

Exploring the Perspectives of Healthcare Professionals Concerning the Use and Utility of the Hospital Gown to Develop Theoretically Informed Behaviour Change Interventions

Cogan N*1, Morton L2, Georgiadis E3, Butler SH1, Fleck VJ1 and Johnstone J1

¹School of Psychological Sciences and Health, University of Strathclyde, UK

²Psychology Department, Glasgow Caledonian University, UK

³School of Social Sciences and Humanities, University of Suffolk, UK

*Corresponding author: Nicola Cogan, PhD, D.Clin.Psy. Senior Lecturer/Consultant Clinical Psychologist, School of Psychological Sciences and Health, University of Strathclyde, 40 George Street, Glasgow, G1 1QE, UK, Email: nicola.cogan@strath.ac.uk

Research Article

Volume 8 Issue 1

Received Date: November 30, 2023 **Published Date:** January 23, 2024

DOI: 10.23880/phoa-16000265

Abstract

The tenets of dignity, safety and privacy are potentially challenged when patients are required to remove their own clothes and wear the hospital gown for medical procedures. This study adopted a mixed method analysis informed by the theoretical domains framework (TDF) of healthcare professionals' (HCPs') perspectives (n = 2264) and experiences in relation to the use and utility of the gown. HCPs' perspectives in relation to the impact of wearing the hospital gown on patient wellbeing and suggested alternatives and/or improvements to the gown were explored. Findings revealed that the gown was often used when it was not medically necessary. The categories of meaning and associated TDF domains were: (1) Adverse impact on patient wellbeing (emotion); (2) Lack of dignity (beliefs about consequences); (3) Increased sense of dependency and vulnerability (social role and identity); (4) Hinders patient autonomy and recovery (beliefs about consequences & reinforcement); (5) Reduced patient mobility (beliefs about consequences); (6) Feeling institutionalised (environmental context and resources), and (7) Positive impact (optimism). The need for alternatives and/or modifications to the gown with a focus on a personcentred approach to its design was emphasised. Obstacles to staff promoting alternatives to the gown and challenges to making institutional changes were identified. Behavioural change interventions aimed at HCPs' practices associated with the use of the gown are recommended to challenge cultural norms and practices associated with the gown and to improve the patient experience.

Keywords: Hospital Gown; Dignity; Safety; Quality; Wellbeing; Person-Centred; Behaviour Change

Abbreviations: HCPs: Healthcare Professionals; TDF: Theoretical Domains Framework.

Introduction

Increasing focus on patient centred care represents a shift from disease-centred approaches to the development

and practice of healthcare towards those that integrate patient's needs, experiences and perspectives [1]. Patient centred care has been a key component of the world-wide healthcare agenda [2-5] with recent health policy drivers advocating a patient centred hospital culture [6]. The World Health Organisation identified ensuring patient centred care within health systems as one of the aims of Health 2020 [7].

In light of human rights legislation that promotes privacy of the body, safety and dignity of the person and the need to recognise the 'patient-as-person' [8,9], the tenets of dignity, safety and privacy are potentially challenged when patients are required to remove their own clothes and wear the hospital gown for medical procedures [10,11].

Yet, for healthcare professionals (HCPs) there can be tensions between supporting these modern reforms to deliver patient-centred, compassionate and dignified care and meeting the clinical needs of the patient [12]. Such tensions include prioritising infection control and having access to the patient's body for medical interventions, whilst maintaining patient dignity and privacy during such procedures [11,13]. Being unwell in hospital is associated with feeling vulnerable and dependent on HCPs to provide medical care and treatment [14,15]. Within this relationship dynamic there is often inequity between a patient and healthcare professional in terms of medical knowledge, decision making and social status [16-18]. Being asked to wear a backless hospital gown, widely perceived to be "the most vulnerable garment" [19] can exacerbate this power imbalance, increase feelings of vulnerability, loss of agency and negatively impact feelings of psychological safety [20]. Feeling powerless is a risk factor for developing post-traumatic stress in response to traumatic experiences; as such the gown may increase risk of medical trauma [21-23].

