

1 Article

## 2 Influences on Attitudes regarding Potential COVID-19 3 Vaccination in the United States

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9 **Abstract:** The COVID-19 pandemic continues to ravage the world, with the United States being  
10 highly affected. A vaccine provides the best hope for a permanent solution to controlling the  
11 pandemic. However, to be effective, a vaccine must be accepted and used by a large majority of the  
12 population. Structural equation modelling was used to analyze the relationships of several factors  
13 with attitudes toward potential COVID-19 vaccination. The survey was administered to 316  
14 respondents across the United States by a survey corporation. Prior vaccine usage and attitudes  
15 predicted attitudes towards COVID-19 vaccination. Assessment of the severity of COVID-19 for the  
16 United States was also predictive. Approximately 68% of all respondents were supportive of being  
17 vaccinated for COVID-19, but side effects, efficacy, and length of testing remained concerns. Longer  
18 testing, increased efficacy and development in the United States were significantly associated with  
19 increased vaccine acceptance. Messages promoting COVID-19 vaccination should seek to alleviate  
20 the concerns of those who are already vaccine-hesitant. Messaging directed at the benefits of  
21 vaccination for the United States as a country would address the second predictive factor. Enough  
22 time should be taken to allay concerns about both short and long-term side effects before a vaccine is  
23 released.

24 **Keywords:** COVID-19; vaccine hesitancy; vaccine attitudes; vaccine development; SARS-CoV-2  
25

### 26 1. Introduction

27 The COVID-19 pandemic has inflicted almost unimaginable harm on the life, health, and  
28 economy of many nations. Along with hygienic and behavioral control measures, vaccination is the  
29 most successful way of limiting or eliminating viral infection and spread. Although the exact timing  
30 of when a vaccine against COVID-19 will be available is unknown, several candidates are being  
31 pursued and it is likely that at least one effective vaccine will soon become available [1]. States in  
32 the United States are being told by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention to prepare for a  
33 vaccine by November 1 [2].

34 Even the best vaccine cannot be effective if it is not used. Recent surveys found that only 49%  
35 and 70% of Americans plan to receive a COVID-19 vaccine when available [3, 4]. This number of  
36 participants is likely below the threshold needed for homogeneous herd immunity [5], and will  
37 leave many Americans vulnerable to the disease, even with a vaccine available. The problem of  
38 vaccine refusal has many contributing factors and is present worldwide [6, 7]. The World Health  
39 Organization (WHO) recommends a preemptive strategy to overcome vaccine hesitancy and build  
40 trust in a vaccine to prepare for maximum efficacy when a vaccine is available [8, 9]. Controlling or  
41 ending the pandemic through a vaccination program requires an understanding of the reasons  
42 behind hesitancy towards a COVID-19 vaccine in the United States, as well as strategies to overcome  
43 this hesitancy. Understanding varying vaccine attitudes is especially important since a  
44 heterogeneous approach to vaccine refusal that deals with the concerns of different groups is more  
45 effective than a homogenous strategy [10-12]. A qualitative and quantitative understanding of

46 attitudes towards vaccine development and confidence is especially urgent in the United States  
47 given recent messages that COVID-19 vaccine development is being accelerated and a vaccine may  
48 be released even before clinical trials are completed.

49 Several strategies exist for ameliorating vaccine hesitancy. Our previous work explored  
50 strategies for improving opinions about vaccines among vaccine-hesitant students. We found that  
51 focusing on the physical, social, and emotional impacts of the diseases, either by having students  
52 interview someone who had suffered from a vaccine-preventable disease, or by taking a course with  
53 a heavy focus on the diseases that can be prevented by vaccination, significantly improved attitudes  
54 towards vaccines in the vaccine-hesitant students [13]. A study of elderly adults in the United States  
55 found that access to health information was a positive predictor for receiving vaccines [14]. In a very  
56 large study of United States adults, hesitancy towards the influenza vaccine was found to be much  
57 higher than hesitancy towards vaccines in general, an attitude resulting primarily from concerns  
58 about efficacy [15]. The low level of confidence in a COVID-19 vaccine is likely a result of multiple  
59 factors found to influence confidence towards other vaccines, such as: confidence in efficacy of the  
60 vaccine, fear of side effects [16] and trust in the government and those developing and administering  
61 the vaccines [17]. Lower economic status and lower education have also been associated with  
62 vaccine refusal [18]. Since people are currently experiencing the COVID-19 pandemic in real-time,  
63 there is unfortunately an opportunity to investigate the role of personal experience with disease,  
64 demographic factors, social conscience and the development, timing, and nature of the vaccine itself  
65 in vaccine hesitancy.

