1 Acceptance and feasibility of school-based seasonal influenza vaccination in Singapore: A 2 qualitative study 3 Vittoria Offeddua (vittoria.offeddu@nus.edu.sg), Mabel Sheau Fong Lowb 4 (mabel.sf.low@gmail.com), Shilpa Surendrana,1 (e0178075@u.nus.edu), Gayatri Kembhavia,2 5 (gayatri.kembhavi@gmail.com), Clarence C Tama,c,* (clarence.tam@nus.edu.sg) 6 7 a Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore and National University 8 Health System, 117549 Singapore; b Harvard T. H. Chan School of Public Health, Harvard 9 University, MA 02138 Cambridge, USA; c London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, WC1E 7HT 10 London, United Kingdom 11 ¹ Present affiliation: London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine, WC1E 7HT London, United 12 Kingdom 13 ² Present affiliation: Centre for Evidence and Implementation, 55 Duxton Road, 089519 Singapore 14 15 * Corresponding author: 16 Clarence C Tam, Clarence.tam@nus.edu.sg. 17 Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore 18 Tahir Foundation Building (MD1), 12 Science Drive 2, Singapore 117549 19 Tel: +65 6516 4987; Fax: +65 6779 1489 20 21 Running title: School-based influenza vaccination in Singapore 22 **Declarations of interest**: none 23 Word count: 4,096

Abstract

Introduction

Influenza is a major cause of disease in children. School-based seasonal influenza vaccination can be a cost-effective tool to improve vaccine uptake among children, and can bring substantial health and economic benefits to the broader community. The acceptance and feasibility of school-based influenza vaccination are likely to be highly context-specific, but limited data exist from tropical settings with year-round influenza transmission. We conducted a qualitative study to assess acceptability and feasibility of a school-based seasonal influenza vaccination programme in Singapore.

Methods

We conducted qualitative in-depth interviews with key stakeholders, including healthcare professionals, representatives of relevant ministries, preschool principals and parents to understand their perspectives on a proposed school-based seasonal influenza vaccination programme. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed using thematic analysis.

Results

We conducted 40 interviews. Although preschool-aged children are currently the recommended age group for vaccination, stakeholders suggested introducing the programme in primary and/or secondary schools, where existing vaccination infrastructure would facilitate delivery. However, more comprehensive evidence on the local influenza burden and transmission patterns among children is required to develop an evidence-based, locally relevant rationale for a school-based vaccination programme and effectively engage policy-makers, school staff, and parents. Extensive, age-appropriate public education and awareness campaigns would increase the acceptability of the programme among stakeholders. Stakeholders indicated that an opt-out programme with free or subsidised vaccination would be the most likely to achieve high vaccine coverage and make access to vaccination more equitable.

Conclusions

Overall, participants were supportive of a free or subsidised school-based influenza vaccination programme in primary and/or secondary schools, although children in this age group are not currently a recommended group for vaccination. However, a better informed, evidence-based rationale to estimate the programme's impact in Singapore is currently lacking. Extensive, ageappropriate public education and awareness campaigns will help ensure full support across key stakeholder groups.

56

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

Keywords: influenza, influenza vaccine, school-based vaccination

58

59

70

Par

57

Abbreviations

60	SIVP	School-based influenza vaccination programme		
61	IDI	In-depth interview		
62	МоН	Ministry of Health		
63	НРВ	Health Promotion Board		
64	IDS	Infectious Disease Specialist		
65	PubPD	Public hospital Paediatrician		
66	PriPD	Private Paediatrician		
67	GP	Private General Practitioner		
68	PY	Polyclinic doctor		
69	PP	Preschool Principal		

Parent of child aged 18 months to 7 years

Introduction

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

Influenza causes an estimated 9.5 million hospitalisations and 81 million hospitalisation days worldwide each year [1]. Young children are a particularly vulnerable group, because they have lower levels of immunological protection and high levels of contact with other potentially infectious children [2]. The World Health Organization currently recommends annual vaccination of children aged 6-59 months [3]. Data from high and middle-income countries show that seasonal influenza vaccination of preschool- and school-aged children can effectively reduce the incidence of influenza among vaccines [4-10], and confer indirect protection to unvaccinated individuals in the community [11,12]. Studies investigating the acceptance of seasonal school-based influenza vaccination programmes (SIVPs), primarily conducted among parents, have identified numerous perceived benefits of such programmes, including greater convenience [13-15], increased vaccine access [15,16], reduced student and teacher absenteeism and associated costs [13-15], opportunities to incorporate health education into teaching [15], and broader benefits such as better pandemic preparedness [15]. Studies have also identified perceived harms and challenges of SIVPs, including the potential for side effects [13,14], lack of confidence in the school as an environment to receive vaccination [14], disruption to teaching time [14,15], and inadequate information about vaccination programmes [15]. In Singapore, influenza transmission occurs year-round, with two peaks of increased activity coinciding with the Northern and Southern hemisphere influenza seasons [17]. Virological surveillance indicates that a large proportion of acute respiratory illnesses seen at primary care facilities is caused by influenza [17]. Since 2014, Singaporean Citizens and Permanent Residents in influenza high-risk groups can claim for the influenza vaccine using Medisave, a mandatory medical savings scheme. However, coverage of influenza vaccine among high-risk groups, such as children [18] and elderly [19] is low (\leq 15%).

