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4 **“We treat humans, not herds!”: A qualitative study of complementary and**
5 **alternative medicine (CAM) providers’ individualized approaches to**
6 **vaccination in Switzerland**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) providers’ roles in parents’ decision-
22 making about vaccinations for their children have only recently begun receiving research
23 attention, despite studies showing CAM to be used by 25 to 50% of the population in
24 Western countries. This article examines how CAM practitioners discuss vaccinations with
25 parents in Switzerland, with a focus on childhood vaccinations and human papillomavirus
26 (HPV) vaccinations. We describe how the CAM providers we interviewed (N=17) and
27 observed during vaccination consultations (N=18 observations with 5 providers) employed
28 individualized approaches to vaccination. Triangulation of qualitative evidence from
29 interviews and observations allowed us to analyze their discourses and descriptions of

30 experiences (i.e. what they said) and their practices *in situ* (i.e. what they did). Evidence
31 gathered shows that practitioners framed vaccination decisions as choices at individual and
32 family levels rather than focusing on public health benefits and consequences. They
33 articulated their perspectives in terms of personal clinical experiences and parents' wishes,
34 concerns, and contexts. Such findings challenge recurring narratives depicting CAM
35 providers as categorically anti-vaccination and suggest that approaches to address vaccine
36 hesitancy in clinical practice could benefit from communication and relational approaches
37 similar to those demonstrated by participants in this study. Such approaches include taking
38 time to understand parents' wishes, involving them in vaccination decisions, and taking their
39 concerns seriously.

40

41 **Keywords:**

42 Switzerland

43 Vaccination

44 Vaccine hesitancy

45 Immunization

46 Complementary and alternative medicine

47 Patient-provider interactions

48 Individualized recommendations

49 Participatory communication

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 The growing body of research on vaccine hesitancy (VH) underscores how drivers of
54 vaccination decisions are multifaceted. Since healthcare professionals play important roles in

55 parent vaccination perceptions and decision-making, this study addresses an important
56 research gap by providing insight into the vaccination discourses and practices of
57 complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) providers. We open with a brief review on
58 VH literature and CAM. We then evoke larger social and research narratives that tend to
59 depict CAM providers and users as anti-vaccine advocates, which lays the groundwork for a
60 discussion of the importance of considering choice, language, power dynamics, and
61 legitimacy when researching CAM and biomedicine. Results from this study call into
62 question such narratives and provide evidence showing nuanced CAM perspectives that go
63 beyond the ‘pro’/‘anti’ divide. That said, results demonstrate how participants’ discourses
64 and practices diverge from biomedical and public health discourses on vaccination,
65 particularly through their tendencies to individualize vaccination consultations and to place
66 less emphasis on systematically adhering to official vaccination recommendations of the
67 Swiss health authorities.

68

69 *1.1 Complexities of vaccine hesitancy*

70

71 Resistance towards vaccination is not new; when Edward Jenner proposed inoculation as
72 a medical practice in 1797, it received mixed reactions, including rejection from colleagues,
73 and took time before becoming standard practice (Riedel, 2005). We focus specifically on
74 contemporary VH and agree with scholars who define *vaccine hesitancy* along a spectrum
75 between anti- and pro-vaccination stances. It involves malleable attitudes whose
76 underpinnings find roots in socio-medical trends which have been shaping healthcare
77 landscapes over the past several decades (Peretti-Watel et al., 2015; Bedford et al., 2018).
78 Such trends are multidimensional and linked to the notions of ‘healthism’ (Greenhalgh &
79 Wessely, 2004), risk culture (Beck & Ritter, 1992), consumerism of healthcare (Tomes,

80 2001; O'Hara, 2013), patient autonomy (Armstrong, 2014), experiential and lay knowledge in
81 patient decisions (Caron-Flinterman et al., 2005), mistrust of scientific expert advice,
82 skepticism towards health authorities, and perceptions of pharmaceutical industry influence
83 in scientific knowledge production and profit-seeking (Epstein, 1996; Benin et al., 2006;
84 Salmon et al., 2015; Ward, 2017; Attwell et al., 2018a). Furthermore, with a general public
85 health shift towards health promotion, which encourages people to take more responsibility
86 and exercise more agency in health decisions (WHO, 1986), it is not surprising that the public
87 and healthcare professionals have become proactive in questioning vaccinations. In other
88 words, VH is not a stand-alone issue; it reflects larger social developments concerning health
89 decisions.

90 Personal social networks can influence vaccine choices; the more vaccine hesitant people
91 there are in one's network, the more likely one is to be vaccine hesitant (Brunson, 2013). The
92 multitude of vaccine information, particularly via the press, social media, and the Internet,
93 can lead to 'information overload,' 'misinformation,' and heightened levels of anxiety and
94 indecision (Kata, 2010; Betsch & Sachse, 2012; Yaqub et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015; Sobo
95 et al., 2016). Larson et al. (2014) systematically reviewed determinants of VH from a global
96 scale, characterizing them as complex and context-specific, and concluded that there was "no
97 universal algorithm" (p. 2155). Other scholars have also highlighted the need to clearly
98 distinguish between (1) under-immunization as it relates to questions of access, affordability,
99 logistics, and inadequate health systems, and (2) under-immunization as it relates to varying
100 degrees of vaccine acceptance and non-acceptance (Bedford et al., 2018).

101 Another important vein of VH literature focuses on medical providers' influence on
102 parents' decisions and emphasizes the importance of trust (Benin et al., 2006; Ames et al.,
103 2017). Similar research highlights factors such as the time they spend on consultations and
104 their information and communication styles (Kimmel et al., 2003; Bryant et al., 2009; Opel et

105 al., 2012; Paterson et al., 2016). A conversation analysis of 111 consultations showed how
106 providers who initiated discussions with *participatory approaches* (i.e. “What do you want to
107 do about shots?”) were more likely to be met with “resistance” than providers who initiated
108 the discussion with *presumptive approaches* (i.e. “Well, we have to do some shots.”) (Opel et
109 al., 2013, p. 1037). Further analysis showed that providers’ persistence with initially resistant
110 parents brought about half of the parents to vaccinate, whereas the other half did not. Opel et
111 al. (2013) concluded that additional research is needed, particularly involving shared
112 decision-making between providers and parents. That said, there is evidence that motivational
113 interviewing, a patient-centered communication intervention which invites individuals to
114 make decisions after exploring ambivalence, is effective in increasing vaccine uptake and
115 reducing VH (Gagneur et al., 2018a; Gagneur et al., 2018b).