66 We designed a survey using structural equation modeling to investigate multiple potential  
67 contributing factors to COVID-19 vaccine refusal. The survey was distributed throughout the United  
68 States. We hypothesized that personal experience with COVID-19, whether diagnosed personally or  
69 knowing someone who was diagnosed, would be important in determining the participants'  
70 attitudes towards the vaccine. Considerations such as the closeness of the relationship to a  
71 diagnosed person and the severity of their disease were considered as part of this hypothesis. We  
72 also hypothesized that an individual's knowledge about the SARS-CoV-2 coronavirus and  
73 COVID-19 disease would also be a determining factor towards COVID-19 vaccine attitudes.  
74 Furthermore, we expected that an individual's attitudes towards vaccines in general would be an  
75 important factor in their willingness to receive a COVID-19 vaccine when one becomes available.  
76 Overall vaccine hesitancy is likely to play a large role in COVID-19 vaccine hesitancy, especially  
77 since vaccine hesitancy has been growing in more than 90% of countries [19] and has now been  
78 identified by the WHO as one of the greatest threats to global health. The model also included  
79 demographic factors and attitudes towards the severity of the COVID-19 pandemic. Along with the  
80 modeled predictors of vaccine attitude, we examined how the timing of the vaccine development  
81 process, the effectiveness of the final vaccine, and the location where the vaccine is developed would  
82 affect attitudes towards a COVID-19 vaccine.

83 Through this study, we found two factors that significantly predicted the respondents' attitudes  
84 towards a potential COVID-19 vaccine. We also found significant effects of timing, efficacy and  
85 location on willingness to be vaccinated. Efforts to address these factors, including design of  
86 potential vaccines, testing of these vaccines, and directed public outreach efforts, will likely improve  
87 vaccine usage, contributing to control of the COVID-19 pandemic.

## 88 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 89 **2.1 Survey design and distribution**

90 We constructed and administered a survey to measure multiple factors related to the impact of  
91 COVID-19, the opinions and knowledge of participants about the disease and about vaccines,  
92 intention and behavior of participants regarding a potential COVID-19 vaccine and vaccines in  
93 general, and demographic factors such as age, race, sex, and indicators of income. Additional items  
94 were included to evaluate factors such as the length of testing respondents perceived to be effective,  
95 how efficacy affects the likelihood to vaccinate, and how the location of vaccine development affects  
96 comfort with the vaccine.

97 Some of these items were used to measure specific latent variables hypothesized to have a  
 98 relationship with a person's intent to get a COVID-19 vaccine, should it become available. These  
 99 latent variables are as follows: (1) history of vaccination, (2), underlying knowledge of vaccine  
 100 immunity, and (3) attitudes and intentions toward a COVID-19 vaccine. Further details of each  
 101 latent variable will be described in the Results section. Covariates measuring the personal Impact of  
 102 COVID-19, demographics, and perceived impact of the pandemic on America were included in the  
 103 model.

104 The survey was distributed throughout the United States to a panel of respondents by the  
 105 Qualtrics Corporation. Participants were selected by age, race, and sex to reflect national census  
 106 data. Only completed surveys were used for analysis. Quality control was performed using a timing  
 107 method, where any participant who spent less than half the mean time completing the survey was  
 108 rejected. The project was approved by the BYU Institutional Review Board (IRB# IORG0001302,  
 109 Protocol # RB2020-342). The survey is available in the supplementary materials.

110

## 111 2.2 Demographics

112 The survey garnered 316 responses that were selected to reflect national census data.  
 113 Demographic information is presented in **Table 1**. Responses were collected from across the United  
 114 States.

115

116 **Table 1. Demographics of the study population**

	Number	Percentage
AGE		
Less than 18	7	2.16
18-25	40	12.35
26-35	59	18.21
36-45	102	31.48
46-55	11	3.4
Over 55	105	32.41
RACE/ETHNICITY		
American Indian or Alaska Native	4	1.23
Asian	17	5.25
Black or African American	39	12.04
Hispanic or Latino	54	16.67
Native Hawaiian or Pacific islander	1	0.31
White	205	63.27
Other	0	0
Prefer not to Answer	4	1.23
SEX		
Female	160	49.38
Male	159	49.07
Non Binary/Third Gender	2	0.62
Prefer to self-describe	1	0.31
Prefer not to answer	2	0.62

117

118 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

## 119 2.3.1 Model Analysis

120 We used factor analysis and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to determine relationships  
 121 between multiple variables (Muthen and Muthen, 1998-2010). Mplus software ver. 8 was used to  
 122 perform both confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the measurement portion of our model and SEM  
 123 on the structural portion of our model. For each latent variable, a CFA was performed with a  
 124 request for modification indices. Items were removed until fit indices [root mean square error of  
 125 approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), standardized root  
 126 mean square residual (SRMR), and Chi square ( $\chi^2$ )] were acceptable. All instruments were combined  
 127 into a full measurement model to ensure model fit prior to structural modeling. Our hypothesized  
 128 structural model was used, and SEM was performed, including several other items from the survey  
 129 as covariates. These covariates are as follows: the respondents' perceived impact of COVID-19 on  
 130 America (respondents were asked to rate the statement, "How much of a problem is COVID-19 in  
 131 America?" on a 5-point Likert scale from "Not a problem at all" to "The most important problem  
 132 facing America right now"), the number of exposures to COVID-19 (we asked respondents to  
 133 indicate how many individuals they knew who had had COVID-19); household income  
 134 (respondents were asked their total household income before taxes and were binned into intervals);  
 135 and political ideology (respondents were asked to select from the following categories: very  
 136 conservative, somewhat conservative, neither conservative nor liberal, somewhat liberal, very  
 137 liberal). We used the full information maximum likelihood method to deal with missing data. The  
 138 final model was selected based on fit statistics, as described in Results.

