than aimed at the general population), and address specific individual barriers reported. Vaccinations should be freely available to staff via on-site or mobile clinics, with peer-to-peer vaccination having potential. Managerial support and communication of messages is important, with the involvement of staff in planning programmes helpful, possibly in particular those groups who are known to have low uptake (female staff and nursing staff).

The review indicates that interventions during times of pandemic require the same elements as those at other times, although additional attention to clear communications regarding

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vaccine safety and personal risk may be beneficial, as well as additional measures to extend convenient access to vaccination and effective project management.

Conclusions

Non-mandatory interventions to increase uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff have small to moderate effectiveness, with rates often remaining low. Mandatory measures are more effective but require ethical debate. Interventions with multiple strands have greater effectiveness. Key elements are: measures to increase convenience of vaccination; and the inclusion of evidence-based messages tailored to healthcare workers regarding safety, efficacy, and personal risk. The elements are required both during periods of seasonal influenza and times of pandemic. Exploring barriers amongst groups least likely to be vaccinated (nurses, females) may be beneficial.

Implications for healthcare

1. Multiple components should be included within interventions aiming to increase the uptake of vaccinations amongst healthcare staff.

2. Ease of access to vaccination via the provision of walk-in, on-site or mobile clinics is associated with increased uptake of vaccinations.

3. Messaging aimed at healthcare workers should address knowledge and understandings of vaccination safety and efficacy, levels of personal risk, and the risk to others.

4. Information campaigns should be tailored specifically for healthcare worker audiences rather than duplicating messages intended for the general population. There should be a focus on providing the evidence underpinning information, including staff as sources of transmission.

5. There is a need to consider the clarity of vaccination policies within organisations, and the involvement of staff in developing policies is of potential value. Managerial support and leadership is important, together with a focus of on staff wellbeing rather than economic and service delivery rationales.

6. While mandatory policies increase vaccination, there are acceptability and ethical consideration which require further discussion and debate within healthcare and wider society. Some mandatory actions (such as formal opt out) may be more acceptable than others such as compulsory vaccination.

7. The literature indicates that particular groups are less likely to take up vaccination (females, nursing profession), so barriers for these groups needs to be specifically explored if uptake rates are to be improved.

8. Review of the evidence suggests that there is little difference between actions aiming to improve the uptake of vaccination during times of pandemic versus seasonal vaccination. Although attention to ensuring easy access, and evidence-based messaging may be of increased importance.

Recommendations for research

1. Further research is needed regarding the key components of multi-element interventions.

2. Further high quality evidence is needed which uses study designs other than cross-sectional and surveys to evaluate interventions.

3. Further evidence is needed regarding the association between the vaccination status of staff, and risk to patients and fellow staff. This is important to inform evidence-based messages for staff, and debates regarding mandatory measures. Examination of data on transmission of other types of infection in hospital environments may provide transferable learning.

4. There was a suggestion that intervention effectiveness may vary by healthcare setting, with hospital-based programmes offering less effectiveness. Greater evaluation of these differences and exploration of contextual factors would be beneficial.

5. Further research on the implementation, acceptability and efficacy of vaccination status monitoring systems would be beneficial, together with further exploration of societal and worker views regarding mandatory components.

6. Existing research provides a clear consensus regarding the factors which influence vaccination uptake, and further primary studies on this topic are unlikely to add to the evidence base.

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Background

The UK National Health Service (NHS) has the largest workforce in Europe, and the fifth largest in the world, with an estimated 1.3 million employees.¹ The delivery of safe, high-quality care requires staff to be in post, and be physically and mentally well, yet there are high levels of sickness absence and presenteeism amongst NHS staff.² Times of crisis and high demand for healthcare services, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and winter increases in accident and emergency attendance, tax the financial resources available and structural capabilities of healthcare services to provide adequate care.³ Attention to staff health and well-being is therefore a critical aspect of crisis management in order that services can be maintained during periods of high demand.³

Sickness absence during periods of seasonal influenza are known to lead to substantial economic cost from lost working days, and absences also place pressure on colleagues and the healthcare system at a time of high patient demand. One study of a large hospital in Italy reported that over 11,100 working days had been lost during an influenza period in a single year. The authors estimated that the costs associated were approximately 1.7 million euros, and the average work loss was valued at 327 euros per person.⁴ Economic modelling has indicated that influenza immunisation programmes for healthcare workers in hospitals are cost effective, with benefits outweighing the investment.⁵

In most countries guidance for healthcare workers recommends annual influenza vaccination, and in some countries it is even a mandatory condition for employment, although this is uncommon.⁶ However, research has frequently highlighted that uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare workers is typically low, with reports of typically only around 30% to 37% of staff being vaccinated.^{7, 8} One review of uptake in European countries reported rates as low as 13%.⁹ Some studies have suggested that while rates may slightly increase during pandemic influenza, there is no sustained effect on the uptake of influenza vaccination in subsequent years.¹⁰ Other authors have concluded that there is no increase in rates even during influenza pandemic.¹¹

This rapid review forms part of a wider systematic review, which is examining evidence on organisational interventions to support staff physical and mental wellbeing during times of particular pressure or crisis in health services. Our searches of the literature indicated that there was a substantial body of evidence relating to the specific area of influenza vaccination of healthcare staff. In the context of the current Covid-19 pandemic and initiation of a vaccination programme, together with the winter flu season, this report aims to provide a rapid synthesis of this sub-set of literature in advance of completion of the wider review.

Methods

The review comprises a rapid review of other systematic reviews (commonly termed a review of reviews or an umbrella review), supplemented by a mixed methods synthesis of key findings reported within the abstracts of primary studies.

Review questions

What is the evidence of effectiveness of system-level interventions to support influenza vaccination of healthcare staff?

What factors may enable or act as barriers to the uptake of influenza vaccination and implementation of these interventions?

What is the evidence regarding effectiveness for different sub-groups of staff eg professionals versus lower paid staff, different professions, and staff working in different services?

Are there particular features of effective interventions during pandemics versus seasonal influenza?

Identification of evidence

The information specialist on the team designed a search strategy, including search terms and electronic databases to be searched. The searches in electronic databases were run in October and November 2020. In addition to database searching we screened the included reviews for other review-level sources and primary studies, and used the "similar" function on online journals to identify other relevant sources.

Data sources

We searched Medline, EMBASE, the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, CINAHL, HMIC (Health Management Information Consortium) and Web of Science in October and November 2020. We also identified relevant UK websites and searched these for reports of relevance.

Inclusion criteria

Population: All staff employed within services providing healthcare in high and middle income countries.

Intervention: Activities to increase vaccination of healthcare staff against influenza. The intervention could take place in hospital and/or primary care settings.

Context: Extended periods of higher than usual demand for healthcare services including during epidemics and periods of high seasonal demand.

Outcomes: Any measure of effectiveness including number of staff vaccinated or intention to be vaccinated, health and wellbeing outcomes for staff, and also views and perceptions of healthcare staff.

Study design: Studies providing quantitative or qualitative data Other criteria: Studies published since 2010.

Exclusion criteria:

- Studies that describe initiatives without providing any quantitative or qualitative data
- Conceptual papers and projections of possible future developments
- Studies conducted in low income country health systems
- Theses, conference abstracts, articles in professional magazines, books and book chapters.

Selection of studies

Retrieved citations were downloaded to a reference management database (EndNote version 7). All citations were screened at title and abstract level by two members of the review team against the inclusion criteria, with any queries resolved by consensus during regular team meetings. Potentially relevant citations were tagged and re-screened by the lead reviewer, with those appearing to be of review design identified for full paper review. Following examination of these studies of review design, the remaining potentially relevant citations were re-screened for inclusion in the synthesis of abstracts of primary studies.

Method of extraction and synthesis

In order to rapidly produce findings of relevance to stakeholder, we prioritised extraction of data from other existing reviews of relevance, and supplemented this with carrying out a brief extraction from the abstracts of primary studies. We drew on methods of framework synthesis, ¹² to firstly extract and tabulate key data from the included review papers. This framework was then used to examine abstracts from the included primary studies and explore where these provided additional information.

Data extraction was performed by one reviewer, with discussion at regular team meetings of emerging framework items.

Quality appraisal

As typical for rapid reviews quality appraisal of individual studies was not carried out.¹³ However, the design of individual studies was identified during the study reporting as a proxy for hierarchy of quality.

