

The French Covid-19 vaccination policy did not solve vaccination inequities: a nationwide longitudinal study on 64.5 million individuals

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Abstract

Context: To encourage Covid-19 vaccination, France introduced during the Summer 2021 a “Sanitary Pass,” which morphed into a “Vaccine Passe” in early 2022. While the Sanity Pass led to an increase in Covid-19 vaccination rates, spatial heterogeneities in vaccination rates remained. To identify potential determinants of these heterogeneities and evaluate the French Sanitary and Vaccine Pass’ efficacies in reducing them, we used a data-driven approach on exhaustive nationwide data, gathering 141 socio-economic, political and geographic indicators.

Methods: We considered the association between being a district above the median value of the first-dose vaccination rates and being above the median value of each indicator at different time points: just before the sanitary pass announcement (week 2021-W27), just before the sanitary pass came into force (week 2021-W31) and one month after (week 2021-W35), and the equivalent dates for the vaccine pass (weeks 2021-W49, 2022-W03, 2022-W07). We then considered the change over time of vaccination rates according to deciles of the three of the most associated indicators.

Results: The indicators most associated with vaccination rates were the share of local income coming from unemployment benefits, the proportion of overcrowded households, the proportion of immigrants in the district, and vote for an “anti-establishment” candidate at the 2017 Presidential election. Vaccination rate also were also contrasted along a North-West – South East axis, with lower vaccination coverage in the South-East of France.

40 Conclusion: Our analysis reveals that, both before and after the introduction of the French
41 sanitary and vaccination passes, factors with the largest impact are related to poverty, immi-
42 gration, and trust in the government.

43 **Keywords:**

44 vaccination, covid-19, data mining, socio-economic factors, health inequities.

45 Introduction

46 The rapid development of effective COVID-19 vaccines brought the hope of a rapid return to
47 normalcy, but heterogeneous vaccination rates, both among countries because of inequitable
48 distributions of doses (Usher 2021) and within countries (Caspi et al. 2021; Murthy et al.
49 2021), jeopardize epidemic control.

50 Hesitancy and hostility toward vaccination have been comparatively high in France in recent
51 decades (European Commission. Directorate General for Health and Food Safety. 2018).
52 Modern vaccine hesitancy in France started with claims of a link between the hepatitis
53 B vaccine and multiple sclerosis (J. K. Ward et al. 2019); it strongly increased following
54 the 2009-2010 vaccination campaign against pandemic flu, the contested management
55 of which in France was a tipping point that led to higher vaccine hesitancy and hostility
56 (Guimier 2021; J. K. Ward et al. 2019). The trend was confirmed with the COVID-19 pandemic
57 (Lindholt et al. 2021; Spire, Bajos, and Silberzan 2021): just before Covid-19 vaccines became
58 available, intentions to get vaccinated were comparatively very low in France compared
59 to other countries (44% of the respondents in (Wouters et al. 2021) in the Fall 2020; about
60 40% of respondent in (Santé Publique France 2021) in December 2020). Acceptance of the
61 COVID-19 vaccine however gradually grew during 2021 (Santé Publique France 2021; J. Ward
62 2021).

63 Spatial heterogeneities in vaccination rates have already been documented in France for
64 previous vaccines. Vaccination coverage for the Hepatitis B vaccine and for the Measles-
65 Mumps-Rubella vaccine has been lower in the South of France, and especially in the South-
66 East of the country (Guimier 2021). Distance to the central political power in Paris, as well
67 as a sense of belonging to a local community with a strong cultural identity, have been put
68 forward as potential explanations for this geographic gradient in vaccination rates (Guimier
69 2021).

70 Attitudes toward vaccination are also known to be influenced by social and territorial inequal-
71 ities. Surveys conducted in 2020 in France showed that respondents with lower education
72 (Schwarzinger et al. 2021; Coulaud et al. 2022), lower income levels or less trust in authorities
73 (Spire, Bajos, and Silberzan 2021; Lindholt et al. 2021) were more likely to be hostile to
74 COVID-19 vaccines.