139

## 140 2.3.2 Other analysis

141 For questions not involved in the structural equation model, repeated-measures ANOVA was  
 142 used to test for variance between multiple conditions. The Wilcoxon Signed rank test was used to  
 143 detect significance between groups. Pearson's R test was used to evaluate correlations.

144 **3. Results**145 **3.1 Statistical Results of CFA and SEM**

## 146 3.1.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

147 We used CFA to confirm that each latent factor was being measured appropriately by each  
 148 item. Items were removed until appropriate fit statistics were obtained. The items retained for each  
 149 factor along with the fit statistics for each model are shown in **Table 2**. Factor loadings for each  
 150 item were high (above .5). All factor loadings were significant ( $p < .05$ ). From our CFA, we  
 151 confirmed that our instrument was measuring distinct and identifiable factors.

152

153 **Table 2. Fit statistics for each latent variable and full measurement model**

Latent Variable and associated items (factor loading indicated <sup>a</sup> )	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR	Chi-Square test		
					C <sup>2</sup>	DF	p-value
Vaccine History	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	84.31	3	<.001
<i>I am current on the vaccinations recommended by my primary care physician.<sup>b</sup> (.53)</i>							
<i>How important is it for you to get the flu vaccine every year?<sup>b</sup> (.69)</i>							
<i>My children are current on which recommended vaccines (or, if I don't have children, I would keep my children current on which recommended vaccines)?<sup>b</sup> (.65)*</i>							
Understanding of Vaccine Immunity	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	180.86	3	<.001
<i>I would rather build immunity by exposure to an infected individual than receive the vaccine.<sup>c</sup> (.83)</i>							
<i>Not everyone who is eligible for the vaccine needs to receive it because herd immunity is sufficient to protect</i>							

everyone.<sup>c</sup> (.80)

The side effects of the vaccine are likely to be worse than COVID-19 itself.<sup>c</sup> (.76)

Attitudes toward COVID-19 Vaccine	0.11	0.97	0.93	0.04	547.99	10	<.001
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If a COVID-19 vaccine was made publicly available, but it would need to be administered yearly (similar to the flu shot), how likely would you be to be vaccinated?<sup>b</sup> (.90)

If a vaccine for COVID-19 was made available and you were told it would protect half of the people who received it, how likely would you be to be vaccinated?<sup>b</sup> (.90)

Other people being vaccinated against COVID-19 will be helpful in controlling the pandemic.<sup>c</sup> (.70)

I am likely to be vaccinated for COVID-19 when a vaccine becomes available.<sup>c</sup> (.87)

A vaccine is important to end the COVID-19 pandemic.<sup>c</sup> (.70)

Complete Measurement Model	0.07	0.95	0.94	0.05	1370.56	55	<.001
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154 <sup>a</sup>All factor loadings are standardized

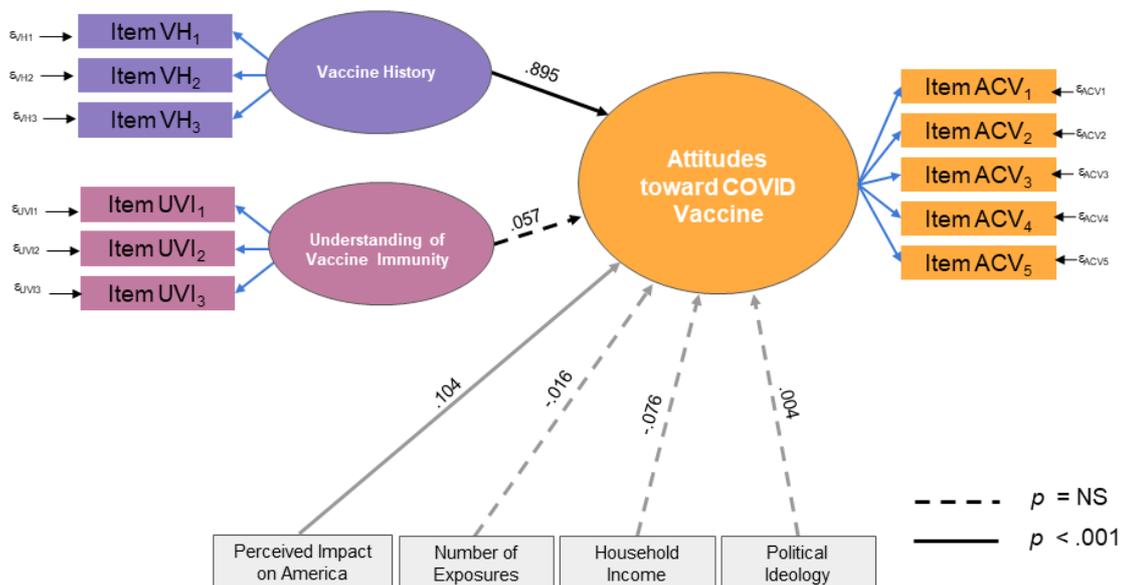
155 <sup>b</sup>These items were on a 5-point Likert scale indicating a low value to a high value (for specific  
156 statements, see full survey in the Supplemental Materials).

157 <sup>c</sup>These items were on a 5-point Likert scale indicating level of agreement (for specific statements, see  
158 full survey in the Supplemental Materials).