Patient and public involvement

We drew on the expertise of a public advisory group for the Centre producing this review. The group comprised seven individuals, with representation from people aged in their 20s to in their sixties, from people living in geographical locations around the country with different experiences of health and social care, and with different ethnicity and backgrounds. At the outset of the review at an initial meeting, we sought input regarding the role of public advisors, for a research study in which the implications of the work are for healthcare workers rather than directly for patients. Input from the group emphasised how aware users of healthcare are, of demands on staff and staff wellbeing, with some having personal experience of family or friends who work in healthcare services. They recommended that public advisors should have a role in the study, in particular regarding interpretation of the findings and assisting in presenting the results in a form which members of the public would find relevant and accessible.

Towards the end of the study a second meeting was convened, to discuss the emerging findings and aspects that were of interest to the public. Key messages for the public were identified as: the role of clear and accurate communication within organisations; the importance of ensuring access to and ease of vaccination; and the large differential between mandatory and voluntary actions. The group suggested edits to the plain English summary and discussed the development of an evidence briefing for a public audience.

Review findings

From a database of 1065 studies we included 13 reviews and 85 primary studies. See Figure 1 for a diagram illustrating the process of study selection and inclusion.

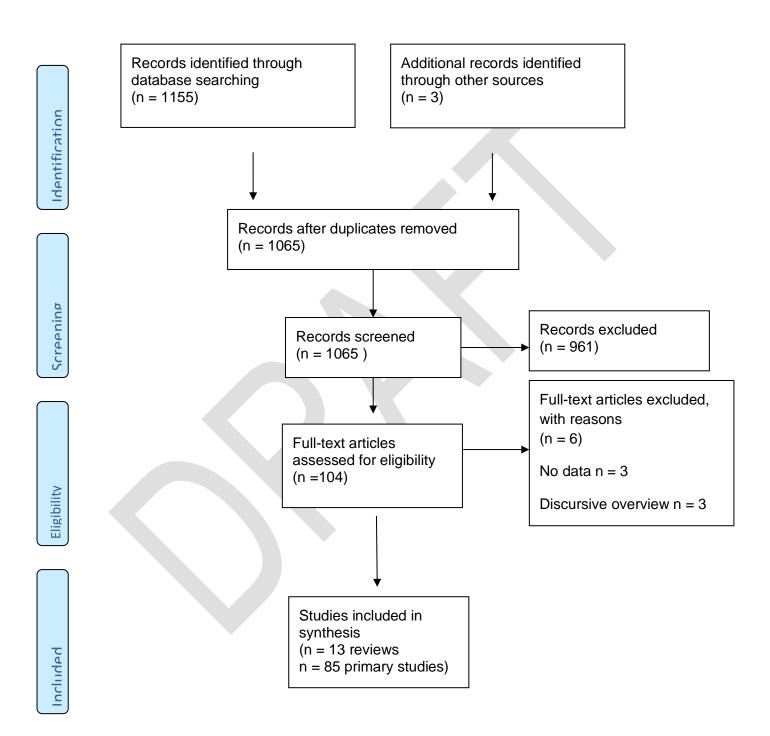


Figure 1. The process of study selection

Characteristics of the included studies

We identified 13 review-level sources which provided evidence regarding healthcare worker uptake of influenza vaccination. See Table 1 for a summary of the characteristics of each included review. Two of these reviews specifically considered pandemic influenza vaccination, ^{11, 14} while the rest synthesised evidence on seasonal influenza vaccination. The oldest review was published in 2010,¹⁵ and the two most recent reviews were published in 2018.^{7, 16}

The reviews included between three¹⁷ and 37¹⁸ primary studies. While there was some overlap in the sources included, for most there was only small duplication with other reviews. The studies differed in the date or study design inclusion criteria, or in regard to the research question being investigated. The Bellia et al. review¹¹ contained six studies in common with other reviews, Lorenc et al.¹⁹ and also Prematunge et al.¹⁴ each had four overlapping studies. Rashid et al. included three primary studies which were also included other reviews.²⁰ The Corace et al.²¹ and Lam et al. review¹⁵ contained two overlapping studies each. The Hollmeyer et al.²² and Vasilevska et al. reviews ¹⁸ contained one overlapping study each. Ng et al.¹⁷ and Imai et al.¹⁶ had no studies which were included in other reviews. The reviews which had the greatest similarity were Seale et al. and Stuart et al. which both focused on work carried out in Australia,^{23, 24} and included seven of 15 and seven of 11 studies respectively in common. There was one other review⁷ which was described as a "comprehensive review of the literature" and contained both "selected" reviews and primary studies, including six of the reviews which are also synthesised in our current review.

First author, date	Focus of review	Included study designs	Date inclusion	Number of included studies
Bellia, 2013	Healthcare worker seasonal and pandemic influenza vaccine uptake	Unclear/any	To 2011	Unclear - 64 referenced
Corace, 2016	Behavioural models and theories relating to influenza vaccination in healthcare workers	Any	To 2014	10
Dini, 2018	Influenza vaccination efficacy, determinants of	Reviews and meta-analyses	Unclear	28

Table 1. Summary of the included reviews

	untoko for			
	uptake for healthcare			
1.1.1.1	workers	Law effective at	4000 0044	05
Hollmeyer,	Interventions to	Longitudinal	1990-2011	25
2013	increase uptake	and comparator		
	of influenza	studies		
	vaccine			
	amongst			
	healthcare			
	workers			
Imai, 2018	Effects of	Trials	1980-2018	13
	influenza on			
	healthcare			
	workers			
Lam, 2010	Effectiveness of	Controlled	To 2008	12
	influenza	studies,		
	vaccination	interrupted time		
	campaigns for	series		
	healthcare			
	workers			
Lorenc, 2017	Review of	Qualitative	To 2016	25
	qualitative	studies		
	evidence on			
	influenza			
	vaccination for			
	healthcare			
	workers			
Ng, 2011	Effectiveness of	RCTs	To 2011	3
	influenza			•
	vaccination in			
	healthcare			
	workers			
Prematunge,	Factors	Observational,	2005-2011	20
2012	influencing	non-	2000 2011	20
2012	pandemic	interventional		
	vaccination of	survey,		
	healthcare	interviews		
	workers			
Rashid, 2016	Interventions to	RCTs	To 2015	12
1.43110, 2010	increase uptake		10 2013	12
	of influenza			
	vaccination			
	amongst healthcare			
	workers			
Seale, 2011		Any study	To 2010	10
	Uptake in	Any study	10 2010	10
	Australian	design		
	healthcare			
	workers			
	influenza			
01	vaccination	Otaalia	0000.001/	
Stuart, 2012	Uptake in	Studies	2000-2011	11
	Australian	containing data		
1	healthcare			

	workers influenza vaccination			
Vasilevska, 2014	Factors associated with acceptance of vaccination (influenza, pertussis, smallpox, anthrax, and hepatitis B)	Studies providing odds ratios or where odds ratios could be calculated	To 2012	37

Effectiveness of influenza vaccination of healthcare staff

Included review studies outlined evidence relating to effectiveness of vaccination in terms of reduction of infection, illness, absence and economic impact; as well as the effectiveness of interventions to increase vaccination uptake. While our review was primarily focused on the latter question of staff uptake, we will firstly present data within included studies relating to overall vaccination efficacy in order to contextualise the subsequent findings.

Is vaccination effective and cost effective in reducing influenza and staff absence?

Evidence from two review-level sources^{16, 17} supports influenza vaccination of healthcare workers as being an effective intervention for reducing infection, illness and absence from work. In the first of these reviews (a systematic review and meta-analysis which included 13 studies) it was found that influenza vaccination had a significant effect on the number of cases of laboratory confirmed influenza, and the number of days of absence due to influenza-like illness was significantly reduced.¹⁶ While laboratory-confirmed influenza was significantly reduced, the pooled effect was not significant for influenza-like illness (pooled relative risk = 1.07, 95%CI; 0.95–1.20). The authors concluded that flu vaccination was a cost-effective intervention in terms of avoidance of absenteeism.

A review and meta-analysis of three randomised controlled trials (which was also included in the Dini et al. review) concluded that there is limited evidence that influenza vaccinations significantly reduce the incidence of influenza, the number of illness-like episodes, days with symptoms, or the amount of sick leave taken among vaccinated healthcare workers. However, there was a positive effect in terms of the number of laboratory confirmed cases, which reduced by 88%.¹⁷ The authors pointed to the challenges in synthesising effects due to differing comparisons in the primary studies.

