

# Effects of Vaccine Health and Safety Perceptions on COVID-19 Vaccine Uptake in Ghana: Implications for Implementing Rollout Programs

**Simon Appah Aram**

Taiyuan University of Technology

**John Elvis Hagan Jr**

University of Cape Coast

**George Kweku Afriyie Mansoh**

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

**Benjamin M. Saalidong**

Taiyuan University of Technology

**Patrick Osei Lartey**

Taiyuan University of Technology

**Bright Opoku Ahinkorah**

University of Technology Sydney

**Abdul-Aziz Seidu** (✉ [abdul-aziz.seidu@stu.ucc.edu.gh](mailto:abdul-aziz.seidu@stu.ucc.edu.gh))

University of Cape Coast <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9734-9054>

**Edward Kwabena Ameyaw**

University of Technology Sydney

**Augustine Appiah**

Taiyuan University of Technology

**Divine Worlanyor Hotor**

Water Research Institute

**Justice Gyimah**

Taiyuan University of Technology

---

## Research

**Keywords:** Ghana, health, mandatory vaccination, safety, voluntary vaccination, vaccine uptake

**Posted Date:** October 22nd, 2021

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-952497/v1>

**License:**  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

---

# Abstract

## Background

A major component of rolled-out COVID-19 pandemic response and preparedness is the administration of vaccines. Globally, resistance towards vaccination programs are well known and documented. This study sought to evaluate the effects of general vaccine health perceptions and the confidence in COVID-19 vaccine safety towards uptake in Ghana.

## Methods

A cross sectional online survey involving 620 Ghanaians was conducted. The data was subjected to both descriptive (frequency, percentages, and chi-square tests) and inferential (nested binary logistic regression) analyses.

## Results

The preliminary findings showed that 80.32% of participants believed that vaccines were healthy and 73.06% had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety, although 81.19% of the respondents were particularly concerned about the source of the vaccine. Other evidence revealed that 78.55% and 71.45% of respondents indicated their willingness for mandatory and voluntary COVID-19 vaccine uptake or shot respectively. In all operationalized regression models, Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and those who had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were more likely to take a mandatory or voluntary COVID-19 vaccine compared to those who thought and believed otherwise.

## Conclusion

Individual preferences and/or intentions toward COVID-19 vaccine uptake and uptake route (i.e., mandatory, voluntary) were influenced by multifaceted determinants: biosocial (age, marital status, education), socio-cultural (religion) and contextual (geographical zone, source of vaccine as a concern) factors. To consolidate and possibly increase vaccine uptake in response to the COVID-19 pandemic in Ghana, health education and promotion programs should aim at creating awareness on the benefits of vaccine uptake while addressing the health and safety concerns on the potential side effects through evidence-based community messaging from credible sources. It is important to show specific commitment to transparency and reliable information to build public trust by decision-makers.

## Background

The novel coronavirus, declared a global pandemic by the World Health Organization, came with many uncertainties regarding its' origin, nature and course [1]. The pandemic has seen nations roll out pandemic response and preparedness, the major components being the administration of vaccines [2]. Governments globally imposed lockdowns, physical distancing, regular washing of hands and mandatory wearing of nose masks all as part of measures to halt the spread of the coronavirus [3, 4]. As part of global effort to save lives, there was an unprecedented effort worldwide to find an effective vaccine against the pandemic. Given the scale of its severity, the development phase of a potential vaccine was expected to be preceded by large-scale vaccination programs in order to attain herd immunity against the virus [5].

Finding an effective and safe vaccine for COVID-19 would certainly be of great value to the fight against the pandemic. However, as the vaccines become available to the populace, there are concerns on the uptake of these vaccines even as governments tend to prioritize health workers and other selected groups for the vaccination program [5]. In the event that there are enough vaccines in circulation, it does not automatically correspond to its acceptance by the public. The acceptance and usage of Anti-H1N1 vaccine in 2009 was low [6]. The willingness to accept or reject vaccination is a major factor for the success of any vaccination program. It would be interesting to know the general reaction of the populace towards voluntary or mandatory vaccine uptake. Neumann-Böhme et al. [5] observed a varying response to the willingness to accept COVID-19 vaccine in some parts of Europe. Although many respondents reacted positively to vaccination, not all were in agreement. A model of determinants of vaccine hesitancy influences vaccine acceptance. Based on this premise, various explanations have been cited to influence a person's decision to accept or reject a COVID-19 vaccine [5, 7, 8, 9].

First is vaccine hesitancy, which is a behaviour influenced by issues of confidence, complacency and convenience. Vaccine hesitant individuals are a mixed group of people who hold varying degrees of indecision about vaccination or specific ones [9]. Among individuals who have shown resistance to vaccination programs could be influenced by a variety of serious considerations that are not about competing biological risks [2]. Most of these considerations are much of social, economic, religious, or moral beliefs. Additionally, trust in the effectiveness and safety of vaccines as well as the health delivery system, including the reliability and competence of the health system and policy makers who decide which vaccines are major issues. A divergent opinion has always been observed in communities who feel unrepresented by authorities in policy making and thus lack confidence in authorities that makes decision regarding vaccination. These peculiar issues define vaccine confidence, which exists on a continuum and determines an individual's decision to accept a vaccine [9]. Vaccine complacency exists where perceived risks of vaccine preventable infections are low and vaccination is not seen as necessary preventive action. This tendency can be influenced by under-appreciation of the value of vaccine or lack of knowledge [9].

Vaccine convenience, which also affects decision to vaccinate, bothers on the quality of the service, real or perceived and the degree to which vaccination services are delivered at a time and location and in a way that is considered appealing, affordable, convenient and comfortable [9, 10, 11]. Vaccine decision making by a populace is a complex process with many factors directly or indirectly affecting such decisions with some more important in certain contexts, experience and circumstances [10, 12, 13]. There has been proven records to show that there exists a gap between intention and actual behaviour to get vaccinated. In Germany for example, a study showed that willingness to take Influenza vaccine was about 45% whilst the actual intake was about 9.4% [14,

15]. Vaccine acceptance among general population can be associated with perceived risk of the COVID-19 vaccine, side effects, religious beliefs and level of education among other factors.

For a vaccination program to be effective, it depends on wide vaccine uptake even for high efficacy vaccines. Therefore, it is important to understand the various factors that affect a person's willingness to get vaccinated or otherwise to establish effective public health strategies [16, 17]. Previous studies on vaccine acceptance [see 18, 19] were conducted in the pre-pandemic stage when no COVID-19 vaccines were available and mainly focused on frontline healthcare professionals. Those literature may not provide a good indication of vaccine uptake because of changing public perceptions of the pandemic and the available vaccines as the situation evolves [20]. No studies have been conducted in Ghana to ascertain the extent to which the general populace will accept a COVID-19 vaccine. It will be useful to understand the Ghanaian view on the current COVID-19 vaccination for the management and response of the outbreak.. This study investigates the effects of vaccine health and safety perceptions on COVID-19 vaccine uptake in the Ghanaian context. Findings from the study will help in the implementation of health education and promotion programs that create awareness on the benefits of vaccine uptake while addressing the health and safety concerns on the potential side effects through evidence-based community messaging from credible sources.

## Materials And Methods

### Data Collection and Sampling Procedure

A cross sectional survey was employed in this study between January and March 2021. The questionnaire was administered through social media sources such as Twitter, Facebook and WhatsApp using google forms. Convenience sampling was used to select volunteered participants for this study. A pilot study was conducted by the research team among 60 selected Ghanaians to pre-test the questionnaire. The pilot study was to improve the content of the questionnaire by contextualizing it to better fit the purpose of the study. In all, 620 responses were received and used for this study based on a 95% confidence interval and at a 4% error rate.

### Study Variables

#### Outcome Variables

The outcome variables for this study were "Taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine" and "Taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine. For each of these variables, respondents were asked if (1) they were willing to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine and (2) they were willing to voluntarily take a COVID-19 vaccine. Response were given as "Yes" and "No" for each question.