159

160 3.1.2 Structural Equation Model (SEM)

161 Using SEM, we found that the two significant predictors of attitudes toward the COVID-19  
162 vaccine are vaccine history and perceived impact of COVID-19 on America. In other words,  
163 respondents who routinely got vaccines were more likely to be receptive to receiving the COVID-19  
164 vaccine. Additionally, the greater the perceived impact of COVID-19 impact on America, the more  
165 receptive the respondent was to receiving a potential COVID-19 vaccine. Interestingly, contrary to  
166 our predictions, an understanding of vaccines and immunity had no impact on the respondents'  
167 attitudes; the number of people they knew with COVID-19 also appeared to be non-influential on  
168 their decisions. Household income and political ideology showed no relationship with attitudes  
169 toward the COVID-19 vaccine. The structural model showed a robust fit for the data as indicated  
170 by fit statistics and probability scores (RMSEA=0.07, CFI=0.93, TLI=0.91, SRMR=0.07, C<sup>2</sup>=1656.22,  
171  $p < .001$ ). The model, with standardized estimates for relationships is shown in (Figure 1).



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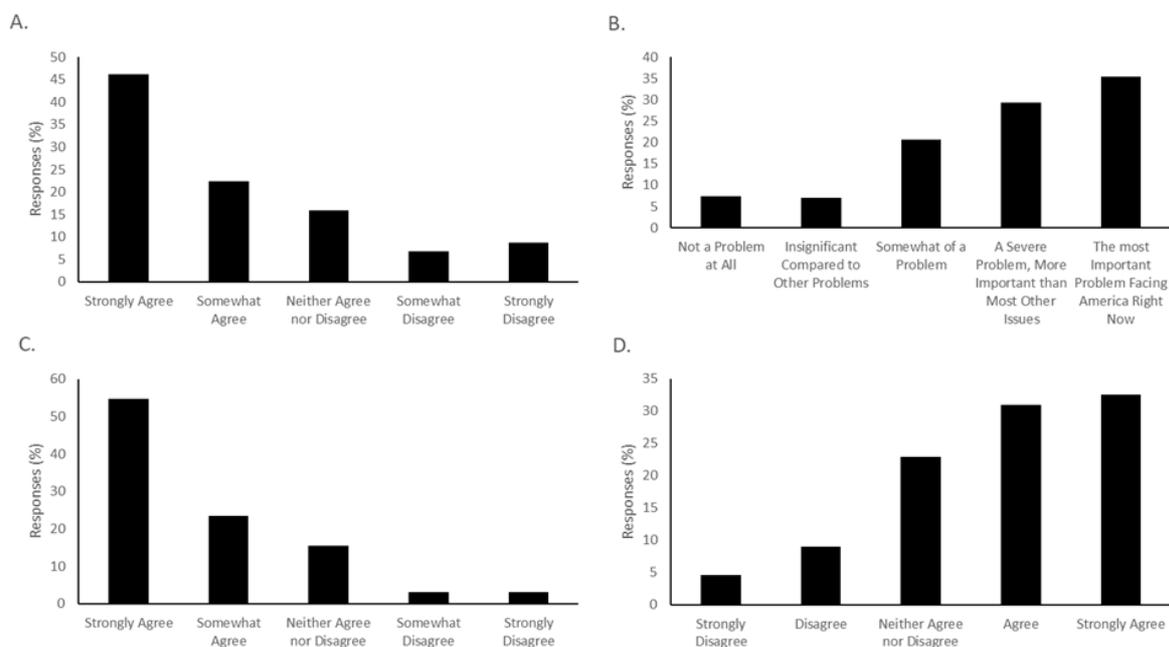
173 **Figure 1. Design and results of the structural equation model.** Vaccine history (VH) and Perceived  
 174 Impact on America significantly predicted COVID-19 vaccine attitudes (ACV). Understanding of  
 175 vaccine immunity (UVI) was not predictive. Of the covariates, the Perceived Impact on America was  
 176 predictive but not other demographic factors or personal relationships with infected individuals.  
 177 The specific questions represented in the model are listed in **Table 2**.

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### 179 3.2 Attitudes About COVID-19 and a Potential Vaccine

180 Most study subjects were agreeable to vaccination for COVID-19, although only 46.11% of  
 181 respondents “strongly agreed” with the statement “I am likely to be vaccinated for COVID-19 when  
 182 a vaccine becomes available.” (**Figure 2A**). Another 22.46% chose “somewhat agree” when  
 183 presented with that statement, for a total of 68.57% of respondents indicating that they were  
 184 amenable to receiving a vaccine. 8.72% strongly disagreed that they would be vaccinated, and  
 185 another 6.85% somewhat disagreed with vaccination. 15.89% neither agreed nor disagreed. The  
 186 respondents overall had a positive attitude towards the importance of a COVID-19 vaccine, with  
 187 54.83% selecting “strongly agree” and 23.36% selecting “somewhat agree” with the statement “A  
 188 vaccine is important to stop the COVID-19 pandemic.” Only 3.12% selected “Strongly Disagree” and  
 189 3.12% selected “Somewhat disagree” about this statement (**Figure 2C**).