116

117 *1.2 CAM, VH, and the vaccine narrative*

118

119 Research efforts into VH have focused primarily on biomedical providers and tended to
120 overlook, stereotype, or mystify CAM practitioners’ roles regarding vaccination decisions.
121 One study, for example, gathered evidence linking “anti-vaccination” and “pro-CAM”
122 attitudes to “magical beliefs about health” (Bryden et al., 2018). Such an emphasis might be
123 partially explained by larger cultural narratives. Sociologist Heller (2008) explains the
124 tendency to scapegoat those who question “the vaccine master narrative” (p. 10) in which
125 numerous scientific, medical, public health, and legal advances work in concert to frame
126 vaccination as a champion of health for all, whereas non-compliers are considered “the
127 opponent,” characterized by ignorance and knowledge deficiencies (p. 14). He explains, “by
128 insisting on universal compliance, the injunction to achieve one hundred percent vaccine
129 coverage turns the small portions of the population who do not comply (for whatever

130 reasons) into deviants who need to be cajoled into full compliance with vaccine policies” (p.
131 14).

132 Such narratives can be similarly exemplified by the difficulties encountered when
133 attempting to clearly define CAM, which is perhaps best characterized through its diversity
134 and contrasted relations to biomedicine. Researchers describe CAM as healing practices and
135 modalities operating outside of, in addition to, or as accompanying biomedicine and accepted
136 medical curriculum (Zollman & Vickers, 1999; Wardle et al., 2016; Attwell et al., 2018a).
137 Gale (2014) explains how language, through processes of defining and naming, serves as a
138 vehicle for the power and legitimacy attributed to CAM and biomedicine, which underscores
139 the importance of taking CAM providers’ and users’ experiences into account to understand
140 such dynamics.

141 Social science research has demonstrated fundamental epistemological differences
142 between CAM and biomedicine. Medical sociologists and anthropologists have argued that
143 what counts as *evidence* for CAM practitioners and users differs from the oft-cited mantra of
144 evidence-based biomedicine, where randomized controlled trials are considered the gold
145 standard. Evidence in CAM, they argue, is expressed more in terms of experiential
146 knowledge and embodied experience (Gale, 2010; Pedersen & Baarts, 2010). Barry (2006)
147 explains, “Non-biomedically trained alternative practitioners have a knowledge system that is
148 closer to that of anthropology than to science-based medicine; it is more grounded in the
149 phenomenal world of everyday lived and embodied experience” (p. 2655).

150 Qualitative studies have described what happens in CAM provider-patient interactions. A
151 common theme among 46 Danish CAM users was that alternative medicine was ‘risk-free’
152 and that ‘it could do no harm’ (Pedersen, 2013). Another study from Denmark analyzed how
153 trust, a key factor in vaccination decisions, is earned by practitioners of acupuncture,
154 reflexology, and homeopathy through patient-provider relationships. “Practitioner’s caring,

155 careful listening and providing responsive feedback,” (p. 54) their experiences of patients’
156 bodies and patients’ experiences of their own bodies, and the material experiences of the
157 encounter were considered crucial (Pedersen et al., 2016). Furthermore, a study comparing
158 CAM and biomedical approaches to patient-provider relationships in Germany found that
159 practitioners of CAM were more likely to argue for shared-decision making with patients
160 than biomedical general practitioners and insisted on “patient-centeredness” (Berger et al.,
161 2012, p. 133).

162 Qualitative research on CAM and vaccination decisions is surprisingly scarce. A recent
163 study from Australia describes how parents and CAM providers in two cities exemplified a
164 *symbiotic* relationship regarding CAM and VH: “Vaccine hesitancy and CAM exist and
165 function separately, but when combined, provide each other with ‘resources’ that enable them
166 to thrive together” (Attwell et al., 2018a, p. 111). Results emphasized parents’ preferences for
167 natural approaches and desires to exercise agency in immunization and healthcare decisions
168 outside the influence of biomedicine and the pharmaceutical industry.

169 Quantification of CAM-use prevalence in Western countries, which use varying
170 methodologies and definitions of CAM, reported rates of approximately 40% among adults in
171 the US in 2007 (Barnes et al., 2008), 26% of the general population in Europe in 2014
172 (Kemppainen et al., 2018), and 40% in Germany and Switzerland, where a particularity is
173 that CAM is often provided by medical doctors with additional CAM training (Hart, 2017).
174 Studies seeking to quantify CAM use have additionally focused upon *why* people use CAM
175 and show reasons including dissatisfaction with biomedicine, satisfaction with CAM
176 encounters, alternative perspectives towards biomedicine, and interest in approaches
177 combining CAM and biomedicine (Harris et al., 2012; Thomson et al., 2014; Leach et al.,
178 2018). Additionally, CAM use correlates with higher levels of VH and with individuals who
179 cite spirituality as an important source of information, exemplify intuitive (as opposed to

180 analytic) thinking styles, and demonstrate openness to new experiences (Browne et al., 2015).
181 Researchers in Australia found that children of parents who had consulted a complementary
182 medicine (CM) practitioner were less likely to be up-to-date on their vaccinations than those
183 who had not consulted a CM practitioner (Frawley et al., 2018). However, researchers have
184 not determined causal pathways and explain associations in terms of confounding factors,
185 such as higher income and education, or distrust of medical systems (Wardle et al., 2016).

186

187 *1.3 The Swiss context*

188

189 With around 8 million people and 3 distinct language regions (Swiss German, French,
190 and Italian), Switzerland does not have any federally mandatory vaccinations in non-
191 epidemic settings. The Swiss Federal Office of Public Health (FOPH) makes vaccination
192 recommendations and communicates them to the public. Basic mandatory health insurance
193 covers vaccination costs when the official schedule is respected and administered for at-risk
194 groups for certain vaccine preventable diseases (VPD). With no federal mandate, vaccination
195 programs are the responsibility of the 26 Swiss cantonal public health systems, and
196 implementation modalities and coverage vary between cantons (Masserey Spicher, 2010;
197 Lang et al., 2011a).