Introduction of a seasonal SIVP could bring substantial direct and indirect health and economic benefits in Singapore. Potential challenges related to the associated logistics, cost and public acceptance of such a programme, which are likely to be highly specific to the local context, have not been studied. This study assessed stakeholder perceptions of the feasibility and acceptability of a seasonal SIVP in Singapore.

Methods

Recruitment

Between May 2017 and November 2018, we recruited representatives from different stakeholder groups with an interest in childhood vaccination in Singapore. Among healthcare professionals, we interviewed private general practitioners (GPs), polyclinic doctors, paediatricians and infectious disease specialists. We also included representatives of the Health Promotion Board (HPB), a government agency responsible for delivery of routine immunisations in primary schools, and the Ministry of Health (MoH), as well as preschool principals and parents of children aged 18 months to seven years. Parents were eligible to participate if they were aged 21 years and above and if they were the main health decision-maker for their child. We excluded parents who were not able to complete the interview in English, and those whose children had a history of known serious allergic reaction to the influenza vaccine.

Potential interviewees from healthcare and government institutions were recruited through an invitation sent to their official e-mail addresses describing the study's aims and methods. Parents and preschool principals were sampled through convenient sampling from participants in a prospective surveillance study of respiratory infections in child care centres in Singapore [20], who had previously consented to being re-contacted for related studies.

In-depth interviews

In order to gain a detailed understanding of each individual participant's perspectives and preferences, we opted for in-person in-depth interviews (IDIs). The IDIs explored participants' attitudes and practices related to influenza and the seasonal influenza vaccine, and elicited their

views about the feasibility and acceptability of a proposed SIVP. The IDI guide was tailored to individual stakeholder groups. For example, MoH representatives were asked to elaborate more on issues of cost-effectiveness, while preschool principals were asked to expand on issues around logistics or child well-being.

Before commencing the IDI, a trained interviewer answered all questions from participants and audio-recorded their verbal consent to take part in the study. Interviewers posed probing questions until a full understanding of each participant's perspective was reached. Each IDI took approximately 20-45 minutes to complete and was audio-recorded. A note-taker took detailed notes throughout the interview. Parents were also reimbursed for their time with a \$\$50 voucher and given an information pamphlet on influenza and the seasonal influenza vaccine.

Sample size

We aimed to interview up to 50 participants from different stakeholder groups. The target sample size was based on the inclusion of local infectious disease specialists and relevant representatives from government institutions, and a predicted thematic saturation of approximately 10-12 interviews in each group among healthcare professionals, preschool principals, and parents [21], with some allowance for extra interviews if saturation was not reached [22]. Within each of these interviewee group, data saturation was considered achieved when no new themes emerged during the IDIs and the core meaning of existing codes remained unaltered [23,24].

Data analysis

IDIs were transcribed verbatim and analysed by thematic analysis using nVivo 11 software [25]. Potentially identifying data was removed. Two investigators (VO and SS) independently coded three transcripts and reached consensus on the codebook. Discrepancies were resolved through discussion with a third investigator (GK). One investigator (VO) subsequently coded the remaining transcripts. Emerging themes were compared within and across stakeholder groups and arranged into higher-order themes.

147 Ethics approval

This study was approved by the National University of Singapore Institutional Review Board

149 (reference number: B-16-232).

Results

Main themes

We conducted a total of 40 IDIs. Among government officials, we interviewed three representatives of the MoH, as well as seven members of the HPB's School Health Services division. We also interviewed 19 primary healthcare professionals and two hospital infectious disease specialists, as well as five preschool principals and four parents (Table 1). Overall, three main themes emerged from IDIs across stakeholder groups: logistics, stakeholder engagement, and funding (Figure 1). Within each of these themes, stakeholders indicated a number of challenges to the successful implementation of a seasonal SIVP in Singapore, and put forward suggestions to address these in the SIVP's design and implementation, in order to achieve specific outcomes.

Logistics

Stakeholders indicated several logistical challenges to the successful implementation of school-based influenza vaccination in Singapore, including the need to purchase large vaccine stocks, the increased workload for school staff, and the lack of appropriate cold-chain storage facilities and vaccination venues at schools. In particular, stakeholders discussed in detail the preferred setting for a potential SIVP, and the mechanism for vaccine delivery.

SIVP setting

Although preschool-aged children are the recommended age group for influenza vaccination, most stakeholders suggested to introduce the programme in primary and/or secondary schools, where existing vaccination infrastructure would facilitate delivery (Figure 1A):