Despite reports that the hospital gown is uncomfortable, embarrassing to wear and compromises both patient dignity and mobility, it has remained relatively unchanged since its origins [24-26]. General hospital gowns are often offered to patients as a one-size-fits-all standard for both males and females in an A-line dress silhouette [27]. Traditional gowns are used to allow access to the body during medical procedures, protect clothing from bodily fluids and for sanitation. They are designed to withstand being washed and reused many times. They often have a uniform design and are tied with two sets of laces at the back; one at the top of the neck and a second in the middle of the lower back [21]. They are usually white and covered in a distinctive, repetitive pattern of dots [26].

Origins of the Gown

It has been proposed that the backless gown finds its roots in early public health measures to control the spread of disease. In the 1860s, Joseph Lister 'the father of modern surgery' applied Louis Pasteur's 'germ theory' to surgery by introducing aseptic precautions such as handwashing, masks, sterilising surgical instruments with carbolic acid and the use of clean surgical gowns. Prior to this, surgeons wore their own clothes, sometimes covered by a 'butcher's apron' that was often covered in blood and puss. Due to this

practice, around half of patients undergoing surgery died post operatively from sepsis. The introduction of aseptic methods significantly reduced such deaths from 'surgical fever' [28]. Florence Nightingale widely promoted these new measures whilst nursing soldiers during the Crimean war, helping to influence the healthcare culture and improve patient safety [29]. Further, early modern hospitals often served the disadvantaged (with wealthier people opting to be treated at home) at a time when removal of personal clothing was promoted to prevent the spread of infection and parasites. The uniform design of the gown may have been adapted from those worn by surgeons as aseptic precautions to prevent the spread of post-operative infections [28,30,31]. Initially, a 'theatre gown' with a backless design would assist with their application and removal from the unconscious patient and offer infection control [32-34]. Given this historical context, it seems likely that the current hospital gown is a 'medical relic' unchanged in design for the best part of a century.

Contemporary Uses and Experiences of Wearing the Gown

Currently, the gown is commonly used for many hospital procedures; both inpatient and outpatient. Yet, little research has explored the utility of the gown or the patient experience of wearing it. One of the first studies to be conducted to address this consisted of a small grounded-theory study involving staff and patient interviews in a healthcare setting in Sweden; the aim was to illuminate patients' personal meanings and experiences of wearing patient clothing. Analysis of the interviews consisted of four themes: (1) being comfortable and cared for; (2) being depersonalised; (3) being stigmatised; and (4) being devitalised [35]. However, this study included a range of hospital clothing, including pyjamas and dressing gowns, therefore the findings from this study are not specific to the gown. A further qualitative study, which focused on patient dignity in an acute hospital in England (Baille, 2008), reported that despite nursing staff and healthcare associates identifying bodily exposure as a threat to patient dignity, when observed in practice they seemed unaware of the risks associated with patient exposure posed by the routine use of the gown for medical procedures. Similarly, researchers [36] conducted a qualitative study in Finland which considered hospital clothing from both a patient and carer's perspective. They developed three themes that highlighted how hospital clothing was associated with (1) being in the 'patient role', (2) lack of control and (3) lack of privacy. Carers noticed that patients took more responsibility for their own care when they reverted to wearing their own clothing in both hospital and residential settings. Further, in a survey study conducted across 5 teaching hospitals in Canada, the presence of lower-body garments was recorded during routine patient admissions. The eligibility of patients to wear lower-body attire was determined by physicians. The

study found that of 127 patients included in the study, only 14 were given the option of wearing lower-body garments, even though 57 patients were deemed eligible to do so. The findings suggested that in order to improve the patient experience, eligible patients should be encouraged to wear lower-body garments when full home attire is not feasible [37].

Recently, we explored patients' views and experiences of wearing the hospital gown within the UK context using a sequential, multi-method approach [11]. The first study consisted of in-depth interviews (n = 10) with adults living with a lifelong chronic health condition. The study found three major themes: (1) embodying the sick role, (2) relinquishing control to medical professionals and (3) enhancing physical and emotional vulnerability. In the second study we conducted a cross-sectional online survey exploring patients' views (n = 928) and experiences of wearing the gown. The majority of participants reported that they felt exposed, selfconscious and vulnerable when wearing the gown, and that they had been asked to wear the gown despite feeling unsure that it was medically necessary. Over half of the participants reported that they felt uncomfortable when wearing the gown, and less than 10% reported that it made them feel 'cared for'. Comparable findings were reported in a recent qualitative study [38] conducted in the US which explored patients' and staff derived meanings related to the hospital gown. Patients (n = 10), nurses (n = 10) and physicians (n = 10) were interviewed and the following themes were developed: (1) gowns reduced self-esteem, (2) gown were designed to meet the needs of the care providers rather than the patients, and (3) gown colour options would be empowering. Patients also reported wanting to wear their own clothes but believed they were not allowed to do so. Nurses and physicians viewed the gown as useful for ease of access to patients, although they reported that the ties were often time consuming to secure which made their job more difficult. They also expressed feelings of distress associated with seeing patients in gowns.