75 By mid-July 2021, France was facing an epidemic wave due to the Delta variant. To speed up
76 vaccination, President Macron announced on 12 July 2021 the implementation of a domestic
77 “sanitary pass” (le passe sanitaire), which came fully into force on 9 August 2021. Presenting
78 as a QR code, a long-term sanitary pass was obtained after full vaccination (two doses, or
79 only one dose in the case of a documented previous Covid-19 infection), and a short-term
80 version could be obtained with a negative Covid-19 test. The “sanitary pass” was required
81 in most cultural venues, for both indoor and outdoor dining and in health structures. This
82 announcement led to an unprecedented demand for vaccination (Oliu-Barton et al. 2022),
83 which was considered internationally as a potential model to follow. Vaccination rates
84 climbed from about 64% of the population over 20 years old by 11 July 2021 (52% of all ages)
85 to 82 on 5 September 2021 (69% of all ages). Because it targeted pay-for social activities,
86 however, the “sanitary pass” was feared to have a limited impact on vaccination inequities.
87 By mid-December 2021, at the height of the winter Delta wave, and while the Omicron wave
88 was looming, the French Prime Minister announced that the Sanitary Pass would become a
89 Vaccine Pass, i.e. that a negative Covid-19 test would not provide a temporary QR code any
90 longer for adults – making vaccination implicitly mandatory in France. The Vaccine Pass
91 came into force on 24 January 2022.

92 This study aims to obtain further insights on the socio-economic, political and geographic
93 factor associated with vaccination rates, and to evaluate the effect of the French domestic
94 sanitary pass, by using nation-wide, exhaustive datasets.

95 **Methods**

96 **Data**

97 The French state health insurance service (Assurance Maladie) provides public datasets of
98 vaccination rates in France. These datasets are based on aggregated individual data on bene-
99 ficiaries of the national health insurance service who received health care in the past year.
100 These exhaustive datasets are updated weekly, and are provided at the district scale nationally
101 (EPCI: *Établissement public de coopération intercommunale*, an administrative level gather-
102 ing multiple towns or cities) and at the suburban scale for the Paris, Lyon, and Marseille
103 metropolitan areas. For this study, we focused on mainland France, because vaccination
104 rates are much lower in overseas localities, and because determinants of vaccination rates are
105 likely to differ in overseas localities compared to mainland ones. Our dataset included 1555
106 districts (1228 EPCIs and 327 districts at the suburban scale in Paris, Lyon, Marseille).

107 The vaccination dataset for mainland France encompasses about 64.5 million individuals
108 (median district size 22310 inhabitants, interquartile range 11012–43038). The vaccination
109 data are available by age class: 00–19, 20–39, 40–54, 55–64, 65–74, 75 and over. Population
110 sizes for each locality and each age class are also provided.

111 We paired these vaccination data with three other datasets gathering socio-economic, politi-
112 cal orientation and geographic variables.

113 Socio-economic data are provided by the French national statistics institute (INSEE), and
114 are available at the same administrative levels as the vaccination data. We selected the
115 most recent dataset available (year 2018). The different variables available in the dataset
116 are classified by INSEE according to 8 categories (Activity, Education, Employment, Family,
117 Housing, Immigration, Income, Population).

118 Latitude, longitude and surface data were extracted from open geographic datasets. We cal-
119 culated from them four additional geographic indicators: distance to Paris, relative position
120 along a South-East–North–West gradient, relative position along a South–West–North–East
121 gradient, and local population density.

122 Political orientation data consisted of the results of the 2017 Presidential election in France,
123 which we aggregated to reconstitute the same administrative levels as the vaccination dataset.
124 This political dataset contains the proportions of votes for each of the 11 candidates of the
125 first round, 2 candidates of the second round (Macron and Le Pen), and proportion of
126 abstention at each round.

