

1 **Perceptions of Hong Kong Chinese women toward influenza vaccination during**  
2 **pregnancy**

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5 Carol Y. S. YUEN<sup>a§</sup>

6 Joan E, DODGSON<sup>b</sup>

7 Marie TARRANT<sup>a</sup>

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10 <sup>a</sup>School of Nursing, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, 21 Sassoon Road, Pokfulam, Hong  
11 Kong

12 <sup>b</sup>College of Nursing & Health Innovation, Arizona State University, Phoenix AZ

13

14

15 <sup>§</sup>Corresponding Author:

16 4/F, William M. W. Mong Block

17 Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine

18 21 Sassoon Road, Hong Kong

19 Tel: +852 3917 6643

20 Fax: +852 2872 6079

21 Email: carol\_iou@hotmail.com

22

23

24 Co-author Email Addresses:

25 JD: [jdodgson@asu.edu](mailto:jdodgson@asu.edu)

26 MT: [tarrantm@hku.hk](mailto:tarrantm@hku.hk)

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### Highlights

- Healthy pregnant women did not perceive influenza as a serious disease.
- Influenza vaccination was perceived to have a higher risk than influenza infection.
- Women would receive the vaccine if there were substantial benefits for the baby.
- Vaccination recommendations from health care providers would encourage vaccination.

31 **1. Introduction**

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Influenza is a viral infection that can cause substantial morbidity, mortality, and economic disruption [1]. Pregnant women are especially vulnerable to influenza-related complications. When compared with their non-pregnant peers, pregnant women at all gestational ages have an increased risk of hospitalization and mortality due to influenza infection [2-4]. Influenza vaccine is safe and effective for pregnant women and vaccination during pregnancy also protects newborns in the first six months of life [5]. There is no evidence of pregnancy complications or adverse fetal outcomes from maternal influenza vaccination [6]. Influenza vaccination is essential to reduce the impact of influenza infection among pregnant women, and the World Health Organization (WHO) has identified pregnant women as the highest priority group for seasonal influenza vaccination [7].

Despite scientific evidence on the benefits and safety of influenza vaccination during pregnancy, uptake in this group remains low in most developed countries. A recent review of 45 studies has shown that seasonal influenza vaccination rates ranged from 1.7% to 88.4% and A/H1N1 pandemic vaccination rates ranged from 6.2% to 85.7% [8]. The lowest rates reported were in Hong Kong, where uptake of the A/H1N1 pandemic vaccine among pregnant women was 6.2% [9] and seasonal influenza vaccine was only 1.7% in 2010-11 [10]. Furthermore, in Hong Kong, infants from 0 to 6 months of age have substantially higher hospital admission rates for influenza infection when compared with older children [11].

The issue of influenza vaccination during pregnancy has been investigated largely from a quantitative perspective, primarily through the use of cross-sectional surveys [8]. In comparison, we were able to locate only a small number of qualitative studies [12-19] that have explored pregnant women's perceptions of influenza vaccine during pregnancy. Four studies were conducted in the US [12-14], two in Australia [18, 19] and one in Morocco [17], while the other was conducted in Scotland with Scottish and Polish mothers [15]. Furthermore,

57 all but two studies [18, 19] were conducted during the A/H1N1 pandemic, which presented  
58 different contextual challenges than incorporating routine influenza vaccination into antenatal  
59 care. Population-specific research (i.e., Hong Kong Chinese women) about why women chose  
60 not to receive the influenza vaccine is minimal, and therefore this study fills an important gap.  
61 To effectively target the antenatal Chinese population, a better understanding of the  
62 decision-making process in this population, is essential for public health planning. The  
63 purpose of this study was to explore pregnant Chinese women's perceptions of the perceived  
64 threat of influenza infection, the risks and benefits of influenza vaccination, and their  
65 decision-making processes.

66

## 67 **2. Methods**

### 68 *2.1 Study design*

69 This study was conducted as a part of a larger multi-center, cross-sectional study aimed  
70 at identifying the predictors of influenza vaccine uptake among Hong Kong Chinese pregnant  
71 women [10]. Data collection was conducted from April to June 2011. For this component, a  
72 qualitative descriptive design was used to provide an in-depth exploration not possible with  
73 quantitative research. Interview data were collected by one member of the research team (CY),  
74 enhancing the reliability of the data and stability of the process [20]. The focus of the  
75 interviews was to encourage the expression of participants' personal views and therefore, we  
76 used an emic perspective throughout the data collection process [21].