190 Respondents mostly took the COVID-19 pandemic seriously. When asked to choose a response,  
 191 35.9% selected that the pandemic was “The most important problem facing America right now,”  
 192 29.32% selected “A severe problem, more important than most others,” and 20.68% chose  
 193 “Somewhat of a problem.” Only 7.41% of respondents felt that the COVID-19 pandemic was “Not  
 194 a problem at all,” while 7.10% chose “Insignificant compared to other problems.” (**Figure 2B**).  
 195 Concern about the side effects of a vaccine was a serious issue. A majority (63.47%) of respondents  
 196 either answered “Strongly Agree” or “Somewhat Agree” when given the statement “I am worried  
 197 about the side effects of the vaccine for myself” (**Figure 2D**). A substantial number of respondents  
 198 (although not a majority) worried that the side effects of a potential vaccine would be worse than the  
 199 disease itself. When presented with the statement “The side effects of the vaccine are likely to be  
 200 worse than COVID-19 itself,” 19.81% selected “strongly agree” and 19.50% selected “Somewhat  
 201 agree.” 14.86% selected “strongly disagree,” 16.72% selected “somewhat disagree” and 29.10%  
 202 neither agreed nor disagreed.



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**Figure 2. Vaccine acceptance, COVID-19 importance, and side effect concerns in the study population. (A)** Intent to vaccinate. Survey participants were presented with the statement “I am

206 likely to be vaccinated when a vaccine for COVID-19 becomes available” and asked to choose how  
207 they felt about the statement, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” 68.54% either  
208 chose “agree” or “strongly agree.” (B) Participants were asked to rate how much of a problem  
209 COVID-19 is in America. (C) Participants were provided the statement “A vaccine is important to  
210 end the COVID-19 pandemic,” and asked to rate their level of agreement. (D) Participants were  
211 given the statement “I am worried about side effects of a vaccine for myself” and asked to rate how  
212 much they agreed with the statement.

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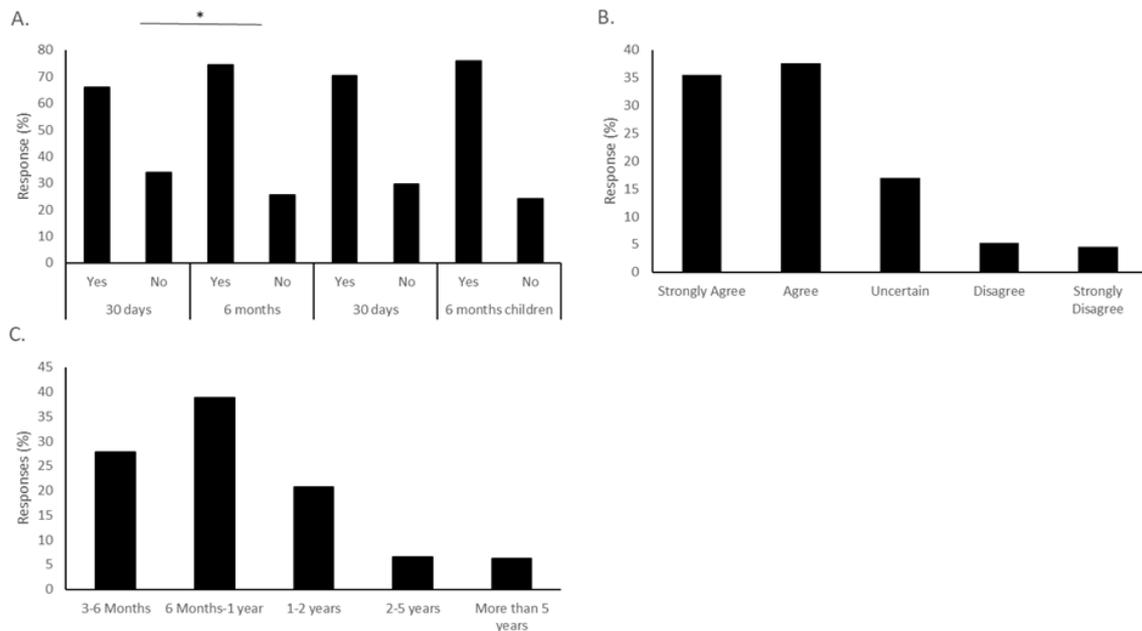
### 214 3.3 Time Spent in Clinical Testing

215 Respondents were asked about conditions that would affect their enthusiasm for a vaccine.  
216 When asked about the length of time a potential vaccine should be tested, 66% said they would be  
217 vaccinated if a vaccine were available in the next 30 days. The number of people willing to be  
218 vaccinated increased to 72% if the time span before a vaccine was available was extended to 6  
219 months, a statistically significant increase ( $\chi^2=5.38$ ,  $p=0.02$ ) (Figure 3A).

220 These same questions about timing were asked regarding the respondents’ willingness to  
221 vaccinate their children. Of the respondents with children, 70.45% were willing to vaccinate their  
222 children after a 30 day period, while 76% were willing to vaccinate their children if the vaccine were  
223 available in the next 6 months. Interestingly, this number is higher than those willing to vaccinate  
224 themselves within the same time frame of vaccine availability (Figure 3A).

225 The respondents who answered that they were unwilling to be vaccinated at each time frame  
226 were asked the reason why. For the 30-day time period, concerns about vaccine safety were the most  
227 commonly cited (45.45%), followed by “Other” (15.45%), and lack of trust in the source that  
228 encouraged them to receive the vaccine (13.54%). Of the respondents that selected “Other” and  
229 provided a reason, 10/16 indicated that they would need more testing before accepting the vaccine.  
230 Given a 6-month time frame, the reasons provided for not receiving the vaccine were not  
231 significantly different, although the number of refusals decreased.

