

1 **Acceptability of Parental Financial Incentives and Quasi-**
2 **Mandatory Interventions for Preschool Vaccinations:**
3 **Triangulation of Findings from Three Linked Studies**

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16 **Abstract**

17 **Background**

18 Childhood vaccinations are a core component of public health programmes globally. Recent
19 measles outbreaks in the UK and USA have prompted debates about new ways to increase
20 uptake of childhood vaccinations. Parental financial incentives and quasi-mandatory
21 interventions (restricting entry to educational settings to fully vaccinated children) have
22 been successfully used to increase uptake of childhood vaccinations in developing countries,
23 but there is limited evidence of effectiveness in developed countries. Even if confirmed to
24 be effective, widespread implementation of these interventions is dependent on
25 acceptability to parents, professionals and other stakeholders.

26 **Methods**

27 We conducted a systematic review (n=11 studies included), a qualitative study with parents
28 (n=91) and relevant professionals (n=24), and an on-line survey with embedded discrete
29 choice experiment with parents (n=521) exploring acceptability of parental financial
30 incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions for preschool vaccinations. Here we use
31 Triangulation Protocol to synthesise findings from the three studies.

32 **Results**

33 There was a consistent recognition that incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions could
34 be effective, particularly in more disadvantaged groups. Universal incentives were
35 consistently preferred to targeted ones, but relative preferences for quasi-mandatory
36 interventions and universal incentives varied between studies. The qualitative work
37 revealed a consistent belief that financial incentives were not considered an appropriate
38 motivation for vaccinating children. The costs of financial incentive interventions appeared
39 particularly salient and there were consistent concerns in the qualitative work that
40 incentives did not represent the best use of resources for promoting preschool vaccinations.
41 Various suggestions for improving delivery of the current UK vaccination programme as an
42 alternative to incentives and quasi-mandates were made.

43 **Conclusions**

44 Parental financial incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions for increasing uptake of
45 preschool vaccinations do not currently attract widespread enthusiastic support in the UK;
46 but some potential benefits of these approaches are recognised.

47

48 **Keywords:** vaccinations, immunisations, incentives, rewards, penalties, early-years

49 **Introduction**

50 Childhood vaccinations are a core component of public health programmes around the
51 world.[1] Despite high vaccination coverage rates in many countries,[2] recent measles
52 outbreaks in the UK[3] and USA[4] have returned childhood vaccination programmes to
53 public attention and prompted debates about new ways to increase uptake.

54 Structural public health interventions are those which reduce or eliminate individual choice
55 about whether or not to engage with an intervention.[5] These interventions are often
56 considered politically and publically controversial,[6] and potentially unethical.[7] In the
57 case of vaccine-preventable infectious diseases, where the immediate population health
58 consequences of not acting can be significant, such structural interventions may be
59 considered appropriate.[7]

60 Health promoting financial incentives have been previously defined as “cash or cash-like
61 rewards (e.g. vouchers that can be exchanged for goods or services) or penalties (e.g.
62 reductions in welfare benefits), provided contingent on performance of healthy behaviours”
63 (p2).[8] Financial incentives reduce individual choice to engage with an intervention, by
64 increasing the financial consequences of not engaging.[7] Furthermore, by providing an
65 immediate reward for a behaviour that can be unrewarding in the short-term, financial
66 incentives can work with the common preference for short-, versus long-, term rewards.[9]

67 Financial incentives have been successfully used to increase uptake of childhood
68 vaccinations in developing countries, and adult vaccinations in developed countries.[8, 10]
69 Providing financial incentives for health behaviours in general has been criticised as coercive
70 and socially divisive.[11] However, recent work has found that these interventions can be

71 acceptable if the problems addressed are perceived to be serious, other interventions are
72 perceived to be ineffective, and incentives confirmed to be both effective and cost-
73 effective.[12-15] Little work has focused specifically on the acceptability of parental financial
74 incentives for increasing uptake of childhood vaccinations.[16] As well as personal health
75 benefits to the recipient, vaccinations also convey a benefit to the wider community by
76 contributing to herd immunity. This makes vaccinations unlike many other health
77 behaviours, where it is generally assumed that only those who take part in healthy
78 behaviours benefit from them. Findings concerning the acceptability of financial incentives
79 in relation to other health behaviours may not, therefore, be transferrable to vaccinations.