127 These three datasets comprised 312 indicators. We then removed those indicators with over
128 5% missing data, or with over 0.9 correlation with other indicators of the dataset, which left
129 us with 141 indicators: 123 socio-economic indicators (Activity: $n = 10$; Education: $n = 16$;
130 Employment: $n = 25$; Family: $n = 20$; Housing: $n = 30$; Immigration: $n = 1$; Income: $n = 13$;
131 Population: $n = 8$); 6 geographic indicators; 12 political indicators.

132 **Analysis**

133 Vaccination was accessible to all adults in France after 27 May 2021. It opened to teenagers
134 (12–17 year olds) on 15 June 2021, and to children (5–11 year olds) on 22 December 2021.
135 Because of this differential accessibility of vaccines, and because vaccine passport rules also
136 differed for non-adults, we excluded the 00–19 age class from our analysis, and focused on
137 vaccination rates among 20+ year-old individuals (hereafter “adults”).

138 For each indicator in our dataset, at each of the four chosen dates (weeks 2021-W27, 2021-
139 W31, 2021-W35, 2021-W49, 2022-W03, 2022-W07), we considered the association between
140 living in a district above the median of a that indicator and individual first-dose vaccination
141 rates among adults. Odds ratios (OR) were computed from the output of a logistic regression.

142 To be able to compare predictors irrespective of the direction of the effect, we considered
143 the maximum of OR , $1/OR$ (hereafter \overline{OR}). Note that vaccination data are at the individual
144 level, and indicator data at the district level. The analysis is done at the individual level, with
145 indicators characterizing the geographic districts in which individuals live.

146 For each date, we determined a significance threshold by computing odds ratios on 1000
147 random permutations of a predictor, and identifying the value of the 99% percentile odd
148 ratios (\overline{OR}) of these permuted data.

149 For representative indicators among the most statistically significantly associated ones, we
150 estimated standardized vaccination rates among adults over time, for each decile of each
151 indicator (treated as a factor). These estimations were obtained from a logistic model taking
152 age class into account; adult vaccination rates were standarsized using an age distribution
153 matching that of mainland France.

154 All analysis code is available at <https://github.com/flodebarre/covid-passports-france> (and
155 will be stored on a permanent repository upon acceptance); analyses were done in R version
156 4.0.4 (2021-02-15).

157 Results

158 We investigated the associations between each of the 141 indicators characterizing districts
159 of residence, and the fact of having received at least one Covid-19 vaccine dose, on the whole
160 population of mainland France. Two indicators were among the top five most associated
161 one at all time points (see Figure 1): the share of local income coming from unemploy-
162 ment benefits (Unemployment_Benef; strongest association on 2022-01-23, $OR = 0.716$)
163 and vote for the “anti-establishment” political party represented by the candidate Asselineau
164 (Asselineau; $OR = 0.712$ on 2022-02-20). The three other most associated indicators did
165 not change in the later dates that we considered, and were the proportion of immigrants in
166 the district (Immigrant; $OR = 0.713$ on 2022-02-20), the district’s relative position along a
167 North-West–South-East gradient (NW–SE; $OR = 0.745$ on 2021-12-12) and the proportion of
168 overcrowded households (Overcrowding_rate; $OR = 0.738$ on 2022-01-23).

169 Our odds ratio calculations were based on a crude version of each indicator, which were
170 dichotomized into values above or below the median of each indicator. To better visualize
171 the effects (or lack thereof) of the sanitary and vaccine passes on vaccination rates over
172 time, we computed age-adjusted vaccination rates over time, by decile of three of the most
173 associated indicators, treated as factors (see Figure 2). The Sanitary Pass, implemented in
174 the Summer 2021, led to an overall increase in vaccination rates; on the other hand, the
175 Vaccine Pass, implemented in the end of 2021, did not affect the evolution of vaccination
176 rates. Heterogeneities in vaccination rates persisted after both types of pass; vaccination
177 rates gradually decrease by decile of each indicator, confirming the association of these
178 indicators with vaccination rates without threshold effect. Of note, for the Unemployment
179 and Asselineau vote indicators, the difference between the 9th and 10th deciles appears to
180 be much larger than between the other consecutive deciles.