171	"For the older children, it may be easier in terms of operation, because [] you have School
172	Health Services going to these schools to run other vaccination programmes, and [so it] may
173	be feasible." (MoH2)
174	Singapore offers a wide range of preschool options, including public and private child care
175	centres, kindergartens, and informal play groups. This would substantially complicate the
176	recruitment of preschools for a potential SIVP:
177	"Preschool[s] might be hard to target. Primary [and] secondary [] might be easier to do if
178	they have a proper mandate to roll out [the programme in] a government school, rather
179	than preschools that are privately owned." (IDS2)
180	In addition, a SIVP implemented in primary and/or secondary schools would likely reach more
181	children, because school attendance is mandated from the age of six years:
182	"There are children who are home-schooled up to primary school, [who] may not be
183	captured. [] The pick-up rate will be higher if we start in primary school, because [the]
184	majority of children in our country go to a public primary school." (PY6)
185	A preschool principal explained that vaccine administration would also be easier among older
186	children:
187	"I think primary school will be more appropriate. For preschool, children are still very young,
188	and [] if parents are not around, it would not be very easy for teachers to manage the
189	child's reaction to the jab, while managing all the other children." (PP1)
190	Finally, parents of older children may worry less about potential side effects of the vaccine, and
191	thus be more inclined to accept vaccination in school settings:
192	"I think [we] should try in primary school first. [] I think primary school parents are much
193	more receptive towards this, because their children are older. The tendency that their
194	children might fall sick because of the vaccine, or things like that, there are lesser worries
195	about it." (PP4)

196	Vaccine delivery
197	Regardless of the specific school setting, there was disagreement among participants on the
198	appropriate mechanism for vaccine delivery. Stakeholders discussed commissioning vaccination
199	to "a nurse or an equivalent stationed on site as part of the school infrastructure" (PubPD1), or
200	rotating vaccination teams:
201	"In [the] UK [] you actually have nurses who [] go around visiting all the schools [], even
202	carrying out vaccination []. So I think that's probably a good model to look at." (GP1)
203	However, both these options would result in prolonged vaccination timelines. A school-based
204	nurse might be able to vaccinate "20 kids a day" (PubPD1), requiring up to one year to administer
205	the vaccine to all students in one school. Similarly, a rotating staff model would impede targeted
206	cohort vaccination at the start of the peak influenza season:
207	"Because of how teams visit schools one after the other, it is difficult to vaccinate all children
208	at once. Children from different schools will be vaccinated at different times over the year.
209	Doing so might still give them the immunity, but [I'm] not sure it is as effective as giving
210	them [the vaccine] before the peak season." (HPB5)
211	In addition, one HPB representative argued that
212	"even though adverse events are very rare, doctors need to be there to assess if [the] child is
213	fit for vaccination before giving the vaccination." (HPB5)
214	However, doctors' participation would be conditional on their time availability and perceived
215	benefits:
216	"Some general practitioners will be keen on it, others won't. So if general practitioners have
217	the time, the inclination, [and] the ability to take [] a morning off to go and [vaccinate],
218	[and if] they think it's something worthwhile for them to do, then [the programme] could be
219	well-received. [General practitioners] would be expecting to be paid for their time." (GP1)

220

Stakeholder engagement

Most interviewees agreed that the success of a proposed SIVP would strongly depend on the effective engagement of key stakeholder groups, including policy-makers, school staff, and parents (Figure 1B). According to participants, developing an evidence-based, locally relevant rationale that justifies the introduction of a seasonal SIVP in Singapore would increase its acceptability among stakeholders (Figure 1B). However, more comprehensive evidence on the local influenza burden and transmission patterns is currently needed:

"The problem that one would face when [going] to a policy maker with such a proposal would be: could you quantify the burden of influenza due to transmission in the school, versus transmission in the community? [...] I don't know whether we actually have such granularity on where influenza exists. [...] So my concern with such a proposal would be, if you go to a school, they will say: 'can you tell me what the burden of influenza [is] in the school?' And nobody would be able to give a single statistic." (PubPD1)

Different stakeholders also highlighted the importance of complementing epidemiological data with context-specific cost-effectiveness analyses:

"[A SIVP is] something that would require some form of cost-effectiveness analysis. [...] Is that the best use of resources? [...] If it is not cost-effective, then you are in fact putting more burden on the healthcare system as a whole." (MoH2)

In addition, participants suggested the proposed SIVP should be complemented with extensive, age-appropriate public education and awareness campaigns about influenza and the influenza vaccine. Some stakeholders specifically indicated school staff as an important target of public education:

"I think teachers in general are knowledgeable, but they may have incorrect ideas from social media, from the negative internet sites etc., on what [...] the true, so-called utility of vaccination [is]. And um, many of them may still subscribe, or are subscribed to alternative medicine. [...] I think that can be further educated, so I think that's the important bit." (PubPD1)

247	In addition, persuading parents and children about the importance of vaccination would be key		
248	to ensuring high vaccination uptake (Figure 1B and 1C):		
249	"I think parents need to be updated, educated, and persuaded. [] Uh, then I guess there		
250	must be education to children, [] so that they understand and don't fear, and they accept.		
251	[] Because if we roll it out and then half the population is absent, then you're stuck again."		
252	(PrivPD1)		
253	Improved levels of public education would also help address potential issues with vaccination-		
254	related adverse events:		
255	"We need to educate people [about] what expected [adverse] events [are]. [] I think we		
256	need to have a good understanding of the background rates of events of interest, and then		
257	when we embark upon this, we will say 'Look, it is still a background rate'. Or, if [the rate] is		
258	increased, we know it's supposed to be increased to this amount, and no more. [] That's		
259	what I mean by anticipation. [] If we do vaccinate this number of people, we publicly tell		
260	people, we will probably see an increase in certain events for a while." (PubPD1)		
261	Funding		
262	Stakeholders generally concurred that an opt out programme with free or subsidised vaccination		
263	would be the most likely to achieve high vaccine coverage (Figure 1C). If parents were asked to		
264	bear the cost of vaccination, a subsidy would help to increase the programme's acceptability:		
265	"At the end of the day, I think it should be the parents who bear the cost, but of course some		
266	perks will always entice parents, you know. [] If you give them some form of subsidy, []		
267	maybe [they will not] feel sober about the payment then." (PP3)		
268	A free or subsidised SIVP would also make access to vaccination more equitable (Figure 1C):		
269	"If you [] say 'okay, we want you to pay for [the vaccine]', [it] may be difficult for those in		
270	the lower socioeconomic groups. And then that can create a sort of a two-tier system, and		
271	parents are going to feel bad because they can't afford to pay for that for their child. [] So		