80 Mandating that only fully vaccinated children can attend child-care or school is another
81 structural intervention for promoting uptake of vaccinations. In most cases where this has
82 been implemented, parents can apply for exemptions for medical, philosophical or religious
83 reasons, meaning that such interventions are only 'quasi-mandatory'. There is some
84 evidence that quasi-mandatory vaccination policies are effective in some cases, but little is
85 known about the acceptability of these interventions.[16]

86 Acceptability of public health interventions should be considered from the viewpoint of a
87 number of stakeholder groups. These include the target population, professionals involved
88 with intervention delivery, and policy makers responsible for intervention implementation.

89 In order for any health promoting intervention to be effective in practice, members of all
90 stakeholder groups must be both willing and able to engage with it.[17]

91 We conducted a series of linked studies exploring the acceptability of parental incentives
92 and quasi-mandatory interventions for increasing uptake of preschool vaccinations in the
93 UK. Neither policy is currently implemented anywhere in the UK. These studies were: a

94 systematic review,[16] a qualitative interview study with parents and a range of relevant
95 professionals,[18] and an on-line survey with an embedded discrete choice experiment
96 (DCE) with parents who did and did not have characteristics associated with incompletely
97 vaccinating their children (manuscript under review). These studies have been reported as
98 stand-alone pieces of work. However, they were conceived as an integrated
99 programme.[19] Specifically, examples of incentive and quasi-mandatory programmes
100 identified in the systematic review were used as discussion prompts in the qualitative study;
101 and early themes identified in the qualitative study were used to guide development in the
102 DCE.

103 Although the results of each individual study provide useful insights in their own right,
104 together the results of the full programme showed both convergence and divergence, which
105 opened up new debates about the implications of the work. Here we use Triangulation
106 Protocol[20] to draw out wider learning from the combined programme. Triangulation
107 Protocol is a systematic approach to ‘triangulation’ described in more detail below. In
108 general, triangulation involves exploring the convergence, complementarity and dissonance
109 of results on related research questions obtained from different methodological
110 approaches, sources, theoretical perspectives, or researchers. It has been proposed that the
111 validity of conclusions is enhanced if different approaches produce convergent findings.[21]

112 **Methods**

113 **Primary studies**

114 The primary studies referred to in this paper have been reported in full elsewhere.[16, 22]

115 The research questions, inclusion criteria and sample size of each of the primary studies are

116 summarised in Table 1; the results are summarised here to provide context.

117 **Table 1: summary of study designs, research questions, inclusion criteria and sample size in the three components studies**

	Systematic review	Qualitative study	Discrete choice experiment
Study design	Systematic review and narrative synthesis, with effectiveness, acceptability and economic components.	Focus group interviews with parents of preschool children. Individual interviews with a range of health and other relevant professionals.	On-line survey with questions on participant characteristics, attitudes to and experiences of vaccination; and choice sets exploring preferences for preschool vaccination programmes according to eight attributes, including an incentive.
Research questions	What is the existing evidence on parental incentive and quasi-mandatory schemes for increasing uptake of vaccinations in preschool children in high income countries, compared to usual care or no intervention in terms of: effectiveness, acceptability and economic costs and consequences?	What are stakeholders' views, wants and needs concerning interventions to promote uptake of preschool vaccination programmes? Would parental incentive or quasi-mandatory schemes for encouraging uptake of preschool vaccinations be viewed as acceptable? Why? What, if anything, could be done to increase acceptability?	What is the value parents place on key attributes and associated attribute levels of preschool vaccination programmes?
Inclusion criteria	The effectiveness component included studies that compared the effects on uptake of preschool vaccinations of included interventions compared to usual care or no intervention using a controlled trial or time series analysis.	Parents and carers of preschool children living in the North East of England, recruited from Children's Centres and baby and toddler groups in localities with high and low levels of deprivation, and which had and had not	Parents or guardians of one or more children <5 years old, currently residing in England, and members of an on-line panel held by the sub-contracting market research company. Respondents were stratified according to whether they met any criteria associated with