In addition to reporting this review study, the Dini et al. review identified three further reviews and one primary study (a randomised controlled trial) which provided evidence of effectiveness. These studies reported vaccine effectiveness of 88% to 90% amongst healthcare workers, with reductions in infections, days of illness, and absence from work.⁷

Does vaccination of healthcare workers protect patients?

Evidence regarding potential outcomes for patients as a result of healthcare worker vaccination was limited and conflicting. The authors of one review¹⁷ called for patient safety to be emphasised as a rationale for healthcare workers to be vaccinated, but another review highlighted the poor quality of existing primary studies, with the authors concluding that evidence regarding the effect on patients was scarce.⁷

Effectiveness of interventions to increase uptake of influenza vaccination

Evidence from six review-level sources indicates that interventions have a small to moderate effect on uptake of seasonal influenza vaccination amongst healthcare workers.^{7, 15, 20, 22-24} There were no data relating to effectiveness in the two included reviews which specifically examined pandemic influenza.

A review (of 12 studies) reported that eight of nine interventions in community settings led to small but improved rates of uptake for the intervention group compared to controls (relative risks of vaccination 1.04 to 8.05). Interventions in hospital settings achieved minimal to small improvements (relative risks of 0.86 to 1.78 and one study 2.74).¹⁵ Another review, also of 12 studies found evidence of statistically significant positive effects of interventions in half of the studies included. The effects were generally modest however, with the largest vaccine uptake for any of the interventions being 57%, and differences between control and intervention groups in the range of 5.7–26.3% increase in uptake.²⁰ A review of 25 studies from eight countries reported similar increases in uptake of between 2.5% to 49% following one season of intervention. Only one included study did not find a positive effect.²² A review which reports evidence from 28 other studies (including other reviews and primary studies) concluded that interventions lead to positive "moderate" effects, with one included review finding vaccination rates of more than 95% following a compulsory vaccination intervention.⁷ As outlined above, authors of one review drew a distinction between the effectiveness of interventions in hospital

versus community settings (community greater efficacy) suggesting that context may be influential in effectiveness.¹⁵

A review specifically of interventions in Australian hospitals, concluded that interventions produce small effects on existing low uptake rates.²³ Three of the ten included interventions led to rates above 50%, with the highest being 58.7%. Another review from Australia carried out a year later identified three relevant intervention studies (one of which was included in the earlier review), with the two unique studies achieving coverage of up to 76% and 81%.²⁴

Effectiveness by type of intervention

The review-level sources outlined a diverse range of influenza vaccination interventions and components of interventions including use of mandatory requirements, educational and promotional activities, enhancing availability and access, and managerial-level actions (see Table 2). Several reviews drew a distinction between what were termed "softer" interventions, such as promotional campaigns and education, and "harder" interventions which required staff to complete opt out forms, attend in-person meetings with managers, or mandatory vaccination.

Element of intervention	First author and date
Free vaccine	Hollmeyer 2013 Seale 2012 Stuart 2012
Easy access	Lam 2010 Rashid 2016 Hollmeyer 2013 Stuart 2012 Vasilevska 2014
Messages based on facts and address specific concerns	Lorenc 2018
Modified to different staff groups	Lorenc 2018
Modified according to individual barriers	Hollmeyer 2013
Mandatory vaccination	Hollmeyer 2013
	Lorenc 2018
	Lam 2010
Personal interview	Lam 2010
Active opt out/formal	Hollmeyer 2013
declination forms	Lam 2010
	Lorenc 2018
Non-punitive	Bellia 2013

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Table Z. Review-	level evidence sul	nmansing elemen	ts of interventions

Commitment and support from	Hollmeyer
managers	Lorenc 2018
	Prematunge 2012
Leadership	Lorenc 2018
Perceived as being for staff	Lorenc 2018
wellbeing not as increasing	
productivity or patient safety	
Clarity of policies	Bellia 2013
Access to clinical and non-	Stuart 2012
clinical staff	
Educational activities/materials	Hollmeyer 2013
	Lam 2010
	Rashid 2016
	Stuart 2012
Promotion of	Lam 2010
vaccination/increase	Rashid 2016
awareness	Seale 2012
Reminders	Hollmeyer 2013
	Rashid 2016
Incentives/reward	Hollmeyer 2013
	Rashid 2016
	Stuart 2012
Variety of different elements in	Dini 2018
programme	Hollmeyer 2013
	Lam 2010
	Rashid 2016

The interventions which were typically termed "harder" by study authors (including mandatory vaccination and other obligatory actions) were reported to have the greatest effectiveness, although many authors discussed the varying views and dilemmas regarding these actions. In one review, mandatory vaccination as a condition of employment (alongside other interventions) in the USA was reported to have resulted in uptake rates of up to 99%, with the authors reporting that few staff requested exemptions on health or religious grounds and a very small percentage of staff resigned or had their employment terminated (0.03%-0.15%).²² In this review, the introduction of signed refusal forms alongside other existing interventions was reported to have increased uptake by 55%-71%. Another review concluded that campaigns involving legislative or regulatory components (such as mandatory declination form, or mandatory masks for unvaccinated personnel) achieved higher rates of uptake than all other interventions.¹⁵

One review of qualitative literature highlighted that health care professional beliefs around professional autonomy and the right to decide, created opposition to enforced vaccination.¹⁹ The authors discussed the potential conflict between professional requirements to protect patients by being vaccinated, and individual civil liberty. This review also reported doubts from

staff as to whether organisations would have the logistical abilities to enforce mandatory vaccination, and highlighted the potential for mandatory interventions to erode the relationship between an organisation and its staff.¹⁹ A further review also emphasised the value of ensuring that interventions were non-punitive.¹¹

Several authors highlighted the difficulties that healthcare workers may face getting access to vaccination due to shift working and/or long hours, and the requirement to provide no-cost vaccination to encourage uptake. Interventions to optimise ease and convenience for healthcare workers were therefore a common elements of initiatives.

Three reviews reported that initiatives such as on-site or mobile clinics resulted in increased uptake of vaccination.^{20, 22, 24} An average increase in vaccination uptake of 20% was suggested by enhancing ease of access, with programmes not including this element achieving improvements more typically around 9%.²² One of the reviews noted that it was important to ensure that easy access initiatives were open to both clinical and non-clinical staff.²⁴ However, in contrast to these positive reports, another review concluded that this intervention had only minimal impact as a single element.¹⁵ Authors of a review and meta-analysis¹⁸ also found that interventions to increase convenience were not associated with increased uptake, but they noted the heterogeneity in reported effects. Ensuring that the vaccination was offered free to recipients was important in increasing uptake.²²⁻²⁴

Many of the interventions evaluated were designed to increase health care workers' awareness and/or knowledge about influenza vaccination. The evidence in regard to provision of educational materials or sessions was mixed, with two reviews reporting positive effects,^{22, 24} but another finding minimal effectiveness,¹⁵ and a fourth emphasising that it was not effective as a stand-alone initiative, but if combined with promotion and awareness raising might result in increased vaccination uptake.²⁰ Similarly, the evidence relating to promotion of influenza vaccine as a single intervention within an organisation was mixed, with two reviews finding it could be effective,^{20, 23} and one indicating minimal effectiveness.¹⁵

Studies considered how the type and format of messages within organisations around influenza vaccination might influence levels of uptake. One review highlighted that messages should take account of individual barriers.²² Another review suggested that communications should be based on facts, and address specific staff concerns.¹⁹ There was also the recommendation in this review that information should be tailored to staff rather than patients.¹⁹ The authors emphasised that messaging around influenza vaccination should ensure that it is

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perceived as being for staff wellbeing, and not as increasing productivity or for patient safety.¹⁹

Two reviews indicated that reminders to staff could be helpful.^{20, 22} Evidence on offering incentives to staff to take up vaccination was mixed, with two studies suggesting it could have benefits,^{22, 24} but one review reporting that it was not effective either as a single intervention or when it was combined with educational initiatives.²⁰

Three reviews evaluated the effectiveness of having an identified lead for vaccination within an organisation. One review suggested that this might be effective, ²⁴ but two others found evidence of value only when combined with other elements (with education in one review; and combined with giving feedback on rates of uptake in the other).^{20, 22} The value of having commitment and support from managers was highlighted in three reviews,^{14, 19, 22} and the importance of leadership on the issue of vaccination (including all senior staff being vaccinated) was reported.¹⁹ Other recommendations for management-level actions were that there should be clarity of policies on vaccination,¹¹ long term implementation of policies and interventions, ²² and that there should be personnel dedicated to the intervention programme who promote and organise vaccination for staff.²²