Together, these studies have highlighted that while there are perceived limitations and associated negative impact on patients in wearing the backless hospital gown, earlier work incorporating the perspectives of HCPs has largely been small scale and limited. There is also a lack of theoretically driven frameworks to help understand the impact of wearing the gown from HCPs' perspectives. Such research has the potential to inform future interventions to foster change in practices concerning the use and design of the gown.

The Current Study

The current study aimed to build on earlier work [11,26,35,36,38] by exploring HCPs' views on the hospital gown across a wide range of healthcare settings within the

UK context. Specifically, we were interested in exploring the utility of the gown and how HCPs considered wearing the gown impacted on patients' mental wellbeing. In order to explore HCPs' perspectives in relation to the impact of wearing the gown on patient wellbeing, the Theoretical Domains Framework (TDF) was used [39,40]. It was envisaged that using the TDF in this manner would help inform future intervention development aimed at changing HCPs' behaviours associated with the use of the gown across diverse practice settings. For example, using the TDF can help create suggestions on required environmental resources to support patients' adaptive emotional responses and improve behavioural regulation during hospital procedures [41]. As well as gaining insight into practices associated with the gown, we sought to explore HCPs' views in regard to any proposed modifications and/or alternatives to the gown that could inform future healthcare policy and practice guidelines focused on patient centred care.

Method

Participants

Participants (n = 2264) were HCPs who were recruited through convenience sampling. Inclusion criteria stated that participants had to be 18 years of age or over and employed within a health and/or social care setting (for at least 6 months) in the UK.

Design

A cross-sectional online survey using Qualtrics was conducted. The questions used in the survey relating to HCP's views on the hospital gown were informed by earlier work [11] and sought to understand the perceived utility of the gown as well as the impact of wearing the gown on patient wellbeing. The survey also included open-ended questions that allowed participants to add their own views in relation to the utility of the hospital gown. The TDF was then used to identify individual, social and environmental factors [39] that may have influenced HCPs' perspectives in relation to the impact of wearing the gown on patient wellbeing. Finally, HCPs' views on proposed modifications and/or alternatives to the gown were explored.

Procedure

Following ethical approval from the University Ethics Committee (ID: 1660), an advertisement poster was circulated through social media (LinkedIn, Twitter and Facebook) and NHS-specific platforms and partner organisations within the UK to aid participant recruitment via an online link using the Qualtrics platform. Participants were presented with the inclusion/exclusion criteria, the

objectives of the study, the participant information sheet and a consent form. Participants were provided with the chief investigator's contact details for further information on the study and the opportunity to ask questions about the research. They were made aware that their responses were completely anonymous. After informed consent was obtained and upon completion of the survey, a debrief form was presented. Data was collected between December 2019 and March 2020.

Analysis

The data was cleaned and analysed using SPSS v26 software. We first examined descriptive statistics relating to participant socio-demographic characteristics (Table 1). Kurtosis and skewness scores and their cut-off values were used to examine the assumption of normality [42]. Significance level of p < 0.05 was used for analyses of closed question data. Participants' responses to closed questions were analysed in a binomial manner (yes = 1; no = 0), and effects were calculated through cross-tabulations and Pearson chi-square.

Participants' responses to open ended questions in the survey were analysed using content analysis [43]. This process followed three main phases of preparation, organisation and reporting of the textual data [44]. The preparation stage began by reading the open-ended responses to survey questions as a whole and in detail. This allowed for the context of concepts to be fully understood before being extracted and organised into initial codes [45]. Constant comparison of the text [46] was used during the preparation phase whereby the first coders within the research team initially analysed the data, with the review being undertaken by the chief investigator, enabling both category refinement and research rigour [47,48]. The researchers returned to the data several times during the analytical process to ensure that the results showed a strong connection to the analysed data [49]. Codes were then grouped by commonality, reduced into subcategories, then combined into categories of meaning (key categories) which represented the highest level of abstraction for the reporting of the results [50]. Coded data were then mapped onto the most relevant TDF domains. Once organised, interreliability in the categorisation of concepts was conducted between the coders within the research team. Cohen's Kappa [51] was used to assess inter-rater reliability among coders revealing substantial agreement (kappa=.81). The final coded data were treated as variables for analysis conducted using Microsoft Excel, using descriptive statistics (frequency counts and percentages) based on the total number of coded comments.