	<p>The acceptability component included studies that explored acceptability of included interventions in any stakeholder group using any study design.</p> <p>The economic component included studies in either the effectiveness or acceptability component that explored economic costs and consequences of interventions.</p>	<p>experienced recent cases or outbreaks of measles.</p> <p>Health and other relevant professionals working in the North East of England.</p>	<p>low vaccination: live the 20% most deprived areas of England, have a child <5 years old with a physical or mental disability, are a single parent, are aged less than 20 years, or have more than 3 children.</p>
Sample size	<p>4 studies in the effectiveness component.</p> <p>6 studies in the acceptability component.</p> <p>1 study in the economic component.</p>	<p>91 parents or carers in 10 focus groups.</p> <p>24 health and other professionals, including vaccination policymakers and commissioners (n=6), GPs and practices nurses (n=9), health visitors (n=4), school nurses (n=1), community paediatricians (n=2), and primary school head teachers (n=2).</p>	<p>259 parents with characteristics associated with low vaccination.</p> <p>262 parents without characteristics associated with low vaccination.</p>

119 **Systematic review[16]**

120 The systematic review identified a number of ways in which financial incentives and quasi-
121 mandatory interventions have been implemented for preschool vaccinations. These were:
122 rewards, paid to all parents, when their children's vaccinations were complete (universal
123 reward); rewards, offered only to parents whose children have not received all vaccinations,
124 on completion of the vaccination schedule (targeted incentive); universal child support
125 payments only paid to the parents of children who are up to date with vaccinations
126 (universal penalty); and entry to child-care or school only available to children who are up to
127 date with vaccinations (quasi-mandatory policy). The review concluded that there was
128 insufficient evidence to draw firm conclusions on the effectiveness or economic costs and
129 consequences of parental incentives or quasi-mandatory interventions for preschool
130 vaccinations.

131 There was some evidence that quasi-mandatory interventions were more acceptable to
132 parents than parental incentives, but this evidence tended to come from contexts where
133 quasi-mandatory policies were already in place. This reflects research from elsewhere that
134 indicates that acceptability of public health interventions is influenced by familiarity with
135 the intervention.[23]

136 **Qualitative study[18]**

137 In the qualitative study, parents and professionals recognised that financial incentives might
138 particularly encourage families who were living in disadvantaged circumstances to prioritise
139 vaccination. However, this benefit could be outweighed by the unintended consequences of

140 turning a behaviour that is generally willingly engaged in, out of a sense of altruism and
141 social responsibility, into a cash transaction. For this reason, both groups felt that offering
142 parents cash payments for vaccinating their children was inappropriate. Financial incentives
143 were also commonly interpreted as 'bribes'. Given the controversy over the measles,
144 mumps and rubella vaccination in the UK in the 1990s,[24] many viewed this sort of 'bribe'
145 as sending a message that there was something inherently 'wrong' with preschool
146 vaccinations that only a financial incentive could overcome.

147 Penalties reducing universal social welfare payments were seen as superficially more
148 attractive than financial rewards by parents. However, parents acknowledged that the most
149 disadvantaged families were very reliant on these payments and that such a policy might
150 inappropriately penalise children for their parent's decisions. Overall, universal financial
151 incentives were viewed as preferable to those targeted at any particular group (e.g. those
152 who had not had their children vaccinated by a certain age).

153 The idea of a quasi-mandatory scheme was met with mixed opinions. For many, it seemed
154 like an appropriate option that was fair, equitable and even 'normal'. Many UK daycare
155 centres and schools already ask about children's vaccination status to allow them to identify
156 at-risk children during outbreaks. Various other screening and monitoring programmes
157 already run in UK schools. However, refusing children education based on parent
158 vaccination decisions seemed immoral to some parents. For this reason participants
159 believed there would have to be robust procedures in place for parents to legitimately opt-
160 out of vaccinations, for medical or religious reasons. Discussion of incentive and quasi-
161 mandatory schemes consistently returned to the need to strengthen existing programmes

162 via better information provision, professional support and more flexible vaccination
163 delivery.

164 **On-line survey with an embedded discrete choice experiment (Flynn et al.,**
165 **under review)**

166 Discrete choice experiments describe interventions according to their key characteristics, or
167 'attributes' (e.g. type of reward, value of incentive), and 'levels' of these attributes (e.g.
168 cash, shopping voucher; higher, lower values). Participants are then asked which of a small
169 number of intervention 'scenarios', combining different levels of each attribute, they prefer.
170 This allows relative preferences for attribute levels to be determined. Discrete choice
171 experiments are well-established in health economics[25-27] and increasingly used in public
172 health.[14, 28] The DCE was embedded in a wide on-line survey asking questions about
173 general preferences and socio-demographic circumstances.