#### Key Predictors

The key predictors were "Belief that vaccines are healthy" and "Confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine". Participants were asked if they (1) believed that vaccines were generally healthy and (2) had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety. A response of "Yes" for any of the two questions meant that the participant believed that vaccines were generally healthy and also a potential COVID-19 vaccine was safe. A "No" response implied otherwise.

#### Compositional and Contextual Variables

The compositional attributes in this case were the biosocial and sociocultural factors of the respondents. This included gender (male, female), age (18-24, 25-34, 35-50), marital status (single, married), educational level (No formal, Senior High, Tertiary), employment status (No, Yes), religion (Christianity, Islam, Others) and concern about vaccine source (No, Yes). The contextual factor in this study referred to geographical location of participants. Ghana was divided into three zones; Northern zone (Northern, Upper East, Upper West, Savannah and North East Regions), Middle zone (Ashanti, Ahafo, Oti, Western North, Bono East and Bono Regions) and the Southern zone (Western, Central, Greater Accra, Eastern and Volta Regions).

#### Data Analysis

The data analyses were done using Stata 15 MP (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA) at a statistical significance of 0.05 and at a confidence interval of 95%. Descriptive analysis was used to examine the distribution of characteristics of respondents, vaccine health and safety perception and COVID-19 vaccine uptake. Univariate, bivariate and nested logistic regression statistical techniques were employed to assess associations between the dependent variables ("taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine" and "taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine") and the explanatory variables. Four models were run; key predictors (model 1), biosocial (model 2), socio-cultural (model 3), and contextual (model 4).

## Results

### Demographic Characteristics of Respondents, Vaccine Health and Safety Perceptions and COVID-19 Vaccine Uptake

Table 1 shows the descriptive results. Male participants were 53.06% while female participants were 46.94%. Most of the respondents were aged 25-34 (57.74%). Participants who believed that vaccines were healthy were 80.32% while the remaining 19.68% believed that vaccines were not healthy. Also 73.06% had confidence in the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine. However, 81.19% of the respondents were particularly concerned about the source of the vaccine. As shown in Fig. 1, 78.55% of respondents indicated they will take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine while the remaining 21.45% indicated they will not take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine. Also, 71.45% of participants indicated they will take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot while the remaining 28.55% gave a dissented response. The reason why most of the participants were aged 18-34, had a tertiary education, were single and from the Southern zone is supported by the use of online survey in this study, where majority of those who responded to the surveys had access to social media platforms. Few older, married, those with no formal education and those in the Northern part of Ghana may not have access to social media platforms.

## ***Distribution of Taking a Mandatory and Voluntary COVID-19 Shot by Predictor Variables***

Table 2 presents Pearson's chi-square test of independence. Pearson's chi-square test was used to determine whether the observed differences in taking a mandatory shot and voluntary shot and, biosocial, as well as sociocultural and contextual factors were independent. For mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot, belief that vaccine is healthy ( $\chi^2 = 150.3731, p < 0.001$ ) and having confidence in COVID-19 vaccine safety ( $\chi^2 = 219.4854, p < 0.001$ ) had statistically significant association with mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. For the biosocial factors, Gender and age had no statistically significant association with taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Of the sociocultural factors, religion ( $\chi^2 = 8.1482, p \leq 0.05$ ) and vaccine source ( $\chi^2 = 9.2048, p \leq 0.005$ ) had statistically significant association with taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Country zones ( $\chi^2 = 9.2048, p < 0.001$ ) was statistically significant with taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. For voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot, also in Table 2, belief that vaccine is healthy ( $\chi^2 = 125.9256, p < 0.001$ ) and having confidence in COVID-19 vaccine safety ( $\chi^2 = 278.9495, p < 0.001$ ) had statistically significant association with voluntarily taking COVID-19 vaccine shot. Among the sociocultural factors, only religion ( $\chi^2 = 10.9674, p < 0.05$ ) had statistically significant association with voluntarily taking a COVID-19 vaccine shot. Further, country zones ( $\chi^2 = 9.9530, p < 0.005$ ) also demonstrated statistically significant difference with taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot.

## **Bivariate Logistic Regression of Taking Mandatory COVID-19 Vaccine Shot and Predictor Variables**

For the key predictors in the bivariate analysis in Table 3, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were statistically significant in predicting taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and Ghanaians who had confidence in the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine were 4.580 and 5.617 times respectively more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Also, Ghanaians who were above 50 years were 1.588 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to their 18-24 years counterparts. Likewise, Muslims were 1.415 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to Christians. Ghanaians from the middle and northern zones were 1.759 and 2.230 times more probable to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those from the southern zone respectively.

## **Bivariate Logistic Regression of Taking Voluntary COVID-19 Vaccine Shot and Predictor Variables**

From Table 3, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine were statistically significant in predicting taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot. Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and had confidence in the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine were 4.673 and 9.420 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot respectively. Additionally, Ghanaians who were above 50 years were 1.709 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to their 18-24 years counterparts. Counterintuitively, Ghanaians with tertiary education were 38% less likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those with no formal education. Muslims were also 1.364 times more likely to take voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to Christians. Ghanaians from the northern zone were 1.780 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those from the southern zone.

## ***Multivariate Complementary Log-log Regression Model Predicting Taking Mandatory COVID-19 Vaccine Shot in Ghana***

Table 4 is a nested multivariate logistic regression showing the 4 models; key predictors model, biosocial model, sociocultural model and the contextual model for predicting taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot in Ghana. In model 1 (key predictors), belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were statistically significant predictors of taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and Ghanaians who had confidence in the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine were 2.000 and 3.970 times more probable to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot respectively.

In model 2, where biosocial factors were accounted for, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in the vaccine safety were still statistically significant predictors of taking a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Of the biosocial factors, Ghanaians who were between the ages 25-34 years were 1.345 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those who were between 18-24 years.

In model 3, where sociocultural factors were controlled for, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in a COVID vaccine safety were still statistically significant predictors of taking a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Age was still the only predictor among the biosocial factors. Of the sociocultural factors, Muslims were 1.637 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to their Christian counterparts. Likewise,

Ghanaians who were concerned about the source of a COVID-19 vaccine were 1.474 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those who did not care where the vaccine came from.

When the contextual factors were controlled for in model 4, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in the safety of a COVID vaccine were robust and persisted in predicting taking a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot. Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were 1.998 and 4.405 times respectively more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to Ghanaians who did not believe vaccines are healthy and also did not trust the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine. Of the biosocial and sociocultural factors, only age and vaccine source were significant predictors. Ghanaians who were 25-34 years were 1.394 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those who were 18-24 years. Similarly, Ghanaians who were concerned about the source of a potential COVID-19 vaccine were 1.592 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those who were not bothered about the source of a COVID-19 vaccine. For the contextual factor, Ghanaians from the middle zone were 2.334 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those in the southern zone.

## Multivariate Complementary Log-log Regression Model Predicting Taking Voluntary COVID-19 Vaccine Shot in Ghana

Table 5 is also a nested multivariate logistic regression showing the 4 models; key predictors model, biosocial model, sociocultural model and the contextual model for predicting taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot. In model 1 (key predictors), only confidence in COVID-19 vaccine safety was a statistically significant predictor of taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot. In this instance, Ghanaians who had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were 7.872 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot.

When biosocial factors were accounted for in model 2, confidence in vaccine safety was still a statistically significant predictor of taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot. None of the biosocial factors was statistically significant in predicting taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot.

In model 3, where sociocultural factors were controlled for, confidence in vaccine safety was still statistically significant. A new relationship however emerged, indicating mediation by the sociocultural factors. Ghanaians who believed that vaccine is healthy were 1.680 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those believe vaccines are not healthy. None of the biosocial factors were still statistically significant predictors. Among the sociocultural factors, those who were married were 1.450 times more probable to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to their single counterparts. Counterintuitively, Ghanaians with tertiary education were 71% less likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those with no formal education.