77

### 78 *2.2 Sample*

79 Participants were recruited from a large teaching hospital in Hong Kong. The study  
80 hospital was one of eight public hospitals in Hong Kong that provide obstetric services. The  
81 hospital has more than 300 births per month. A purposeful sampling strategy was used to

82 obtain a broad selection of participants with a variety of socioeconomic and educational levels  
83 in the larger study sample. Participants were recruited using the following criteria: (1) 18  
84 years of age or older, (2) Cantonese speaking, (3) Hong Kong residents, and (4) and recent  
85 birth of a live newborn. All participants were pregnant throughout the winter influenza season;  
86 thus, vaccination had been recommended. Participants were recruited using a face-to-face  
87 invitation and no compensation was provided for their participation. Recruitment continued  
88 until saturation was achieved [21].

89

### 90 *2.3 Data collection*

91 An author-created semi-structured interview guide with open-ended questions based on  
92 the components of the Health Belief Model (HBM) was used to collect the data [22].

93 Researchers have used the HBM to identify predictors of vaccination in various populations  
94 and ethnic groups [23, 24] and to qualitatively explore perceptions toward vaccination in  
95 various populations [14, 25]. A native Cantonese-speaker (CY) conducted the interviews  
96 during the participants' postpartum hospitalization. After the completion of each interview,  
97 the audio recording was reviewed several times to enable the researcher to fine-tune the  
98 interview guide for subsequent interviews. In this way, we were able to expand the depth of  
99 the data as the study progressed. Each interview lasted approximately 45 minutes and was  
100 audio-recorded with the participants' written permission.

101

### 102 *2.4 Data analysis*

103 To facilitate data analysis, the audio recordings were transcribed verbatim into English  
104 and crosschecked for accuracy. We used a 2-step thematic analysis process. First, the research  
105 team repeatedly reviewed each transcribed interview and then developed an open code list  
106 derived directly from the data to provide a greater opportunity for the participants' voices to

107 drive the analysis [26]. All relevant textual data were coded [20, 26, 27]. The second level of  
108 the analysis grouped the codes thematically using a process of contextualizing codes into  
109 conceptually similar and overarching themes [26]. We used a manual data management  
110 strategy as this is sufficient when the data set is not overly large and the aim is to ‘map out  
111 broad categories of information’ [28].

112 Ethical approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of the University of  
113 Hong Kong / Hong Kong West Cluster and informed written consent was obtained from all  
114 participants.

115

### 116 **3. Results**

117 A total of 40 new mothers were invited to participate and 32 agreed to be interviewed.  
118 Five women refused to participate and three were ineligible because they could not  
119 communicate in Cantonese. The characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.  
120 Most participants were over 30 years of age, and approximately one-third had a university  
121 degree. The majority was multiparous and worked full-time during pregnancy. Two (6.3%)  
122 participants had received the influenza vaccine during pregnancy. Following data analysis,  
123 three overarching themes emerged that captured the perceptions of the participants toward  
124 maternal influenza vaccination: perceived risks of influenza infection; perceived risks of  
125 influenza vaccination, and decision-making cues (Figure 1).

126

#### 127 *3.1. Theme 1 – Perceived risk of influenza infection*

128

##### 129 *3.1.1. Influenza not a serious disease*

130 Some participants perceived that influenza was not a serious disease, and they were not aware  
131 of the potential complications to themselves or the fetus. If infected with influenza, they

132 believed that they could readily manage it and that the doctor would prescribe medications  
133 with fewer side effects.

134 *“As I am only pregnant for nine months, I’d rather not receive it. I believe that influenza*  
135 *is not a serious disease. I will probably just have a fever, and I can manage it by taking*  
136 *medications. I believe that when the doctor knows that I am pregnant, he will prescribe*  
137 *me a much milder drug.”*

138  
139 Also, some participants believed that influenza infection would be beneficial as it would  
140 provide protective antibodies. They were not aware of the potential harm to the fetus that  
141 could result from maternal influenza infection and febrile illnesses during pregnancy.