174 Respondents to the DCE demonstrated a strong preference for vaccinating their children.
175 Parents had significant preferences for the way in which vaccination services are delivered
176 in terms of staff type, location, expected waiting times and information provision. In terms
177 of financial incentives, there was a general preference for cash rewards, compared to
178 shopping voucher rewards, particularly among parents with characteristics associated with
179 incomplete vaccination. Higher value and universal incentives were preferred to those
180 targeted at particular sub-groups. In a preference elicitation task in the wider survey, most
181 support was given to universal financial incentives, followed by quasi-mandatory
182 interventions, current practice (i.e. no incentive or mandate), and finally targeted financial
183 incentives. Parents who stated that they would require a financial reward to vaccinate their

184 children (n=122, 25%; but 31% of those with characteristics associated with incomplete
185 vaccination), the average minimum value required was around £110 (~US\$159; €147). The
186 average maximum incentive participants believed should be provided, amongst those who
187 stated that they did not require a financial incentive to vaccinate their children, was around
188 £70 (~US\$101; €93).

189 **Triangulation and integration**

190 Four types of triangulation have been described: methodological triangulation where more
191 than one methodological approach is used to collect data; data triangulation where data is
192 collected from more than one data source or respondent group; investigator triangulation
193 where two or more researchers take part in integrative analysis; and theoretical
194 triangulation where different theoretical perspectives or interpretative frameworks are
195 adopted.[21]

196 We made use of all four of these types of triangulation. A range of both quantitative (DCE,
197 survey and systematic searching in the systematic review) and qualitative (focus groups with
198 parents and carers, individual interviews with health and other professionals, and narrative
199 synthesis in the systematic review) methods were used. This allows methodological
200 triangulation. As data was collected from more than one participant group (see Table 1)
201 data triangulation was possible. As described below, a number of researchers took part in
202 triangulation, allowing investigator triangulation. Finally, the different methods used across
203 the studies drew on different theoretical perspectives – the systematic review, DCE and
204 survey drew on the positivist theoretical perspective, whilst the focus groups and individual
205 interviews drew on the interpretivist theoretical perspective. This means that data collected

206 within different research paradigms are included and provides the opportunity for
207 theoretical triangulation. To some extent, this overlaps with methodological triangulation.
208 Data collected within these different paradigms are integrated during triangulation without
209 any particular preference or primacy given to any particular methodology or theoretical
210 perspective.

211 We base our approach to triangulation on 'Triangulation Protocol'. [20] This involves
212 identifying themes from each data source and method, and then sorting these into similar
213 categories. These are then 'convergence coded' to identify where there is agreement,
214 dissonance and silence (i.e. where issues identified in one component are not covered in
215 another) in terms of data from different sources and methods. For this exercise, we divided
216 the qualitative study into two components – results from parents and carers; and results
217 from health and other relevant professionals. Similarly, the on-line survey in which the DCE
218 was embedded was split into two components – results from the formal DCE; and results
219 from the wider survey. Initially, convergence coding was conducted by JA. Preliminary
220 results were then discussed amongst the full research team and the convergence coding
221 refined, based on these discussions.

222 Here we present the results of the convergence coding and highlight and discuss key areas
223 of agreement and apparent contradiction. Our intention is not to repeat the findings from
224 the individual primary studies, and the results presented here do not represent the 'last
225 word' on the acceptability of financial incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions for
226 increasing preschool vaccinations – substantial additional information is presented in the
227 descriptions of the primary studies. Instead we focus on what can be learnt from viewing
228 the component studies together, rather than as individual pieces of work. Thus any findings

229 that were apparent from any of the individual component studies alone are not repeated
230 here.

231 Given the nature of the work, we both report and interpret results in the ‘results’ section to
232 provide an integrated consideration of findings across the three linked primary studies. The
233 discussion section provides a summary of the results, and consideration of the strengths and
234 weaknesses of the method used.