When the contextual factors were controlled for in model 4, belief that vaccine is healthy and having confidence in the safety of a covid vaccine were robust and persisted in predicting taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot. Ghanaians who believed that vaccines are healthy and had confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine safety were 1.652 and 8.340 times respectively more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to Ghanaians who did not believe vaccines are healthy and also did not trust the safety of a COVID-19 vaccine. Of the biosocial and sociocultural factors only marital status and education were significant predictors. Ghanaians who were married were 1.438 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to their single counterparts. Counterintuitively, Ghanaians with tertiary education and senior high education were 54% and 74% less likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot as compared to those with no formal education respectively. The contextual factor was not a significant predictor.

## Discussion

A vaccine against COVID-19 has been suggested as an effective strategy to end the pandemic [21, 22]. Despite this epidemiological knowledge, only few studies, especially in sub-Saharan Africa have explicitly investigated perceptions on vaccines and which vaccination approach would yield positive uptake. This contribution investigated the effects of vaccine health and safety perceptions on COVID-19 vaccine uptake in Ghana. Understanding people's perceptions and preferences for COVID-19 vaccination could help guide public health policy measures on the vaccination rollout in the country.

Preliminary findings found evidence that 80.32% and 73.06% of participants believed that vaccines were healthy and safe, although 81.19% of the respondents were particularly concerned about the source of the vaccine. Other evidence revealed that 78.55% and 71.45% of respondents indicated their willingness for mandatory and voluntary COVID-19 vaccine uptake or shot respectively. These observed rates are comparable with other studies (i.e., ranging from 64.7–90.6%) [e.g 23, 24, 25, 26]. Current findings indicate that majority of the studied population are supportive of the COVID-19 vaccine in the country regardless of the uptake approach (either mandatory or voluntary). This pattern observed is not surprising because the study was conducted around the period (i.e., January-March 2021) when the number of COVID-19 cases in Ghana were on a steady rise, thus vaccines were seen as a key strategy to halt the escalation of the COVID19 pandemic. Overall, the observed figures suggest a positive attitude towards COVID-19 vaccination which could hinge on the highly reported pandemic impact across many societies and perceive benefits (e.g., reduce risk) the vaccines may bring.

Although majority of the studied sample will either take mandatory or voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot, small proportions (i.e., 21.45% and 28.55%) were unwilling to take a vaccine shot, perhaps due to safety concerns or vaccine uncertainty. Additionally, two-thirds of the sample also had concern or uncertainty about the source of vaccines. This vaccine hesitancy and concern should be of public health interest because of the potential delays and/or outright refusal of vaccination across the population until the safety of vaccines is confirmed. Previous studies have often cited public concerns as a foremost barrier to vaccination decision making, especially for newly rollout vaccines which have not been ecologically tested [27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32].

Across all the regression models, confidence or belief and safety of vaccines predicted mandatory and/ or voluntary COVID-19 vaccine uptake of the studied Ghanaian population. This finding supports previous studies on public belief or trust on the health and safety or efficacy in the COVID-19 vaccine as relevant

factors that could increase COVID-19 vaccine uptake [e.g., 10, 33, 34, 35]. Current evidence suggests the significance of enhancing public trust and belief in COVID-19 vaccines and improving healthcare services to facilitate considerable vaccine uptake. This goal can be achieved through the use of trusted well-tailored messages on COVID-19 and confidence-building advocacy on identified vaccines through transparency and expectation management [36]. For example, Tam et al. [37] reiterated that worries about vaccines' long term side effects, safety issues and public distrust can lead to vaccine hesitancy. Hence, considerable community level engagements or interactions on vaccine related concerns for appropriate feedback should be done to counteract misinformation and/or disinformation as well as other biases against impending vaccine rollout [34, 38, 39, 40]. According to Schwartz [40], when public trust or confidence associated with COVID-19 vaccination is weak, uptake programs are likely to suffer. Therefore, public messages on the vaccines' safety and continuous monitoring as well as tackling of false information are crucial [38, 41, 42].

Increasing age, religion, and geographical zone increased the odds of COVID-19 vaccine mandatory uptake. This finding mirrors similar trends that identified older people to show more support for mandatory uptake compared to younger cohorts based on an established premise that case-fatality rates increase with age [10, 43]. Alternatively, high perceived vulnerability and/or susceptibility to disease infection often associated with increasing age could also account for the present finding [44].

Consistent with previous studies [e.g., 45, 46], self-reported religious affiliation was identified as significant factor in the determination of mandatory COVID-19 vaccination uptake in the current study. Specifically, Muslims were 1.6 times more likely to take a mandatory COVID-19 vaccine compared to Christians. The observed variation is not surprising because Christian religious concerns about immunization or vaccination date back to antiquity where some individuals prohibited Edward Jenner's 1796 mode of smallpox vaccination as contrary to God's will [47]. Some Christian denominations (e.g., Jehovah Witness) have a strong tradition of declining some health services like blood transfusion, including immunization on the concerns about their adverse effects similar to the happenings after smallpox vaccination during the 18th century. The basis for this objection by members of these denominations includes declining immunization instead of making members less dependent on God [48, 49, 50, 51]. The noted differences in the COVID-19 vaccine uptake between Muslim and Christian groups in the current study might not hinge on their religious beliefs, instead the variations may be reflections on safety and other health concerns [52].

Study participants from the middle zone (e.g., Ashanti, Brong-Ahafo, Western North Regions) of Ghana were 2.3 times more likely to take mandatory COVID-19 vaccine than their counterparts from the southern zone (e.g., Greater Accra, Eastern and Volta Regions). Geo-spatial metrics (e.g., population density) could possibly explain the current observation [53, 54]. Previous research has shown that vaccination rates may suffer amongst varied population groups, especially in areas of deprivation [55, 56, 57]. For example, individuals from less densely populated areas in the middle zone of the country might spend less time or waiting period for a vaccine uptake. Users are likely to perceive that uptake process as less stressful than respondents from highly densely populated areas such as Greater Accra, where access to healthcare services is often compounded by unfriendly and stressful population dynamics (e.g., long queues, huge traffic congestion, and long waiting hours). Additionally, respondents from geographical areas with readily available healthcare services and easily accessible facilities with considerable health logistical support (e.g., vaccination sites) are more likely to accept mandatory vaccine uptake compared to participants from other geographical boundaries with less endowed health infrastructure and logistics. Therefore, health inequities or disparities may restrict or negatively impact mandatory COVID-19 vaccine uptake [58, 59]. It is important that major stakeholders address these population dynamics and resources that might be instrumental in facilitating comprehensive vaccine uptake in the country.

Other findings show that Ghanaians who are married were 1.438 times more likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot compared to their single counterparts. Being married comes with more household interaction and connectedness. Hence, we speculate that those married might have additional responsibility of protecting the entire family due to high risk perception and would show more willingness or positive intention towards taking COVID-19 vaccine, though voluntarily. Previous research has cited social interaction and connectedness as important risk factors of COVID-19 infection [60, 61]. Raising continuous awareness about the risk of COVID-19 infection, especially among the unmarried population is essential towards reducing case fatality [35].

Counterintuitively, participants with tertiary education were 71% less likely to take a voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot compared to their counterparts with no formal education. This finding demonstrates the complexity of infectious disease dynamics: an observation that overrides conventional standards in epidemiological assessment. Individuals' risk perception may determine one's intention to get vaccinated against COVID-19, with those perceiving a higher risk towards COVID-19 more likely to show the intention to voluntarily vaccinate against the virus. It is likely that sampled tertiary educated individuals might have less risk perception against the new virus, hence their intention to voluntarily vaccinate is low. For individuals with no educational background, the new virus may create enormous psychological distress triggered by worrying concerns and fears that could heighten their voluntary intention to take a vaccine shot [62, 63, 64, 65]. The current finding also mirrors the risk as feelings model that confirms the role risk perception plays on judgement and decision making in health care for diseases of severe magnitude and uncertain outcome, demonstrating how one's perceived risk might influence the decision to vaccinate [see 66, 67, 68]. Therefore, the general public ought to realize the severity of COVID-19, hence underestimating their risks of contracting the virus may prevent them from being vaccinated [69]. Current finding implies that considerable efforts ought to be targeted at those in the population with the highest severity [70]. Regular educational campaigns to promote COVID-19 vaccines should target personal risks to the disease through persuasive communication in the general population.

