

1 Covid-19 Vaccine Concerns Among Ethnic Minorities: A Systematic Review Of UK 2 Studies

3 Abstract

4 Ethnic minority communities in the UK have been disproportionately affected by the pandemic,
5 with increased risks of infection, severe disease, and death. Hesitancy around the COVID-19
6 vaccine may be contributing to disparities in vaccine delivery to ethnic minority communities.
7 This systematic review aims to strengthen understanding of COVID-19 vaccine concerns
8 among ethnic minorities in the UK. Five databases were searched in February 2022, yielding
9 24 peer-reviewed studies reporting on vaccine hesitancy or acceptance in ethnic minority
10 groups. Data were extracted using a standardised form, and quality assessment was carried out
11 using the Standard Quality Criteria. There were three key themes: (1). Prevalence of vaccine
12 hesitancy; (2). Reasons for vaccine hesitancy and acceptance; and (3). Recommendations to
13 address vaccine concerns. Vaccine hesitancy, which was more common among some ethnic
14 minority groups, is a complex phenomenon, driven by misinformation, mistrust, concerns
15 about safety and efficacy, and structural and systemic inequities. Community engagement and
16 tailored communication may help to address vaccine concerns. Robust data disaggregated by
17 ethnicities are needed to better understand barriers and facilitators for COVID-19 vaccine
18 delivery in ethnic minority communities. Strategies to address structural disadvantage need to
19 be inclusive, comprehensive, and behaviorally informed and foster confidence in healthcare
20 systems and governments. Community leaders and health care practitioners may prove to be
21 the most important agents in creating an environment of trust within ethnic minority groups.

22 **Key words:** Covid-19 vaccine, vaccine hesitancy, ethnic minority, vaccine acceptance, trust

23 Introduction

24 The 8 million individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds in the UK [1] have been shown to
25 be at increased risk of acquiring COVID-19, and are over-represented among those who
26 become ill and die [2–4]. The reasons behind these disparities are multi-faceted and complex
27 [5]. Social circumstances, alongside experiences of discrimination and racism in the healthcare
28 system may contribute to mistrust, and to disparities in morbidity and mortality [6].

29 The UK Government recognised ethnic minorities as a priority group for vaccinations
30 following disproportionate morbidity and mortality in this population [7,8]. Despite strong
31 evidence for the safety and effectiveness of the vaccine, rates of vaccination are lowest in

32 ethnic minority groups [9]. Vaccine hesitancy, defined as “the delay in acceptance or refusal
33 of vaccines despite availability of vaccination services” [9] is a key obstacle to attaining the
34 vaccination levels necessary to contain the pandemic [12]. The aim of this systematic review
35 was to identify and synthesise evidence on COVID-19 vaccine concerns among ethnic
36 minorities in the UK.

37 **Methodology**

38 *Design*

39 Systematic review using PRISMA guidelines (PROSPERO RD42021243083) [13].

40 *Search strategy*

41 AMED, CINAHL, Embase, Ovid Medline, and PsycInfo were searched up to 18th February
42 2022. Hand searches were made of key journals and reference lists from included papers.
43 Searches were limited from January 2020 because COVID-19 started in December 2019 and
44 vaccines were rolled out from November 2020. The search strategy (Table-I) was developed
45 in consultation with an information specialist.

46 *Eligibility Criteria*

47 Peer-reviewed primary studies related to vaccine hesitancy or acceptance in ethnic minority
48 groups published in English from January 2020 to February 2022 were included (Table-II).

49 *Selection of studies, data collection and management*

50 All references identified by the search strategy were exported to Endnote and deduplicated,
51 followed by title and abstract, then full text screening (BH). If the decision was unclear this
52 was discussed with a second reviewer (KN) with adjudication by a third (AL) (Figure-I).

53 *Data extraction*

54 BH extracted study data using methods described in the Cochrane handbook for systematic
55 reviews [14]. A standardised data extraction form was used to ensure consistency in the review
56 [15] (Table-III). KN reviewed the data extraction, and any queries were resolved through
57 discussion.

58 *Assessment of methodological quality of the studies*

59 The Standard Quality Criteria [16] were used to assess the quality of primary data (Table-III).
60 Studies were not excluded based on quality. Two reviewers (BH and KN) assessed the quality

61 of each study independently and met to compare their assessments. Disagreement was resolved
62 by discussion, and a third reviewer (AL) checked the appraisals if an agreement was not
63 reached.