235 **Research ethics**

236 This work was a secondary analysis of extant data. Ethical approval was not required for this
237 secondary analysis. Ethical approval for the original qualitative study was provided by
238 Teesside University’s School of Health and Social Care Research Ethics and Governance
239 Committee. Ethical approval for the original survey and embedded discrete choice
240 experiment was provided by Newcastle University’s Faculty of Medicine’s Research Ethics
241 Committee. All personally identifying information was anonymised and de-identified prior to
242 analysis in the primary studies.

243 **Results and interpretation**

244 Table 2 shows a summary of the main themes identified in the research, sorted into three
245 overall groups (financial incentives and penalties, quasi-mandatory interventions, and
246 alternative interventions), and ordered to bring related themes near to each other.

247 **Table 2: summary of themes identified in the research, with agreement between research components identified**

Theme	Sys. review	Qual: parents	Qual: professionals	DCE	Questio -naire
Financial incentives & penalties					
Financial incentives have been successful in some circumstances to encourage healthy behaviours	A ^a	S ^b	A	S	S
~25% of participants would require a financial incentive to vaccinate their children	S	S	S	S	A
Financial incentives could encourage parents experiencing financial hardship to vaccinate	S	A	S	S	S
Universal financial incentives are more equitable than/preferred to targeted incentives	S	A	S	A	A
Targeted financial incentives could lead to parents 'gaming the system' and delaying vaccination to become eligible	S	A	S	S	S
Financial penalties are more acceptable than financial rewards	S	A	S	S	S
Financial penalties could act as a timely reminder to vaccinate a child	S	A	S	S	S
Financial incentives are a bribe for being a responsible parent & may break the bonds of social responsibility	S	A	A	S	S
Financial incentives may not be the most efficient use of resources	S	A	A	S	S
Financial incentives would not change the mind of parents who have made a conscious decision not to vaccinate	S	A	S	S	S
Cash rewards are preferable to vouchers	S	S	S	A	S
Higher value rewards are preferable	S	S	S	A	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions					
Quasi-mandatory interventions are more acceptable than any type of financial incentives	A	A	A	S	S

Acceptability of incentives for preschool vaccinations

Quasi-mandatory interventions are preferable to universal, but not targeted, financial incentives	S	S	S	S	A
Quasi-mandatory interventions offer protection for all children and staff in a shared setting	S	A	S	S	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions would act as a reminder to vaccinate	S	A	S	S	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions would punish children for a decision made by their parent	S	A	S	S	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions remove valued choice to engage with a health-related behaviour	S	A	A	S	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions would have to incorporate clear opt-out processes	S	A	S	S	S
Quasi-mandatory interventions could normalise vaccination	S	S	A	S	S
School entry is an ideal time to monitor vaccination status and provide catch-up vaccinations	S	S	A	S	S
Schools should not become responsible for administration of a quasi-mandatory intervention	S	S	A	S	S
Alternative interventions to increase vaccination uptake					
More flexibility is required in the timing and location of where vaccinations are delivered, with less waiting time	S	A	A	A	S
Information & education about vaccination and related diseases needs to be more accessible to parents	S	A	A	S	S
Information on risks & benefits provided in numerical format is preferable to that in chart or pictorial format	S	S	S	A	S
Professionals must build trusting relationships with parents and listen to their fears	S	S	A	S	S
Better multi-disciplinary working and information sharing is required	S	S	A	S	S
Vaccinations provided by pharmacists are less preferred than those provided by practice nurse at GP surgery	S	S	S	A	S
Vaccinations provided by community nurses in a mobile bus are less preferred those provided by practice nurse at GP surgery	S	S	S	A	S

248 Sys. Review: systematic review; Qual. – parents: qualitative study with parents and carers; Qual. – professionals: qualitative study with health and other relevant
249 professionals; DCE: discrete choice experiment; Survey: questionnaire included with DCE; ^aA (agreement) indicates that a theme was present in results from a research
250 component, ^bS (silence) indicates that a theme was absent in results from a research component

251 In Table 2, As (agreement) and Ss (silence) indicate whether a theme was identified, or not,
252 in a particular research component. In most cases, silence this reflects differences in the
253 research questions across studies (see Table 1). We did not identify any clear instances of
254 dissonance with disagreement on a theme between research components. However, there
255 are themes that could be interpreted as potentially contradictory. These are discussed
256 further below.