198 Vaccination rates in Switzerland are high overall (FOPH, 2015) and have not been
199 decreasing since 1999; rather, national coverage is either increasing or stabilizing (FOPH,
200 2018a). Regarding regional differences, children from the French and Italian-speaking
201 cantons have on average higher rates of measles vaccination coverage than in German-
202 speaking cantons (Lang et al., 2011b). Additionally, in 2017, the FOPH reported not
203 systematically meeting targets: “Switzerland has only partially reached its objectives in terms
204 of vaccination (...). For instance, flares of measles still occur in parts of Switzerland, taking

205 advantage of locally low rates of vaccination” (FOPH, 2017, p. 5). Cases of measles, small
206 epidemics (Bundesamt für Gesundheit, 2009), and under-immunization tend to cluster around
207 anthroposophic (i.e. Rudolf Steiner, Waldorf) schools and around certain CAM practitioners
208 (Richard & Masserey Spicher, 2009). However, the relationship between VH and
209 immunization rates has not yet been extensively studied in Switzerland.

210 Research examining CAM in Switzerland show relatively high rates of use and favorable
211 opinions among the population; Wolf et al. (2006) found that about 50% of the population
212 had used CAM and about 50% of the population preferred hospitals with CAM therapies and
213 providers. Data from the 2007 and 2012 Swiss Health Surveys have shown 25% CAM use in
214 the population older than 15 years, higher probability of CAM use among those with chronic
215 illness or poor self-perceived health, women, middle-aged people, and more highly educated
216 individuals (Simões-Wüst et al., 2014; Klein et al., 2015). In Switzerland, CAM is often
217 provided by medical doctors with CAM training (Hart, 2017). CAM services are reimbursed
218 by basic mandatory health insurance when they are provided by medical doctors who have
219 also obtained additional postgraduate training in anthroposophical medicine, Traditional
220 Chinese Medicine/acupuncture, homeopathy, or phytotherapy (FOPH, 2018b). Patients can
221 choose to purchase supplementary insurance that covers other CAM-related costs that are not
222 covered by basic mandatory health insurance; 60% of the adult population in 2012 reported
223 having such insurance (Klein et al., 2015). CAM practitioners who are not medical doctors
224 must undergo training and obtain accreditation in order to be eligible to receive payments
225 through patients’ supplementary insurance (ASCA, 2019; RME, 2019).

226

227 *1.4 Study research questions*

228

229 Considering the debated roles of CAM providers in VH and the popularity of CAM
230 among large segments of the population, we consider it important to empirically study their
231 views and practices regarding vaccination. Since vaccinations are not mandatory in
232 Switzerland, healthcare professionals are allotted some leeway in their interactions with
233 patients. Our study aims at understanding CAM providers' roles in VH and asks the
234 following questions: (1) how do CAM providers describe their perspectives and roles
235 regarding vaccination?; (2) in what ways, if any, do CAM providers' views and practices
236 diverge from biomedical and public health vaccination discourses?; and (3) how do CAM
237 providers and parents discuss vaccination during consultations?

238

239 **2. Methods**

240

241 We collected data in the French- and German-speaking regions of Switzerland (FR-CH
242 and GE-CH, respectively) between August 2017 and November 2018. We conducted semi-
243 structured qualitative interviews with CAM providers (N=17) and ethnographic observations
244 of vaccination consultations between providers and parents (N=18 consultations with 5
245 providers). Practitioners were interviewed and then observed during consultations in an
246 attempt at qualitative data triangulation; data gathered during interviews allowed comparison
247 of their vaccination perspectives and descriptions of their interactions with parents to
248 observations of what actually happened in practice during consultations.

249 The study was approved by the local ethics committee (*Ethikkommission Nordwest- und*
250 *Zentralschweiz*). We recruited providers through research networks by sending recruitment
251 letters and study flyers via e-mail, by personally calling potential participants, and through
252 snowball sampling. Purposive sampling was conducted with providers' support to selectively
253 observe consultations during which vaccination was likely to be discussed, including

254 interactions with parents seen for the first time or with parents considering their children’s
255 first vaccinations. Informed consent was obtained from providers for interviews and from
256 providers and parents for observations. Pseudonyms are used to protect the anonymity of
257 participants.

258 Author5, a pediatrician with training in anthroposophic medicine, and author8, an
259 infectious disease specialist and internist, played important roles in recruiting participants. In
260 total, we invited more than 50 CAM medical doctors and practitioners offering CAM. Not all
261 responded. Eighteen declined to participate, with some citing concerns about our research
262 agenda. A commonly expressed worry was that we were studying CAM and, by proxy, “anti-
263 vaccine” practitioners, to use “their arguments” against them, with our team perceived as
264 “pro-vaccine” or potentially “pro-mandatory vaccination.” We clarified our research goals
265 and explained our focus on understanding provider vaccination perspectives and experiences.
266 Despite some providers declining to participate, to our knowledge, we were able to recruit
267 and interview more CAM practitioners and observe more CAM vaccination consultations
268 than other researchers in the past.

269 Author1, a sociologist trained in qualitative methods, conducted 7 interviews and
270 observed 10 consultations with 2 participants in FR-CH. Author2, a medical doctor trained in
271 qualitative research, conducted 8 interviews and observed 3 consultations with 2 participants
272 in GE-CH. Author3, a senior medical student with training in qualitative methods, conducted
273 2 interviews and 5 observations with 1 participant in GE-CH.

274 A qualitative interview guide was drafted based on VH literature, critically reviewed, and
275 finalized after several iterations among research team members. The guide included open-
276 ended questions for participants to answer in their own words and covered questions within
277 the following themes: (1) providers’ background and training, (2) parent-provider interactions
278 during consultations, (3) perspectives on vaccination and immunity, and (4) perspectives on

279 medicine and public health. The guide was tested prior to data collection. Interviews ranged
280 from 47 to 110 minutes (average 70 minutes), were digitally audio-recorded, and transcribed
281 verbatim.