142 *“I suppose I will have the antibodies after the infection. When I recover, I will pass the*  
143 *antibodies to my baby. . . . If I am infected I will visit the doctor as it is just a mild*  
144 *illness. No big deal!”*

145

### 146 3.1.2. Low perceived susceptibility

147 Many participants were unaware that pregnant women were a high-risk group when compared  
148 with non-pregnant women. Even when health care providers (HCP)s informed them of their  
149 vulnerability, some did not believe it.

150 *“But I still thought like this . . . pregnant women have the same risk from influenza*  
151 *infection when compared with ordinary people.”*

152

153 *“The doctor did mention that pregnant women were one of the high-risk groups . . . but I*  
154 *have a strong belief that pregnant women are not.”*

155

156 For participants who were aware and understood their vulnerability to influenza, they  
157 accepted vaccination because they feared the potential consequences for their fetus.

158 *“In fact, I agree that pregnant women should belong to the high-risk group. If we get*  
159 *sick, . . . we have a fetus in our womb.”*

160

161 Overall, participants did not feel that influenza was a sufficient enough threat to warrant  
162 vaccination during pregnancy. Although all participants were pregnant during the peak winter  
163 influenza season, some were unaware that it was the peak. They stated that they might have  
164 chosen to receive the vaccination if it was peak influenza season and when they felt  
165 threatened by people who were infected with influenza.

166 *“If it was a time when the disease was so serious that made vaccination an absolute*  
167 *need. When the influenza infection is very prevalent, I think I may need the vaccination.”*  
168

169 In contrast, a vaccinated participant received the vaccine because she noticed that  
170 influenza was very common and that many people around her were ill.

171 *“The reason I received the vaccination was that I was pregnant during the peak flu*  
172 *season. . . . A lot of people in my office were sick. Many of my colleagues got a cold and*  
173 *the virus was so strong. People couldn’t get well even after they had visited the doctor.”*  
174

### 175 3.1.3. Personal immunity

176 Some participants believed that their immunity was sufficient to prevent them from catching  
177 influenza and were unaware that pregnancy was an immune-compromising condition that  
178 increased their vulnerability to infection.

179 *“If I am not sick or if I am not physically unwell or weak, I won’t choose to receive the*  
180 *flu vaccination . . . because I am healthy enough . . . and my immunity is okay . . . so I*  
181 *think I can avoid the flu. I am not weak or unhealthy or get sick easily . . . so there is no*  
182 *need for me to receive the vaccination.”*  
183

184 Some participants were confused about the role of vaccines and immunity in preventing  
185 influenza and taking medications to treat the infection. Those who knew that there was no  
186 cure for influenza thought that to guard against infection, all they needed to do was to stay  
187 healthy. Participants felt that as they were healthy, personal immunity was sufficient, and  
188 vaccination was not necessary. Thus, some preferred relying solely on their healthy lifestyle  
189 practices and good hygiene to boost their immunity.

190 *“When I was young. . . the doctor told us that there was no drug to cure the flu. It all*  
191 *depends on your immunity to fight against it. So, all along I have insisted on keeping my*  
192 *health status good enough to avoid getting the flu and also not to rely on drugs. . . . I*  
193 *seldom rely on vaccination and taking drugs. I do rely on drinking more water and*  
194 *exercising more.”*  
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199 3.2. Theme 2 – Perceived risk of influenza vaccination

200

201 3.2.1. Vaccine safety

202 While the perceived risks of influenza infection were low, the perceived risks of vaccination  
203 were high. Uncertainty about the vaccine's safety was a key obstacle to influenza vaccination.  
204 Although some participants realized that vaccination may not cause outcomes like abortion or  
205 miscarriage, they chose not to be vaccinated.

206 *“After all, a vaccine is a type of medication. No matter how safe it is claimed to be, no*  
207 *one can guarantee that. Even though the professional people explain to me that it is safe,*  
208 *I believe that nothing in the world is absolutely 100% safe.”*

209  
210 Participants also feared the process of injecting a virus into their body, especially during  
211 pregnancy.

212 *“According to what I know, I receive the vaccination, and I have received the virus,*  
213 *that’s the rationale for receiving the flu vaccination. I am receiving the virus! I think it is*  
214 *not worth it! I don’t have any illness and so why I have to inject the virus into my*  
215 *body?”*

216  
217 Other participants believed that while injecting a virus into a non-pregnant woman might  
218 not cause any problems, it might have more serious effects on pregnant women and that  
219 reactions after vaccination also might be more serious in pregnant women.