257 **Potential and perceived effectiveness of parental financial** 258 **interventions**

259 The systematic review identified that financial incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions
260 have been successful for increasing vaccination coverage in some circumstances. However,
261 not enough evidence was available to draw firm conclusions about effectiveness, or to
262 recommend widespread implementation. There was agreement with this in the qualitative
263 research. Both parents and professionals recognised that financial incentives could be
264 effective in some circumstances. Parents living in deprived circumstances were particularly
265 identified as being potentially responsive to financial incentives.

266 The DCE found that parents preferred financial incentives with higher values. In contrast,
267 whilst parents in the focus groups were not asked to agree on a specific appropriate level of
268 incentive, they often felt that even £50 (~US\$72; €66) was too high. Despite this, the survey
269 identified that 80% of those who would not require a financial incentive to vaccinate their
270 children would still accept one if it was offered. Thus, whilst there may be a general
271 perception that gaining financial rewards should not be the appropriate motivation for
272 vaccination (see below), this does not mean that people would not accept such rewards, or

273 that they would not be effective in some cases. Indeed, around one quarter of survey
274 respondents stated that they would require a financial incentive to fully vaccinate their
275 children – although this proportion was statistically significantly higher in those with
276 characteristics associated with incomplete vaccination (31%), than those without (19%).

277 The recognition of effectiveness, or at least potential effectiveness, is important - and not
278 just from an evidenced-based policy point of view. Previous research has confirmed that the
279 acceptability of incentive interventions increases with stated effectiveness,[14] and
280 perceived ineffectiveness may be one reason why such interventions are often regarded as
281 unacceptable.[29]

282 The belief that financial incentives may be most effective in deprived groups is likely to
283 relate to the relative impact such financial incentives may have on household finances
284 across the socio-economic spectrum. Others have proposed that incentive interventions
285 may be particularly acceptable when targeted at those in most financial need. But there is
286 also some concern that incentives may be most coercive in those who are least able to
287 refuse the reward, due to financial pressures.[13] Whilst a number of outcome trials have
288 focused particularly on deprived groups,[30, 31] there is an overall absence of evidence on
289 whether effectiveness varies by socio-economic position.[8]

290 **Relative preferences for different interventions**

291 There was a consistent finding from the systematic review and both components of the
292 qualitative study that quasi-mandatory interventions were more acceptable than parental
293 financial incentives. The qualitative study found an overall order of preference of: quasi-
294 mandatory>universal financial incentives>targeted financial incentives. In contrast, the

295 survey found an overall order of preference of: universal financial incentives>quasi-
296 mandatory interventions>targeted financial incentives. A distinction between universal and
297 targeted incentives could not be made in the systematic review.

298 The consistent preference for universal, compared to targeted, financial incentives appears
299 to be related to issues of equity. The qualitative study identified that there was a general
300 belief amongst participants that all health interventions should be available to all. The idea
301 that parents who had delayed vaccination would become eligible for a financial reward
302 under the targeted scenario was considered particularly inequitable and interpreted as
303 rewarding 'bad' behaviour. Respondents were also concerned that such an intervention
304 might lead to 'gaming', with parents deliberately delaying vaccinations in order to become
305 eligible for the reward.

306 The concern for equity could be interpreted as contradicting the above finding in relation to
307 differential effectiveness according to socio-economic position. However, whilst participants
308 recognised that incentives may be more effective in some groups, this did not mean that
309 they felt incentives should only be offered to those groups. It is possible that this finding is
310 unique to the UK context where healthcare services are universally available to all.[13]

311 Apprehension about 'gaming' health promoting financial incentive interventions is
312 frequently expressed in the literature.[13, 29, 32] Whilst there is little evidence of
313 widespread 'gaming' from intervention trials,[33, 34] the concern that it might occur
314 contributes to negative perceptions of these interventions. Further research is certainly
315 needed to explore the extent and nature of any 'gaming', how this can be minimised, and
316 how the limited gaming that appears to occur in practice can be adequately managed to
317 quell public concerns.