232 To further understand the respondents’ attitudes about the connection between time to test the  
233 vaccine and vaccine safety, two other questions were asked. In response to the statement “I worry  
234 that the rushed pace of testing for a new COVID-19 vaccine will fail to detect potential side effects or  
235 dangers,” 35.49% strongly agreed, and 37.65% agreed, indicating that this was a concern for 73.14%  
236 of respondents (Figure 3B). In contrast, only 9.88% either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this  
237 statement. The second question asked the minimum length of time the vaccine would need to be  
238 tested for the respondents to be comfortable with the process. The most common answer was 6  
239 months to a year, with 38.84% choosing this answer. The second most common selection was 3-6  
240 months, (27.78%), followed by 1-2 years, (20.68%). Longer than two years was not often selected,  
241 with only 6.48% choosing 2-5 years, and 6.17% more than 5 years (Figure 3C).



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**Figure 3. The time frame of vaccine testing influences the intent to vaccinate. (A)** When asked if they would vaccinate themselves if a vaccine were available in the next 30 days, 66.05% of respondents answered affirmatively. When the time frame for vaccine availability was extended to 6 months, the number of people willing to be vaccinated significantly increased to 74.38% (\* $p=0.02$ ). The number of respondents willing to vaccinate their children also increased with increasing time to availability, but not significantly so. **(B)** Study participants were asked how much they agreed with the statement “I worry that the rushed pace of testing for a new COVID-19 vaccine will fail to detect potential side effects or dangers.” 35.49% “strongly agreed,” and 37.65% “agreed” with this statement. **(C)** When asked “What is the minimum length of time a testing process would take that would make you feel comfortable with a COVID-19 vaccine?” the most common answer was 6 months to 1 year, at 38.89%. 3-6 months was second, at 27.78%, and 1-2 years was third, at 20.68%

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When given a free-response option to identify their biggest fear about a potential COVID-19 vaccine, 51.85% of the meaningful responses expressed concerns about safety or side effects. Effectiveness was the second most expressed concern, at 10.65%. Not enough testing was third, with 10.18%. Finances were the primary concern for 2.77%. In contrast to those who worried about testing proceeding too rapidly, 2.31% were most concerned that the vaccine would not arrive in time, and 2.13% were afraid there would not be enough vaccine to go around or that there would be problems with distribution. Less than 1% were most worried about being tracked by microchips, the vaccine being made in China, or other people being unwilling to be vaccinated. Some people (10.65%) expressed that they had no concerns.

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Study participants were also asked what would make them feel safest about a potential COVID-19 vaccine. The largest number of responses (31.06%) were about sufficient testing, 22% were about sufficient efficacy, and known lack of side effects were mentioned 13.7% of the time. Nearly 7% of respondents would feel better if they thought the country was ready for a vaccine. Less than 1% ranked equity in distribution, the vaccine being made in the United States, having more information about the vaccine, or the vaccine being affordable as their item that would make them feel most secure. A large number (23.48%) said that they were unsure or that nothing would make them feel safe.

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### 3.4 Vaccine Efficacy

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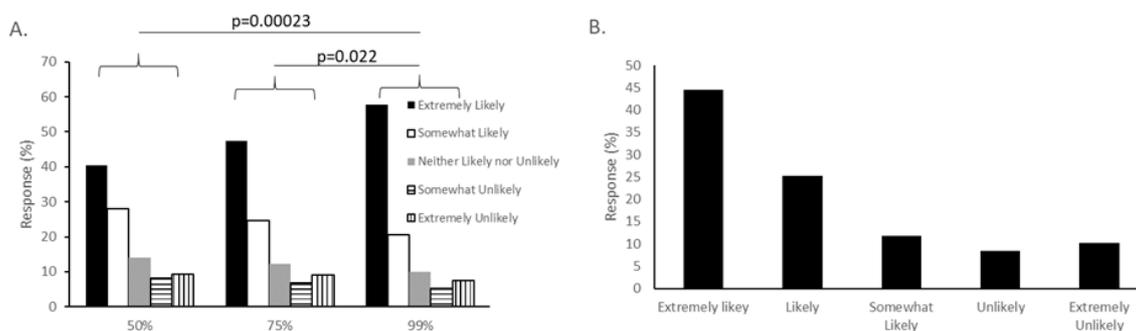
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Survey respondents were also concerned about vaccine efficacy. To evaluate this concern, we asked about three different levels of efficacy, and also about attitudes towards a vaccine that would need to be repeated yearly. Subjects were presented with three different hypothetical levels of

275 efficacy: a vaccine that protected 50%, 75%, or 99% of those immunized. When told the vaccine  
 276 would protect 50% of vaccinated people, 40.58% of respondents said they would be extremely likely  
 277 to vaccinate themselves, and 28.04% said they would be somewhat likely. 9.35% said they would be  
 278 very unlikely and 8.10% said they would be somewhat unlikely to receive the vaccine. With a 75%  
 279 efficacy rate, the numbers increased with 47.35% selecting “extremely likely” and 24.61% in the  
 280 “somewhat likely” group, although this difference between groups was not statistically significant  
 281 ( $p=0.171$ ). When subjects were presented with a 99% effective rate, there was a statistically  
 282 significant difference seen compared to the other groups. In this case, 56.70% chose “extremely  
 283 likely” and 20.56% chose “somewhat likely.” Repeated measures ANOVA indicated a significant  
 284 difference in variance between the three groups ( $p=1.5 \times 10^{-10}$ ). The 99% effective question showed a  
 285 significant increase in likelihood to vaccinate compared to either the 50% ( $p=0.00023$ ) or the 75%  
 286 ( $p=0.022$ ) questions. (Figure 4A).