## Strengths and Limitations

This is the first study to provide estimates on individual preferences relative to their predictors associated with COVID-19 vaccine uptake across a cross-section of the population in Ghana. Current findings advance theoretical knowledge by providing a better understanding in the context of COVID-19 health policies. Empirical evidence provided can aid stakeholders on which COVID-19 vaccination policy to implement. Despite these strengths, the present study has some limitations.

Preferences and/or intentions are hypothetical scenarios that vary from real life behaviors; consequently, it is likely that individual reactions to real life COVID-19 events might be stronger such that our current findings could be seen as conservative approximations [71, 72]. Additionally, it is also possible that the responses during the data collection were relative to time, with the possibility of change over patterns in intentions and subsequent action tendencies once the vaccines were made available [73]. For example, COVID-19 vaccine rollout had not begun at the time of the data collection (i.e., actual vaccine uptake was not measured), hence, respondents' real sense of judgement on vaccine uptake might not be conditioned by the resolutions taken later on the vaccines. Finally, due to the self-reported nature of the study design, we cannot discount reporting biases. Since data were collected through an online survey via social media platforms, there is a possibility of biasness against those who had no access to social media, internet and those who could neither read nor write. These people are mostly married, uneducated, older and live in the country-side and parts of Northern sector of the country.

## Practical Implications

Current evidence suggests that public belief or trust, uncertainties, health and safety issues as well as socio-cultural considerations surrounding COVID-19 vaccines should guide future rollout programs. Despite present results indicating respondents' positive attitude towards vaccine rollout spectrum (i.e., more restrictive: compulsory mandates and less restrictive options: opt-in voluntarily), the current health emergency and the fluctuations in the epidemiological data (e.g., fatality and mortality metrics) leaves no room for low vaccine uptake. Based on observed findings, policies on vaccines in the country could provide a balance between the two different strategies for the administration of COVID-19 vaccines. Therefore, designed interventions and support mechanisms are required for vaccine uptake in Ghana. Vaccination campaigns in the country should be based on scientific evidence on the vaccine efficacy, safety, and side effects made available to the public. Regular education, appropriate information and communication should target health and safety concerns associated with COVID-19 vaccines. It is important that public trust and confidence are built through transparent and truthful communications on the vaccines. Developing vaccination initiatives through health technological interventions (e.g., providing regular telephone reminders, motivational text message reminders) and smart phone applications may consolidate and further boost positive vaccination behavior and improve vaccination rates in the country.

## Conclusion

This present study provides evidence-based variations in individual preferences and/intentions toward COVID-19 vaccine uptake based on multifaceted determinants: biosocial (e.g., age, marital status, education), socio-cultural (e.g., religion) contextual (e.g., geographical zone), and other important predictors (e.g., confidence in vaccine, vaccine health and safety, source of vaccine as a concern). Overall, attitude towards COVID-19 vaccine uptake (i.e., mandatory, voluntary) was positive, though the odds of being vaccinated are influenced by the factors cited above. To consolidate and possibly increase vaccine uptake in response to the COVID-19 pandemic in Ghana, health education and promotion programmes should aim at creating awareness on the benefits of vaccine uptake while addressing the health and safety concerns on the potential side effects through evidence-based community messaging from credible sources. It is important to show specific commitment to transparency and reliable information to build public trust by decision-makers. Future studies could integrate health behaviour theories in the prediction of COVID-19 vaccine uptake and also observe how public intentions to vaccinate change over time over in Ghana.

## Abbreviations

AOR: adjusted odds ratios

CI: confidence intervals

## Declarations

We thank our participants for agreeing to participate in the study

## Authors' Contributions

S.A.A., P.O.L., A.A., J.G. and D.W.H. designed the questionnaire, conducted the study, conducted statistical analyses. S.A.A., G.K.A.M, B.M.S. and J.E.H. wrote the first draft. S.A.A., J.E.H, B.O.A, A.A.S. and E.K.A. contributed to the interpretation of data, revised the article and approved the final version. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

## Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests in the conduct of this research.

## Authors' information

<sup>1</sup>Research Center for Smart Mine and Intelligent Equipment, Taiyuan University of Technology, Taiyuan 030024, People's Republic of China

<sup>2</sup>College of Safety and Emergency Management Engineering, Taiyuan University of Technology, Taiyuan 030024, People's Republic of China

<sup>3</sup>Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, University of Cape Coast, PMB, Cape Coast, Ghana

<sup>4</sup>Neurocognition and Action-Biomechanics-Research Group, Faculty of Psychology and Sport Sciences, Bielefeld University, Postfach 1001 31, Bielefeld-Germany

<sup>5</sup>Department of Biochemistry and Biotechnology, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

<sup>6</sup>Department of Geoscience and Engineering, Taiyuan University of Technology, Taiyuan 030024, People's Republic of China

<sup>7</sup>Key Laboratory of Interface Science and Engineering in Advanced Materials, Ministry of Education, Taiyuan University of Technology, Taiyuan, 030024, China

<sup>8</sup>School of Public Health, University of Technology Sydney, Sydney, Australia

<sup>9</sup>Department of Population and Health, University of Cape Coast, Ghana

<sup>10</sup>College of Public Health, Medical and Veterinary Services, James Cook University, Townsville, QLD 4811, Australia

<sup>11</sup>Department of Estate Management, Takoradi Technical University, P.O. BOX 256, Takoradi, Ghana

<sup>12</sup>CSIR Water Research Institute, Accra, Ghana

<sup>13</sup>College of Economics and Management, Taiyuan University of Technology, Taiyuan 030024, People's Republic of China

## Funding

The study did not receive any funding.

## Availability of data and material

The datasets of the current study are available from the corresponding author on

reasonable request

## Ethical Statement

Ethical review and approval was sought from the Taiyuan University of Technology Ethical Review Board (62/12/20). The online form required participants to read the background information of the study and then indicate whether they were willing to participate before they were able to proceed to respond to the questions. Also, participants received instant feedback on their responses. Participation was restricted to resident Ghanaian adults aged 18 years and above. Participants were not coerced or financially induced to take part in the study.

## Consent for publication

Not applicable.

## Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## References

1. Asmundson GJ, Taylor S. Coronaphobia: Fear and the 2019-nCoV outbreak. *Journal of anxiety disorders*. 2020 Mar;70:102196. doi.org/10.1016/j.janxdis.2020.102196.
2. Harrison EA, Wu JW. Vaccine confidence in the time of COVID-19. *European journal of epidemiology*. 2020 Apr;35(4):325–30. doi:10.1007/s10654-020-00634-3.
3. Bonful HA, Addo-Lartey A, Aheto JM, Ganle JK, Sarfo B, Aryeetey R. Limiting spread of COVID-19 in Ghana: Compliance audit of selected transportation stations in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. *PloS one*. 2020 Sep 11;15(9). https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0238971.
4. Enitan SS, Ibeh IN, Oluremi AS, Olayanju AO, Itodo GE. The 2019 novel coronavirus outbreak: current crises, controversies and global strategies to prevent a pandemic. *International Journal of Pathogen Research*. 2020 Mar 17:1–6. https://doi.org/10.9734/ijpr/2020/v4i130099.
5. Neumann-Böhme S, Varghese NE, Sabat I, Barros PP, Brouwer W, van Exel J, Schreyögg J, Stargardt T. Once we have it, will we use it? A European survey on willingness to be vaccinated against COVID-19. *Eur J Health Econ*. 2020 Sept; 21: 977–982. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10198-020-01208-6.
6. Blasi F, Aliberti S, Mantero M, Centanni S. Compliance with anti-H1N1 vaccine among healthcare workers and general population. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2012 Oct;18:37–41. doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-0691.2012.03941.x.