272	if you want to offer [the vaccine] in schools, I suspect that you either need to make it very
273	cheap or free." (GP1)
274	Different interviewees suggested that the funding mechanism for the vaccine would also depend
275	on the choice of consent model (Figure 1C):
276	"Once [the programme] is opt out, then actually the government should pay. If it is going to
277	be opt in, then probably the consumer." (PriPD4)
278	Some stakeholders recognised that vaccination of large paediatric cohorts may substantially
279	reduce the cost per dose of the vaccine. Nonetheless, a common worry among study participants
280	was that a seasonal SIVP may consume a large amount of financial resources, stripping other,
281	perhaps more important healthcare priorities of funding:
282	"So, if such a big amount of funding [is] poured into vaccination, [] funding [for] other
283	diseases, prevention, all that, might be much less. And I fear that the impact to other sides
284	may be ignored." (PY3)
285	For this reason, one representative from MoH recommended that the local need for a SIVP be
286	carefully evaluated in relation to other areas of healthcare, and its value reassessed periodically:
287	"[An] influenza school-based programme [] may not run effectively after like two to three
288	years down the road. Yeah, so that is a time where you need to evaluate again whether a
289	school-based programme is still useful to keep." (MoH3)
290	Benefits and negative impacts of SIVP
291	The majority of participants viewed a SIVP as the most effective way to increase influenza vaccine
292	coverage in the paediatric population in Singapore:
293	"I think it is going to be effective, because [] access gets much easier. Because one of the
294	things parents have to do is take their children out of the school and, you know, they have to
295	make appointments to come to the hospitals []. Giving [the vaccine] at school might help.
296	[] It [will] improve [] uptake." (PD03)

From the perspective of parents, major barriers to vaccinating children include the inconvenience of attending yearly vaccination appointments, as well as overly complicated reimbursement procedures for the cost of the vaccine. In addition, time constraints during patient consultations currently prevent general practitioners from promoting and administering the influenza vaccine in their practice:

"Because we are so busy, sometimes we don't even have time to manage the medical problems per se. So preventive medicine is not [a priority]. Not just the influenza, even the pneumococcal and cervical cancer vaccinations. [...] If we have 30 minutes with one patient to go through all their medical problems, definitely by right we need to do the preventive care part right. But [...] it is a time issue." (PY06)

Participants perceived the proposed SIVP as a useful tool to help overcome these specific barriers. Most interviewees acknowledged that increased vaccination coverage would significantly reduce the health and healthcare burden due to influenza through both direct protection of school children and indirect protection among their unvaccinated contacts:

"[High vaccine coverage] does provide a certain proportion of herd immunity. Because all these kids are in the community. So [vaccination] protect[s] against [influenza] at home, in school, in public places." (PY2)

This would ultimately reduce school and work absenteeism among children and adults, respectively. However, not all participants agreed that increasing influenza vaccine uptake among children would be necessary in Singapore. Some participants expressed low confidence in the vaccine's effectiveness:

"We need to have a better vaccine. Despite the very high rates of vaccination in developed countries, you still got thousands of influenza cases and hundreds of deaths [...]. If we had a vaccine of [higher] quality, then I think people would line up to get it, and it could justify [...] funding it publicly." (IDS1)

The misconception that influenza vaccination is only required before travelling overseas was common among parents, and reflected in GPs' vaccine recommendation practices. Some participants suggested a seasonal SIVP may help curb such misconceptions by increasing public education and awareness of influenza and the influenza vaccine, because "if you [vaccinate] in schools, it forces people to think about it." (GP1)

However, one concern raised by participants was the possibility that parents may then direct questions about the influenza vaccine to school staff, rather than medically qualified healthcare professionals. As one polyclinic doctor suggested, this would require a proposed SIVP to include "dedicated, trained personnel" (PY6) to address parents' queries.

In addition, the negative publicity arising from vaccination adverse events was indicated as one possible negative impact of a proposed SIVP:

"By the same token of [a SIVP] being a very visible event, any negative impact would also be a very visible event." (PubPD1)

This might cause unwarranted worry among the public, likely putting "the whole concept of vaccination [in] negative light." (PubPD4)

Discussion

This study evaluated the feasibility and acceptability of a seasonal SIVP in Singapore. Key stakeholders indicated a number of logistical and financial challenges to the implementation of a proposed SIVP, and suggested its feasibility would be highest in primary and/or secondary schools. Successful involvement of key stakeholders would require extensive public education campaigns, as well as the development of an evidence-based, locally relevant rationale that justifies the introduction of a SIVP in Singapore. An opt out programme with free or subsidised vaccination would achieve the highest coverage and ensure equitable access to vaccination.