A recurring finding amongst reviews was the "value-added" nature of combining several interventions, rather than initiatives comprising a single element alone. The Dini et al review, ⁷ which also included the Rashid et al. study ²⁰ described combined approaches as being more effective. In the Rashid et al. source the authors concluded that a combination of three or five strategies was most effective.²⁰ Hollmeyer et al. argued that the number of components appeared to be proportional to the increase in uptake.²² The Lam et al. review highlighted the need for more studies to determine which components should be combined to achieve optimal effectiveness.¹⁵

While the evidence indicated the effectiveness of multiple strands to interventions there was a lack of clarity in regard to which components "make the difference". In one review for example, the authors reported that the requirement to complete an opt out (declination) form resulted in between 55% to 71% uptake of vaccination, although this intervention was provided as one element within a suite of interventions, so the role of each element could not be determined²² A review of initiatives involving legislative or regulatory components indicated that when these were one element of combined interventions that higher rates of uptake were achieved than single interventions alone.¹⁵

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Evidence from primary studies

We supplemented the review-level evidence with data from the abstracts of 85 primary studies, to ensure that research which was published after the most recent reviews (2018) was included, and to evaluate whether there were any interventions or any influencing factors in this literature which had not been identified by the review sources (see Table 3, Table 4, Table 6 and Table 6).^{8, 25-108}

Much of this literature was of cross sectional or survey design. Ten studies had more than one time point (before and after or cohort studies) and five of these supplementary studies were of randomised design. Nearly half of the primary studies were from North America. Six studies were published in 2019 ^{66, 72, 75, 79, 81, 101} and five in 2020.^{28, 35, 63, 92, 104}

Table 3. Elements of effective interventions	from primary studies
--	----------------------

First author, date, country, study design	Ele	ments	of inte	erventi	ons																						
	Leadership/managerial commitment & support	Involvement of staff	Clear policies/regulations	Part of quality improvement strategy/culture	Data tracking	Reminders	Factual messages	Promotion/awareness raising	Perception – for staff wellbeing to staff	Educational activities/materials	Ethical focus on fairness/ethics	Modified to individuals/staff groups	Health checks/individual interview	Active opt out/declination form	Incentives/reward/non-punitive	Free vaccine	Easy access	Dedicated personnel	Mandatory vaccination	Multiple elements to programme	Clinical and non-clinical staff	Consequences for those not vaccinated	Peer vaccination	Identification of staff via database	Appointment scheduled/mass clinic	Social media	Flu champion
Totals	6 N	1	2	3	2	2	N	16 N	7 N	17 N	1	3	2	3 N ?	4 N	6	12	4	8 N N	7	1	4	2	1	N N	N	1
Abramson 2010 USA RCT				-				х		x																	
Ajenjo 2010 USA Retrospective cohort	x			x						x				x					x	x							
Akan 2016 Turkey Survey																х	х										
Antommaria 2013 USA XS											х																
Apisarnthanarak 2010 Thailand Non-RCT								x		x																	

Bert 2020 Italy XS	1							х	х	[[х	[х							
Chambers 2015	1			1		1			x													1			
Canada RCT																									
Conte 2016 Italy								Х																	
B&A																									
Cozza 2015 Italy										х															
Survey																									
Crupi 2010 USA									х						X					х					
XS Edelstein 2014 UK									 															N	
									х	х								x			х	х	Ν	Ν	х
Survey Feemster 2011	-																x								
USA Survey																	^								
Fricke 2013 USA								x				x		х	х					x					
Survey								^				Â	K	^	Â					^					
Gilardi 2018 Italy	1							х							х										
B&A																									
Heinrich-Morrison								Х										х	х						
2015 Australia																									
Survey																									
Hill 2015 USA	х	х										x													
Qualitative Hirsch 2011 USA												N													
Survey	х									()		Ν													
Honda 2013 Japan	x							x			x	x		x											
B&A	^							^			^	<u>^</u>		^											
Lee 2013 USA XS					х	х			х																
Lehman 2016							4																Ν		
USA RCT																									
Lin 2012 USA								х	х					х	х										
Survey																									
Lindley 2014 USA			х																	х					
Qualitative Lindley 2019 USA																	x								
XS																	X								
Little 2015 UK																	x								
Survey	1																, î								
Llupia 2010 Spain			1					х		 		1	х		х										
B&A																									
Llupia 2013 Spain								х	Ν																
B&A																									
Looijmans-van den								x	x							х									
Akke 2011	1																								
Netherlands XS	 									 															
Maltezou 2019	х			х											х										
Greece Cohort																									

Maurer 2012 USA																х					
Survey																					
*McLlwain 2010 UK Survey	х						х														
Mustafa 2017 Qatar B&A				х			х		х				х	х	х		х				
Nace 2012 USA									х												
XS																					
Podczervinski 2015 USA B&A									х		х	N									
Quach 2013 USA XS							х		х							x					
Quan 2012 Country unknown Survey											x			x		х		x	х		
Rakita 2010 USA Cohort																х					
Rodriguez- Fernandez 2016									х												
Spain B&A Rothan-Tondeur						N				x											
2011 France RCT	N						N				N		~			N					
Sawyer 2012 USA B&A	IN						IN				IN		x			IN					
Stead 2019 UK Survey											?					Ν					
Thompson 2013 USA XS										x											
Tognetto 2020 Italy XS									х					х			x				
Yassi 2010 Canada Qualitative		x	х					x				x									
Yue 2017 USA Survey					x								х	х			x				
Zielonka 2016 Poland XS							x						х								

X = reports effectiveness N = reports not effective Studies in bold = randomised controlled trials (RCT)

XS = cross-sectional design B&A = before and after design USA = United States of America UK = United Kingdom

The additional intervention components outlined in the primary sources were: the involvement of staff; embedding vaccination within quality improvement and/or organisational culture; peer vaccination; making appointments for staff, use of social media, and having a flu champion.

The involvement of staff was recommended in one study which used local teams and consensus to identify strategies to implement an opt-out process. The resulting declination form was described as being well accepted and easy to use, and achieved moderate-to-high levels (48% to 100%) of usage.⁵⁵ The adoption of vaccination as part of a quality improvement strategy or organisational culture was recommended by three studies.^{26, 72, 106} The first of these (a qualitative study carried out in Canada)¹⁰⁶ recommended creating a healthy workplace culture in order to promote vaccine uptake. A US study described how adding vaccination rates to quality scores increased uptake.²⁶

Two studies included evaluation of a peer vaccination programme. In the first of these,⁴⁷ a survey was carried out to explore which interventions were used in acute hospitals in England. The authors identified 25 different strategies, with peer vaccination achieving the greatest increase (8.5%) followed by educational DVDs, and then use of a flu champion. A cohort study from the US⁸⁷ evaluated interventions which had a mandatory component. The authors found that institution of mobile vaccination, mandatory declination, and peer-to-peer vaccination efforts increased uptake from 44.0% to 62.9% of healthcare professionals. It was noted that in order to achieve greater uptake a mandatory vaccination campaign was initiated which required unvaccinated professionals to wear masks during the influenza season, and this increased rates of compliance to over 90%.

A randomised controlled trial found that there was no significant effect on uptake of sending an e-mail to healthcare workers with a pre-scheduled appointment for influenza vaccination (which could be changed or cancelled), compared to sending a request to schedule an appointment.⁶¹ A survey of UK hospitals ⁴⁷ found that offer of a drop-in appointment in the organisation's occupational health department was associated with a significant decrease in vaccine uptake (-18%).

In addition to scrutinising these studies for additional intervention components, we drew on them to provide an indication of the frequency of report of different types of interventions in the literature, and highlighted where there was report of effectiveness versus no significant effect (Table 3). As can be seen the most commonly reported interventions involved firstly educational materials or activities, and secondly promotion or awareness-raising of vaccination amongst staff. The third most reported intervention was efforts to increase convenience and access to vaccination, typically by having on-site or mobile clinics, which in much of the literature from North America was termed "mobile carts". As with the review-level sources there was evidence of almost all these interventions resulting in some positive effect (apart from offering appointments), but rates reported often remained low, except for those actions with mandatory components.