64 *Data analysis*

65 Included studies were analysed using narrative synthesis in line with Guidance on the Conduct
66 of Narrative Synthesis in Systematic Reviews [17]. The preliminary synthesis was performed
67 by tabulation, grouping and clustering to demonstrate the characteristics of each included
68 paper.

69 **Findings**

70 **Overview:**

71 Twenty four studies were included. Nineteen studies used survey-based quantitative methods,
72 two were Randomised Control Trials (RCTs), and two used mixed methods (qualitative semi-
73 structured interviews alongside a survey), one used semi-structure interviews. The findings are
74 presented under three themes.

75 **Theme – I Prevalence of vaccine hesitancy and vaccine acceptance among ethnic** 76 **minority populations**

77 A substantial proportion of ethnic minority adults in the UK report uncertainty about the safety
78 and effectiveness of the COVID-19 vaccine. Vaccine hesitancy was more common among
79 individuals from Black, Asian, and Mixed ethnic backgrounds [18–22]. Only one study
80 reported that ethnicity was not associated with vaccine hesitancy [23].

81 Freeman et al [19] found that vaccine hesitancy is associated with ethnicity along with other
82 factors such as younger age, female gender, and lower income. Robertson et al [21] reported
83 vaccine hesitancy was highest in Black (71.8%) and Pakistani/Bangladeshi (42.3%) groups
84 (OR 13.42, 95% CI:6.86, 26.24 and 2.54, 95% CI:1.19, 5.44 respectively) compared to white
85 British/Irish. Bell et al [18] found that participants that identified as Black, Asian, Chinese,
86 Mixed or Other ethnicity were 2.7 times (95% CI: 1.27–5.87) more likely than White
87 participants to report that they would decline a COVID-19 vaccine for themselves or their child.

88 In Jackson et al [24] study 16% of participants did not trust vaccines. A survey among
89 undergraduates (n=739) found that participants from Black backgrounds expressed
90 considerably lower confidence than those from White or Mixed backgrounds ($p < 0.001$) [25].

91 Williams et al [22] found that white participants were more likely to accept a vaccine compared
92 to those from ethnic minorities (regression coefficient 2.91; 95% CI 1.75–4.8; $p < 0.001$).
93 Sherman et al [23] reported contradictory results, showing that intention to be vaccinated was
94 not associated with ethnicity (regression coefficient -0.66 (.394, 261) $p = 0.602$). Loomba et al
95 [26] found that individuals from Black ethnic groups were less likely to reject the vaccine upon
96 exposure to misinformation, relative to factual information to protect self and others, while
97 participants from Asian ethnic backgrounds were more likely to decline the vaccine upon
98 exposure to misinformation, relative to factual information to protect self and others.

99 Freeman et al [27] investigated the effects of different types of written vaccination information
100 on hesitancy. They concluded that Black individuals tended to have an opposite reaction to
101 some of the information conditions (i.e. they had lower hesitancy scores for the control
102 condition) compared with other ethnicities, although this was only significant for the condition
103 “collective benefit of not transmitting”; mean difference 1.25 , 95% CI 0.03 to 2.47 ; $p = 0.033$).
104 “Collective and personal benefit” was the only other condition to show significant differences
105 by ethnicity, with Asian individuals showing the greatest reduction in hesitancy (-1.28 , -2.26
106 to -0.31 ; $p = 0.038$) [27]. Glampson et al [28] found that Black or Black British individuals had
107 the highest rates of declining a vaccine invitation at 16.14% (4337/26,870). Perry et al [29]
108 aimed to identify inequalities in COVID-19 vaccination in Wales. The odds of being vaccinated
109 were lower for individuals who were from an ethnic group other than White. The largest
110 inequality was seen between Black individuals compared to those from any White ethnic group
111 (OR 0.22, 95 %CI 0.21–0.24).

112 Skirrow et al [30] investigated pregnant women’s views on the vaccine. Compared to women
113 from White ethnic groups, women from ethnic minorities were twice as likely to reject a
114 vaccine ($p < 0.005$). Income and ethnicity were the main drivers. Blakeway et al [31] found
115 evidence of reduced vaccine uptake in younger pregnant women ($P < 0.001$), women with high
116 levels of deprivation, and women of Afro-Caribbean or Asian ethnicity compared with women
117 of White ethnicity ($P < 0.001$). Nguyen et al [32] compared U.S. and U.K. participants. In the
118 U.K., ethnic minority participants showed higher vaccine hesitancy than the White ethnic
119 group.