220 *“I’m not quite sure what ingredients the vaccine has and what the reactions are after the*  
221 *vaccination. Even if ordinary people don’t have any problem after receiving it, pregnant*  
222 *women may be somewhat different, and that may cause problems to the fetus.”*

223  
224 Even if their HCP reassured them that influenza vaccine was safe and effective, a few  
225 participants still refused as they had concerns about the **potential negative effects** of the  
226 vaccine on the fetus.

227

228 3.2.2. Vaccine efficacy

229 Participants also reported doubts about the effectiveness of influenza vaccine because of the  
230 regular mutation of the virus and because the vaccine does not cover all influenza virus

231 sub-types. The regular antigenic drift of the virus contributed to the perception that the  
232 vaccine had low efficacy and thus the participants' unwillingness to be vaccinated.

233 *"The doctor reinforced that the vaccine did not cover all types of viruses, and it was up*  
234 *to me to decide if I wanted to receive it. If it [the vaccine] does not cover all viruses, why*  
235 *should I bother to receive it? . . . If it covers all [virus types] . . . it is fine to take the risk.*  
236 *But it does not cover all . . . and I still have to take the risk, it is silly to do so."*

237

238 *3.3. Theme 3 – Decision-making cues*

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240 *3.3.1. Benefits to baby*

241 Many participants stated that a deciding factor about whether or not they chose to receive the  
242 vaccine was whether or not it was beneficial to their baby.

243 *"To make a decision on whether I should receive influenza vaccination during*  
244 *pregnancy, I will make sure it is beneficial to enhance the immunity of my baby in the*  
245 *future. . . if you confirm that there are data showing that the baby will have these*  
246 *antibodies after birth, I will get it right away."*

247

248

249 Since the majority of Hong Kong mothers only have one child, many participants stated that

250 first-time mothers are especially nervous during pregnancy and would prefer not to do

251 anything that could potentially pose even a minimal risk to the fetus. Accordingly, some

252 participants would have received the vaccination if they could be guaranteed that there was no

253 risk to the fetus and that the vaccine was beneficial to the baby.

254 *"After the vaccination, if it will not cause any problem for the baby and there is no risk*  
255 *of abortion and . . . if the vaccine can induce immunization to the baby . . . and more*  
256 *advantages to the baby than the risk of abortion, then I will receive it."*

257

258 *3.3.2. Recommendation from HCPs*

259 Although some participants were unconvinced of the safety of the vaccine, others reported

260 that their confidence about the effectiveness of the vaccine would be enhanced if detailed

261 explanations were given by HCPs they trusted. For vaccinated participants, their doctors'

262 recommendation and reassurance of the safety of the influenza vaccination was a key  
263 motivator to be vaccinated.

264 *“He told me the vaccine was safe although [I thought] that was a new vaccine for the flu.  
265 He said that was not the case and that the vaccine was very safe. He reassured me not to  
266 worry. That was why I had received it . . . and I believed the doctor wouldn’t lie to  
267 me. . . . He explained it very well. If he just did the explanation casually, I might not  
268 have considered it.”*

269  
270 Unvaccinated participants wanted more information from the HCPs they trusted to  
271 enable them to make an informed choice. The safety of the fetus was their primary concern;  
272 they wanted more information about what the vaccine contained as well as pros and cons of  
273 vaccination.

274 *“Yes, of course [I will consider]! If [the doctor] can tell me more! I want more  
275 information like what the risk is. What is the risk of miscarriage after vaccination? What  
276 is the possibility? I want to know all of this! Other than that, I want to know the pros and  
277 cons after vaccination. I have to balance, to weigh whether the benefits of vaccination  
278 outweigh not getting the vaccination. . . . My first consideration is the baby’s safety.”*

279  
280 Although some participants were aware that printed health information about influenza  
281 vaccine was available, they preferred it to be supplemented with a discussion from their HCPs.  
282 Printed information alone was perceived as insufficient, and they also preferred having  
283 in-person professional advice to help them balance the benefits and risks for themselves and  
284 their fetus. Some participants stated that they would have received the vaccination if both  
285 printed materials and the HCP’s recommendation were provided.