We outline below the evidence regarding effectiveness from the primary studies which were published since the year of the most recent included reviews (2018), and highlight where the findings add to or are at variance from the review-level sources.

Two recent studies investigated mandatory actions, one in the USA and one in the UK.^{66, 101} A qualitative study of views of staff in the UK found that there was little support for mandatory vaccination, and that if declination forms are adopted, there should be care to avoid stigmatising staff.¹⁰¹ The study from the US considered the effect of legal requirement at a state level, in addition to requirements for vaccination or compulsory mask wearing at an institutional level, and found that additional state-level requirement for vaccination or mask wearing if unvaccinated increased influenza vaccination uptake.⁶⁶ Both these studies echo the reviews in finding mandatory action to be an effective intervention, but that outside North America it is less acceptable to healthcare workers.

The most recent literature echoes the value of combined approaches to increasing uptake. A study from Italy for example used education, awareness, and improved access, and reported an increase of 46% over the previous year.³⁵ Another study from Italy identified easy access as having a key role in a campaign which included education, personal email invitation and on-site vaccination. As indicated in the reviews which found only low to moderate effectiveness, vaccination rates in the four included hospitals though remained between 4% and 12%.¹⁰⁴

A study which used discrete choice methods to evaluate healthcare professional preferences to intervention components, echoes the review-level sources in finding that walk-in and mobile vaccination stations were preferable to having a designated staff clinic and specific appointments.⁶³ Another study confirmed review results in recommending vaccination on-site, vaccination of the heads of the departments, and promotion of a culture of safety and ethical duty in the workplace.⁷²

Effectiveness amongst different groups of staff

Four reviews concluded that staff from the medical profession were more likely to be vaccinated than other staff groups, both prior to any intervention and subsequent to intervention. Take up from those in the nursing profession was typically described as poor.^{7, 11, 22, 23} One review and meta-analysis however, found that data regarding nursing versus medical professional uptake was heterogeneous, and the authors noted possible publication bias.¹⁸ One review noted that there was a wide range of uptake amongst ancillary and support staff.⁹⁶ A primary study found no difference in uptake between clinical and non-clinical staff.⁴⁸

One review concluded that female staff were less likely to be vaccinated than males.¹¹ This was confirmed by three included primary studies.^{32, 36, 62} Five primary studies reported that older age tended to be associated with higher uptake.^{62, 79, 80, 84, 88} One primary study found in contrast that staff of younger age were more likely to be vaccinated.⁸¹

Doctors more likely than nurses	Bellia 2013
	Dini 2018
	Hollmeyer 2013
	Seale 2011
	Vasilevska 2014
Wide range amongst ancillary and	Seale 2011
support staff	Feemster 2011
Age	Quintyne 2018
	Petek 2018
	Nowalk 2010
	Napolitano 2019
	Lewthwaite 2014
	Oguz 2019
Female less likely to be vaccinated	Arda 2011
	Bellia 2013
	Bonnacorsi 2013
	Lewthwaite 2014

Table 4. Evidence relating to sub-group differences in uptake

Factors influencing the uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare workers

Eight of the 13 included reviews reported factors which influence the uptake of vaccination by healthcare workers.^{7, 11, 14, 18, 19, 21, 24, 109} There was a high level of consensus amongst the reviews in regard to these factors. Table 5 summarises the reviews which reported each influencing factor.

Table 5. Influencing factors identified from review-level sources

Influencing factor	Studies reporting this factor					
Perceived individual risk and	Bellia 2013					
severity of illness (vulnerability)	Corace 2016					
	Dini 2018					
	Fitzsimmons 2014					
	Lorenc 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Desire for self-protection	Dini 2018					
	Lorenc 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Desire to protect family	Bellia 2013					
	Dini 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Desire to protect patients	Corace 2016					
	Lorenc 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Perceptions of efficacy of vaccine	Bellia 2013					
	Corace 2016					
	Lorenc 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Perceptions of safety of vaccine	Bellia 2013					
	Corace 2016					
	Dini 2018					
	Lorenc 2018					
	Prematunge 2012					
	Stuart 2012					
	Vasilevska 2014					
Incomplete knowledge	Bellia 2013					
-	Lorenc 2018					
	Dini 2018					

Fitzsimmons 2014 Stuart 2012Past vaccination historyBellia 2013 Corace 2016 Dini 2018 Prematunge 2012Self-efficacyCorace 2016 Corace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016 Prematunge 2012Peer pressureBella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013 Dini 2018Inconvenience/insufficient free timeBellia 2013 Stuart 2012Attention in mediaBellia 2013 Bellia 2013		
Past vaccination historyBellia 2013 Corace 2016 Dini 2018 Prematunge 2012Self-efficacyCorace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016 Prematunge 2012Peer pressureBella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013 Dini 2018Inconvenience/insufficient free timeBellia 2013 Stuart 2012		Fitzsimmons 2014
Corace 2016Dini 2018Prematunge 2012Self-efficacyCorace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016Peer pressureBella 2013Fitzsimmons 2014Lorenc 2018Lorenc 2018Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013Inconvenience/insufficient freeBellia 2013timeStuart 2012		Stuart 2012
Dini 2018 Prematunge 2012Self-efficacyCorace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016 Prematunge 2012Peer pressureBella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013 Dini 2018Inconvenience/insufficient free timeBellia 2013 Stuart 2012	Past vaccination history	Bellia 2013
Prematunge 2012Self-efficacyCorace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016Peer pressureBella 2013Fitzsimmons 2014Lorenc 2018Lorenc 2018Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013Inconvenience/insufficient freeBellia 2013timeStuart 2012		Corace 2016
Self-efficacyCorace 2016Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016Prematunge 2012Prematunge 2012Peer pressureBella 2013Fitzsimmons 2014Lorenc 2018Lorenc 2018Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013Inconvenience/insufficient freeBellia 2013timeStuart 2012		Dini 2018
Cues to action/anticipated regretCorace 2016 Prematunge 2012Peer pressureBella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012Experience of the illnessBellia 2013 Dini 2018Inconvenience/insufficient free timeBellia 2013 Stuart 2012		Prematunge 2012
Prematunge 2012 Peer pressure Bella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012 Experience of the illness Bellia 2013 Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free time	Self-efficacy	Corace 2016
Peer pressure Bella 2013 Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012 Experience of the illness Bellia 2013 Dini 2018 Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free Bellia 2013 time Stuart 2012	Cues to action/anticipated regret	Corace 2016
Fitzsimmons 2014 Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012 Experience of the illness Bellia 2013 Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free Bellia 2013 time Stuart 2012		Prematunge 2012
Lorenc 2018 Prematunge 2012 Experience of the illness Bellia 2013 Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free Bellia 2013 time Stuart 2012	Peer pressure	Bella 2013
Prematunge 2012 Experience of the illness Bellia 2013 Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free time Bellia 2013 Stuart 2012		Fitzsimmons 2014
Experience of the illnessBellia 2013 Dini 2018Inconvenience/insufficient free timeBellia 2013 Stuart 2012		Lorenc 2018
Dini 2018 Inconvenience/insufficient free Bellia 2013 time Stuart 2012		Prematunge 2012
Inconvenience/insufficient free Bellia 2013 time Stuart 2012	Experience of the illness	Bellia 2013
time Stuart 2012		Dini 2018
	Inconvenience/insufficient free	Bellia 2013
Attention in media Bellia 2013	time	Stuart 2012
	Attention in media	Bellia 2013
Prematunge 2012		Prematunge 2012
Trust in health department Prematunge 2012	Trust in health department	Prematunge 2012

The factor most commonly described as influential was the individual worker's perception of their own level of risk. All reviews highlighted this as a key obstacle to increasing uptake. In one,¹¹ the authors described how perceived lack of severity of the disease, belief in their own health and strength, and lack of identification of themselves as being in an at risk group, led to a view of themselves as having limited susceptibility. A review which used the psychological theories of behaviour change²¹ also indicated that risk perception attitude was a factor in vaccination decision-making. A review of qualitative literature¹⁹ highlighted a perception that influenza illness predominantly affects older and less healthy individuals, and should be easily manageable by healthy adults.