282 Observed consultations were documented with ethnographic observation notes in field
283 journals, which were subsequently written into a narrative format. In a semi-structured
284 approach, we filled out observation guides that were created with the research team and based
285 on VH and medical ethnography literature. These guides prompted researchers to document
286 items of interest, such as the reason for consultations, the person who initiated the
287 vaccination discussion, if the practitioner used presumptive or participatory approaches,
288 which vaccinations were discussed, time spent discussing vaccinations, and researchers'
289 interpretations of providers' and parents' emotions and communication styles.

290 After compiling interview transcripts and observation notes, several rounds of in-depth
291 readings of the data, and discussions with the research team, a coding scheme was developed.
292 The coding scheme allowed data to be coded into three main groupings: providers' (1)
293 positions on vaccination along the spectrum of VH, (2) reflections on official Swiss
294 vaccination discourse, evidence, and biomedicine, and (3) focus on individuals' choices.

295 Given the transdisciplinary nature of the team, our range of research backgrounds,
296 professional experiences, and language abilities, we opted to analyze the qualitative data with
297 the Framework Method described by Gale et al. (2013) with the support of MAXQDA
298 software (VERBI, 2017). This allowed for structured flexibility in the sense that our guided
299 interviews and observation approaches were informed by a *deductive* approach, meaning that
300 our data collection tools were constructed based on VH literature. However, further analysis
301 led us to adopt an *inductive* approach by incorporating themes into our analysis that emanated
302 from the data. We therefore benefited from what Charmaz (2006) refers to as *constructivist*
303 *grounded theory*.

304 Data were coded in the original language of utterance and then analyzed according to our
305 coding scheme, with regular research team discussions throughout this process. These
306 discussions allowed us to reflect on our interpretations of the data and to take into account
307 how our backgrounds, knowledge, beliefs, and previous experiences may have affected the
308 analysis of the results and our conclusions. We have translated supporting evidence, such as
309 quotes from interviews, into English in this article.

310

311 **3. Results**

312

313 As shown in Table 1, we interviewed 7 providers in FR-CH and 10 in GE-CH. Of the 17
314 participants we interviewed, 15 were licensed medical doctors with additional training in
315 CAM. In line with our approach inspired by constructivist grounded theory, we asked
316 providers to explain the type of medicine they practiced in their own words. They reported
317 practicing a range of CAM: 7 anthroposophic medicine, 7 homeopathic medicine, 1
318 Traditional Chinese Medicine/acupuncture(TCM), 1 phytotherapy, and 1 naturopathy. Such
319 classifications are used heuristically. In reality, several providers described their practices as
320 not fitting neatly into these categories; some practiced “integrative medicine,” meaning they
321 employ one or multiple CAM therapies in addition to biomedicine. We observed 10
322 childhood vaccination consultations in FR-CH and 8 in GE-CH with 5 practitioners.
323 Consultations concerned children ranging in age from 12 days to 8 years.

324 In the following sections, we draw upon findings from interviews with providers and
325 observations of medical consultations. We first discuss CAM providers’ nuanced positions on
326 vaccination. Second, we describe how their tendencies to frame vaccination perspectives in
327 terms of their and their patients’ experiences serve as a point around which they articulated
328 critiques of both biomedicine and biomedical vaccination discourses in Switzerland. Third,

329 these discussions bring us to examine CAM practitioners' individualized approaches to
330 vaccination discussions in clinical settings.

331

332 ***3.1 CAM providers' nuanced views and practices on vaccination: Going beyond the*** 333 ***anti-pro dichotomy***

334

335 Rather than having a categorical stance on vaccinations, providers demonstrated nuanced
336 positions during interviews and observations and did not always express perspectives as
337 being "pro" or "anti." Most participants reported favorable or ambivalent vaccine attitudes
338 and regularly recommending vaccinations in practice. Furthermore, during interviews and
339 observations, they discussed vaccination on a vaccine-by-vaccine, case-by-case basis, with
340 the official Swiss vaccination schedule serving as a common reference point. Practitioners
341 explained how they made a point to ensure parents were comfortable with their decisions,
342 even if this meant not always adhering to official recommendations.

343 When discussing their sources of information on vaccination during interviews, providers
344 cited medical journals, scientific sources, case studies, vaccination conferences, colleagues,
345 Swiss vaccination recommendations, and books written for French- and German-speaking
346 popular audiences. Several participants reported reading news sources to follow public
347 debates and be informed about vaccination questions they might hear. Dr. Ferrand (FR-CH,
348 homeopathic medicine) mentioned sometimes making a point of visiting controversial anti-
349 vaccination websites, noting that it was "ridiculous," but justified doing this in order to
350 remain up-to-date on "what is being said and to see the paradoxes."

351 Participants were not shy about expressing doubts and concerns related to risks of
352 vaccination during interviews. Uncertainties varied and related to possible long-term negative
353 effects of vaccines on children's immune systems, in particular the induction of autoimmune

354 diseases, and unknown long-term effects of aluminum and other additives on the body,
355 particularly the brain. One question concerned the “medical ecology,” with a provider
356 wondering, “Eradicating a disease makes space for what other disease?”

357 When deviating from official recommendations, which recommend the first vaccination
358 at 2 months of age, providers reported delaying vaccines, often until 6-months of age, 1 year,
359 or older, or not recommending certain vaccinations (for example: measles-mumps-rubella,
360 poliomyelitis, hepatitis B, or human papilloma virus (HPV) vaccines). Opinions varied
361 during interviews around polyvalent versus monovalent vaccines. Some practitioners
362 reported encouraging polyvalent vaccines to avoid higher exposure to adjuvants over time,
363 whereas others emphasized specific monovalent vaccines, such as the tetanus vaccine, in
364 order to avoid “too many” vaccines at once.

365 Two providers professed to having strict anti-vaccination attitudes and being vocal about
366 it with parents. Both are licensed doctors who practice homeopathy in GE-CH. Dr. Füssli
367 explained that she never vaccinates children because, in her view, children are either too
368 healthy and do not need vaccines, or they are too sick and cannot handle them. Dr. Kimmig, a
369 doctor practicing in a small village, posited that if the public had all the information on
370 vaccinations, people would not vaccinate. He reported not doing vaccine consultations and
371 instead encouraged patients to attend vaccination evenings he hosts. At such events, he
372 explains concerns about vaccine adjuvants, statistics showing that the prevalence of VPDs
373 have diminished before the introduction of vaccinations, and how, in his own studies of
374 approximately 200 of his patients, vaccinated children had more allergies than non-
375 vaccinated children.