Results

Participant Characteristics

Participants (total sample n=2264) consisted of HCPs who had experience of utilising the hospital gown in their practice settings (Table 1). Participants were mainly female (n=2114; 93.3%), nurses (n=1228; 54.2%), of white ethnic origin (n=1981; 87.5%), aged between 18-71 (mean = 32.6; SD = 10.8) and with approximately 10 years of working experience in healthcare (mean = 10.1; SD = 3.2).

Sample characteristic of HCPs	Frequency (N) Total sample (n =2264)	Sample (%)
Gender:		
Female	2114	93.3
Male	133	5.9
Transgender	2	0.1
Non-binary	10	0.4
Prefer not to say	5	0.2
Ethnicity:		
White origin (general)	1980	87.4
Black African	36	1.6
Asian	162	7.2
Mixed Race	83	3
Prefer not to say	3	0.1
Professional category		
Nurses	1228	54.2
Allied health professionals	356	15.7
Midwives	203	8.9
Nursing assistants	173	7.6
Doctors	21	0.9
Surgeons	10	0.4
Other (not mentioned)	273	12.1

Table 1: Participant characteristics.

Healthcare Professional's Experiences with the Hospital Gown

All participants (n = 2264) had direct experience of working with patients' wearing the hospital gown and the majority also had experience of being a patient and having to wear the gown themselves (n = 1732; 76.5%). Further, the majority of participants had seen a close family member and/or friend in the gown (n = 1868; 82.5%). The majority

of participants (n = 1900; 83.9%) had experience of a patient being asked to wear two gowns (double gowning); one fastening at the back and the other over the top fastening at the front (e.g. as a means to try and prevent a patient feeling exposed and/or cold). Less than half of the participants (n = 1104; 48.7%) thought that when patients wore the gown it was medically necessary.

Impact of Wearing the Gown

Participants (n = 2264) were asked whether they felt that wearing the gown impacted on a patients' mobility; with over 2 in 5 of participants reporting that it adversely impacted on patient mobility (n = 926; 40.9%). The majority of participants believed that wearing the hospital gown negatively impacted on how patients' felt about themselves (n = 1352; 59.7%), while participants were less inclined to think that it adversely impacted how hospital staff (n =633; 27.9%) or others viewed the patient (n = 757; 33.4%). The majority of participants reported that they thought that wearing the gown resulted in patients' feeling exposed (n = 2081; 91.9%), uncomfortable (n = 1949; 86.1%), vulnerable (n = 1817; 80.3%), self-conscious (n = 1740; 76.9%) and cold (n = 1596; 70.5%). Nearly two thirds (n = 1479; 65.3%) of participants had offered a patient the option of remaining in their own clothing as an alternative to the gown, 43.5% (n =

984) had wanted to do this but felt unable to. The majority of the participants (n = 1515; 69.9%) were unaware of any alternatives to the hospital gown in their places of work.

Patient Wellbeing

Participants were asked about their views in relation to the hospital gown, with a focus on the impact on patient wellbeing, in an opened ended survey question. In total, 43.1% of participants (n = 974) responded to the question which generated 408 coded comments. A total of 39 associated codes were then developed, resulting in 7 categories. Six of 7 of the categories highlighted negative or adverse factors associated with wearing the gown and its impact on patient wellbeing. These categories were coded according to the most relevant domains in the TDF (Table 2). The categories of meaning and associated TDF domains were: (1) Adverse impact on patient wellbeing (emotion); (2) Lack of dignity (beliefs about consequences); (3) Increased sense of dependency and vulnerability (social role and identity); (4) Hinders patient autonomy and recovery (beliefs about consequences & reinforcement); (5) Reduced patient mobility (beliefs about consequences); (6) Feeling institutionalised (environmental context and resources), and (7) Positive impact on wellbeing (optimism).