318 The difference in relative preferences for universal incentives compared to quasi-mandatory
319 interventions found between the qualitative study and the survey may reflect differences in
320 the populations studied, the way questions were asked, or the setting in which preferences
321 were elicited. The socio-economic profile of participants in the survey (almost 50% had
322 completed degree-level education) was likely to be more affluent than participants in the
323 qualitative study (educational attainment was not recorded, but parents were recruited
324 mostly from Sure Start Children's Centres which tend to serve more deprived communities).
325 The survey was conducted anonymously online. In contrast, qualitative data collection took
326 place in a social context with an interviewer and, in the case of focus groups, other
327 participants, present. It is possible that universal incentives may be more acceptable than
328 qualitative data suggests, but that people find it difficult to express this in social contexts.
329 This could be interpreted as a form of 'social desirability' bias, where participants report
330 what they feel is the socially acceptable answer in the context, rather than their 'true'
331 beliefs and attitudes. Alternatively, participants in the qualitative studies often spent an
332 hour or more discussing interventions, compared to the relatively quick online survey.
333 Further, research is required to gain further clarity on why different results were found
334 using different study designs.

335 **Cost and cost-effectiveness**

336 Participants in the qualitative study expressed concern about the cost of financial incentives
337 and queried whether resources might be more efficiently used in other ways. Whilst cost-
338 effectiveness was not explicitly referred to, concerns about cost and efficiency certainly
339 reflect this concept. In contrast, whilst quasi-mandatory interventions would also require
340 substantial resources to develop and implement, the cost and cost-effectiveness of these

341 interventions were not raised by participants. This may be because it was assumed that the
342 tasks involved could be absorbed within the existing roles of staff working in education or
343 child health settings.

344 Concerns about cost were not explicitly sought in the survey or embedded DCE. However,
345 the survey questions did identify that the minimum effective incentive value amongst the
346 minority of parents who stated they would require a financial incentive to fully vaccinate
347 their children (25%) was around £110 (~US\$159; €147). Most parents who would not
348 require a financial reward to vaccinate, would still accept one (80%). The maximum
349 acceptable level amongst these parents was around £70 (~US\$101; €93).

350 Cost-effectiveness may be particularly salient when considering financial incentives because
351 of the overt financial nature of the intervention.[29] The qualitative study and DCE were
352 conducted in the UK, where the public is used to health care being funded through taxation
353 and free at the point of delivery. However, the research was also undertaken during a
354 period of economic austerity when questions were being raised about the sustainability of
355 such a system. These contextual factors may have particularly increased concerns about
356 whether or not such interventions would be affordable in the current economic climate.

357 As identified in the systematic review, the cost-effectiveness of both financial incentives and
358 quasi-mandatory interventions for preschool vaccinations has not been well studied and is
359 not yet known. However, previous research indicates that the great majority of public
360 health interventions meet national criteria for cost-effectiveness used in England and
361 Wales.[35]

362 **Alternative approaches to encouraging uptake of preschool**

363 **vaccination**

364 Participants in both components of the qualitative study made a variety of suggestions for
365 alternative methods of increasing uptake of preschool vaccinations. These suggestions were
366 spontaneous and unprompted, but common. In particular, both groups of participants
367 suggested more flexibility in the timing and location of where vaccinations were delivered
368 and improving the accessibility of information and education about vaccinations and
369 vaccine-preventable diseases.

370 A preference for greater flexibility in appointments was also expressed in the DCE, where
371 provision of out-of-hours appointments was preferred, particularly in those *without*
372 characteristics associated with incomplete vaccination. Shorter waiting times were
373 preferred, particularly in those *with* characteristics associated with incomplete vaccination.
374 Reducing waiting times during normal clinic hours may, therefore, be particularly important
375 for increasing vaccination uptake. Providing extended hours appointments would certainly
376 be preferred by many parents, but would not be particularly attractive to those who are
377 currently at risk of incompletely vaccinating their children and so may be of lower priority.

378 One particular approach to avoid, identified in the qualitative study, was 'block'
379 appointments where a group of parents are all given the same appointment time and then
380 seen on a first-come, first-served basis.

381 Whilst the qualitative study found a general preference for wider availability of vaccinations,
382 the DCE revealed that vaccinations provided by practice nurses in primary care settings
383 were preferred to vaccinations provided by pharmacists, or by community nurses in mobile

384 buses. This suggests that any changes to vaccination personnel and location would have to
385 be carefully considered. Professionals in the qualitative study also raised considerable
386 concerns about how data on vaccination status could be shared between those working in
387 different sectors if the system were to be changed to enable different professional groups
388 to deliver vaccinations.