376 The 2 providers not licensed as doctors, one a homeopath in FR-CH, the other a self-
377 described naturopath in GE-CH, positioned themselves as ambivalent about vaccination
378 during interviews. Neither saw their roles as being the primary person with whom

379 vaccination consultations should take place. They instead viewed themselves as advisors who
380 facilitated parents' decision-making. Both discussed their roles after vaccinations in
381 "draining" undesirable vaccination components, such as aluminum or other adjuvants, from
382 patients' bodies through homeopathic or plant-based remedies.

383

384 ***3.2 Intersections of experiential knowledge and evidence-based medicine: Critiques of*** 385 ***biomedicine and health authorities***

386

387 Analysis of interview transcripts on providers' vaccination perspectives bring two
388 summative themes to light: (1) CAM providers framed their perspectives in terms of their
389 personal clinical experiences and patients' vaccination experiences; and (2) recounting such
390 experiences allowed participants to express perspectives diverging from generally accepted
391 biomedical consensus on health and illness. This section focuses on these themes while
392 drawing from providers' political discourses on the Swiss context. Such discourses are
393 political in the traditional sense, meaning that they refer critically to established health
394 systems guiding medical conduct. They are also epistemologically political insofar as they
395 deal with CAM providers' legitimacy in claims-making, particularly claims that question the
396 *status quo* of the Swiss vaccination recommendation discourse.

397 The first theme primarily developed from providers recounting stories of their vaccination
398 experiences in practice, with such accounts commonly introduced with phrases like, "In my
399 experience," "a colleague told me," and "I know from experience." Participants occasionally
400 invited us to take these stories with a grain of salt since they were uncertain that their
401 experiences provided irrefutable evidence for or against vaccinations. As a case in point, Dr.
402 Laurin (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) explained, "I know from experience that I have
403 [patients] with less severe asthma. (...). Well, maybe it's due in part to other things." In

404 contrast, Dr. Jansen (FR-CH, homeopathic medicine) framed favorable vaccination sentiment
405 by explaining that the Swiss vaccination schedule was, in his experience, generally “well
406 tolerated.” Having worked in Swiss pediatric hospitals with cases of vaccine-preventable
407 infections that were “often dramatic and very traumatizing,” he voiced that it was “great” to
408 be able to prevent children from getting VPDs.

409 Some participants’ ambivalence was reinforced by encounters with patients consulting
410 specifically for vaccination due to patients’ suspected adverse vaccine events. Over the years,
411 Ms. Beaulieu, a homeopath in FR-CH, treated many patients who had reported developing
412 adverse reactions after being vaccinated, which has had an important impact on Ms.
413 Beaulieu’s views. She explained, “There is what I think and what I see. And now, with 10
414 years of practice (...), I see that non-vaccinated children are sick much less. That is evidence,
415 all the same!” Similarly, Dr. Dupont (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) was concerned
416 about the large number of serious vaccine-related symptoms reported by patients he had seen
417 throughout his career but recognized that his experiences were not representative: “Since my
418 patients often come for a second opinion [for difficult cases], I see a lot of people who have
419 had problems with vaccines. I have a deformed vision because of this.” He admits, “There
420 might not be a scientific correlation,” but emphasized the importance of listening to “people
421 who say, ‘Listen, since I’ve had this vaccine, I don’t feel well.’” He expressed a desire for
422 “science” to take into account “what [these people] experience, [and] what they feel.” Such
423 providers expressed uncertainty whether these experiences with patients’ purported adverse
424 effects counted as enough evidence to question the merits of vaccination, meaning they
425 remained open to the possibility that their views on vaccination were skewed, perhaps
426 negatively, due to the types of patients who consulted with them.

427 The second theme dealt with CAM practitioners’ criticisms of biomedicine. Many argued
428 during interviews that illness is no longer tolerated in modern society due to its

429 inconvenience. They added that biomedical providers were in a “panic” and “fearful” about
430 diseases and infections. Participants generally expressed having a relaxed view about some
431 vaccine-preventable childhood infections, with some arguing that we have “the right to be
432 sick.” Dr. Laurin (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) cited Rudolf Steiner, one of the
433 founders of anthroposophic medicine, when arguing in favor of developmental advantages of
434 childhood illnesses: “Children transform their bodies into what they need through their
435 childhood illnesses.” Dr. Dupont (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) echoed this sentiment,
436 contending that since the 1990s, measles had become a socially unacceptable disease, stating,
437 “We didn’t use to make such a monster out of it.” Dr. Kimmig (GE-CH, homeopathic
438 medicine) advocated for parents having the possibility to introduce certain diseases to their
439 children, “I always say that we should set up a rubella-hotline. If you have a 5- or 6-year-old
440 daughter, you can call, ‘Hey, is there someone with rubella around here?’ Then you can go
441 there for a visit, maybe she’ll get infected.” Such perspectives considered certain childhood
442 illness as developmental milestones that vaccination might impede.

443 Participants’ vaccination discourses were also shaped by contexts in which they practiced
444 medicine. When discussing vaccination necessity in Switzerland during interviews, providers
445 generally constructed Switzerland as a safe space. Several activated epidemiological evidence
446 to argue that the risk of contracting certain VPDs, such as poliomyelitis, was virtually null in
447 Europe and Switzerland. They also noted how they accepted treating non-vaccinating parents
448 who stayed within their communities and limited possible exposure to VPDs. In contrast,
449 some providers recommended vaccination to parents who planned to travel outside of
450 Switzerland. Dr. Buchman (GE-CH, TCM and acupuncture) alluded to the potential
451 infectious *Other* by explaining to a mother during a consultation observation that there were
452 cases of polio in “Egypt, Nigeria, and similar countries, but if you don’t have contact with
453 people from those countries or travel there, the risk of contracting polio in Switzerland is

454 very small.” Dr. Laurin (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) argued that the Swiss medical
455 system was adequately prepared to handle tetanus infections but that its low prevalence might
456 actually impede younger doctors from detecting it: “If the wound is suspicious, most doctors
457 no longer know how to recognize possible tetanus infections.”