Relevant domains of the TDF	Categories of meaning (N = 7 key categories)	Number (%) of comments associated with category (N = 408 coded comments)	Associated codes (N = 39 sub-codes)
Emotion	Adverse impact on patient wellbeing (e.g. patient feels self-conscious")	103 (25.2%)	Stressed Anxious Embarrassed Trauma Worried Self-conscious Panic Fear Apathy
Beliefs about consequences	Lack of dignity (e.g. "patient feels exposed and it's undignified")	99 (24.3%)	Feeling exposed Loss of self-respect Undignified Lack of privacy Stigma
Social role and identity	Increased sense of dependency and vulnerability (e.g. "It's dehumanising")	79 (19.4%)	Dependent Lack of safety Vulnerable Loss of control

Beliefs about consequences & Reinforcement	Hinders patient autonomy and recovery (e.g. "hospital gown is associated with the sick role")	44 (10.7%)	Lack of power Stuck in patient role No choice Cold Uncomfortable Unquestioning Negative impact on recovery
Beliefs about consequences	Reduced patient mobility (e.g. "not practical for mobility")	36 (8.8%)	Immobile Trapped Lack of movement Sedentary Fear of exposure
Environment context and resources & Social influences	Feeing institutionalised and disempowered (e.g. "hospital gown evokes institutionalised feeling")	27 (6.6%)	Dehumanising Unable to question Disempowered Hospital property Stamped clothing Like a prisoner
Optimism	Positive impact (e.g. "helps the patient feel cared for")	22 (5.4%)	Feeling cared for All equal Convenient

Table 2: Impact of the hospital gown on patients' mental wellbeing (total participants n = 974).

Participants were asked whether they felt that there was any need to makes changes or find alternatives to the hospital gown in an open-ended question. In total, 44.3% (n = 996) of the participants responded to this question which generated 549 coded comments. A total of 36 associated codes were then developed, resulting in 5 categories of meaning (Table 3). The majority of these categories of meaning related to

alternatives or modifications to the hospital gown, however, 1 category identified that no changes were needed for the gown. The categories were: (1) The need for an alternative to the backless hospital gown; (2) Modifications to the gown; (3) The gown should be person-centred; (4) Keep the gown, and (5) Obstacles to staff promoting alternatives to the gown.

Categories of meaning (N = 5 key categories)	Number (%) of comments associated with category (N = 549 coded comments)	Associated codes (N = 36 sub-codes)
Alternatives to the gown (e.g. "the gown needs a complete redesign")	141 (25.6%)	Patient wearing own clothes Redesign of patient clothing
Modifications to the gown and its procedural use (e.g. "it needs changes to the material and fasteners")	133 (24.2%)	Closed at the back Changes to fasteners to reduce exposure Different colours Choice of hospital clothing Adapted to accommodate medical equipment Change fabric so less transparent and comfort Only used when medically necessary

Gown needs to be person-centred (e.g. "it needs to be designed with the patient in mind")	95 (17.3%)	Patient-centred Dignified Comfortable Sense of agency Safety Empowering Trauma informed Choice Empowering Only used for medical necessity
Keep the gown – no change (e.g. "patients need to wear gowns")	92 (16.8%)	Staff acceptance of gown Necessary Hospital policy Suitable for hygiene and cleanliness Patient acceptance of the gown Institutional acceptance of the gown Gown allows staff to perform their role effectively Accessibility for staff Protects patients' own clothes from soiling/damage Personal own clothing not suitable
Obstacles to staff promoting alternatives to the gown (e.g. "resistance to changing the gown")	89(16.2%)	Cultural barriers Institutionalisation Inability to challenge the status-quo Lack of resources Habitual practices Resistance to change Policies of hospital institutions

Table 3: Suggested alternatives or improvements to the hospital gown (total participants n = 996).