Five review-level sources described self-protection as a key motivator for vaccination. A review and meta-analysis¹⁸ indicated that the desire to protect oneself and/or family or friends was the factor most associated with the intention to be vaccinated (pooled odds ratio 3.42 [95% CI, 2.42–4.82]. The review by Bellia et al. also concluded that a worker's desire for self-protection (in some studies alongside protection of their families) was the strongest factor behind their intentions regarding vaccination.¹¹

Four of the reviews reported that the desire to protect patients influenced the decision to be vaccinated,^{14, 18, 21, 24} The meta-analysis by Vasilevska et al.¹⁸ reported a pooled odds ratio of 4.11 [95% CI, 3.12–5.41] association between a desire to protect patients against seasonal influenza (not pandemic) and vaccination uptake (after a single outlier study was removed

from the calculation which was suggesting greater heterogeneity). Another review reported that perceptions regarding patient safety could distinguish workers who were vaccinated versus those who were not, as healthcare staff who based their decision solely on individual risk were less likely to take up vaccination.¹⁴ One review in contrast concluded that avoidance of illness in patients was a lesser influence than self-protection. A belief amongst some workers that patients are more likely to be infected by other patients than by healthcare workers was described.¹⁹

Perceptions regarding the safety and efficacy of the vaccine were reported in all the reviews to be key influencing factors. Authors described concerns that vaccination caused influenza, there were fears of side effects, and also other more general concerns about vaccination safety.^{7, 11, 19} One review described "woeful ignorance, nonchalance, and disregard" regarding the value of vaccination amongst healthcare workers.¹⁰⁹ Another study outlined beliefs that vaccination was not effective, and reports that there was insufficient scientific evidence to justify vaccination programmes.¹⁹ A meta-analysis concluded that while there was evidence that beliefs regarding vaccine safety and potential to cause disease were associated with a desire to be vaccinated, there was some evidence of heterogeneity and publication bias (P = 0.021).¹⁸

Linked to perceptions of safety and efficacy were reports of healthcare workers having incomplete knowledge about influenza and influenza vaccination.^{7, 11, 19, 24, 109} Two reviews highlighted in particular limited knowledge regarding the potential of themselves to be transmitters of influenza.^{11, 19} The latter review described some healthcare staff perceiving that it was unlikely that they would transmit infection. Stuart et al. reported healthcare workers being unaware of guidelines recommending influenza vaccination.²⁴

Four reviews highlighted the role of history of vaccination in uptake. Previous receipt of the seasonal influenza vaccine was positively associated with intentions and future intentions and receipt of vaccination in subsequent seasons in four reviews.^{7, 11, 14, 21} Two of these reviews used behaviour change frameworks to examine the literature, and drew attention to concepts of self-efficacy and habit in predicting those who are vaccinated.^{14, 21} Two reviews described how past experience of an illness increased intentions to be subsequently vaccinated.^{7, 11}

Four reviews reported the role of peer pressure in vaccination decision-making, with colleagues influencing decision-making either for or against vaccination.^{11, 14, 19, 109} Two reviews described staff referring to inconvenience and having insufficient free time to attend for vaccination as key obstacle.^{11, 24}

Two reviews reported how attention in the media was influential on individual worker decisionmaking. Both these reviews related specifically to pandemic influenza.^{11, 14} This latter review also described how the level of trust that staff members had in their organisation's health department was important.

Evidence from primary studies

Examination of the primary studies did not add any additional influencing factors to those reported in the review-level sources. One study found that religion was not a key element for the majority of employees.²⁹ The majority of these studies were of cross-sectional or survey design. The literature was not dominated by any particular countries, with studies from many different European countries, the Middle East, USA, Canada, Australia, and China. The most commonly described factor influencing decision-making was healthcare worker perceptions of vaccine efficacy and/or side effects (see Table 6). While 34 studies reported this as a key element, two studies found that this was not a main factor. The second most commonly reported factor was individual perceptions regarding their level of risk. The studies published since the date of the most recent reviews (2018) confirmed the review-level evidence rather than reporting any novel findings.

First author and date	Influencing factor								
	Protect patients/ethical obligation/professional need	Perceived risk	Personal protection/family	Perceptions of efficacy, side effects	Time/convenience	Media reports	Colleagues/social influence	Religion	
Totals	8 N	17	6	34	5	3	3	1	
Akan 2010	х	Х		x	Х				
Turkey Survey									
Alhalaseh 2020 Jordan Survey		Х		x					
Antommaria 2018 USA XS								Few employees	
*Arda 2011				x		х			
Survey									
Asma 2016		х		x			Х		
Turkey Survey Banach 2013									
Turkey Survey									
*Bonaccorsi 2013 Italy	N	х	x						
Survey									
Bonaccorsi 2015 Italy			Х	x					
Survey *Brandt 2011 Germany				x					
Survey				^					
Conte 2016 Italy B&A		х		x					
Cozza 2015 Italy Survey	x	х		х					
Daugherty 2011 USA Survey				x of policy					
Dedoukou 2010 Greece XS		х	х	х					
Dubnov 2010 Israel				х					
Survey				v of policy :					
Eaton 2017 USA Survey Edelstein 2014 UK				x of policy	х				
Survey									
Feemster 2011 USA									
Survey									
*Ferguson 2010				x					
Australia Survey									
Fricke 2013 USA									
Survey									
Gilardi 2018 Italy B&A									
Heinrich-Morrison 2015 Australia B&A		х		x					
AUSUIAIIA DOA				I					

Table 6. Influencing factors reported in the primary studies

*Henriksen 2011 USA			r					
	х							
Survey								
Hidiroglu 2010 Turkey		х		X		х	х	
Qualitative				transmission				
				to patients				
Hopman 2011	х	х		х	х		х	
Netherlands XS								
Hussain 2018 Canada								
Cohort								
*Lewthwaite 2014 UK		х		х	Х			
Survey								
Liao 2020 Hong Kong				x safety	х			
Modelling				more than				
_				efficacy				
Little 2015 UK Survey	х			x				
Mo 2019 Hong Kong		х		x benefits				
Survey								
Mytton 2013 UK Survey	х	х		x				
Napolitano 2019 Italy	~	~		x				
Survey				X				
Nowalk 2010 USA								
Survey								
Oguz 2019 Turkey								
Survey								
*Parlakay 2012 Turkey				x				
Survey								
*Parry 2011 UK Survey				x				
Petek 2018 Slovenia		х	X	X				
Survey								
Quintyne 2018 Ireland				x				
Survey								
Rabensteiner 2018 Italy				х				
Survey								
Rong 2020 China		х		x				
Survey								
Schult 2012 USA		X		X				
Survey								
*Seale 2011 China				х				
Survey								
Seale 2010 Australia	x		х	х				
Survey	most			-				
Seale 2010 China				x				
Survey								
Shrikrishna 2015 UK			<u> </u>	x				
Survey				^				
Socan 2013 Slovenia		х		x				
Survey		^		^				
Stead 2019 UK Survey			<u> </u>	v				
				x				
+ qualitative								
Tagajdid 2011 Morocco						х		
Survey								
*Virseda 2010 Spain	х		Х	х				
Survey								

Uptake of vaccination during seasonal influenza versus pandemics

We scrutinised the literature for any evidence regarding differential effects of interventions during times of seasonal influenza versus times of influenza pandemic. Two of the review-level sources,^{11, 14} and two of the identified primary studies specifically considered vaccination during influenza pandemics.^{71, 74}

A review of both seasonal and pandemic influenza vaccination presents mixed evidence regarding the impact of pandemic on rates of influenza vaccine uptake amongst healthcare workers. The review cites studies which found increases, rates changing little during a pandemic from other times, and also lower rates during a pandemic.¹¹ The authors conjectured that rates may be lower during a pandemic as there may be concerns regarding accelerated authorisation procedures, and there may be emotional tolerance of the pandemic and perceptions of its' controllability over time. This review echoes the wider literature in recommending a multi-faceted approach to interventions.