While the existing evidence demonstrates that the introduction of seasonal SIVPs can have substantial health [4-10,26-28] and economic [29,30] benefits for the wider community, this and

previous studies [15,31–37] suggest that the successful implementation of such programmes may depend on more qualitative, context-specific aspects. A review of SIVPs in high-income countries identified considerable administrative and logistical challenges to the successful delivery of vaccines in schools, including the choice of organisational and funding models, the logistics of vaccine supply and distribution, issues around staff capacity and workload, and communication with parents and students [35]. The rationale for introducing school-based vaccination and the choice of vaccine target groups were indicated as main determinants of programme effectiveness [35]. The preference for vaccination in older children expressed by stakeholders in this study is challenged by current influenza vaccine recommendations in Singapore, which only include children aged five years and below [38]. The rationale underlying this recommendation is based on young children's high vulnerability to influenza infection and influenza-related complications [2,39], as well as their key role as influenza transmitters in the community [39]. However, simulation models show that school-aged children can also play a leading role in propagating influenza outbreaks [40], and that targeted vaccination of children in this age group can have the greatest impact on reducing transmission during epidemics [40]. Accordingly, influenza transmission rates have been shown to fluctuate with school opening and closure periods [41,42]. There is substantial evidence of indirect protective benefits to unvaccinated groups from vaccinating school-aged children [4–10,26–28,43–50]. However, the majority of evidence on the impact and cost-effectiveness of seasonal SIVPs comes from studies in North America and Europe, which have different vaccine financing mechanisms and influenza epidemiology compared to Singapore. Few studies have been conducted in tropical settings, which have the added complication of experiencing biannual transmission seasons. A comprehensive assessment of the influenza burden and transmission patterns among young age groups would be essential to understand children's role in propagating influenza in the local context and develop a locally relevant rationale for the implementation of a seasonal SIVP. In Singapore, an integrated national

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

influenza surveillance programme administered by the MoH includes community surveillance of

acute respiratory infections through public hospitals and polyclinics, virological surveillance of influenza viruses, veterinary surveillance of poultry and bird populations, and external surveillance of regional and global infectious disease incidents [51]. However, there are no dedicated influenza surveillance mechanisms that capture disease and transmission patterns specifically in children.

Most participants were forthcoming during the IDIs, and individual stakeholders demonstrated a deep understanding of issues related to influenza and the influenza vaccine. However, our study population displayed a general disinterest in the topic of influenza vaccination. Parents were only marginally interested in discussing a potential SIVP, and did not engage in more detailed conversations on issues directly relevant to them, such as consent procedures or child well-being on the day of vaccination. No new themes emerged among parents after four interviews. Factors potentially increasing parents' willingness to consent to a SIVP mostly emerged from IDIs with preschool principals and GPs. Parents' inertia towards influenza vaccination and a proposed SIVP is in contrast to previous findings from the USA, showing that parents who are relatively knowledgeable with regards to influenza and the influenza vaccine can be very cognizant of the public health benefits associated with SIVPs [14,52]. Misconceptions on influenza and the influenza vaccine, such as the belief that the vaccine is only required before travel, were common among all stakeholder groups. One participant pointed to the need to quantify and compare the intensity of influenza transmission in schools versus other locations in the community, in order to justify nation-wide vaccination of school children. However, the view that vaccination should occur where transmission is most intense is misguided, because an immunised individual exposed to influenza might be protected regardless of where vaccination occurred. The observed indifference and misinformation in our study population reflect the need for more comprehensive, targeted education and awareness efforts among providers and the public in Singapore.

Limitations

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

Representatives of the Ministry of Education (MoE) and Early Childhood Development Agency were not available to participate in this study. This prevented a more thorough investigation of aspects that might be relevant to the educational sector, such as the potential disruption of lessons or reduced absenteeism at schools. We were also unable to include stakeholders from the primary school sector, which is overseen and centrally managed by the MoE. This study does not include the perspectives of non-English speaking stakeholders. However, the vast majority of young parents and all other stakeholder groups included in this study are fluent in English in Singapore. Because we did not interview parents of children older than seven years, we were unable to corroborate other stakeholders' statements on parental acceptance of vaccination in the primary and/or secondary school setting, or parents' concerns about potential side effects among older children. Finally, our sample of healthcare professionals, parents, and teachers might be skewed towards pro-vaccine individuals, or those who are generally more interested in vaccine-related topics. Thus, the opinions and attitudes expressed in this analysis may reflect those of stakeholders who are more supportive of vaccination.

Conclusions

Understanding context-specific barriers and facilitators of childhood influenza vaccination can help shape interventions to increase influenza vaccine coverage among young children. This study evaluated the feasibility and acceptability of a seasonal SIVP in Singapore, providing essential evidence to inform policy for future programmes. Overall, participants were supportive of a proposed seasonal SIVP in Singapore. However, a better informed, evidence-based rationale is required to gain full support across stakeholder groups and estimate the programme's impact in Singapore.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all participants for their time and effort in this study, and all field workers for their participation during data collection.