120 Woolf et al [33] studied vaccine hesitancy among healthcare workers (HCWs). Black
121 Caribbean (OR 3.37, 95% CI 2.11 - 5.37), Black African (OR 2.05, 95% CI 1.49 - 2.82), and
122 White Other ethnic groups (OR 1.48, 95% CI 1.19 - 1.84) were significantly more likely to be

123 hesitant than white British. Martin et al [34] examined vaccine uptake in NHS staff. Compared
124 to White HCWs (70.9% vaccinated), a significantly smaller proportion of ethnic minority
125 HCWs were vaccinated (South Asian, 58.5%; Black, 36.8%; $p < 0.001$ for both). After
126 adjustment, belonging to any non-White ethnic group was negatively associated with vaccine
127 uptake (Black: adjusted odds ratio [OR] 0.30, 95% CI 0.26–0.34, $p < 0.001$; South Asian: OR
128 0.67, 95% CI 0.62–0.72, $p < 0.001$).

129 Byrne et al [35] measured vaccination intention in England and Wales. They found that over
130 the studied time frame (December 2020-January 2021), association between minority ethnicity
131 and intention to accept the vaccine weakened, but did not disappear. Curtis et al [36] studied
132 actual vaccine uptake in different clinical and demographic groups in the first 100 days of the
133 vaccine rollout. Of patients aged ≥ 80 years not in a care home 94.7% received a vaccine, but
134 with substantial variation by ethnicity (White 96.2%, Black 68.3%).

135 **Theme 2 Factors influencing hesitancy and vaccine acceptance among ethnic minority** 136 **groups**

137 Nine studies reported information on factors that influence vaccine hesitancy and acceptance.
138 Freeman et al [19] demonstrated that the variance in vaccine hesitancy among different
139 population groups (including ethnic minorities) is mainly explained by beliefs about the
140 collective importance of getting vaccinated, efficacy of the vaccine, side-effects and the speed
141 of development of a COVID-19 vaccine. Other factors explaining hesitancy included excessive
142 mistrust, conspiracy beliefs, and negative views about doctors and government. Lockyer et al
143 [37] found that vaccine hesitancy could be attributed to three factors: safety concerns about the
144 vaccine, negative stories about the vaccine and personal knowledge related to health, illness
145 and the vaccine. The more confused, distressed and mistrusting participants felt about their
146 social worlds during the pandemic, the less positive they were about a vaccine.

147 Allington et al [38] also identified coronavirus conspiracy suspicions and general vaccine
148 attitudes contributed to vaccine acceptance. Robertson et al [21] found that the main reason for
149 vaccine hesitancy was concerns over future unknown effects of a vaccine, 42.7% citing this as
150 their main reason. When compared to the White British/Irish group, Black/Black British
151 participants were more likely to state they ‘Don’t trust covid-19 vaccines’ (29.2% vs 5.7%),
152 and the Pakistani/Bangladeshi ethnic group cited worries about side-effects (35.4% vs 8.6%).
153 The survey also highlighted that 43.2% of Black/Black British participants were not prepared
154 to have the vaccine with a further 44.7% suggesting that they would consider this if safety of

155 the vaccine was demonstrated. In the Pakistani/Bangladeshi cohort 65.2% reported that they
156 would be persuaded if sure the vaccine reduced their risk of catching the virus and 64.6% if it
157 was demonstrated to be safe. Skirrow et al [30] also exposed trust issues. They found that safety
158 concerns about COVID-19 vaccines were common, though wider mistrust in vaccines was also
159 expressed. Gaughan et al [39] found that all minority ethnic groups had lower age-standardized
160 rates of vaccination compared with the white British population. The lower rates were partly
161 explained by socio-demographic differences.

162 Chaudhuri et al [40] examined how attitudes towards public officials and government impacted
163 vaccine willingness. They found that ethnic minority groups were more likely to be unwilling
164 to be vaccinated. Positive opinions about public officials (OR 2.680; 95% CI 1.888 – 3.805)
165 and the government (OR 3.400; 95% CI 2.454—4.712) led to substantial increases in vaccine
166 willingness. This effect varied across ethnicity and socio-economic status with those from
167 South Asian backgrounds (OR 4.513; 95% CI 1.012—20.123) being the most unwilling to be
168 vaccinated compared to white groups. Cook et al [41] sought to examine the factors that
169 impacted the decision to accept the COVID-19 vaccination among an ethnically diverse
170 community. Age and ethnicity were the only sociodemographic factors to predict vaccine
171 hesitancy. ‘Lack of trust in government/authorities’ and ‘concern about the speed of vaccine
172 development’ were the most common reasons for non-uptake.