181 Finally, historically under-vaccinated areas in France stand out as being less vaccinated
182 against Covid-19, in particular the South-East region (see Figure 3).

183 Discussion

184 Our results, based on exhaustive national datasets, indicate that the French sanitary pass,
185 and the later vaccine pass, did not solve Covid-19 vaccination heterogeneities, but instead
186 crystallized them. Indicators most associated with vaccination rates were associated to

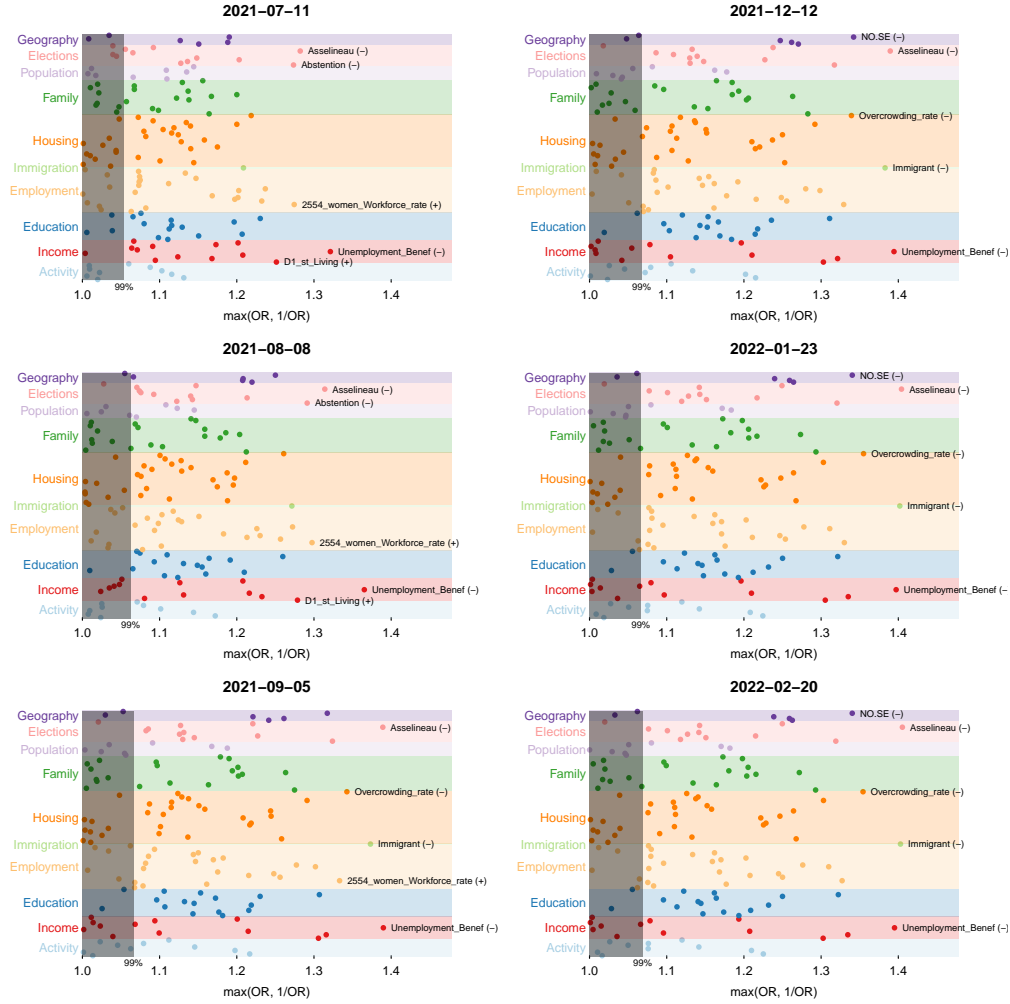


Figure 1: Manhattan plots of the Odds ratios for each of the indicator of our dataset, by date. Left column: around the Sanitary Pass implementation; right column: around the Vaccine Pass implementation. The top odds ratios are labelled at each time point; the symbol next to the name indicates the direction of the effect. The gray rectangle corresponds to the 99% percentile of odds ratios in the permuted data; points falling in the rectangle are considered as non-significant.