A review of pandemic influenza vaccination in 2012¹⁴ concluded that there was overall similarity between this literature and studies on seasonal influenza vaccination. The authors highlighted the need though for interventions during pandemics to address limited time and access of healthcare workers to vaccination, provide education and information to counteract the strong role of mass media, and specifically address adverse perceptions regarding the safety of rapidly developed vaccines. This review also found that a past history of seasonal influenza vaccination was the strongest predictor of being vaccinated during a pandemic. A second review supported the finding regarding the influential role of the media on individual worker decision-making during times of pandemic.¹¹

Prematunge et al.¹⁴ concluded that the factors which influence decision-making during pandemics (most notably perception of risk to self and family, views regarding severity of the illness, and perceptions regarding the safety of the vaccine) were similar to those underpinning uptake for seasonal flu vaccination. Although perceptions regarding safety were more heavily influenced by the mass media and views relating to the speed of vaccine development. Another review noted that the desire to protect patients was reported less than self-protection, as the motivation to be vaccinated during pandemics.¹⁸

A study which explored the knowledge and attitudes of healthcare workers in Chinese intensive care units during the 2009 influenza pandemic highlighted poor knowledge of influenza amongst workers, even though most had completed a training programme.⁷¹ A UK

report published in 2010 indicates the role of managerial factors in organisational actions, highlighting that flexible and accessible delivery approaches, visible leadership, an effective communication strategy, a robust plan with clear governance arrangements and sound project management are essential to pandemic vaccination programmes.⁷⁴ The need for trust between workers and the organisation's health department was also reported.¹⁴

Quality of the literature

As this review was a rapid synthesis of literature to distil key messages, we did not carry out a critical appraisal of included studies. However, we provide an overview commentary regarding the quality of the literature.

Authors of many of the included reviews drew attention to the need for more, and higher quality studies on influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff.^{7, 15, 16} There are a small number of randomised controlled trials and reviews and meta-analysis of these, but the literature is dominated by cross-sectional and survey studies. Authors of one review and meta-analysis ¹⁵ criticised the available primary studies for failure to report the number of health care personnel exposed to the campaign, and for the number of health care personnel for whom there was no follow-up. They acknowledged that cross-sectional and before-after studies were more feasible to carry out, but highlighted the need for having comparable control groups.

All but one of the included reviews were carried out to a reasonable standard, with detailed reporting of sources searched, study identification processes and rigorous analysis. One review was unclear in regard to its selection criteria, describing the synthesis of a "sub-set" of documents retrieved for a wider study on influenza.¹¹ While the selection criteria were unclear, the sources and search strategy were described, and we made the decision to include this source as it was one of only two reviews which specifically considered pandemic influenza.

Discussion and conclusions

Rapid review of the literature indicates that interventions to increase influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff can be effective in achieving increased uptake. Improvement for most (non-compulsory) actions are small to moderate however, with typical vaccination rates post-intervention of around 50% to 60%. While this is an improvement on the baseline rates commonly cited of around 30%, this may be insufficient to achieve meaningful reduction in staff laboratory-confirmed influenza rates, staff ill health, or shortage of staff due to sickness absence. There was consensus in the literature that multiple intervention elements are

required if the uptake of influenza vaccination amongst healthcare staff is to be increased. Figure 2 provides a summary of the elements which influence uptake, and the four suggested points of intervention which need to be combined within a multi-element programme.

The review highlights that gaps in knowledge and understanding exist amongst some staff, in particular in regard to vaccine safety, potential side effects, and efficacy. However, a key factor which influences decision-making is a perception of limited personal risk, and of the effects of influenza illness as being of limited severity. Interventions which are intended to address these factors are needed, but informational messages should be clearly based on available evidence and aimed specifically at healthcare workers, rather than the general population. Perceptions regarding limited personal risk of illness are important not just for uptake of vaccines, but potentially for other health and safety decision-making. Authors of one review¹⁷ highlighted the need to more clearly link healthcare worker vaccination to patient safety rather than personal risk, which would require further clarity in research findings to support evidence-based messaging.

This review indicates that while there is clear evidence that interventions can increase the uptake of influenza vaccination; that the effects tend to be modest for actions which do not involve mandatory components. While vaccination is a compulsory requirement of employment in healthcare organisations in some countries, there are considerable ethical debates on this controversial policy. The involvement of staff is essential in the development of local guidance, with a requirement for leadership and managerial support for successful implementation of any interventions. Some studies reported uncertainty amongst staff regarding standards and guidelines, so there appears to be a gap in regard to clarity of organisational policies which needs attention. Some types of mandatory requirement (for example formal refusal forms) may be more acceptable than others, and there is a need to explore this further with staff. Any intervention requires systems to enable monitoring of staff vaccination status, and while the literature discussed the ethics of enforcing vaccination, there was little discussion regarding staff disclosure, or monitoring procedures and systems.

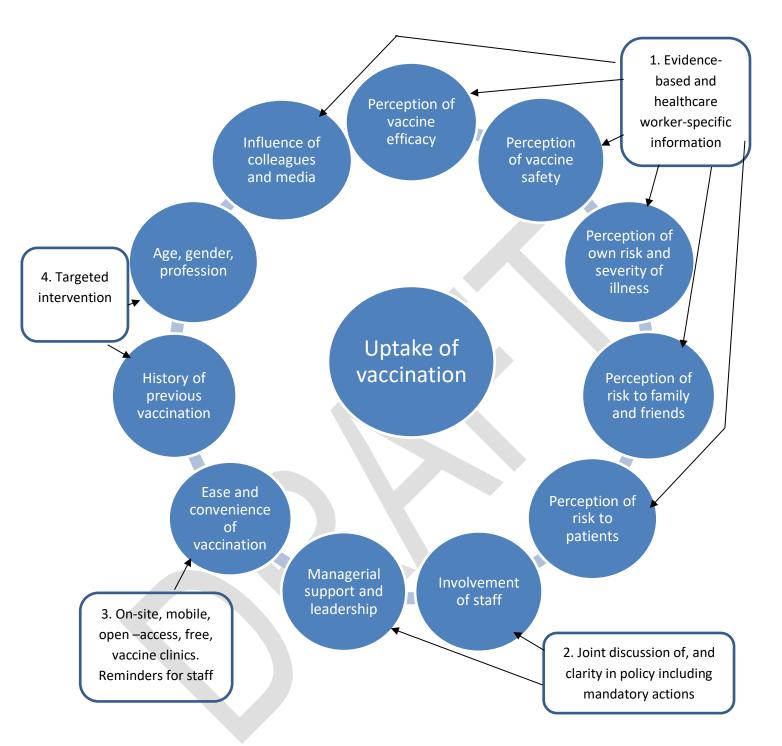


Figure 2. Summary of influencing factors and multiple elements of interventions

Lack of convenience or access to vaccination was a commonly reported obstacle by healthcare workers, so any intervention should ensure that this factor is addressed as a primary element. Having mobile or on-site clinics was a key element of effective interventions. Studies on pandemic influenza stressed that convenience of vaccination should be given even

more consideration during times of high demand. The requirement for vaccination to be free for staff was emphasised, and provision of reminders was reported to be of value.

The literature indicates that influenza vaccination uptake is particularly poor amongst some staff groups including females, younger staff, and the nursing profession. If rates are to be increased beyond moderate levels it seems important to examine what factors underpin decision-making against vaccination for these individuals. There also seems a particular need for the involvement of these groups in intervention development, in order to address obstacles that are experienced by these staff.

Strengths and limitations

This rapid review was undertaken by an experienced team, including methodological experts. We followed a protocol developed in collaboration with the NIHR HS&DR programme team as the review was designed to provide timely information to stakeholders, and to help clarify research priorities. The protocol was registered prospectively with the PROSPERO database of systematic review protocols.

We performed a search for published literature dating back to 2010 (a span of 10 years) in a range of databases, which was supplemented by searching for similar papers to key studies and reference list checking of reviews. This was clearly worthwhile as three included reviews were identified via these means.

The requirement to produce the review rapidly, and the volume of relevant literature identified meant that we abbreviated the review process by prioritising detailed scrutiny of review-level sources, and supplemented this with only screening and collecting data from the abstracts of other primary studies. We also used study design as a proxy for quality, and did not carry out quality appraisal of included sources. This may be considered a limitation when measured against the gold standard of full systematic review methods, but enabled us to provide key messages for stakeholders in a timely fashion.

A strength of the review is that we considered both quantitative and qualitative data, with the evidence regarding views and perceptions of staff providing key insights into barriers to intervention efficacy. In the narrative synthesis, we drew on both these sources of evidence to provide a detailed examination of how and where intervention elements may be beneficial.

We have summarised the evidence from the studies using a framework that we hope will be helpful for decision-makers needing a summary overview.

Implications for healthcare

1. Multiple components should be included within interventions aiming to increase the uptake of vaccinations amongst healthcare staff.

2. Ease of access to vaccination via the provision of walk-in, on-site or mobile clinics is associated with increased uptake of vaccinations.