389 Parents in the qualitative study showed an interest in vaccination delivery in children's
390 centres. In the DCE, preferences for vaccination delivery in children's centres did not differ
391 from those for practice nurses delivering vaccinations in primary care settings. This
392 apparently contradictory finding could relate to the fact that many parents in the qualitative
393 study were recruited through children's centres and so were particularly familiar with this
394 setting.

395 Whilst participants in the qualitative study acknowledged that substantial information on
396 vaccinations is currently provided to new parents, there was widespread recognition that
397 this was not provided in a format that parents found particularly accessible. The DCE found
398 a preference for information about the risks and benefits of vaccinations to be provided in
399 numerical format, rather than in charts and pictures, particularly in those parents with
400 characteristics associated with incomplete vaccination. Presenting information in a range of
401 different formats, and being sensitive to the different information needs of different
402 parents, may help all parents feel their information needs are met.

403 **Discussion**

404 **Summary of findings**

405 We used Triangulation Protocol to integrate and synthesise findings from three different
406 studies on the acceptability of parental financial incentives and quasi-mandatory
407 interventions for preschool vaccinations. This is the first work we are aware of which draws
408 together multi-methods results on acceptability of financial incentive interventions in any
409 context.

410 There was a consistent recognition that incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions could
411 be effective, particularly in more disadvantaged groups. Universal incentives were
412 consistently preferred to targeted ones, but relative preferences for quasi-mandatory
413 interventions and universal incentives varied between studies. The qualitative work
414 revealed a consistent belief that financial incentives were not considered an appropriate
415 motivation for vaccinating children. As incentives are designed to provide alternative,
416 external, motivation for behaviours,[36] this may be an insurmountable barrier to
417 widespread adoption of financial incentives for vaccination, or health behaviours more
418 widely. The costs of financial incentive interventions appeared particularly salient and there
419 were consistent concerns that incentives did not represent the best use of resources for
420 promoting preschool vaccinations. Various suggestions for improving delivery of the current
421 vaccination programme as an alternative to incentives and quasi-mandates were made,
422 reinforcing a general negative view towards such interventions, despite the potential
423 benefits also recognised.

424 **Strengths and limitations of methods**

425 The complex and problematic nature of triangulation and integration, and the absence of
426 detailed information on how to perform them, has been identified by a number of
427 authors.[20, 37] Using the established framework of Triangulation Protocol lends rigour to
428 our approach, by providing a clear structure for what we did and how.

429 Drawing on all four different types of triangulation – methodological, data, investigator and
430 theoretical – increases the validity and reliability of our findings. It is unlikely that our results
431 are due to a reliance on any single method, study population, or researcher.

432 Although our systematic review was inclusive of studies from all high-income countries, the
433 qualitative study and survey were conducted in England. The findings may not, therefore, be
434 transferable to other contexts. In particular, there is some evidence that financial incentives
435 for health behaviours are more acceptable in contexts without universal health-care
436 systems where the concept of paying for healthcare is more commonplace.[13]

437 Previous work has highlighted that the acceptability of structural public health interventions
438 increases after implementation as people become familiar with the intervention and its
439 practical implications.[23] It is possible that the generally low acceptability of parental
440 incentives and quasi-mandatory interventions for preschool vaccinations described here
441 reflects unfamiliarity with, lack of extensive public debate on, and lack of practical
442 experience with such interventions. That is: a general fear of the unknown. Thus, the
443 majority of our findings reflect the current situation in England, but it should not be
444 assumed that this situation is necessarily immutable.

445 **Conclusions**

446 The findings from this multi-methods programme of work indicate that financial incentives
447 and quasi-mandatory interventions for increasing uptake of preschool vaccinations do not
448 currently attract widespread enthusiastic support in the UK, although potential benefits
449 were also recognised.

450 Acceptability was influenced by a general concern for equity and cost-effectiveness that
451 may be particular to the current, UK context of a universal healthcare system in a time of
452 austerity. Whilst there was some recognition that these interventions could be effective in
453 some population groups, a number of other methods for increasing uptake of preschool
454 vaccinations were proposed as currently being more effective and acceptable.

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