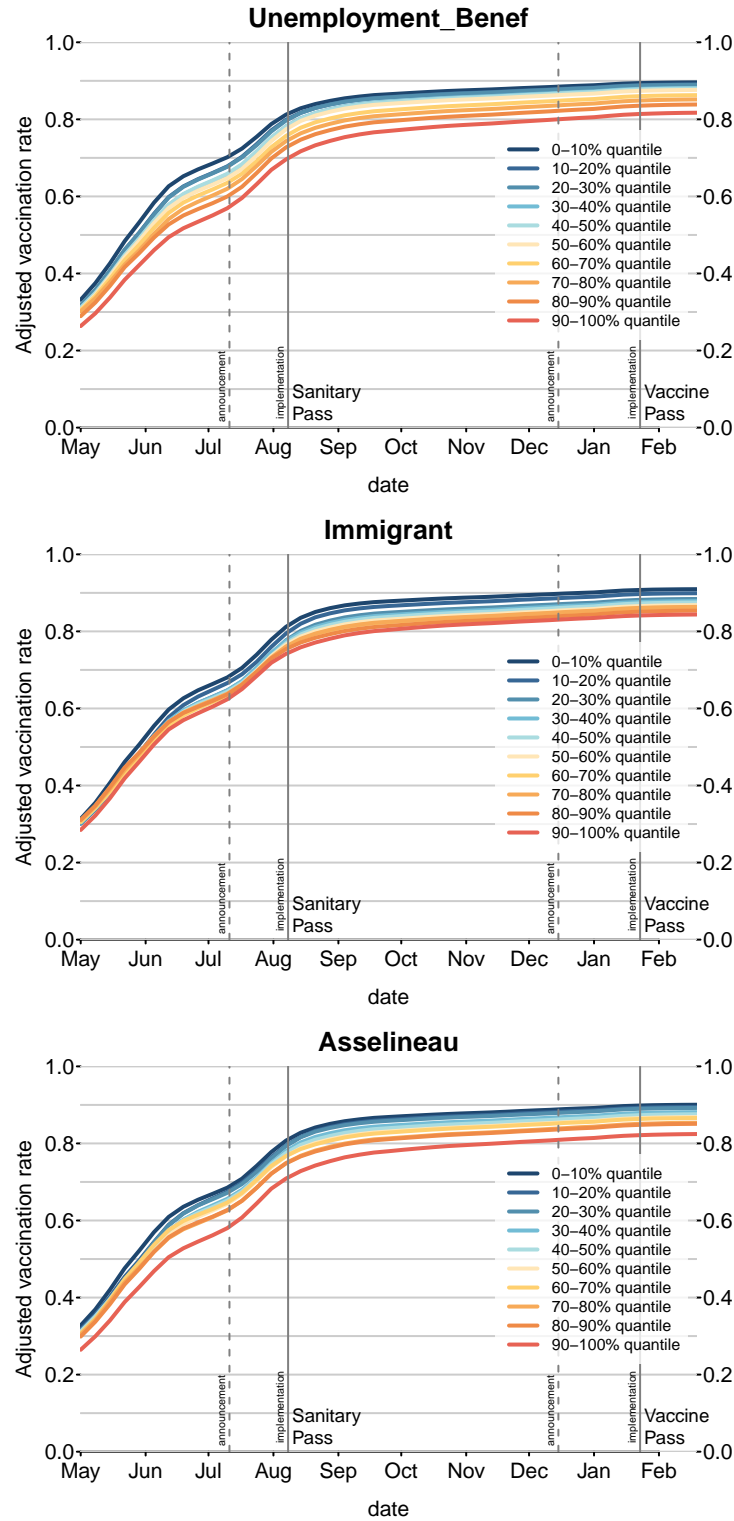


Figure 2: Age-adjusted vaccination rates among adults, over time, by decile of each indicator (presented by a color gradient). The vertical lines indicate the dates of announcements and implementations of the sanitary and vaccine passes.