3. Messaging aimed at healthcare workers should address knowledge and understandings of vaccination safety and efficacy, levels of personal risk, and the risk to others.

4. Information campaigns should be tailored specifically for healthcare worker audiences rather than duplicating messages intended for the general population. There should be a focus on providing the evidence underpinning information, including staff as sources of transmission.

5. Review of the literature highlights that there is a need to consider the clarity of vaccination policies within organisations, with the involvement of staff in developing policies of potential value. Managerial support and leadership is important, together with a focus of on staff wellbeing rather than economic and service delivery rationales.

6. While mandatory policies increase vaccination, there are acceptability and ethical consideration which require further discussion and debate within healthcare and wider society. Some mandatory actions (such as formal opt out) may be more acceptable than others such as compulsory vaccination.

7. The literature indicates that particular groups are less likely to take up vaccination (younger staff, females, nursing profession), so may need to be specifically targeted if uptake rates are to be improved.

8. Review of the evidence suggests that there is little difference between actions aiming to improve the uptake of vaccination during times of pandemic versus seasonal vaccination. Although attention to ensuring easy access, and evidence-based messaging may be of increased importance.

Recommendations for research

1. Further research is needed regarding the key components of multi-element interventions.

2. Further high quality evidence is needed which uses study designs other than cross-sectional and surveys to evaluate interventions.

3. Further evidence is needed regarding the association between the vaccination status of staff, and risk to patients and fellow staff. This is important to inform evidence-based messages for staff, and debates regarding mandatory measures. Examination of data on transmission of other types of infection in hospital environments may provide transferable learning.

4. There was a suggestion that intervention effectiveness may vary by healthcare setting, with hospital-based programmes offering less effectiveness. Greater evaluation of these differences and exploration of contextual factors would be beneficial.

5. Further research on the implementation, acceptability and efficacy of vaccination status monitoring systems would be beneficial, together with further exploration of societal and worker views regarding mandatory components.

6. Existing research provides a clear consensus regarding the factors which influence vaccination uptake, and further primary studies on this topic are unlikely to add to the evidence base.

Conclusions

There is evidence that interventions can increase the uptake of influenza vaccination, but the effects tend to be modest for actions which do not involve mandatory components. Interventions with multiple elements lead to greater effectiveness than single actions. Components should include easy access to vaccination, and evidence-based and healthcare staff tailored messaging about safety and efficacy, personal risk, and risk to others. Leadership, managerial support, and staff involvement in programmes are important to consider. Wider debate regarding organisational policies and mandatory actions is required if uptake is to reach high levels amongst healthcare workers.

Disclaimer

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Data sharing

Any additional data not included in this report and its appendices are available on request. All queries should be submitted to the corresponding author.

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Appendix 1. Example search strategy

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) and Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations and Daily <1946 to November 02, 2020>

Search Strategy:

- 1 Mental Health/ (39781)
- 2 Mental Disorders/ (163851)
- 3 (wellbeing or well being).ti,ab. (94086)
- 4 mental health.ti,ab. (147625)
- 5 Depression/ (121305)
- 6 depress\$.ab,ti. (465824)
- 7 Anxiety/ (82632)
- 8 exp Anxiety Disorders/ (79934)
- 9 anxiet\$.ab,ti. (196443)
- 10 Suicide/ (39609)
- 11 suicid\$.ab,ti. (78763)
- 12 Health Status/ (82585)
- 13 "Quality of Life"/ (199092)
- 14 health\$.ab,ti. (2797600)
- 15 exp Health/ (371000)
- 16 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5 or 6 or 7 or 8 or 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 (3724268)
- 17 health workforce/ or exp health personnel/ (531770)
- 18 "nhs staff".ab,ti. (564)
- 19 "nhs workforce".ab,ti. (113)

- 20 17 or 18 or 19 (532214)
- 21 16 and 20 (171389)
- 22 Pandemics/ (38109)
- 23 pandemic\$.ab,ti. (53918)
- 24 exp coronavirus/ (40149)
- 25 exp Coronavirus Infections/ (43458)
- 26 ((corona* or corono*) adj1 (virus* or viral* or virinae*)).ti,ab,kw,kf. (2216)

27 (coronavirus* or coronovirus* or coronavirinae* or CoV or HCoV*).ti,ab,kw,kf. (50181)

28 ("2019-nCoV" or 2019nCoV or nCoV2019 or "nCoV-2019" or "COVID-19" or COVID19 or "CORVID-19" or CORVID19 or "WN-CoV" or WNCoV or "HCoV-19" or HCoV19 or "2019 novel*" or Ncov or "n-cov" or "SARS-CoV-2" or "SARSCoV-2" or "SARSCoV2" or "SARS-CoV2" or SARSCov19 or "SARS-Cov19" or "SARSCov-19" or "SARS-Cov-19" or Ncovor or Ncorona* or Ncorono* or NcovWuhan* or NcovHubei* or NcovChina* or NcovChinese* or SARS2 or "SARS-2" or SARScoronavirus2 or "SARS-coronavirus-2" or "SARScoronavirus 2" or "SARS coronavirus2" or SARScoronovirus2 or "SARS-coronovirus-2" or "SARScoronovirus 2" or "SARS coronovirus2").ti,ab,kw,kf. (66628)

29 (respiratory* adj2 (symptom* or disease* or illness* or condition*) adj10 (Wuhan* or Hubei* or China* or Chinese* or Huanan*)).ti,ab,kw,kf. (541)

30 (("seafood market*" or "food market*" or pneumonia*) adj10 (Wuhan* or Hubei* or China* or Chinese* or Huanan*)).ti,ab,kw,kf. (1663)

31 ((outbreak* or wildlife* or pandemic* or epidemic*) adj1 (Wuhan* or Hubei or China* or Chinese* or Huanan*)).ti,ab,kw,kf. (319)

32 Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus/ (1380)

33 ("middle east respiratory syndrome*" or "middle eastern respiratory syndrome*" or MERSCoV or "MERS-CoV" or MERS).ti,ab,kw,kf. (5985)

34 ("severe acute respiratory syndrome*" or SARS).ti,ab,kw,kf. (33617)

35 ("SARS-CoV-1" or "SARSCoV-1" or "SARSCoV1" or "SARS-CoV1" or SARSCoV or SARS-CoV or SARS1 or "SARS-1" or SARScoronavirus1 or "SARS-coronavirus-1" or "SARScoronavirus 1" or "SARS coronavirus1" or SARScoronovirus1 or "SARS-coronovirus-1" or "SARScoronovirus 1" or "SARS coronovirus1").ti,ab,kw,kf. (24105)

- 36 or/24-35 (97614)
- 37 Influenza A Virus, H1N1 Subtype/ (15515)
- 38 (h1n1 or "swine flu" or "swine adj3 influenza").ab,kf,kw,ti. (18219)
- 39 Influenza, Human/ (50003)
- 40 (flu\$ or influenza\$).ab,ti. (1681738)
- 41 or/22-40 (1788684)
- 42 21 and 41 (5616)
- 43 Health Promotion/ (74600)

44 ((organi?ation\$ or workplace\$ or workforce\$ or staff\$) adj3 (intervention\$ or program\$ or project\$ or support\$)).ab,ti. (28416)

45 ((promot\$ or support\$ or service\$ or project\$ or program\$ or priorit\$) adj3 (emotion\$ or health\$ or wellbeing or "well being" or wellness)).ab,ti. (303651)

46 or/43-45 (372834)

- 47 42 and 46 (809)
- 48 limit 47 to humans (791)
- 49 limit 48 to english language (753)
- 50 limit 49 to yr="2010 -Current" (551)
- 51 winter demand\$.ab,ti. (3)
- 52 winter pressure\$.ab,ti. (80)
- 53 winter surge\$.ab,ti. (11)
- 54 Seasons/ (107578)
- 55 Cold Temperature/ (51667)
- 56 51 or 52 or 53 or 54 or 55 (157352)

- 57 16 and 20 and 46 and 56 (48)
- 58 limit 57 to humans (48)
- 59 limit 58 to english language (45)
- 60 limit 59 to yr="2010 -Current" (29)
- 61 60 not 50 (11)

Appendix 2. Studies excluded at full paper review

1. Al Knawy BA, Al-Kadri HMF, Elbarbary M, Arabi Y, Balkhy HH, Clark A. Perceptions of postoutbreak management by management and healthcare workers of a Middle East

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