458 Given the attention participants attributed to possible negative consequences when
459 following official vaccination recommendations, providers expressed interest during
460 interviews in having the Swiss FOPH clearly state potential health risks of vaccines to the
461 public. Dr. Ferrand (FR-CH, homeopathic medicine) explained this being an important
462 knowledge gap, citing “bias” in the presentation of information:

463

464 (...) the FOPH’s information is really good. But, when it comes to some of the grey areas,
465 we find ourselves in a type of magma of information that is very, very difficult to sift
466 through. We kind of have the impression that the FOPH and the Vaccination Commission
467 only shows studies that are [unfinished sentence]. There are studies showing there are
468 maybe complications. Scientific honesty would have it so that those studies are also
469 shared so that we could have that specific element. As a result, we must look further than
470 what the FOPH tells us.

471

472 Along these lines, other providers reported a lack of clear scientific consensus in Switzerland
473 before the implementation of new vaccination recommendations. Dr. Abegglen (GE-CH,
474 homeopathic medicine) expressed disappointment in the implementation of the MMR
475 vaccination recommendation, “there were doctors who had clearly spoken against the MMR
476 vaccine, across all fields, not only from complementary medicine. I found it a pity that they
477 just decided to do it that way and pushed it through.”

478 Similarly, a recurring point of contention concerned mandatory vaccinations, which was *à*
479 *propos* due to Switzerland’s geographical proximity to, and cross-cultural influence with,
480 France, Italy, and Germany, where vaccine mandates have been intensely debated and, in
481 some cases, implemented, in recent years. Dr. Schmidt (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine)
482 commented:

483

484 It’s clear that for many vaccines, it’s to have herd protection, or herd immunity. The
485 decision is much larger than the child alone. That said, I think that it should be a free
486 choice for the parents to decide. It’s only if the diseases really pose a consequential public
487 health risk that we can start thinking about mandatory vaccinations. That’s why I think
488 the political decisions in Italy and in France are not at all justified.

489

490 Dr. Ferrand (FR-CH, homeopathic medicine) argued in favor of a “personalized” approach
491 “rather than mass vaccination programs that have not been properly thought through.” Dr.
492 Laurin (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) cogently encapsulates these sentiments through
493 his direct criticisms of mass vaccination programs and mandates: “We now know that there
494 are not two individuals who are exactly the same. However, for me, vaccination comes from
495 the practice of veterinary medicine. They’re now referring to us as herds! (...) That’s not
496 human medicine for me, especially when it’s practiced in a mandatory way.”

497 In other words, CAM providers’ discourses depict them as *treating humans, not herds*, a
498 sentiment which succinctly summarizes their discourses and practices. Providers were acutely
499 aware of political implications of openly questioning vaccinations. Dr. Laurin (FR-CH,
500 anthroposophic medicine) explained, “Being against vaccination in a university setting is a
501 career killer!” Despite perceived taboos within established biomedical settings, participants
502 were comfortable positioning themselves as reflecting critically about vaccination for

503 individual patients. The core of providers' reflections was that uniform vaccination programs
504 might not be justified because they fail to meaningfully take into account CAM perspectives,
505 evidence from clinical experiences, and individual patients' contexts and wishes.

506

507 ***3.3 Emphasizing individualized choices***

508

509 CAM providers' approaches to vaccination focused on individual patients, families, and
510 their specific social contexts and did not involve actively pursuing public health objectives
511 related to herd protection. They employed individualized approaches by incorporating: (1)
512 parents' pre-existing knowledge and perceptions on vaccinations and vaccine-preventable
513 diseases, (2) parents' wishes and concerns, and (3) patients' histories, physical constitution,
514 medical history, and social and family contexts. During interviews, CAM providers explained
515 their roles in vaccination consultations as consisting of "informing parents," "encouraging the
516 families to take responsibility for vaccination choices," "accompanying parents in their
517 choice," "listening to parents," and "not being judgmental or prescriptive."

518 The following paragraphs result from the combined analysis of interview data and
519 observations of medical consultations, allowing us to compare what CAM practitioners said
520 to what they did. Both in their descriptions and in practice, providers emphasized the
521 importance of establishing parents' perceptions and knowledge-base on vaccination and
522 VPDs as a starting point. Dr. Ferrand (FR-CH, homeopathic medicine) explained:

523

524 We first speak about vaccines generally. Then, I go over them one by one. And for each
525 one, I ask [the patients] what types of information they had sought out. What information
526 do they already have? What are their concerns about vaccinations? (...). I tell them the
527 FOPH recommendations. Then, I tell them my information.

528

529 An extract from field notes from an observation with Dr. Schmidt (FR-CH, anthroposophic
530 medicine) reflects the approach described by Dr. Ferrand.

531

532 Dr. Schmidt paused and asked the parents if they had considered vaccination for their
533 son. The mother, a law student, laughed nervously and whispered that they were “anti-
534 vaccine.” The father, a medical doctor who also practices Ayurveda, explained how his
535 thinking about vaccines originally aligned with biomedicine and that he used to think that
536 vaccination was the best option. He recounted how he and his wife had read “an excellent
537 book,” *Qui aime bien, vaccine peu* [rough translation: *Those who love [their children]*
538 *vaccinate little*], which had led them to change their minds to thinking they could “go
539 without vaccination.” Dr. Schmidt nodded, showing that he knew the book and said that
540 the book was “a bit harsh” toward vaccines.

541

542 Participants thematically referred to parents’ “wishes,” “choices,” “options,” and
543 “preferences” when discussing vaccinations during interviews and observations. Such
544 “choice talk” is supported by the political option to not vaccinate in Switzerland in
545 accordance with non-mandatory FOPH recommendations. Dr. Schmidt (FR-CH,
546 anthroposophic medicine) emphasized the importance of choice, stating his goal was to
547 “recommend normal vaccinations, according to the Swiss schedule,” but that it was “the
548 parents’ choice,” that they sometimes have “different preferences,” and “wish to vaccinate
549 less or later.” He found it “important” to “find something that is adapted to the parents.”