Adult vaccination rates on 2022-02-20

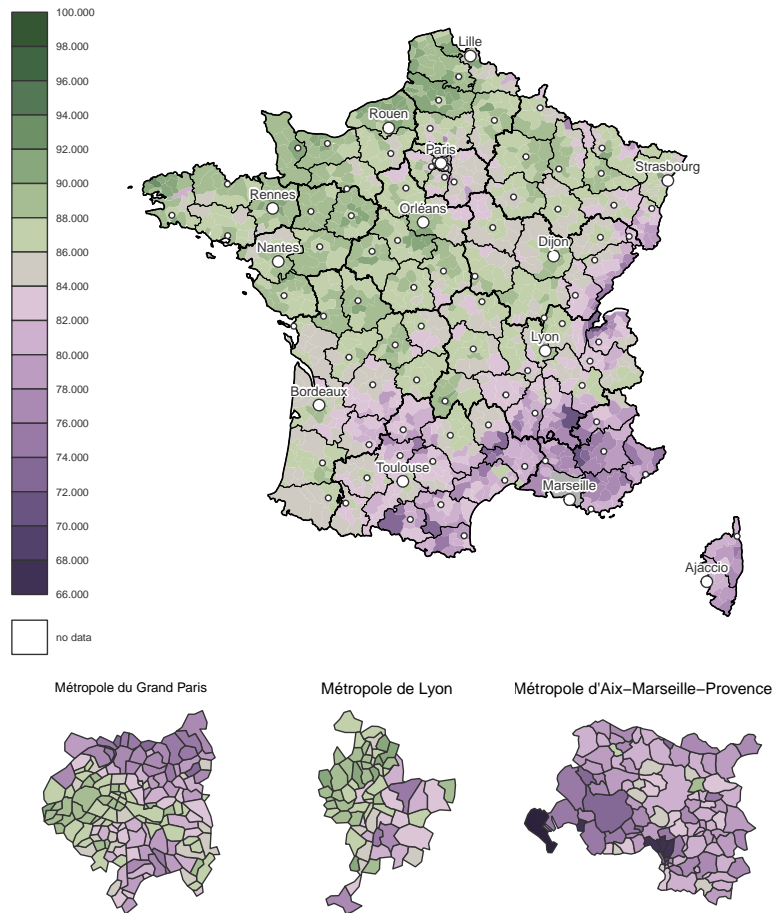


Figure 3: Adult vaccination rates by district of mainland France

187 poverty, immigration, anti-establishment vote (or abstention), and a North-West – South-
188 East contrast. For instance, the odds for an adult to still be unvaccinated by the end of
189 February 2021 are about 1.4 times higher when living in the districts with higher than median
190 value share of income coming from unemployment benefits, than when living in the districts
191 with lower than median value.

192 The indicators associated to vaccination rates can be interpreted in the light of the dimen-
193 sions of vaccine hesitancy (J. K. Ward et al. 2022). A first reason for vaccine hesitancy is
194 complacency: not fully perceiving the benefit of vaccination or the risks of severe disease.
195 While in this case a sanitary or vaccine pass may convince complacent individuals to get
196 vaccinated, it is less efficient if the associated constrain is low. As the French domestic pass
197 was associated to pay-for activities (restaurants, tourism), its persuading effect could be
198 limited among poorer populations. This may explain the association of lower vaccination
199 rate with poverty in the data that we analyzed: vaccination rates decrease as the share of local
200 income coming from unemployment benefits (`Unemployment_Benef`) or the proportion of
201 overcrowded households (`Overcrowding_rate`) increase.