Discussion

This study aimed to understand HCPs' views and experiences of using the hospital gown within their practice settings to better understand current use and perceived utility of the gown, its medical necessity and its impact on patients' wellbeing. The findings support and further build upon earlier work conducted with patient populations [35]; the majority of HCPs viewed the gown as being impractical, not fit for purpose, adversely impacting on patient wellbeing and that there is a need to provide alternatives to the gown or at least recommended modifications to its existing design. These findings suggest that the standard, backless hospital gown is inconsistent with a patient-centred approach to medical care that aims to promote compassion, dignified care and safety [52-55]. Further, the majority of HCPs reported that they felt that the gown was often used when it was not medically necessary, reduced patient mobility and that practices such as 'double gowning' were an unsatisfactory means by which to reduce patients' feelings exposed, cold and/or vulnerable. While a minority of the participants were of the view that the gown was necessary and/or required no modifications, the majority reported the need for alternatives such as patients having the option to bring their own patient wear, reducing the use of the gown to occasions when it is medically necessary or modifying its existing design to reduce patients' feeling exposed. These findings are in support of recent work which aims to increase patient dignity through adopting a patient-centred approach to the gown's design and use [26,56,57]. Efforts to create new patient attire that begins to address these needs is underway [21,58]. Despite such developments, some of the HCPs in the current study pointed to resource implications, institutional acceptance of the gown and barriers to challenging hospital policies and practices; this is likely due to wider issues relating to resistance to change within healthcare systems [59]. Understanding HCPs' perspectives and experiences in implementing behaviour change and challenging cultural norms is critical to ensuring advances in health psychology are applied to maximise patient health and wellbeing outcomes [60,61]. Implementing new practices and/or changing existing practices, such as presenting alternatives or modifications to the hospital gown, requires changes in individual and collective behaviours among HCPs [39]. The TDF provided a theoretical lens through which to view the cognitive, affective, social and environmental influences

on HPCs' views in relation to the impact of wearing the hospital gown on patient wellbeing. The domains that were identified as most relevant were social/professional role and identity, beliefs about capabilities, optimism, beliefs about consequences, reinforcement, environmental context and resources, social influences and emotion. Such domains provide theoretically driven insights into factors that influence HCPs' perspectives in terms of the perceived impact on patients' wellbeing associated with wearing the gown and provide a theoretically informed evidence base from which to embed future interventions that aim to change existing practices associated with the use of the hospital gown across a range of practice settings.

Limitations and Recommendations

A clear limitation of our study was the fact that participants were mainly females, of white ethnic origin, working in the nursing profession within the UK context. Unfortunately, it was not possible to control such factors due to the study design using an online invitation to participants to complete a cross-sectional survey using convenience sampling. Future studies could aim to target the inclusion of the perspectives of HCPs from more diverse sociodemographics (e.g. ethnic minorities, LGBTQ+, economically disadvantaged and protected characteristics) and ethnic origins [62,63]. Healthcare disparities may be reduced through a patient-centred approach to patient clothing [64] as well as an improved understanding of the cultural context of diverse patient and staff populations across a range of health and/or medical setting [65].

It is important to note that the data collection took place in the months prior to the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. The pandemic heightened requirement for infection control with protective clothing, including hospital gowns. Some studies suggest that current gowns do not meet performance specifications for infection control [66]. It is essential that any modifications to the gown's design and use optimise patient safety and infection control; further work is needed to explore this post-COVID-19 pandemic. Incorporating a patient-centred approach into the design of the gown as well as consideration of patient clothing more generally is fundamental to quality care [67] and to potentially mitigating the risks of medical trauma [23]. Our ongoing work aims to consider the consequent impact of COVID-19 on patient centred care and practices associated with patient clothing more generally. A further limitation of the study concerns its cross-sectional design, therefore, the timing of the snapshot data is not guaranteed to be representative. It is also important to note that for the content analysis of participants' responses to the open-ended questions, the percentages reported relate to total coded responses and are not generalisable or indicative of the total sample responses. Future work could adopt the categories of meaning identified in the current study to inform the development of future surveys that seek to further illuminate HCPs' perspectives on the gown.

It would be beneficial for future work to develop a psychometrically sound measure of patients' views and preferences for patient clothing (e.g. the gown, wearing pyjamas, personal clothing) across different healthcare contexts, to further build upon the current research and improve the generalisability of future work in this field; this is aligned with the increasing impetus on the need for more patient reported outcomes in health care delivery and service provision [68,69]. Longitudinal research will help better understand the long-term impacts of wearing the gown on patient well-being. It would be interesting to explore this further by considering the impact of hospital clothing on loved ones and caregivers of patients undergoing medical procedures; such work would help us understand the broader impact on wider familial dynamics and support networks. Given that theoretically driven-behaviour change interventions are more effective than those without a theoretical base [70] it is further recommended that future behavioural change interventions aimed at changing HCPs' behaviours associated with the use of the gown be informed by the relevant domains of the TDF [71]. Such interventions could then be linked to behaviour change techniques, which are observable, replicable, and irreducible active ingredients of an intervention [72-76]. Further in-depth research focused on intervention development adopting TDF analysis using both qualitative and quantitative elements is recommended.