550 Observations with Dr. Buchman (GE-CH, TCM and acupuncture) provided insight into
551 how providers individualized the discussion. Observation notes report the following with a

552 hesitant mother of a 2-year-old daughter. The consultation lasted 55 minutes, 50 minutes of
553 which were attributed to vaccination:

554

555 The mother nodded and took out two sheets of paper covered in handwritten notes (...)

556 The mother said that she was unsure if she should vaccinate her daughter and that her

557 husband knew some people who said they had been harmed by vaccinations. They were

558 not sure if this was true, but it made her have doubts. She said she was generally a fearful

559 and careful person, so hearing things like that from her husband's friends scared her. (...)

560 Dr. Buchman said she was not against vaccinations but preferred alternative

561 schedules. She also stated that she did not vaccinate during the full moon, or two days

562 before or after, and that she always tested vaccines "kinesiologically" before

563 administering them.

564

565 Dr. Buchman then personalized the discussion by considering "kinesiology reactions." With

566 the daughter in the mother's lap, the doctor applied pressure to the mother's arms, held at a

567 90° angle, while her daughter held the vaccine-containing syringes. If the mothers' arms

568 dropped, it meant that the daughter would not tolerate the vaccine. Her arm dropped slightly

569 for the *Infanrix*® vaccine (diphtheria-tetanus-pertussis-poliomyelitis-haemophilus influenzae

570 type B) but not *Boostrix*®-Polio (diphtheria-tetanus-pertussis-poliomyelitis). Dr. Buchman

571 concluded that the mother should elect for *Boostrix*-Polio if she chose to vaccinate.

572 CAM providers adapted vaccination discussion to families' specific social milieu for

573 context-specific recommendations. They sought to gauge relative risks of exposure to VPD

574 and parents' abilities to take care of their child in cases of illness. For example, in this excerpt

575 from observation notes, Dr. Schmidt (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) discussed vaccines

576 for the 2-month-old son of a 26-year old mother, a primary school assistant:

577

578 The mother spontaneously brought up vaccinations. Seemingly apprehensive and
579 hesitant, she explained, “For vaccines, we will do only the most basic ones. I prefer
580 waiting, and I only want the most important ones.” She was unsure which ones were most
581 important and asked for recommendations.

582 Dr. Schmidt asked if the son went to a nursery. She said that she did not intend to
583 send him. The doctor began explaining the Swiss recommendations, stopping to ask the
584 mother if she had female friends with children. She said that there were no children in her
585 social entourage and that she always asked friends to disinfect their hands before holding
586 her son. The mother glanced at the schedule and asked about minimum recommendations.
587 He explained that it was difficult to determine and that it was her choice: “It’s up to you
588 to decide.”

589

590 CAM providers considered patients individually without actively pursuing public
591 health goals of herd immunity and disease eradication with the common thread tying their
592 approaches together being how they put the parents’ contexts, concerns, and wishes at the
593 center of the discussion. Dr. Welty (GE-CH, anthroposophic medicine) explained during an
594 interview, “The most important thing for me in the end is not what you vaccinate, or if you
595 vaccinate, but the decision-making path.” Most providers reported following up with non-
596 vaccinated children at later consultations to see if parents had changed their minds or
597 reflected further. During interviews, participants reported pointing out the potential for social
598 exclusion and disapproval toward parents brought about by non-vaccination, explaining that
599 such a choice might not be socially acceptable in certain daycare centers, hospitals, or
600 schools. We also witnessed similar explanations about potential social exclusion during
601 consultation observations. Several providers argued that having healthcare professionals who

602 accept non-vaccination or hesitancy might do families a favor. They explained that through
603 their acceptance of these parents, they could build better rapport and perhaps lead to later
604 vaccination. Dr. Schmidt (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) explained, “I have the
605 impression that if we take the time and explain it well, the majority will end up vaccinating.
606 Maybe they vaccinate less, but we can still get them vaccinated.”

607

608 **4. Discussion**

609

610 CAM providers’ willingness to not systematically adhere to Swiss vaccine
611 recommendations might partially frame them as opponents in the vaccine narrative described
612 by Heller (2008). The majority of the evidence we gathered, however, calls anti-vaccination
613 CAM provider stereotypes into question. Participants were overall ambivalent or favorable
614 towards vaccination and had nuanced, context- and vaccine-specific views, despite being
615 markedly aware of the social consequences of questioning vaccination, with the example of
616 Dr. Laurin (FR-CH, anthroposophic medicine) recognizing that questioning vaccination can
617 be a “career killer.” However, providers’ doubts about vaccinations for all patients stemmed
618 from their expressed desires to consider each patient individually. Practitioners also took their
619 previous clinical experiences and patients’ suspected adverse vaccine events into account as
620 evidence to be weighed in vaccination reflections. The inclusion of experiential evidence into
621 CAM providers’ considerations for clinical practice and recommendations raises larger
622 epistemological questions about the role of evidence, and the legitimacy of different types of
623 evidence, in patient-provider interactions.

624 Through their qualitative work on CAM users, Attwell and colleagues (2018) defined
625 CAM users’ and providers’ relationships with each other and to vaccine hesitancy as
626 *symbiotic*. Our findings support their argument that parents and CAM providers “provide

627 each other with ‘resources’ that enable them to thrive together” (p. 111). Our results,
628 particularly from ethnographic observations of vaccination consultations, highlight the
629 importance of patients’ ability to exercise agency in vaccination decisions, with providers
630 seeking to enhance this agency by inviting parents to actively partake in decision-making.
631 Providers’ roles were not prescriptive; rather, they acted as medical advisors who informed
632 and encouraged parents to take responsibility for their choices. This echoes what Dubé et al.
633 (2013) found when comparing medical doctor and midwife roles in vaccine discussions in
634 Quebec; doctors adopted “education-information” stances to “convince” parents, whereas
635 midwives adopted a “neutral stance” by informing patients of the advantages and
636 disadvantages while leaving the decision to the parents (p. 242). Research in other settings
637 has likewise found that midwives emphasize parental choice and neutrality during
638 vaccination consultations (Pearce et al., 2008; Attwell et al., 2018b).

639 The literature on provider communication about vaccination is not uniform. While some
640 researchers have documented that adopting a presumptive communication style with parents
641 is associated with increased vaccination uptake (Opel et al., 2013), others have documented
642 that trying to convince patients often-times backfires, as such communication can be
643 perceived as condescending, belittling, or patronizing (Ball et al., 1998; Kahan, 2013; Nyhan
644 et al., 2014; Masaryk & Hatoková, 2016).