173 Woodhead et al [42] identified that decision-making processes were underpinned by an
174 overarching theme of ‘weighing up risks of harm against potential benefits to self and others’.
175 They identified ways in which these were weighted more heavily towards vaccine hesitancy
176 for ethnic minority staff groups who perceived institutional and structural discrimination. This
177 included suspicions around institutional pressure to be vaccinated, ethnic injustices in vaccine
178 development and testing, religious or ethical concerns, and legitimacy and accessibility of
179 vaccine messaging and communication.

180 **Theme – 3 Recommendations from included studies to improve vaccine uptake among** 181 **ethnic minority populations**

182 *3.1 Communicating information about risks of not getting vaccination and benefits of* 183 *vaccination*

184 Six studies reported data on communicating about the risks and benefits of vaccination.
185 Sherman et al [23] stated that COVID-19 vaccination intention reflected general vaccine beliefs
186 and attitudes. Campaigns and messaging about vaccination could consider emphasising the risk

187 of COVID-19 to others, and the necessity for everyone to be vaccinated for it to be effective in
188 controlling infection. Freeman et al [27] identified that willingness to take a COVID -19
189 vaccine is closely bound to recognition of the collective importance of vaccination. Therefore,
190 vaccine public information that highlights prosocial benefits may be especially effective.

191 However, Freeman et al [19] found that for people who are strongly hesitant about COVID-19
192 vaccines, offering information on the personal health benefits and addressing safety concerns
193 about speed of development of the vaccine, upfront, helps in reducing vaccine hesitancy.
194 Communicating the collective benefits of getting the vaccination, such as not transmitting the
195 virus to others were not found helpful in reducing vaccine hesitancy among those holding
196 strong negative views on the vaccine.

197 Woodhead et al [42] suggested that instead of generalised approaches to encouraging uptake,
198 vaccine promotion activities should be: tailored to the concerns within and between different
199 groups; transparent in acknowledging the causes of concerns; and considerate of intersectional
200 social statuses. Approaches must avoid perpetuating mistrust by decontextualising hesitancy
201 from underpinning social processes and not pressuring, discriminating against, or shaming
202 marginalised communities for being hesitant. Gaughan et al [39] recommended that culturally
203 tailored public health measures to improve vaccination rates should be targeted to Black
204 communities, certain religious groups and people living in deprived areas. For women who are
205 pregnant, Skirrow et al [30] recommended that safety information on COVID-19 vaccines must
206 be clearly communicated to pregnant women to provide reassurance and facilitate informed
207 pregnancy vaccine decisions. Targeted interventions to promote COVID-19 vaccine uptake
208 among ethnic minority and lower-income women may be needed.

209 *3.2 Addressing mistrust*

210 Eight studies reported data on addressing mistrust about the vaccine. Bell et al [18] reported
211 that information on how COVID-19 vaccines are developed and tested, including their safety
212 and efficacy, must be communicated clearly to the public. They identified concerns around the
213 safety and effectiveness of a ‘rushed’ COVID-19 vaccine, and suggested that starting a
214 conversation with the public early is key to understanding factors that may affect vaccine
215 acceptability, and developing approaches to allay concerns.

216 Freeman et al [19] noted that factors such as conspiracy beliefs that foster mistrust and erode
217 social cohesion will lower vaccine up-take. Allington et al [38] suggested strengthening
218 positive attitudes to vaccination and reducing conspiracy suspicions may have a positive effect

219 on vaccine uptake. Lockyer et al [37] recommended that the vaccine programmes should
220 provide a localised and empathetic response to counter misinformation. Paul et al [20] reported
221 negative attitudes towards vaccines as a major public health concern. General mistrust in
222 vaccines and concerns about future side effects are barriers to vaccination. They recommended
223 public health messaging should be tailored to address these concerns, for women, ethnic
224 minorities, and people with lower levels of education and incomes.

225 Robertson et al [21] recommended urgent initiatives to improve vaccine uptake in Black
226 ethnic groups by working in close partnership with communities and making use of
227 community champions. While universal and targeted educational interventions are necessary
228 to enable the public to understand the importance of vaccination, they are not enough to
229 modify behaviour or increase confidence. Therefore, full endorsement from regulatory bodies
230 is likely to increase confidence, but efforts to combat misinformation, especially around
231 vaccine safety, may be warranted. The rise in vaccine hesitancy as a result of misinformation
232 coincides with the rise in social media. There is a need to proactively engage young people
233 using online platforms and traditional formal and informal communication mediums such as
234 churches, mosque, and family gatherings in order to meaningfully engage with these groups
235 and support the delivery of vaccines.