7. Kwok KO, Li KK, Wei WI, Tang KH, Wong SY, Lee SS. Are we ready when COVID-19 vaccine is available? Study on nurses' vaccine hesitancy in Hong Kong. medRxiv. 2020 Jan 1. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.07.17.20156026>.
8. Kwok KO, Li KK, Wei WI, Tang A, Wong SY, Lee SS. Influenza vaccine uptake, COVID-19 vaccination intention and vaccine hesitancy among nurses: A survey. *International journal of nursing studies*. 2021 Feb 1;114:103854. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2020.103854>.
9. MacDonald NE. Vaccine hesitancy: Definition, scope and determinants. *Vaccine*. 2015 Aug 14;33(34):4161-4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2015.04.036>.
10. Lazarus JV, Ratzan SC, Palayew A, Gostin LO, Larson HJ, Rabin K, Kimball S, El-Mohandes A. A global survey of potential acceptance of a COVID-19 vaccine. *Nature medicine*. 2021 Feb;27(2):225–8. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-1124-9>.
11. Peretti-Watel P, Seror V, Cortaredona S, Launay O, Raude J, Verger P, Fressard L, Beck F, Legleye S, l'Haridon O, Léger D. A future vaccination campaign against COVID-19 at risk of vaccine hesitancy and politicisation. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases*. 2020 Jul 1;20(7):769-70. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(20\)30426-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(20)30426-6).
12. Brewer NT, Chapman GB, Gibbons FX, Gerrard M, McCaul KD, Weinstein ND. Meta-analysis of the relationship between risk perception and health behavior: the example of vaccination. *Health psychology*. 2007 Mar;26(2):136. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.26.2.136>.
13. Larson HJ, Jarrett C, Eckersberger E, Smith DM, Paterson P. Understanding vaccine hesitancy around vaccines and vaccination from a global perspective: a systematic review of published literature, 2007–2012. *Vaccine*. 2014 Apr 17;32(19):2150–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.01.081>.
14. Institute of Medicine. *Informed Vaccine Decision Making. Priorities for the National Vaccine Plan*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press; 2010. pp. 79–96.
15. Malesza M, Wittmann E. Acceptance and intake of COVID-19 vaccines among older Germans. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*. 2021 Jan;10(7):1388. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm10071388>.
16. Trustcovid- EP, Role THE, Governments O. F. Enhancing public trust in COVID-19 vaccination: The role of governments. May; 2021. pp. 1–27.
17. Rémy V, LARGERON N, Quilici S, Carroll S. The economic value of vaccination: why prevention is wealth. *Journal of market access & health policy*. 2015 Jan 1;3(1):29284. doi: 10.3402/jmahp.v3.29284.
18. Fine P, Eames K, Heymann DL. “Herd immunity”: a rough guide. *Clinical infectious diseases*. 2011 Apr 1;52(7):911-6.
19. Omer SB, Salmon DA, Orenstein WA, Dehart MP, Halsey N. Vaccine refusal, mandatory immunization, and the risks of vaccine-preventable diseases. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2009 May 7;360(19):1981-8. 10.1056/NEJMs0806477.
20. World Health Organization. *Behavioural considerations for acceptance and uptake of COVID-19 vaccines: WHO technical advisory group on behavioural insights and sciences for health, meeting report, 15 October 2020*.
21. Mello MM, Silverman RD, Omer SB. Ensuring uptake of vaccines against SARS-CoV-2. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2020 Oct 1;383(14):1296-9. 10.1056/NEJMp2020926.
22. Reiss DR, Caplan AL. Considerations in mandating a new Covid-19 vaccine in the USA for children and adults. *Journal of Law the Biosciences*. 2020 Jan;7(1). 10.1093/jlb/l5aa025.
23. Hadisoemarto PF, Castro MC. Public acceptance and willingness-to-pay for a future dengue vaccine: a community-based survey in Bandung, Indonesia. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2013 Sep;19(9):e2427. 7(.
24. Harapan H, Mudatsir M, Yufika A, Nawawi Y, Wahyuniati N, Anwar S, Yusri F, Haryanti N, Wijayanti NP, Rizal R, Fitriani D. Community acceptance and willingness-to-pay for a hypothetical Zika vaccine: A cross-sectional study in Indonesia. *Vaccine*. 2019 Mar 7;37(11):1398-406. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2019.01.062>.
25. Harapan H, Wagner AL, Yufika A, Winardi W, Anwar S, Gan AK, Setiawan AM, Rajamoorthy Y, Sofyan H, Mudatsir M. Acceptance of a COVID-19 vaccine in southeast Asia: A cross-sectional study in Indonesia. *Frontiers in public health*. 2020;8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.00381>.
26. Lee R, Wong TY, Sabanayagam C. Epidemiology of diabetic retinopathy, diabetic macular edema and related vision loss. *Eye vision*. 2015 Dec;2(1):1–25. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40662-015-0026-2>.
27. Dubé E, MacDonald NE. Vaccine acceptance: barriers, perceived risks, benefits, and irrational beliefs. In *The Vaccine Book 2016* Jan 1 (pp. 507-528). Academic Press.
28. Maurer J, Uscher-Pines L, Harris KM. Perceived seriousness of seasonal and A (H1N1) influenzas, attitudes toward vaccination, and vaccine uptake among US adults: does the source of information matter?. *Preventive medicine*. 2010 Aug 1;51(2):185-7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2010.05.008>.
29. Nguyen T, Henningsen KH, Brehaut JC, Hoe E, Wilson K. Acceptance of a pandemic influenza vaccine: a systematic review of surveys of the general public. *Infection drug resistance*. 2011;4:197. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S23174>.
30. Schwarzinger M, Flicoteaux R, Cortarenoda S, Obadia Y, Moatti JP. Low acceptability of A/H1N1 pandemic vaccination in French adult population: did public health policy fuel public dissonance?. *PLoS One*. 2010 Apr 16;5(4):e10199.
31. Sypsa V, Livanios T, Psychogiou M, Malliori M, Tsiodras S, Nikolakopoulos I, Hatzakis A. Public perceptions in relation to intention to receive pandemic influenza vaccination in a random population sample: evidence from a cross-sectional telephone survey. *Eurosurveillance*. 2009 Dec 10;14(49):19437. <https://doi.org/10.2807/ese.14.49.19437-en>.
32. Yaqub O, Castle-Clarke S, Sevdalis N, Chataway J. Attitudes to vaccination: a critical review. *Soc Sci Med*. 2014 Jul;1:112:1–1. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2014.04.018>.
33. Al-Mohaithef M, Padhi BK. Determinants of COVID-19 vaccine acceptance in Saudi Arabia: a web-based national survey. *Journal of multidisciplinary healthcare*. 2020;13:1657. <https://doi.org/10.2147/jmdh.s276771>.