Conclusions

The quality of healthcare has steadily improved and moved to a more patient-centred model; inpatient attire is an opportunity to continue to improve the patient experience in hospitals and outpatient settings [37]. Although there are shifting ideals about personalised care in the medical industry, conventional hospital gowns are still associated with feelings of vulnerability and exposure for patients, a lack of dignity, and a sense of disempowerment [11]. The findings from the current research, albeit limited in terms of making causal inferences given the cross-sectional design, suggest that HCPs' view that wearing the gown has a negative on patient wellbeing and that alternatives and/or improvements to the gown are needed. Further, the use of the hospital gown should be limited to medical necessity. Obstacles to HCPs promoting alternatives to the gown and challenges to making institutional changes were identified. Future behaviour change interventions aimed at changing HCPs practices associated with the gown would benefit from drawing upon the TDF in order to incorporate the cognitive, affective, social and environmental influences on HPCs'

behaviours. Such interventions may help challenge cultural norms and practices associated with the gown and assist in embedding a more patient-centred approach to patient clothing. Inclusion of these recommendations in relevant health care policies and practices would help improve the patient experience given that it prioritises patient choice, dignity, safety and privacy.

Acknowledgments

The research team would like to thank the HCPs that took part in the current study for their engagement and participation in this study.

Declaration of Interest Statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

References

- Eklund JH, Holmström IK, Kumlin T, Kaminsky E, Skoglund K, et al. (2019) "Same same or different?" A review of reviews of person-centered and patient-centered care. Patient Education and Counseling 102(1): 3-11.
- 2. Bokhour BG, Fix GM, Mueller NM, Barker AM, Lavela SL, et al. (2018) How can healthcare organizations implement patient-centered care? Examining a large-scale cultural transformation. BMC Health Services Research 18(1): 1-11.
- 3. Havana T, Kuha S, Laukka E, Kanste O (2023) Patients' experiences of patient-centred care in hospital setting: A systematic review of qualitative studies. Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences 37(4): 1001-1015.
- Santana MJ, Manalili K, Jolley RJ, Zelinsky S, Quan H, et al. (2018) How to practice person-centred care: A conceptual framework. Health Expectations 21(2): 429-440.
- 5. Woogara J (2005) Patients' rights to privacy and dignity in the NHS. Nursing standard 19(18): 33-37.
- 6. Kwame A, Petrucka PM (2021) A literature-based study of patient-centered care and communication in nursepatient interactions: barriers, facilitators, and the way forward. BMC Nursing 20(1): 1-10.
- 7. World Health Organization (2013) Health 2020: a European policy framework and strategy for the 21st century. Regional Office for Europe.
- 8. Grover S, Fitzpatrick A, Azim FT, Ariza-Vega P, Bellwood

- P, et al. (2022) Defining and implementing patient-centered care: an umbrella review. Patient Education and Counseling 105(7): 1679-1688.
- 9. Scane K, Ballantyne J, Breese P, Kyriakides P, Quinlan B, et al. (2022) A compass for our care: Leadership that enables a culture of people-centred care. Healthcare Quarterly 24(4): 61-68.
- 10. Cogan N, Morton L, Georgiadis E (2019) Mixed methods study exploring the impact of the hospital gown on recovery and wellbeing: implications for policy and practice. The Lancet 394(S): S32.
- 11. Morton L, Cogan N, Kornfält S, Porter Z, Georgiadis E (2020) Baring all: The impact of the hospital gown on patient well-being. British Journal of Health Psychology 25(3): 452-473.
- 12. Cole C, Mummery J, Peck B (2022) Professionalising care into compliance: The challenge for personalised care models. Nursing Inquiry 30(3): e12541.
- 13. Wellbery C, Chan M (2014) White coat, patient gown. Medical Humanities 40(2): 90-96.
- 14. Detsky AS, Krumholz HM (2014) Reducing the trauma of hospitalization. JAMA 311(21): 2169-2170.
- 15. Sutton E, Martin G, Eborall H, Tarrant C (2023) Undertaking risk and relational work to manage vulnerability: Acute medical patients' involvement in patient safety in the NHS. Social Science & Medicine 320: 115729.
- 16. Guggenbühl-Craig A (1971) Power in the helping profession. Spring Publications, pp. 155.
- 17. Schou KC (2001) Producing patient-centered health care: Patient perspectives about health and illness and the physician/patient relationship. Journal of Health Psychology 6(4): 468-470.
- 18. Timmermans S (2020) The engaged patient: The relevance of patient–physician communication for twenty-first-century health. Journal of Health and Social Behavior 61(3): 259-273.
- Luthra S (2015) In Pursuit of Patient Satisfaction, Hospitals Update the Hated Hospital Gown. Kaiser Health News.
- 20. Morton L, Cogan N, Kolacz J, Calderwood C, Nikolic M, et al. (2022) A new measure of feeling safe: Developing psychometric properties of the Neuroception of Psychological Safety Scale (NPSS). Psychological Trauma.