236 Woodhead et al [42] concluded that acknowledging historical and contemporary abuses of
237 power is essential to avoid perpetuating and aggravating mistrust by decontextualizing
238 hesitancy from the social processes affecting hesitancy, undermining efforts to increase
239 vaccine uptake. Chaudhuri et al [40] suggested that trust in public officials plays a key factor
240 in the low vaccination rates seen in at-risk groups. Health promotion advice given to these
241 groups needs to be tailored as well as examining methods to improve trust in public officials
242 and the government.

243 *3.3. Need for more research*

244 Five studies reported the need for more research on the reasons for vaccine hesitancy. Bell et
245 al [18] argued that it is important to understand factors affecting COVID-19 vaccine uptake in
246 Black, Asian and other ethnic minority groups. For Lockyer et al [37] vaccine hesitancy needs
247 to be understood in the context of the relationship between misinformation and associated
248 emotional reactions. William et al [22] suggest that future interventions, such as mass media
249 and social marketing, need to be targeted at a range of sub-populations, necessitating better
250 understanding of the barriers to vaccination. Robertson et al [21] said that qualitative research

251 on the reasons for vaccine hesitancy should help develop approaches to overcoming hesitancy.
252 Similarly Cook et al [41] recommended that further work is needed to investigate the most
253 effective approaches to communicating with ethnically diverse communities

254 **Discussion**

255 This systematic review is the first comprehensive study to bring together the UK literature
256 about vaccine hesitancy in minority groups. It is evident that communities that face higher
257 levels of systemic deprivation and low levels of vaccination coverage for non-communicable
258 diseases like seasonal influenza may also be more likely to experience vaccine hesitancy. The
259 pandemic has been recognized to have a syndemic nature [43], as COVID-19, adverse social
260 conditions, and structural inequalities have been found to work together to increase risk from
261 the virus [44]. Vaccine hesitancy is a complex phenomenon depending on a host of contextual
262 factors. Our findings align with the SAGE report on factors influencing COVID-19 vaccine
263 uptake among ethnic minorities [9], which highlighted perception of risk, confidence, loss of
264 trust, inconvenience, and lack of appropriate communication about vaccines from trusted
265 healthcare providers or community leaders.

266 Misconceptions about the immunisation process [45], lack of trust in government or healthcare
267 [46], newness of a vaccine [47], perceived incompatibility of vaccines with religious and
268 cultural beliefs [25] and conspiracy theories [48] were highlighted as factors known to
269 aggravate lack of confidence in vaccines. The framework of confidence, complacency, and
270 convenience (three Cs) is used to summarise the different facets that contribute to vaccine
271 hesitancy [11,49], reflecting the SAGE report [9] (Table - IV).

272 Existing uncertainty about the vaccine has been attributed to the novelty of the virus, the fast
273 pace of vaccine development, medical mistrust and suspicion towards science, health services,
274 or government within sub-groups [50–52] as well as mounting apprehensions over
275 politicisation of the vaccine and standards of its efficacy and safety [51–53]. For instance, a
276 significant decline in vaccine acceptability was recorded in the United States [52], potentially
277 resulting from politicisation of the vaccine during the US 2020 Presidential Election campaign
278 [54,55]. Another important factor is historical medical mistrust resulting from historical
279 coercion and structural inequalities, notably within the Black community, which has been
280 found to lower vaccine uptake [56].

281 Earlier experiences with vaccination campaigns have demonstrated the significance of
282 engagement with audiences for effective promotion and implementation. Communication with

283 specific audiences is essential, and will require development of effective and tailored
284 vaccination-related information and messages predicated on an understanding of wide-ranging
285 concerns and beliefs of audiences [57–59]. A human-centered, targeted approach that relies on
286 a range of intervention methods suited to specific subsets of the population has been found to
287 be effective [60]. It is also crucial that these interventions are developed from research-based
288 insight. Further investment in social science research will be paramount [61].

289 Vaccine hesitancy is driven largely by a wide range of individual experiences and personal
290 beliefs [62]. Appropriate information and positive engagement may facilitate uptake [63]. The
291 extensive anxiety, experiences of loss, and psychological exhaustion caused by the COVID-19
292 crisis have had a severe bearing on health behaviours and vaccination intent [64–67]. COVID-
293 19 vaccine messaging will require understanding and engagement with feelings of fear and
294 mistrust in order to decrease vaccine-related uncertainties. A focus on awareness in the target
295 audiences of the manipulative tactics used by anti-vaccination campaigns can be helpful in
296 protecting individuals from the effects of those campaigns [63].