426	
427	Declarations of Competing Interests
428	None
429	
430	Contribution to Authorship
431	All authors attest they meet the ICMJE criteria for authorship. CCT conceived the idea for this
432	study and provided input for data collection, as well as analysis and interpretation of findings.
433	ML, SS and VO collected the data. VO conducted the analysis. GK provided expert advice during
434	data analysis and interpretation of research findings. CCT and VO wrote the manuscript. All
435	authors contributed to critically revising the manuscript and approved the final article.
436	
437	Details of ethics approval
438	The study was approved by the National University of Singapore Institutional Review Board on
439	March 6th, 2017 (reference number: B-16-232).
440	
441	Funding
442	This study was supported by the Singapore Ministry of Education Academic Research Fund (MOE
443	AcRF) Tier 1 Grant (FY2015). The funding source was not involved in study design, data
444	collection, data analysis, interpretation of research findings, or manuscript completion and
445	submission.
446	
447	Colour figures
448	For Figure 1, colour scale is required online, but not in print.

References

449

450	[1]	Troeger CE, Blacker BF, Khalil IA, Zimsen SRM, Albertson SB, Abate D, et al. Mortality,
451		morbidity, and hospitalisations due to influenza lower respiratory tract infections, 2017:
452		an analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet Respir Med 2019;7:69-
453		89. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(18)30496-X.
454	[2]	Lafond KE, Nair H, Rasooly MH, Valente F, Booy R, Rahman M, et al. Global Role and
455		Burden of Influenza in Pediatric Respiratory Hospitalizations, 1982-2012: A Systematic
456		Analysis. PLoS Med 2016;13:e1001977. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001977
457	[3]	World Health Organization. Vaccines against influenza. WHO position paper November
458		2012.
459		http://www.who.int/immunization/position_papers/PP_influenza_november2012_sum
460		mary.pdf (accessed May 25, 2019).
461	[4]	Pannaraj PS, Wang HL, Rivas H, Wiryawan H, Smit M, Green N, et al. School-located
462		influenza vaccination decreases laboratory-confirmed influenza and improves school
463		attendance. Clin Infect Dis 2014;59:325–32.
464	[5]	Gattas VL, Cardoso MRA, Mondini G, Machado CM, Luna EJA. Effectiveness of influenza
465		vaccination of schoolchildren in the city of Sao Paulo, Brazil, 2009. Influenza Other Respi
466		Viruses 2015. https://doi.org/10.1111/irv.12328.
467	[6]	Brousseau N, Green HK, Andrews N, Pryse R, Baguelin M, Sunderland A, et al. Impact of
468		influenza vaccination on respiratory illness rates in children attending private boarding
469		schools in England, 2013-2014: a cohort study. Epidemiol Infect 2015;143:3405–15.
470		https://doi.org/10.1017/s0950268815000667.
471	[7]	Pebody RG, Green HK, Andrews N, Zhao H, Boddington N, Bawa Z, et al. Uptake and
472		impact of a new live attenuated influenza vaccine programme in England: early results of
473		a pilot in primary school-age children, 2013/14 influenza season. Euro Surveill 2014;19.

474 [8] Tran CH, Sugimoto JD, Pulliam JR, Ryan KA, Myers PD, Castleman JB, et al. School-located 475 influenza vaccination reduces community risk for influenza and influenza-like illness 476 emergency care visits. PLoS One 2014;9:e114479. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0114479. 477 478 Cowling BJ, Chan K-H, Feng S, Chan ELY, Lo JYC, Peiris JSM, et al. The effectiveness of [9] 479 influenza vaccination in preventing hospitalizations in children in Hong Kong, 2009-2013. Vaccine 2014;32:5278-84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.07.084. 480 481 [10] Helmeke C, Gräfe L, Irmscher H-M, Gottschalk C, Karagiannis I, Oppermann H. 482 Effectiveness of the 2012/13 Trivalent Live and Inactivated Influenza Vaccines in 483 Children and Adolescents in Saxony-Anhalt, Germany: A Test-Negative Case-Control Study. PLoS One 2015;10:e0122910. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0122910. 484 485 Yin JK, Heywood AE, Georgousakis M, King C, Chiu C, Isaacs D, et al. Systematic review [11] 486 and meta-analysis of indirect protection afforded by vaccinating children against 487 seasonal influenza: implications for policy. Clin Infect Dis 2017;65:719–28. 488 https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cix420. 489 Tsang TK, Fang VJ, Ip DKM, Perera RAPM, So HC, Leung GM, et al. Indirect protection from [12] 490 vaccinating children against influenza in households. Nat Commun 2019;10:106. 491 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-08036-6. 492 [13] Brown DS, Arnold SE, Asay G, Lorick SA, Cho B-H, Basurto-Davila R, et al. Parent attitudes 493 about school-located influenza vaccination clinics. Vaccine 2014;32:1043-8. 494 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.01.003. 495 Middleman AB, Short MB, Doak JS. Focusing on flu: Parent perspectives on school-located [14] 496 immunization programs for influenza vaccine. Hum Vaccin Immunother 2012;8:1395-497 400. https://doi.org/10.4161/hv.21575. 498 Lind C, Russell ML, MacDonald J, Collins R, Frank CJ, Davis AE. School-based influenza [15]