645 With the message that CAM providers *treat humans and not herds* emanating from our
646 data, it is tempting to castigate them as adversaries to public health goals of preventing
647 spread of disease. Brunson and Sobo (2017) urge us, however, to “get past” polarized visions
648 on vaccination to further understand the multidimensional aspects of vaccination decision-
649 making. Although the CAM practitioners in our study may not have proactively pursued
650 official vaccination recommendations, many argued that continued investment of time and
651 effort with parents eventually led to vaccination. Through their engagement in dialogue with

652 parents over time, providers undertake work that assuages some of the more complex
653 determinants of VH related to augmenting patient agency, such as parents' adherence to
654 'healthism' (Greenhalgh & Wessely, 2004), healthcare consumerism (Tomes, 2001; O'Hara,
655 2013), and parent autonomy in decision-making (Armstrong, 2014). The caveat is that,
656 depending on one's epistemological stance on what counts as evidence and informed
657 decision-making, CAM providers' willingness to stray from recommendations through
658 individualization could potentially bring parents to make decisions leading to illness through
659 non-vaccination.

660 Our results call us to further consider the role of individualized healthcare in vaccination
661 discussions, which aligns with other current medical and public health efforts. Such measures
662 are currently in vogue and seek to bring individualized, personalized, and patient-centered
663 approaches to the forefront of healthcare (Tutton, 2012; Rose, 2013; Holt et al., 2016;
664 Evangelatos et al., 2018). Gofen and Needham (2015) analyzed healthcare professionals'
665 discourses around personalized approaches to vaccination noncompliance in Israel and noted
666 how "personalization appears to be a 'quick fix' to increase compliance," but cautioned that
667 public health practitioners "may be further undermining the broader argument that
668 vaccination can be safely administered as a standardized intervention, and discrediting the
669 notion of a public duty to uphold herd immunity" (p. 278). Furthermore, a systematic review
670 on vaccine hesitancy and communication showed that individualized, participatory formats
671 might be preferable in clinical practice but concluded that more work was needed (Connors et
672 al., 2017).

673 Since vaccination programs rely upon high compliance for success in terms of herd
674 protection, individualizing the approach might seem counterproductive. However, framing
675 public health efforts to address VH (and not solely on rejection or compliance) for the
676 minority of parents who are vaccine hesitant recognizes how VH determinants are linked to

677 larger questions of patients' trust of healthcare professionals, expert opinion, advice and
678 authority, and perceptions of the influence of financial interests in science. As such,
679 discussions can be conducted in ways that are individually meaningful to vaccine hesitant
680 patients.

681 From a public health perspective, this argument might not be an easy pill to swallow
682 because it moves away from the prevalent *one-size-fits-all* approach, which is how
683 vaccination has historically been framed. Addressing *vaccine hesitancy* and addressing
684 *diminishing immunization rates* might not always be the same thing and may require different
685 tools. Efforts could therefore be tailored towards vaccine hesitant individuals in clinical
686 practice in order to address specific concerns. Rather than focusing on the epistemic divide
687 between CAM and biomedicine, which has been documented here and elsewhere, we propose
688 that efforts to address VH and improve patient care, for that matter, can revolve around areas
689 where CAM and biomedicine can agree. Both will likely find common ground concerning
690 improved patient communication and relationships.

691 Larson et al. (2014) argue that multidisciplinary approaches, which are "broad in scope
692 but context-specific," (p. 2156) are necessary to understand the underlying factors of VH.
693 Our qualitative results provide insights specific to Switzerland but with potential implications
694 for other high-income countries, where research and patient interest in CAM is high (Italia et
695 al., 2014; Hart, 2017). We should nonetheless be cautious in generalizing our findings. Our
696 sample size of 17 CAM-oriented providers was composed of voluntary participants. Their
697 participation and generally favorable or ambivalent vaccination views might result from a
698 vested interest in vaccination and more thought-out perspectives than those of presumably
699 more vaccine-hesitant or vaccine-opposed providers who declined to participate. While our
700 approach to observe vaccination consultations was innovative and revelatory, this method can
701 pose specific challenges, such as seeking approval from both parents and providers before the

702 observations begin, which can disrupt the natural flow of patient-provider interactions.
703 Additionally, the presence of a researcher in a consultation room might be perceived as
704 intrusive and potentially influence the ways participants interact. Finally, our sample was
705 heavily represented by CAM providers trained as medical doctors, which seems to be a
706 particularity of CAM in Switzerland (Hart, 2017). Future work should involve wider ranges
707 of CAM perspectives and would benefit by focusing on patient-provider relationships and
708 interactions.

709

710 **5. Conclusions**

711

712 Our study provides important novel insights into vaccination consultations with CAM
713 providers in Switzerland. To our knowledge, such firsthand data on CAM practitioner
714 discourses and practices regarding vaccinations, particularly combining qualitative interviews
715 with ethnographic observations of consultations, have not been documented in the literature.
716 This triangulation of qualitative methods allowed us to discuss CAM providers' discourses
717 about their experiences and perspectives (i.e. what they said) in relation to their practices *in*
718 *situ* (i.e. what they did), which both demonstrated their individualized approaches to
719 vaccination in consultations.

720 Additional research could benefit from considering patient use of CAM, biomedicine, and
721 VH on a larger scale. In addition to gathering socio-demographic information and other
722 drivers of VH and under-immunization, further studies could include variables demonstrated
723 as being consequential to parents, such as exercising agency in healthcare decisions, trust in
724 medical authority, and satisfaction in patient-provider interactions. Future research could also
725 explore emulating how CAM providers engaged with parents in this study; they established
726 parent knowledge and views on vaccination, included parent wishes and concerns, and

727 incorporated patients' health and social contexts into vaccination discussions. Undertaking
728 such efforts might not be easy. Establishing trusting relationships between patients and
729 healthcare providers in clinical settings takes time, resources, and communication training
730 and may benefit from policy maker support in encouraging incentives for providers to engage
731 in lengthier consultations. We argue that engaging vaccine hesitant patients in such a way can
732 improve both vaccine communication and patients' experiences in healthcare encounters by
733 activating patient agency in vaccination decisions.

734

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