202 A second reason for vaccine hesitancy is confidence, i.e. trust in the vaccine, in the health
203 care system, and more generally in the government (J. K. Ward et al. 2022; Lindholt et al.
204 2021). A survey conducted in July 2021 in France confirmed that trust in the government and
205 trust in scientists were associated to higher odds to be vaccinated (Bajos et al. 2022). Votes
206 for Mr Asselineau – which represented a minority of cast votes in 2017 in France (less than
207 1% overall) – can be interpreted as mistrust in the government (or more generally, against
208 the establishment): This candidate for instance proposed that France exits the European
209 Union, leave the Euro zone and reinstall the Franc currency; he was a proponent of hydroxy-
210 chloroquin and ivermectin during the Covid-19 pandemic, and publicly expressed doubts
211 about the safety of available Covid-19 vaccines. The association of higher proportion of
212 votes for Mr Asselineau with lower vaccination rates can be interpreted as revealing a lack
213 of confidence for the government. Noteworthily, among political indicators, the second
214 strongest association is with abstention rates (higher abstention rates being associated to
215 lower vaccination rates), again signaling higher distrust for institutions (J. K. Ward et al.
216 2020). Likewise, the lower vaccinations rates in the South-East of France can be interpreted
217 as mistrust of the central government in Paris.

218 Finally, a third reason for vaccine hesitancy is convenience, that is, the availability and ac-
219 cessibility of the vaccines (J. K. Ward et al. 2022). During the first half of 2021, vaccination
220 rate in France was mostly constrained by dose availability. Vaccination slots were to be
221 booked online, and there was no general system for sending individual invitations to get
222 vaccinated. It is therefore still possible that, in spite of some local outreach efforts, vaccine
223 accessibility remained an issue, which may explain at least part of the association of lower
224 vaccination rates with poverty. These accessibility issues may also explain the association
225 we find between lower vaccination rates and living in a district with a high proportion of
226 immigrants, which may for instance reveal language barriers. These associations of lower
227 vaccination rates with more poverty and with higher proportions of immigrants in the district
228 of residence are compatible with the results of a survey conducted in July 2021 in France
229 (Bajos et al. 2022) on close to 81000 participants, which indicated that unvaccinated re-
230 spondents were more likely to have lower income and more likely to belong to racialised
231 minorities than vaccinated respondents

232 Relative position of the district of residency along a North-West–South-East gradient is
233 also associated with vaccination probability, the South-East being less vaccinated. This
234 geographic feature, already documented for other kinds of vaccination (Guimier 2021), have
235 been shown to be the consequence of multiple determinants with a common consequence:
236 a local climate of mistrust for the central Parisian power. Politically, anti-system votes (from
237 the right as well as from the left) are traditionally concentrated in the South-East of France.
238 Medically, General Practitioners (GPs) based in the South-East, and to a lesser extent those

239 in the South-West, have been shown to tend to have a more negative opinion of vaccination
240 than their colleagues practicing in the northern part of France (Gautier, Jestin, and Beck
241 2013). This greater skepticism influences GP practices and attitudes, resulting in a lesser
242 degree of compliance with vaccination schedules than GPs in the northern half of France
243 (Collange et al. 2015). Physical distance to the central government and institutions, based
244 in Paris, coupled with a sense of belonging to a local community with a strong cultural
245 identity, as is the case for example in the Marseille metropolis or in the Cévennes, play a role
246 in indifference or mistrust towards institutions perceived as distant authorities (Guimier
247 2021). Finally, in and around the Marseille metropolis, the image of a rebellious territory was
248 reinforced since the first months of the epidemic in France through the hypermediatized Pr
249 Didier Raoult. Based in Marseille, he was a promoter of a controversial treatment against
250 Covid-19 based on hydroxychloroquine and azithromycin (Schultz et al. 2022), and later held
251 ambiguous positions regarding Covid-19 vaccination. He has become a local icon, thanks to
252 his anti-system positions, and against the hostility of most of the medical world towards his
253 work. All in all, around the city of Marseille, and more broadly in South-Eastern France, the
254 climate of suspicion against Parisian institutions, which had long been rooted in the area,
255 hardened during the Covid-19 crisis, and was associated with distrust of Covid-19 vaccines.