199		vaccination: parents' perspectives. PLoS One 2014;9:e93490.
500		https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0093490.
501	[16]	Gargano LM, Weiss P, Underwood NL, Seib K, Sales JM, Vogt TM, et al. School-Located
502		Vaccination Clinics for Adolescents: Correlates of Acceptance Among Parents. J
503		Community Health 2014;40:660-9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10900-014-9982-z.
504	[17]	Ang LW, Tien WS, Lin RT-P, Cui L, Cutter J, James L, et al. Characterization of influenza
505		activity based on virological surveillance of influenza-like illness in tropical Singapore,
506		2010-2014. J Med Virol 2016;88:2069-77. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.24566.
507	[18]	Low MSF, Tan H, Hartman M, Tam CC, Hoo C, Lim J, et al. Parental perceptions of
508		childhood seasonal influenza vaccination in Singapore: A cross-sectional survey. Vaccino
509		2017;35:6096–102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2017.09.060.
510	[19]	Ang LW, Cutter J, James L, Goh KT. Factors associated with influenza vaccine uptake in
511		older adults living in the community in Singapore. Epidemiol Infect 2017;145:775–86.
512		https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268816002491.
513	[20]	Zahari M, Offeddu V, Tam C. Uptake and determinants of pneumococcal vaccine among
514		children attending child care centres in Singapore 2018. 2nd International Meeting on
515		Respiratory Pathogens. International Society for Influenza and Other Respiratory Virus
516		Diseases.
517	[21]	Guest G, Bunce A, Johnson L. How Many Interviews Are Enough? Field Methods
518		2006;18:59-82. https://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X05279903.
519	[22]	Hennink MM, Kaiser BN, Marconi VC. Code Saturation Versus Meaning Saturation: How
520		Many Interviews Are Enough? Qual Health Res 2017;27:591–608.
521		https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732316665344.
522	[23]	Saunders B, Sim J, Kingstone T, Baker S, Waterfield J, Bartlam B, et al. Saturation in
523		qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. Qual Quant

24		2018;52:1893–907. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8.
525	[24]	Fusch P, Ness L. Are We There Yet? Data Saturation in Qualitative Research. Qual Rep
526		2015;20.
527	[25]	QSR International. nVIVO Software n.d. https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo/what-
528		is-nvivo (accessed May 2, 2019).
529	[26]	Esposito S, Marchisio P, Cavagna R, Gironi S, Bosis S, Lambertini L, et al. Effectiveness of
530		influenza vaccination of children with recurrent respiratory tract infections in reducing
531		respiratory-related morbidity within the households. Vaccine 2003;21:3162–8.
532	[27]	Hurwitz ES, Haber M, Chang A, Shope T, Teo S, Ginsberg M, et al. Effectiveness of
533		influenza vaccination of day care children in reducing influenza-related morbidity among
534		household contacts. JAMA 2000;284:1677-82.
535	[28]	Principi N, Esposito S, Marchisio P, Gasparini R, Crovari P. Socioeconomic impact of
536		influenza on healthy children and their families. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2003;22:S207-10.
537		https://doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000092188.48726.e4.
538	[29]	Meeyai A, Praditsitthikorn N, Kotirum S, Kulpeng W, Putthasri W, Cooper BS, et al.
539		Seasonal influenza vaccination for children in Thailand: a cost-effectiveness analysis.
540		PLoS Med 2015;12:e1001829; discussion e1001829.
541		https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001829.
542	[30]	Pitman RJ, Nagy LD, Sculpher MJ. Cost-effectiveness of childhood influenza vaccination in
543		England and Wales: Results from a dynamic transmission model. Vaccine 2013;31:927–
544		42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.12.010.
545	[31]	Kang GJ, Culp RK, Abbas KM. Facilitators and barriers of parental attitudes and beliefs
546		toward school-located influenza vaccination in the United States: Systematic review.
547		Vaccine 2017;35:1987-95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2017.03.014.
548	[32]	MacDougall D, Crowe L, Pereira JA, Kwong JC, Quach S, Wormsbecker AE, et al. Parental

549		perceptions of school-based influenza immunisation in Ontario, Canada: a qualitative
550		study. BMJ Open 2014;4:e005189. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2014-005189.
551	[33]	Middleman AB, Tung JS. Urban middle school parent perspectives: the vaccines they are
552		willing to have their children receive using school-based immunization programs. J
553		Adolesc Health 2010;47:249-53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2010.01.009.
554	[34]	Williams V, Rousculp MD, Price M, Coles T, Therrien M, Griffin J, et al. Elementary school-
555		located influenza vaccine programs: key stakeholder experiences from initiation to
556		continuation. J Sch Nurs 2012;28:256-67. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059840512438776.
557	[35]	Perman S, Turner S, Ramsay AIG, Baim-Lance A, Utley M, Fulop NJ. School-based
558		vaccination programmes: a systematic review of the evidence on organisation and
559		delivery in high income countries. BMC Public Health 2017;17:252.
560		https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-017-4168-0.
561	[36]	Middleman AB, Tung JS. School-located immunization programs: do parental preferences
562		predict behavior? Vaccine 2011;29:3513-6.
563		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2011.02.101.
564	[37]	Offutt-Powell TN, Ojha RP, Qualls-Hampton R, Stonecipher S, Singh KP, Cardarelli KM.
565		Parental risk perception and influenza vaccination of children in daycare centres.
566		Epidemiol Infect 2014;142:134-41.
667	[38]	HealthHub-Singapore Minstry of Health. Flu vaccination 2019.
568		https://www.healthhub.sg/a-z/diseases-and-conditions/103/topics_influenza#7
569		(accessed May 22, 2019).
570	[39]	Viboud C, Boëlle PY, Cauchemez S, Lavenu A, Valleron AJ, Flahault A, et al. Risk factors of
571		influenza transmission in households. Br J Gen Pract 2004;54:684–9.
572	[40]	Worby CJ, Chaves SS, Wallinga J, Lipsitch M, Finelli L, Goldstein E. On the relative role of
573		different age groups in influenza epidemics. Epidemics 2015;13:10-6.