297 Healthcare professionals are seen trusted sources of vaccine-related information [68],
298 particularly in the pandemic [69]. The SAGE report supports this, highlighting the benefit of
299 engagement between communities and trusted sources [9]. Vaccination rates have been
300 influenced by healthcare provider recommendations [70–72]. A survey in the US showed a
301 higher probability of vaccine acceptance among patients after recommendation from a
302 healthcare provider [56]. However, given medical mistrust, conspiracy theories, and
303 experiences of marginalisation, healthcare provider education is needed on vaccine safety,
304 efficacy, and cultural issues [9,56,61].

305 Community leaders are valuable mediators for knowledge-sharing between marginalised
306 communities, and healthcare providers and policymakers, and can facilitate engagement and
307 inform response strategies [9]. Religious leaders are effective in delivering communication
308 regarding vaccinations, positively influencing vaccination uptake in their communities, as well
309 as facilitating engagement where there is limited trust in governments or health care systems
310 [73]. Engaging religious leaders in vaccine promotion can also help in mitigation of vaccine-
311 related uncertainty fuelled by conspiracy theories and misinformation. However, it is important
312 that engagement with religious leaders is sensitive to religious and cultural concerns, and
313 supported by adequate training and education. For instance, a decline in vaccine confidence in
314 Indonesia was associated with Muslim leaders' concerns regarding safety of the MMR vaccine,

315 which was then declared ‘haram’ (religiously prohibited) and thus forbidden for Muslims [74].
316 The identification of ‘community leaders’ must be guided by communities themselves to
317 ensure they meaningfully represent the views of these groups.

318 Effective and equitable delivery of COVID-19 vaccinations will depend on organizational-
319 level change. Removal of structural barriers to vaccine access can increase vaccination
320 uptake, especially among ethnic minority groups [6]. Reduction in procedure-related friction
321 e.g. waiting times, and inconvenient locations of vaccination centres can lead to higher levels
322 of vaccine uptake. Research [71] has suggested that making vaccination available at
323 accessible outlets within the community (e.g. retail pharmacies, healthcare centres, schools,
324 retirement homes or community centres) has potential to increase both vaccine confidence
325 and vaccine uptake across populations.

326 **Strengths and limitations of the review**

327 This is the first comprehensive examination of the evidence on vaccine hesitancy among ethnic
328 minority communities in the UK. It highlights the limited evidence in this area and the need
329 for more robust research. The main limitation is that several studies recorded data before the
330 approval of COVID-19 vaccines and are therefore based on intention to vaccinate [18–
331 20,22,23,26]. Views around vaccine hesitancy are also likely to fluctuate. Another limitation
332 concerns the small sample sizes reported in the studies. In most cases, findings related to ethnic
333 minority groups are presented collectively, rather than disaggregating groups by ethnicity
334 [22,75,76].

335 Most of the studies were survey-based, conducted online, and using a cross-sectional design,
336 which may have limitations. There may be disparities in access to online surveys due to
337 language barriers or digital literacy, particularly among first-generation migrants or elderly
338 participants. No standard definition given in the studies of BAME or BME, and different
339 studies used these terms interchangeably, making generalization of the findings challenging.

340 **Conclusions and implications for policy and practice**

341 To address disparities in delivery and uptake of the vaccine, the voice of ethnic minority groups
342 and their social and health circumstances must be better understood. There have been strong
343 calls for attention to the disproportionate burden of COVID-19 on ethnic minority groups, with
344 warnings that inaction will be responsible for further inequities in mortality [8,77]. This
345 systematic review therefore has several important implications, which we outline in Table-V.

346 The evidence base points to concerns around the COVID-19 vaccine in ethnic minority
347 communities which contributes to disparities in delivery of vaccinations. More robust data are
348 needed, disaggregated by ethnicity, to better understand barriers and facilitators to the delivery
349 of COVID-19 vaccinations. Effective promotion will require the development of tailored
350 information informed by the concerns and experiences of ethnic minority communities. In
351 addition, organisational level change is needed to address structural barriers, inequities, and
352 discrimination. Ultimately, this review underscores the importance of meaningful engagement
353 and co-production approaches with ethnic minority communities to address the complex and
354 multidimensional concerns and experiences contributing to vaccine hesitancy in ethnic
355 minority communities in the UK.

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