256 The design of our study offers several advantages. First, we used a data-driven approach,
257 i.e. we did not focus on indicators that we *a priori* thought to be associated with vaccination
258 rate. The indicators that we identified as the most associated with vaccination rates were not
259 biased towards our previous knowledge or surveys about vaccine hesitancy. Secondly, the
260 data that we used are real-world data on effective vaccination, and not vaccination intentions.
261 Intentions to be vaccinated and realized vaccination may not always match, especially with
262 the introduction of measures like the French Sanitary and Vaccine Passes. For instance,
263 according to a survey conducted in the Fall 2021, the introduction of the sanitary pass led to
264 an increase in the share of individuals reporting being “angry they had to be vaccinated” (J.
265 K. Ward et al. 2022). From an immediate public health perspective, such as the limitation
266 of the number of severe cases, realized vaccination rates are a more useful metric. Finally,
267 the vaccination data we used are based on records of the national health insurance service:
268 they cover 64.5 million individuals living in mainland France, and vaccination rates are not
269 self-reported, which strongly limits reporting bias.

270 Still, the design of our study also presents limitations. While our vaccination data are at the
271 individual level, the socio-economic, political and geographic indicators are at the district
272 level, and must therefore be interpreted as such: for instance, we cannot not show that
273 receiving unemployment benefits is associated with lower vaccination probability, but we
274 find an association with lower vaccination probability and the fact of living in a district
275 where a large share of income comes from unemployment benefits. In addition, although
276 the different indicators are analysed independently in our study, their combinations may
277 affect vaccination rates. For instance, the effect of mistrust in the government on vaccination
278 refusal was shown to be even stronger among individuals from lower social classes than
279 from higher social classes (Bajos et al. 2022). Finally, our data do not inform directly on the
280 reasons for non-vaccination – e.g., whether it is hesitancy, refusal, or accessibility issues,
281 which is why our approach is complementary to qualitative surveys.

282 To conclude, by emphasizing a differentiated use of COVID-19 vaccination according to a
283 socio-economic gradient, our study confirms the strong impact of social inequalities on
284 COVID-19. Previous research found that the most deprived areas have been disproportion-
285 ately infected and hospitalized during the pandemic (Jannot et al. 2021; Bajos et al. 2021).
286 We further show that poorer districts are also the least vaccinated and, hence, the most still at
287 risk, despite the widely celebrated domestic sanitary pass. There is an urgent need to define
288 new vaccination policies that truly address social inequities.

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295 Contributions

296 ASJ and FD designed the study with inputs from all authors. EL extracted socio-economic
297 and political orientation data at district scale and computed indicators. ASJ, EL and FD had
298 full access to aggregated data used for this study and take responsibility for the integrity of
299 the data. EL and FD did the analyses and takes responsibility for the accuracy of the data
300 analysis. FD drafted the paper with the help of ASJ, MR. All authors critically revised the
301 manuscript for important intellectual content and gave final approval for the version to be
302 published.

303 Conflict of interest statement

304 No conflict of interest to disclose

305 Data sources

- 306 • Assurance Maladie: [https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-](https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-devaccination-par-epci/)
307 [devaccination-par-epci/](https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-devaccination-par-epci/) [https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-](https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-de-vaccination-parcommune/information/)
308 [de-vaccination-parcommune/information/](https://datavaccin-covid.ameli.fr/explore/dataset/donnees-de-vaccination-parcommune/information/)
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- 310 • 2017 Presidential election: [https://www.data.gouv.fr/fr/datasets/election-pres-](https://www.data.gouv.fr/fr/datasets/election-pres-identielle-des-23-avril-et-7-mai-2017-resultats-definitifs-du-1er-tour-par-communes/#resource-d282e53a-d273-425d-95bb-8a0d7632c79a-header)
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312 [communes/#resource-d282e53a-d273-425d-95bb-8a0d7632c79a-header](https://www.data.gouv.fr/fr/datasets/election-pres-identielle-des-23-avril-et-7-mai-2017-resultats-definitifs-du-1er-tour-par-communes/#resource-d282e53a-d273-425d-95bb-8a0d7632c79a-header)

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