286 *“I noticed that there were promotion flyers available at the maternal and child health  
287 center (MCHC). Even if I had read it . . . my confidence would not suddenly be increased.  
288 I would still require an explanation from the professionals. Because it is my first baby, I  
289 am especially anxious. If you receive it [the vaccine] just because you have read a piece  
290 of paper, it seems like I am treating it as trivial. So, if someone has explained it to me  
291 and balanced the risks for me, I will have more trust in it.”*

292  
293 Nevertheless, one participant pointed out that just a recommendation was not enough;  
294 HCPs have to provide practical and logistical information (i.e., how, when and where to get  
295 the vaccine and which vaccine they should receive).

296 *“He recommended me receiving it, but he didn’t make an appointment for me. And he*  
297 *didn’t tell me when I should get it and which vaccine I should get.”*  
298

### 299 3.3.3. Media influence

300 During the second wave of the A/H1N1 influenza pandemic in Hong Kong early 2010, there  
301 were many media reports about pregnant mothers who received influenza vaccination and  
302 subsequently had a miscarriage or pregnancy loss. The media also reported cases of adverse  
303 events in non-pregnant patients, both of which resulted in low overall uptake of the A/H1N1  
304 vaccination among the general population and especially among pregnant women.  
305 Participants still remembered these negative media reports, even though the reports had  
306 occurred in the previous year when participants were not pregnant. These reports reduced  
307 participants' willingness to receive the vaccination.

308 *“Because I saw from the TV news report and the newspaper that the vaccine caused*  
309 *adverse reactions for some people, for example, pregnant women. I was afraid that it*  
310 *would also happen to me. That was why I didn’t have the vaccination.”*  
311

312 One of the two vaccinated participants pointed out that the media reports were often  
313 sensationalized and may cause the public to associate poor pregnancy outcomes, such as  
314 missed abortion, with influenza vaccination. She stated that if HCPs provided unbiased  
315 information to pregnant women about the pros and cons of vaccination, there might be higher  
316 vaccination acceptance.

317 *“The news does not cover everything. They only give the big headlines such as*  
318 *‘Pregnant woman has missed abortion.’ No matter what the cause is, this makes the*  
319 *public think that receiving the vaccination causes a missed abortion. We don’t know*  
320 *about the pros and cons. If we have more information, I think there is a higher*  
321 *probability that we will get the vaccine.”*  
322

323 The other vaccinated participant pointed out that proactive and direct information from  
324 an HCP that they trusted, specifically addressing these media stories, overcame their negative  
325 perceptions towards the media reports.

326 *“My family doctor took the initiative to bring it up [negative media reports] and*  
327 *discussed it with me. We talked about it and then I still chose to get it. He asked me if I*

328 *had read the newspaper and whether I knew the negative news. He then asked if I would*  
329 *worry about it. He told me that it was not directly related. . . . I believe in the*  
330 *effectiveness of the vaccine, and I also believe my family doctor's explanation."*  
331

332

#### 333 **4. Discussion**

334 We presented the perceptions of Hong Kong women pregnant during the peak influenza  
335 season about their decision to receive the vaccine. This information is helpful because of the  
336 low rates of immunization in this high-risk population. Our findings highlighted many areas  
337 that were of concern to public health providers and planners, as well as, individual  
338 practitioners. **Participants in this study held negative beliefs about the influenza vaccine. This**  
339 **may have been the result of:** (1) misconceptions of the seriousness of influenza and  
340 underestimation of the threats of influenza infection to themselves and their fetus, (2)  
341 confusion between preventive strategies and treatment for influenza, (3) doubts about safety  
342 and efficacy of influenza vaccination, (4) lack of obstetric HCPs' vaccination  
343 recommendations, and (5) negative impact from the media. Conversely, (1) feeling threatened  
344 by a perceived high prevalence of circulating influenza virus, (2) perceived benefits of the  
345 vaccine for the fetus, and (3) **positive** HCP recommendations and reassurance about the safety  
346 of maternal influenza vaccine were seen as motivating forces for vaccine acceptance.

347 Study participants' perception that influenza was not a serious disease could be explained  
348 by the high variance in annual influenza attack rates [29] and the higher influenza-associated  
349 mortality in the elderly and chronically ill populations [30]. Thus, young, healthy pregnant  
350 women do not see influenza as a serious disease or a disease to which they are susceptible.  
351 Other researchers have also reported that unvaccinated pregnant women are unaware of their  
352 increased susceptibility to influenza infection and believe that their risk of influenza-related  
353 complications is not heightened during pregnancy [31]. **Therefore, it is important that**

354 pregnant women, in Hong Kong and elsewhere, are informed of their increased susceptibility  
355 to influenza infection and the increased risk of morbidity and mortality [32].