34. Leng A, Maitland E, Wang S, Nicholas S, Liu R, Wang J. Individual preferences for COVID-19 vaccination in China. *vaccine*. 2021 Jan 8;39(2):247-54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2020.12.009>.
35. Tran VD, Pak TV, Gribkova EI, Galkina GA, Loskutova EE, Dorofeeva VV, Dewey RS, Nguyen KT. Determinants of COVID-19 vaccine acceptance in a high infection-rate country: a cross-sectional study in Russia. *Pharmacy Practice (Granada)*. 2021 Mar;19(1). <https://dx.doi.org/10.18549/pharmpract.2021.1.2276>.
36. Saied SM, Saied EM, Kabbash IA, Abdo SA. Vaccine hesitancy: Beliefs and barriers associated with COVID-19 vaccination among Egyptian medical students. *Journal of medical virology*. 2021 Jul;93(7):4280–91. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jmv.26910>.
37. Tam CC, Qiao S, Li X. Factors associated with decision making on COVID-19 vaccine acceptance among college students in South Carolina. *medRxiv*. 2020 Jan 1. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.12.03.20243543>.
38. Hagan JJ, Ahinkorah BO, Seidu AA, Ameyaw EK, Schack T. Africa's preparedness towards COVID-19 vaccines: demand and acceptability challenges. *Current Research in Behavioral Sciences*. 2021 May 24:100048. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crbeha.2021.100048>.
39. Lucia VC, Kelekar A, Afonso NM. COVID-19 vaccine hesitancy among medical students. *J Public Health*. 2020 Dec 26. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pubmed/fdaa230>.
40. Schwartz JL. Evaluating and Deploying Covid-19 Vaccines—The Importance of Transparency, Scientific Integrity, and Public Trust. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2020 Oct 29;383(18):1703–5.
41. Ahinkorah BO, Ameyaw EK, Hagan JE Jr, Seidu AA, Schack T. Rising above misinformation or fake news in Africa: Another strategy to control COVID-19 spread. *Frontiers in Communication*. 2020 Jun 17;5:45. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fcomm.2020.00045>.
42. Wang J, Jing R, Lai X, Zhang H, Lyu Y, Knoll MD, Fang H. Acceptance of COVID-19 Vaccination during the COVID-19 Pandemic in China. *Vaccines*. 2020 Sep;8(3):482. <https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines8030482>.
43. Onder G, Rezza G, Brusaferro S. Case-fatality rate and characteristics of patients dying in relation to COVID-19 in Italy. *Jama*. 2020 May 12;323(18):1775-6. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.4683>.
44. Detoc M, Bruel S, Frappe P, Tardy B, Botelho-Nevers E, Gagneux-Brunon A. Intention to participate in a COVID-19 vaccine clinical trial and to get vaccinated against COVID-19 in France during the pandemic. *Vaccine*. 2020 Oct 21;38(45):7002-6. [10.1016/j.vaccine.2020.09.041](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2020.09.041).
45. Lane S, MacDonald NE, Marti M, Dumolard L. Vaccine hesitancy around the globe: Analysis of three years of WHO/UNICEF Joint Reporting Form data-2015–2017. *Vaccine*. 2018 Jun 18;36(26):3861-7. [10.1016/j.vaccine.2018.03.063](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2018.03.063).
46. Nafilyan V, Dolby T, Razieh C, Gaughan C, Morgan J, Ayoubkhani D, Walker AS, Khunti K, Glickman M, Yates T. Sociodemographic inequality in COVID-19 vaccination coverage amongst elderly adults in England: a national linked data study. *medRxiv*. 2021 Jan 1.
47. Williams G. *Angel of death: the story of smallpox*. Springer; 2010 May. p. 17.
48. Ruijs WL, Hautvast JL, van der Velden K, de Vos S, Knippenberg H, Hulscher ME. Religious subgroups influencing vaccination coverage in the Dutch Bible belt: an ecological study. *BMC public health*. 2011 Dec;11(1):1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-102>.
49. Ruijs WL, Hautvast JL, van IJzendoorn G, van Ansem WJ, van der Velden K, Hulscher ME. How orthodox protestant parents decide on the vaccination of their children: a qualitative study. *BMC public health*. 2012 Dec;12(1):1–1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-408>.
50. Veenman J, Jansma LG. The 1978 Dutch Polio Epidemic: A Sociological Study of the Motives for Accepting or Refusins Vaccination. *Netherlands (The Journal of Sociology anc Sociologia Neerlandica Amsterdam)*. 1980;16(1):21–48.
51. Woonink W. *Objections against vaccination: the perspective of those who refuse*. Bilthoven, Netherlands: National Institute for Public Health and the Environment; 2009. Available from: <http://www.rivm.nl/en/Images/000652%20Bezw%20tegen%20vacc%20Entcm1367802.pdf>.
52. Grabenstein JD. What the world's religions teach, applied to vaccines and immune globulins. *Vaccine*. 2013 Apr 12;31(16):2011-23. [10.1016/j.vaccine.2013.02.026](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2013.02.026).
53. Amadu I, Ahinkorah BO, Afitiri AR, Seidu AA, Ameyaw EK, Hagan JE Jr, Duku E, Aram SA. Assessing sub-regional-specific strengths of healthcare systems associated with COVID-19 prevalence, deaths and recoveries in Africa. *Plos one*. 2021 Mar 1;16(3):e0247274. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0247274>.
54. Stojkoski V, Utkovski Z, Jolakoski P, Tevdovski D, Kocarev L. The socio-economic determinants of the coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pandemic. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2004.07947*. 2020 Apr 14.
55. Hungerford D, Macpherson P, Farmer S, Ghebrehewet S, Seddon D, Vivancos R, Keenan A. Effect of socioeconomic deprivation on uptake of measles, mumps and rubella vaccination in Liverpool, UK over 16 years: a longitudinal ecological study. *Epidemiology Infection*. 2016 Apr;144(6):1201–11. [10.1017/S0950268815002599](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268815002599).
56. Pebody RG, Hippisley-Cox J, Harcourt S, Pringle M, Painter M, Smith G. Uptake of pneumococcal polysaccharide vaccine in at-risk populations in England and Wales 1999–2005. *Epidemiology & Infection*. 2008 Mar;136(3):360–9.
57. Spencer AM, Roberts SA, Brabin L, Patnick J, Verma A. Sociodemographic factors predicting mother's cervical screening and daughter's HPV vaccination uptake. *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 2014 Jun 1;68(6):571-7.
58. Dubé E, Leask J, Wolff B, Hickler B, Balaban V, Hosein E, Habersaat K. The WHO Tailoring Immunization Programmes (TIP) approach: review of implementation to date. *Vaccine*. 2018 Mar 7;36(11):1509-15.
59. Shekhar R, Sheikh AB, Upadhyay S, Singh M, Kottewar S, Mir H, Barrett E, Pal S. COVID-19 vaccine acceptance among health care workers in the United States. *Vaccines*. 2021 Feb;9(2):119. [doi.org/10.3390/vaccines9020119](https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines9020119).
60. Laursen J, Petersen J, Didriksen M, Iversen K, Ullum H. Prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 IgG/IgM antibodies among Danish and Swedish Falck emergency and non-emergency healthcare workers. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2021 Jan;18(3):923.

<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18030923>.