287 Another aspect of vaccine efficacy is the length of immunity, as indicated by the need for  
 288 repeated booster immunizations. When asked if they would be likely to be vaccinated if the vaccine  
 289 required yearly boosters, 44% of respondents said it was extremely likely, and 25.31% said it was  
 290 likely. Only 18.42% said that they would be unlikely or extremely unlikely to be vaccinated yearly  
 291 (Figure 4B). There was no significant difference in attitudes towards a COVID-19 vaccine that  
 292 needed to be administered yearly and the overall attitude towards a COVID-19 vaccine.



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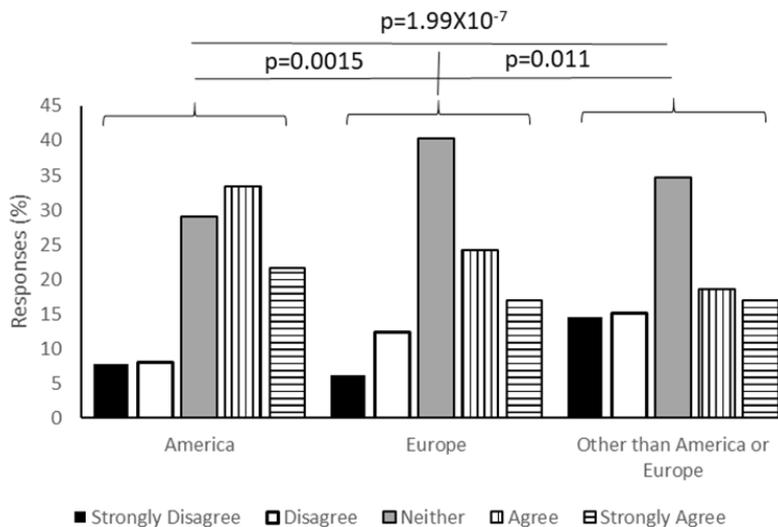
294 **Figure 4. Vaccine efficacy contributes to intent to vaccinate. (A)** Survey participants were given  
 295 three scenarios, where the hypothetical vaccine was 50% effective, 75% effective, or 99% effective,  
 296 and asked to rank how likely they were to be vaccinated under each scenario. The 99% effective  
 297 vaccine was significantly better received than the other two, with 78.26 of respondents either  
 298 somewhat or extremely likely to be vaccinated ( $p=0.022$  compared to 75%,  $p=0.00023$  compared to  
 299 50%). (B) Participants were asked about their attitudes towards a vaccine needing to be  
 300 re-administered each year. There was no significant difference between intent to use a yearly vaccine  
 301 and overall intent to be vaccinated.

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### 303 3.5 Location of Vaccine Development

304 Considering that Russia is promoting a vaccine, there are several vaccines in development in  
 305 China, and European and American institutions are all in late-stage vaccine development, it was  
 306 important to understand the influence of where the vaccine is developed on acceptance of the  
 307 vaccine in the United States. To this end, we asked for responses to three different statements:  
 308 “Knowing a COVID-19 vaccine was developed in America would make me feel more comfortable  
 309 receiving it.” “Knowing a COVID-19 vaccine was developed in Europe would make me feel more  
 310 comfortable receiving it” and “Knowing a COVID-19 vaccine was developed somewhere other than  
 311 America or Europe would make me feel more comfortable receiving it.” More recipients were  
 312 comfortable with an American-made vaccine than any other location, with 21.67% of respondents  
 313 selecting “Strongly agree” and 33.4% selecting “Agree.” For a European-developed vaccine, 17.03%  
 314 strongly agreed and 24.15% agreed that it would make them comfortable. For other locations, the  
 315 numbers were 17.03% strongly agree and 18.58% agree. Repeated-measures ANOVA indicated that

316 there was significant variance between responses ( $p=1.52 \times 10^{-12}$ ). Confidence in an  
 317 American-developed vaccine was significantly higher than a European vaccine ( $p=0.0015$ ) or one  
 318 developed in another location ( $p=1.99 \times 10^{-7}$ ). There was also slightly more confidence in a potential  
 319 European-developed vaccine than one developed in places other than Europe or America ( $p=0.011$ ).  
 320 (Figure 5)



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322 **Figure 5. Location of vaccine development influences willingness to vaccinate.** Survey  
 323 respondents were asked to rate the statement “Knowing a COVID-19 vaccine was developed in  
 324 America would make me feel more comfortable receiving it” from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly  
 325 Agree.” There was a significantly higher level of comfort with an American-developed vaccine  
 326 compared to a vaccine developed either in Europe ( $p=0.0015$ ) or “Other” locations ( $p=1.99 \times 10^{-7}$ ).  
 327 European development was also favored over “Other” ( $p=0.011$ ).