356 The results of this study also highlight the importance of cues to action that serve as  
357 important stimuli to pregnant women's acceptance of the vaccination. Providing clients with  
358 informed choices contributes to positive health care relationships during the antenatal period  
359 [33]. The majority of participants in our study did not have sufficient knowledge related to  
360 vaccination, which was consistent with some earlier research [8, 34]. Knowledge of influenza  
361 vaccine benefits was found to be significantly associated with higher vaccination rates among  
362 pregnant women [35]. During the A/H1N1 pandemic in the US, public health education  
363 targeting pregnant women improved the uptake of both seasonal and pandemic influenza  
364 vaccines [36].

365 Vaccinated participants identified the vaccine benefits as a motivator to be vaccinated,  
366 and unvaccinated participants expressed a willingness to receive the vaccine if they could be  
367 convinced that there would be substantial benefits, especially for the baby. Quantitative  
368 studies had confirmed that pregnant women were more likely to receive the influenza  
369 vaccination if they knew it was beneficial for the baby [35]. Meharry et al. [14] identified this  
370 'two-for-one benefit' of influenza vaccine as a pivotal piece of knowledge in pregnant  
371 women's vaccine decision-making. Multiple studies have shown that in addition to protecting  
372 pregnant women from influenza infection, maternal influenza vaccination does provide  
373 passive protection to the fetus and the newborn for up to six months of age [37-39]. Therefore,  
374 the benefits of the vaccine for the baby should be a prominent message in the promotion of  
375 the vaccine.

376 Although participants perceived the overall threat of influenza as low, the threat from  
377 maternal vaccination was thought to be high and was likely the most powerful barrier to  
378 vaccination acceptance. Doubts about the vaccine's safety were a particular concern and

379 participants feared that the vaccine could harm the fetus, terminate the pregnancy or cause  
380 birth defects. This fear of vaccine effects may be increased in this population because many  
381 mothers only have one child [40] and thus are more sensitive to any potential pregnancy risk.  
382 Despite compelling evidence [41-43], misperceptions about vaccine safety have been  
383 identified as a strong barrier to increasing vaccine uptake [8, 9, 44]. Therefore, all pregnant  
384 women should be reassured that influenza vaccine is safe and effective at any stage of  
385 pregnancy [37].

386 The media can be helpful in disseminating health information to promote positive health  
387 behavioral changes or to discourage risky health behaviors [45]. As shown in this study,  
388 however, the media can hinder positive health behaviors [46]. Excessive media coverage of  
389 negative outcomes among some pregnant women who had received the pandemic A/H1N1  
390 vaccine was remembered by participants more than one year after the events happened. The  
391 media has played a role in several recent vaccine scares [47], the most prominent of which  
392 was the measles, mumps and rubella (MMR) vaccine and autism controversy [48]. To  
393 effectively promote the vaccine, information should be made available from reliable sources  
394 to counteract the anti-vaccination messages to enhance pregnant women's confidence in the  
395 vaccine [14].

396 HCP's recommendations have been repeatedly shown to be strongly associated with  
397 pregnant women's acceptance of influenza vaccination [8, 9, 35]. A recent systematic review  
398 of interventions to increase maternal influenza vaccine rates found that interventions  
399 involving provider reminders systems were associated with increases in maternal vaccination  
400 [49]. A pregnant woman's HCP is often the primary source of unbiased, evidence-based  
401 information about preventive health practices throughout pregnancy [50]. Few participants in  
402 this study, and few pregnant women overall are advised to be vaccinated despite studies  
403 showing that an HCP vaccination recommendation increases the odds of a pregnant woman

404 receiving the vaccine from 3- to 32-fold [35, 36, 51]. Both vaccinated participants in this  
405 study identified the recommendation from their HCPs, along with their explanation of the  
406 benefits of the vaccine, as important to their decision to be vaccinated. Unvaccinated  
407 participants were also receptive to vaccination if clear explanations of the benefits and  
408 potential risks were provided. However, HCPs themselves are also often unaware of the  
409 recommendation to vaccinate pregnant women [35], and if they are aware, many are cautious  
410 about administering influenza vaccine to pregnant women [52, 53]. Researchers also have  
411 found that HCPs often believe that their pregnant clients are not willing to be vaccinated, and  
412 so they do not make the recommendation [54]. Furthermore, HCPs may lack confidence in the  
413 effectiveness of influenza vaccine as evidenced by their low vaccination rates [23, 55]. Others  
414 have reported that some HCPs even advise pregnant clients to avoid the vaccination during  
415 pregnancy [56]. Accordingly, influenza vaccine education and promotion programs should  
416 target HCPs as well as pregnant women [35].