61. Paek HJ, Hove T. Risk perceptions and risk characteristics. In Oxford research encyclopedia of communication 2017 Mar 29.
62. Brooks SK, Webster RK, Smith LE, Woodland L, Wessely S, Greenberg N, Rubin GJ. The psychological impact of quarantine and how to reduce it: rapid review of the evidence. *The Lancet*. 2020 Mar 14;395(10227):912-20.
63. Caserotti M, Girardi P, Rubaltelli E, Tasso A, Lotto L, Gavaruzzi T. Associations of COVID-19 risk perception with vaccine hesitancy over time for Italian residents. *Soc Sci Med*. 2021 Jan;113688. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.113688>.
64. Li Q, Guan X, Wu P, Wang X, Zhou L, Tong Y, Ren R, Leung KS, Lau EH, Wong JY, Xing X. Early transmission dynamics in Wuhan, China, of novel coronavirus-infected pneumonia. *New England journal of medicine*. 2020 Jan 29. 10.1056/NEJMoa2001316.
65. Moccia L, Janiri D, Pepe M, Dattoli L, Molinaro M, De Martin V, Chieffo D, Janiri L, Fiorillo A, Sani G, Di Nicola M. Affective temperament, attachment style, and the psychological impact of the COVID-19 outbreak: an early report on the Italian general population. *Brain, behavior, and immunity*. 2020 Jul 1;87:75–9. 10.1016/j.bbi.2020.04.048.
66. Slovic P, Finucane M, Peters E, MacGregor DG. Rational actors or rational fools: Implications of the affect heuristic for behavioral economics. *The Journal of Socio-Economics*. 2002 Jan 1;31(4):329-42.
67. Slovic P, Finucane ML, Peters E, MacGregor DG. Risk as analysis and risk as feelings: Some thoughts about affect, reason, risk and rationality. In *The Feeling of Risk* 2013 Mar 7 (pp. 49-64). Routledge.
68. Slovic P, Peters E. Risk perception and affect. *Current directions in psychological science*. 2006 Dec;15(6):322–5. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2006.00461.x>.
69. Chu H, Liu S. Integrating health behavior theories to predict American's intention to receive a COVID-19 vaccine. *Patient Educ Couns*. 2021 Feb 17. 10.1016/j.pec.2021.02.031.
70. Paltiel AD, Schwartz JL, Zheng A, Walensky RP. Clinical Outcomes Of A COVID-19 Vaccine: Implementation Over Efficacy: Study examines how definitions and thresholds of vaccine efficacy, coupled with different levels of implementation effectiveness and background epidemic severity, translate into outcomes. *Health Aff*. 2021 Jan;1:10–377. <https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2020.02054>.
71. Sheeran P. Intention–behavior relations: a conceptual and empirical review. *European review of social psychology*. 2002 Jan 1;12(1):1-36. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14792772143000003>.
72. Sprengholz P, Felgendreff L, Böhm R, Betsch C. Vaccination policy reactance: Predictors, consequences, and countermeasures. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/98e4t>.
73. Craxì L, Casuccio A, Amodio E, Restivo V. Who should get COVID-19 vaccine first? A survey to evaluate hospital workers' opinion. *Vaccines*. 2021 Mar;9(3):189. <https://doi.org/10.3390/vaccines9030189>.

## Tables

**Table 1**

**Demographic characteristics of respondents and vaccine health and safety perception**

Variables	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	329	53.06
Female	291	46.94
<b>Age</b>		
18-24	179	28.87
25-34	358	57.74
35 -50	43	6.94
Above 50	40	6.45
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	508	81.94
Married	112	18.06
<b>Education</b>		
No formal	54	8.71
Senior High	81	13.06
Tertiary	485	78.23
<b>Religion</b>		
Christianity	499	80.48
Islam	105	16.94
Others	16	2.58
<b>Employment Status</b>		
No	343	55.32
Yes	277	44.68
<b>Concern about Vaccine Source</b>		
No	67	10.81
Yes	553	89.19
<b>Country Zone</b>		
Southern	489	78.87
Middle	67	10.81
Northern	64	10.32
<b>Belief that Vaccine is Healthy</b>		
No	122	19.68
Yes	498	80.32
<b>Confidence in COVID-19 Vaccine Safety</b>		
No	167	26.94
Yes	453	73.06

Table 2

Percentage distribution of taking a mandatory and voluntary COVID-19 shot by predictor variables

	Mandatory Shot		Voluntary Shot	
Variables	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)
<b>Vaccine is Healthy</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 150.3731, p<0.001$		$\chi^2 (1)= 125.9256, p<0.001$	
No	76(62.3)	46 (37.7)	85 (69.67)	37 (30.33)
Yes	57 (11.45)	441 (88.55)	92 (18.47)	406 (81.53)
<b>Vaccine is Safe</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 219.4854, p<0.001$		$\chi^2 (1)= 278.9495, p<0.001$	
No	103 (61.68)	64 (38.32)	131 (78.44)	36 (21.56)
Yes	30 (6.62)	423 (93.38)	46 (10.15)	407 (89.85)
<b>Gender</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 0.7523, p=0.386$		$\chi^2 (1)= 0.7698, p=0.380$	
Male	75 (22.8)	254 (77.20)	89 (27.05)	240 (72.95)
Female	58 (19.93)	233 (80.07)	88 (30.24)	203 (69.76)
<b>Age</b>	$\chi^2 (3)= 3.5741, p=0.311$		$\chi^2 (3)= 5.7949, p=0.122$	
18-24years	42 (23.46)	137 (76.54)	53 (29.61)	126 (70.39)
25-34years	78 (21.29)	280 (78.21)	108 (30.17)	250 (69.83)
35-50years	9 (20.93)	34 (79.07)	11 (25.58)	32 (74.42)
Above 50 years	4 (10)	36 (90)	5 (12.5)	35 (87.50)
<b>Marital Status</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 0.0681, p=0.794$		$\chi^2 (1)= 1.9067, p=0.167$	
Single	110 (21.65)	398 (78.35)	151 (29.72)	357 (70.28)
Married	23 (20.54)	89 (79.46)	26 (23.21)	86 (76.79)
<b>Education</b>	$\chi^2 (2)= 3.1645, p=0.206$		$\chi^2 (2)= 5.8068, p=0.055$	
No formal	9 (16.67)	45 (83.33)	8 (14.81)	46 (85.19)
SHS/VOC	23 (28.40)	58 (71.6)	22 (27.16)	59 (72.84)
Tertiary	133 (21.45)	487 (78.55)	147 (30.31)	338 (69.69)
<b>Religion</b>	$\chi^2 (2)= 8.1482, p\leq 0.05$		$\chi^2 (2)= 10.9674, p<0.05$	
Christianity	114 (22.85)	385 (77.15)	148 (29.66)	351 (70.34)
Islam	13 (12.38)	92 (87.62)	20 (19.05)	85 (80.95)
Other	6 (37.50)	10 (62.50)	9 (56.25)	7 (43.75)
<b>Employment</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 3.5536, p=0.059$		$\chi^2 (1)= 1.1215, p=0.290$	
No	64 (18.66)	279 (81.34)	92 (26.82)	251 (73.18)
Yes	69 (24.91)	208 (75.09)	85 (30.69)	192 (69.31)
<b>Vaccine Source</b>	$\chi^2 (1)= 9.2048, p\leq 0.005$		$\chi^2 (1)= 1.2303, p=0.267$	
No	24 (35.82)	43 (64.18)	23 (34.33)	44 (65.67)
Yes	109 (19.71)	444 (80.29)	154 (27.85)	399 (72.15)
<b>Zones</b>	$\chi^2 (2)= 9.2048, p\leq 0.001$		$\chi^2 (2)= 9.9530, p<0.005$	
Southern	124 (25.36)	365 (74.64)	152 (31.08)	337 (68.92)
Middle	6 (8.96)	61 (91.04)	17 (25.37)	50 (74.63)
Northern	3 (4.69)	61 (95.31)	8 (12.50)	56 (87.50)

Table 3

Bivariate Complementary Log-Log Regression of Taking Mandatory and Voluntary COVID-19 Vaccine Shot

Variables	Mandatory Shot				Voluntary Shot				
	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	
<b>Vaccine is Healthy (ref: No)</b>									
Yes	4.580	0.731	<0.001	3.349 6.263	4.673	0.816	<0.001	3.319 6.580	
<b>Vaccine is Safe (ref: No)</b>									
Yes	5.617	0.798	<0.001	4.252 7.421	9.420	1.677	<0.001	6.645 13.354	
<b>Gender (ref: Male)</b>									
Female	1.091	0.109	0.385	0.896 1.327	0.915	0.093	0.381	0.749 1.117	
<b>Age (ref:18-24years)</b>									
25-34 years	1.051	0.120	0.662	0.841 1.314	0.985	0.114	0.894	0.784 1.236	
35-50years	1.079	0.228	0.720	0.713 1.632	1.120	0.239	0.595	0.738 1.701	
Above 50 years	1.588	0.359	<b>0.041</b>	1.019 2.475	1.709	0.380	<b>0.016</b>	1.105 2.643	
<b>Marital Status (ref: Single)</b>									
Married	1.035	0.134	0.793	0.802 1.334	1.204	0.157	0.155	0.932 1.555	
<b>Education (ref: No formal)</b>									
SHS/VOC	0.703	0.155	0.109	0.456 1.082	0.683	0.151	0.084	0.443 1.052	
Tertiary	0.876	0.157	0.459	0.616 1.244	0.625	0.113	<b>0.009</b>	0.439 0.890	
<b>Employed (ref: No)</b>									
Yes	0.828	0.083	0.061	0.679 1.009	0.898	0.092	0.291	0.735 1.097	
<b>Religion (ref: Christianity)</b>									
Islam	1.415	0.193	<b>0.011</b>	1.083 1.848	1.364	0.183	<b>0.020</b>	1.049 1.774	
Others	0.664	0.222	0.221	0.345 1.278	0.473	0.184	0.054	0.221 1.012	
<b>Concern of Vaccine Source (ref: No)</b>									
Yes	1.582	0.266	<b>0.006</b>	1.138 2.199	1.196	0.200	0.285	0.862 1.659	
<b>Zones (ref: Southern)</b>									
Middle	1.759	0.301	<b>0.001</b>	1.257 2.460	1.174	0.192	0.327	0.852 1.617	
Northern	2.230	0.430	<0.001	1.528 3.255	1.780	0.301	<b>0.001</b>	1.277 2.480	