574 [41] Huang KE, Lipsitch M, Shaman J, Goldstein E. The US 2009 A(H1N1) influenza epidemic: 575 quantifying the impact of school openings on the reproductive number. Epidemiology 576 2014;25:203-6. https://doi.org/10.1097/EDE.000000000000055. 577 Ali S, Cowling B, Lau E, Fang V, Leung G. Mitigation of Influenza B epidemic with school [42] 578 closures, Hong Kong, 2018. Emerg Infect Dis 2018;24:2071–3. 579 https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2411.180612. 580 [43] Gattás VL, Cardoso MRA, Mondini G, Machado CM, Luna EJA. Effectiveness of influenza 581 vaccination of schoolchildren in the city of São Paulo, Brazil, 2009. Influenza Other Respi 582 Viruses 2015;9:323-30. 583 [44] King Jr. JC, Cummings GE, Stoddard J, Readmond BX, Magder LS, Stong M, et al. A pilot 584 study of the effectiveness of a school-based influenza vaccination program. Pediatrics 585 2005;116:e868-73. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2005-1301. 586 King Jr. JC, Stoddard JJ, Gaglani MJ, Moore KA, Magder L, McClure E, et al. Effectiveness of [45] 587 school-based influenza vaccination. N Engl J Med 2006;355:2523-32. 588 https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa055414. 589 Pebody RG, Warburton F, Ellis J, Andrews N, Thompson C, von Wissmann B, et al. Low [46] 590 effectiveness of seasonal influenza vaccine in preventing laboratory-confirmed influenza 591 in primary care in the United Kingdom: 2014/15 mid-season results. Euro Surveill 592 2015;20:21025. 593 [47] Piedra PA, Gaglani MJ, Kozinetz CA, Herschler GB, Fewlass C, Harvey D, et al. Trivalent 594 live attenuated intranasal influenza vaccine administered during the 2003-2004 595 influenza type A (H3N2) outbreak provided immediate, direct, and indirect protection in 596 children. Pediatrics 2007;120:e553-64. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2006-2836. 597 [48] Glezen WP. Herd protection against influenza. J Clin Virol 2006;37:237-43. 598 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcv.2006.08.020.

599	[49]	Davis MM, King Jr. JC, Moag L, Cummings G, Magder LS. Countywide school-based
600		influenza immunization: direct and indirect impact on student absenteeism. Pediatrics
601		2008;122:e260-5. https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2007-2963.
602	[50]	Hull HF, O'Connor H. Optimizing protection against influenza in children eligible for the
603		vaccine for children program. Pediatr Infect Dis J 2010;29:910-4.
604		https://doi.org/10.1097/INF.0b013e3181e05579.
605	[51]	Singapore Ministry of Health. MOH pandemic readiness and response plan for influenza
606		and other acute respiratory diseases 2014.
607		https://www.moh.gov.sg/docs/librariesprovider5/diseases-updates/interim-pandemic
608		plan-public-verapril-2014.pdf (accessed May 22, 2019).
609	[52]	Middleman AB, Short MB, Doak JS. School-located influenza immunization programs:
610		Factors important to parents and students. Vaccine 2012;30:4993–9.
611		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.05.022.
612		

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Main Themes Three main themes emerging from in-depth interviews with stakeholders, including A) Logistics, B) Stakeholder engagement, and C) funding; trapezoids: challenges to implementation of a seasonal school-based influenza vaccination programme in Singapore; ovals: stakeholders' suggestions to overcome these challenges; rectangles: possible outcomes if specific suggestions were followed.

619 **Tables**

620

Table 1. Number of participants interviewed in this study by stakeholder group

Stakeholder group	Acronym	Number of interviewees
Ministry of Health	МоН	3
Health Promotion Boarda	НРВ	7
Public hospital infectious disease specialists	IDS	2
Public hospital paediatricians	PubPD	4
Private paediatricians	PriPD	4
Private general practitioners	GP	5
Polyclinic _b doctor	PY	6
Preschool principals	PP	5
Parents of children aged 18 months to 7 years	Par	4
Total		40

- $^{\rm a}$ Health promotion agency of the Singapore government, responsible for delivery of routine
- 622 immunisations in primary schools
- 623 b Government clinic providing subsidised outpatient care, health screenings and pharmacy
- 624 services