328

### 329 3.6 Types of Vaccine

330 Multiple different types of COVID-19 vaccines are currently in development, and the type of  
 331 vaccine may influence the public’s attitudes towards vaccination. We asked the respondents about  
 332 their level of comfort with attenuated, inactivated, subunit, RNA, and vector-based vaccines. A brief  
 333 explanation of each type was included with the question. The type of vaccine did not matter to the  
 334 respondents, as we observed no significant difference in comfort.

### 335 3.7 Demographic Factors

336 In this study, no correlation manifested between COVID-19 vaccine attitudes and demographic  
 337 factors. There was no significant difference based on race, sex, age, income level or political  
 338 affiliation.

### 339 3.8 Personal Relationships with COVID-19 Patients

340 The majority of respondents (61%) knew someone who had tested positive for SARS-CoV-2.  
 341 21.5% of respondents knew more than one person who tested positive. The most common  
 342 relationships were friends and friends of friends. We also measured the seriousness of the resulting  
 343 disease, from no symptoms to severe hospitalization to death, for each relationship. Moderate  
 344 symptoms without hospitalization were the most common outcome. Despite the high incidence of  
 345 COVID-19 among associates of the respondents, there was no statistical association with COVID-19  
 346 vaccine attitudes between either the closeness of the relationship or the seriousness of the disease.  
 347 Those who knew multiple people with the disease were no more likely to intend to vaccinate than  
 348 those who did not have a relationship with someone with COVID-19.

### 349 3.9. COVID-19 Knowledge

350 To test the respondents' knowledge about COVID-19 and SARS-CoV-2, we asked for responses  
351 to 8 true/false questions, then added up the correct answers for a total knowledge score. The  
352 questions were derived from the WHO coronavirus information page. The knowledge score did not  
353 significantly correlate with intent to vaccinate, fear of side effects or the response to the question  
354 "How closely do you follow news regarding COVID-19". The primary source of news about  
355 COVID-19 did not correlate with the knowledge score.

356 .

#### 357 4. Discussion

358 Most people in the United States rank COVID-19 as a severe problem, and most of them view a  
359 vaccine against COVID-19 as necessary and something they are willing to receive. However, even  
360 with a majority of people accepting of the vaccine, the number of enthusiastic or highly enthusiastic  
361 people still falls short of ideal, and possibly short of the numbers necessary to stop the pandemic.  
362 Several factors contribute to concerns about the vaccine, and a vaccine development and promotion  
363 strategy that addresses these concerns would be useful in increasing participation in a vaccination  
364 campaign.

365 Vaccine history was the most important predictor of the intent to receive a COVID-19 vaccine, a  
366 factor which reflects confidence in vaccines in general. This finding is reinforced by the concern  
367 about side effects seen throughout the responses. Therefore, any effective measures promoting  
368 information about the safety of vaccines or improving vaccine acceptance should also aid in  
369 COVID-19 vaccine acceptance. Efforts to improve transparency and thoroughness of testing will  
370 likely improve vaccine usage. These results are particularly relevant given the current push towards  
371 the early release of a vaccine, which, if it appears politically motivated or results in significant side  
372 effects, may have the effect of decreasing confidence in vaccines in general [20].

373 The other predictor of COVID-19 vaccine acceptance was the perception that COVID-19 is a serious  
374 problem for America. This finding suggests that efforts to emphasize the consequences of the  
375 pandemic on the overall well-being of America, including economic, social, and public costs of the  
376 disease, will likely be effective at encouraging vaccination. Interestingly, political affiliation was not  
377 predictive of intent to vaccinate, suggesting that the decision to be vaccinated is not political and  
378 therefore members of all political ideologies may be receptive to messages aimed at increasing  
379 COVID-19 vaccination.

380 Several of our original hypotheses were not supported by the results of the study. Our prior work  
381 showed that personal stories of people who had suffered vaccine-preventable diseases were effective  
382 in improving vaccine attitudes in vaccine-hesitant individuals. However, in this study, relationships  
383 with people who had tested positive did not predict vaccine attitudes. It may be the case that the  
384 overwhelming nature of the pandemic dilutes the effects of personal stories, since nearly everyone is  
385 affected to some degree. It may also be the case, since the impact of COVID-19 on America was a  
386 predictor of intent to vaccinate, that people are viewing this disease as a societal issue more than a  
387 personal one.

388 We had also predicted that specific knowledge of the disease, or a specific type of vaccine, would  
389 affect intent to vaccinate, which was not supported by the survey results. It seems that specific  
390 details are not extremely important in the case of attitudes towards a vaccine for COVID-19. Instead,  
391 general pro-vaccination principles, such as sufficient testing, safety, efficacy, and being "made in  
392 America" should be emphasized. Emphasis should also be placed on the societal good of  
393 vaccination, and the harms of the uncontrolled disease should be emphasized.

394 The major limitation of the study is the timing. During the two-week period between when the  
395 survey was released and the manuscript was submitted, a push for accelerated vaccine deployment

396 was announced by the CDC, and a major vaccine trial was paused due to safety concerns. The  
397 survey, therefore, does not reflect these two fairly significant occurrences. However, the findings of  
398 the survey should still apply, and will likely be heightened by these events. The number of  
399 respondents is also less than some surveys of this type, although our model fit statistics were robust.

400 **Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at [www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1](http://www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1), Table S1: Complete  
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