Table 4

Multivariate complementary log-log regression model predicting taking mandatory COVID-19 vaccine shot

Variables	Model 1: Key Predictors				Model 2: Key predictors + Biosocial factors				Model 3: Key predictors + Biosocial factors + Socio cultural factors			
	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval
<b>Legal requirement Shot</b>												
<b>Vaccine is Healthy (ref: No)</b>												
Yes	2.000	0.373	<0.001	1.388 2.882	2.047	0.383	<0.001	1.419 2.953	2.060	0.406	<0.001	1.400 3.031
<b>Vaccine is Safe (ref: No)</b>												
Yes	3.970	0.654	<0.001	2.875 5.481	4.056	0.678	<0.001	2.923 5.628	4.220	0.714	<0.001	3.028 5.881
<b>Gender (ref: Male)</b>												
Female					1.241	0.159	0.092	0.966 1.594	1.281	0.171	0.064	0.986 1.664
<b>Age (ref:18-24years)</b>												
25-34 years					1.345	0.190	<b>0.035</b>	1.020 1.773	1.400	0.225	<b>0.036</b>	1.022 1.918
35-50years					1.486	0.373	0.114	0.909 2.430	1.415	0.382	0.199	0.833 2.401
Above 50 years					1.625	0.444	0.075	0.952 2.775	1.240	0.479	0.577	0.582 2.642
<b>Marital Status (ref: Single)</b>												
Married									1.115	0.193	0.530	0.794 1.564
<b>Education (ref: No formal)</b>												
SHS/VOC									0.698	0.208	0.229	0.389 1.253
Tertiary									0.717	0.207	0.248	0.407 1.261
<b>Employed (ref: No)</b>												
Yes									0.865	0.114	0.273	0.668 1.120
<b>Religion (ref: Christianity)</b>												
Islam									1.637	0.239	<b>0.001</b>	1.230 2.178
Others									1.371	0.494	0.382	0.676 2.778
<b>Concern about Vaccine Source (ref: No)</b>												
Yes	1.474	0.283	<b>0.043</b>	1.012 2.146	1.592	0.326	<b>0.023</b>	1.066 2.377				
<b>Zones (ref: Southern)</b>												
Middle	2.334	0.558	<0.001	1.461 3.728								
Northern												

Table 5

Multivariate complementary log-log regression model predicting taking voluntary COVID-19 vaccine shot

Variables	Model 1: Key predictors				Model 2: Key predictors + Biosocial factors				Model 3: Key predictors + Biosocial factors + Socio cultural factors						
	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval	OR	Robust SE	p Value	Conf. Interval			
<b>Voluntary Shot</b>															
<b>Vaccine is Healthy (ref: No)</b>															
Yes	1.434	0.303	0.088	0.947	2.169	1.508	0.324	0.055	0.990	2.297	1.680	0.387	<b>0.024</b>	1.070	2.639
<b>Vaccine is Safe (ref: No)</b>															
Yes	7.872	1.579	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	5.313	11.665	7.856	1.589	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	5.285	11.676	8.373	1.798	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	5.496	12.75
<b>Gender (ref: Male)</b>															
Female						0.825	0.100	0.114	0.651	1.047	0.781	0.099	0.051	0.609	1.001
<b>Age (ref:18-24years)</b>															
25-34 years						1.125	0.151	0.378	0.865	1.464	1.282	0.196	0.105	0.949	1.731
35-50years						1.319	0.331	0.271	0.806	2.157	1.193	0.347	0.544	0.674	2.111
Above 50 years						1.620	0.427	0.067	0.966	2.715	0.697	0.288	0.383	0.310	1.567
<b>Marital Status (ref: Single)</b>															
Married	1.450	0.259	<b>0.037</b>	1.022	2.058	1.438	0.258	<b>0.043</b>	1.012	2.045					
<b>Education (ref: No formal)</b>															
SHS/VOC											0.481	0.184	0.056	0.227	1.019
Tertiary											0.294	0.105	<b>0.001</b>	0.146	0.592
<b>Employed (ref: No)</b>															
Yes											0.864	0.112	0.261	0.670	1.115
<b>Religion (ref: Christianity)</b>															
Islam											0.990	0.171	0.954	0.706	1.389
Others											0.933	0.248	0.793	0.554	1.569
<b>Concern about Vaccine Source (ref: No)</b>															
Yes											1.088	0.211	0.661	0.745	1.590
<b>Zones (ref: Southern)</b>															
Middle															
Northern															

## Figures



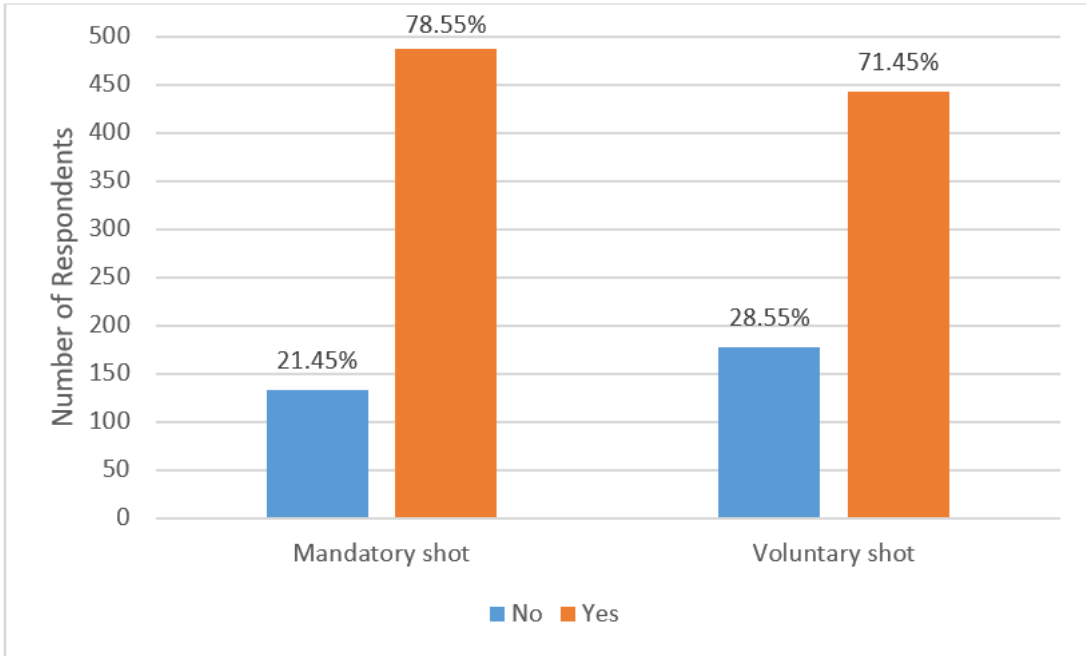


Figure 1

Percentage distribution of taking a mandatory and voluntary COVID-19 vaccine by respondents