417

418 The Hong Kong College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists (HKCOG) does not specifically  
419 address seasonal influenza vaccine for pregnant women and refers website visitors to the  
420 Department of Health maternal influenza vaccine information pamphlet [57, 58]. For the  
421 A/H1N1 pandemic vaccine, the HKCOG supported vaccination but was somewhat equivocal  
422 in their recommendation and advised pregnant women to discuss the pros and cons with their  
423 doctor [58]. Also, in Hong Kong, influenza vaccine is not a part of routine antenatal care and  
424 vaccination is not provided on-site. Pregnant women must obtain the vaccine at their expense  
425 from their family physician or other private clinics. Conversely, many of the public antenatal  
426 services are provided in Maternal and Child Health Centres, where essential childhood  
427 vaccines are free and uptake rates are very high [25]. Thus, vaccine accessibility may also



428 pose a barrier to vaccination although this was not specifically identified by any of the  
429 participants.

430

#### 431 *4.1. Strengths and limitations*

432 To our knowledge, this was the first qualitative study to explore Chinese pregnant  
433 women's perceptions towards influenza vaccination during pregnancy and only the second  
434 study to explore pregnant women's perceptions of seasonal influenza vaccination. Therefore,  
435 it can provide some insight for policy-makers and maternal and child health professionals in  
436 understanding the complexities of the reasons for acceptance or refusal of maternal influenza  
437 vaccination. A few limitations should also be noted. We had hoped to recruit an equal number  
438 of vaccinated and unvaccinated participants. However, the vaccination rates were so low that  
439 we were only able to recruit two vaccinated participants. The small number of vaccinated  
440 participants may have limited our ability to explore factors that could promote maternal  
441 vaccination. Also, the sample size was small and participants were recruited from one hospital  
442 setting; therefore their opinions and perspectives might not reflect the perceptions of the  
443 larger population of Hong Kong pregnant women. Our study was conducted one year after the  
444 A/H1N1 pandemic and participants often referenced the pandemic. Therefore, it was  
445 sometimes not clear whether participants' perceptions were of regular seasonal influenza  
446 vaccine or the A/H1N1 pandemic vaccine.

447

#### 448 *4.2. Conclusion*

449 Influenza vaccine is an effective strategy to protect against influenza infection and to  
450 lower the risk of influenza-related complications in high-risk groups. Results from this study  
451 showed that altered risk perceptions of both influenza infection and the influenza vaccine,  
452 failure of HCPs to recommend vaccination to their pregnant clients, and negative media

453 reports were impediments to influenza vaccination among pregnant women. Findings from  
454 this study can assist public health workers and policy-makers in devising education and  
455 promotion programs to enhance influenza vaccination uptake and improve health outcomes  
456 for pregnant women and young infants. A multi-layered approach to getting appropriate  
457 health messages out to the relevant audiences is needed and should involve both public and  
458 private agencies, HCPs and the media.

459

460

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465

466

#### 467 **Conflict of Interest**

468 The authors have no conflicts of interest to report.

469

470

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473 management and interview transcription.

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Table 1. Characteristics of the participants

Demographic Variable	Total N (%) N=32
Age of mother	
25 – 29 years	9 (28.1)
30 – 34 years	11 (34.4)
≥35 years	12 (37.5)
Parity	
Primiparous	19 (59.4)
Multiparous	13 (40.6)
University degree	
No	21 (65.6)
Yes	11 (34.4)
Family income <sup>†</sup>	
Less than median income	6 (18.8)
Median income or greater	26 (81.2)
Worked full-time during pregnancy	
No	11 (34.4)
Yes	21 (65.6)
Received influenza vaccine	
No	30 (93.8)
Yes	2 (6.3)

<sup>†</sup>Median income of sample was \$20,000 to \$24,999 HKD per month (1 USD = 7.78 HKD)

**Fig. 1.** Thematic structure of the study findings