- 21. Frankel R, Peyser A, Farner K, Rabin JM (2021) Healing by Leaps and Gowns: A Novel Patient Gowning System to the Rescue. Journal of Patient Experience 8: 23743.
- Livecchi T, Morton L (2023) Healing Hearts and Minds: A Holistic Approach to Coping Well with Congenital Heart Disease. Oxford University Press, New York, USA, pp: 304.
- 23. Morton L (2023) Medical Trauma: the Forgotten Adverse Childhood Experience. The Traumatic Stress Research Consortium (TSRC), The Kinsey Institute, Indiana University, USA.
- 24. Fitzgerald C (2017) Modernising patient clothing: a Florence Nightingale Foundation project. British Journal of Nursing 26(8): 472-473.
- 25. Rao V (2022) Review on Application of Functional, Expressive, and Aesthetic Consumer Needs Model in Designing Patient Gowns. Journal of Textile & Apparel Technology & Management (JTATM) 12(3).
- 26. Syed S, Stilwell P, Chevrier J, Adair C, Markle G, et al. (2022) Comprehensive design considerations for a new hospital gown: a patient-oriented qualitative study. Canadian Medical Association Open Access Journal 10(4): E1079-E1087.
- 27. Baillie L (2009) Patient dignity in an acute hospital setting: A case study. International Journal of Nursing Studies 46(1): 23-36.
- 28. Schlich T, Strasser B (2022) Making the medical mask: Surgery, bacteriology, and the control of infection (1870s–1920s). Medical History 66(2): 116-134.
- 29. Nightingale F (1860) Notes on Nursing for the labouring classes. Appleton and Company, New York, USA.
- Issac S (2017) Lord Joseph Lister of Lyme Regis (1827-1912): the father of modern surgery. Royal College of Surgeons England.
- 31. Issac S (2018) Frock coats to scrubs, a story of surgical attire. Royal College of Surgeons England.
- 32. Black S, Torlei K (2013) Designing a new type of hospital gown: A user centered design approach case study. Fashion Practice 5(1): 153-160.
- 33. Cho K (2006) Redesigning hospital gowns to enhance end users' satisfaction. Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal 34(4): 332-349.
- 34. Dinsdale P (2004) Revealing patient gowns overdue for a redesign: patient champion tells NHS Live conference

- that undignified 1950s gown must go. Nursing Standard 18(44): 7-8.
- 35. Edvardsson D (2009) Balancing between being a person and being a patient—A qualitative study of wearing patient clothing. International Journal of Nursing Studies 46(1): 4-11.
- 36. Topo P, Iltanen-Tähkävuori S (2010) Scripting patienthood with patient clothing. Social Science & Medicine 70: 1682-1689.
- 37. McDonald EG, Dounaevskaia V, Lee TC (2014) Inpatient attire: An opportunity to improve the patient experience. JAMA Internal Medicine 174: 1865-1867.
- 38. Lucas CM, Dellasega C (2020) Finding common threads: How patients, physicians and nurses perceive the patient gown. Patient Experience Journal 7(1): 51-64.
- 39. Atkins L, Francis J, Islam R (2017) A guide to using the Theoretical Domains Framework of behaviour change to investigate implementation problems. Implementation Science 12: 77.
- 40. Dyson J, Cowdell F (2021) How is the Theoretical Domains Framework applied in designing interventions to support healthcare practitioner behaviour change? A systematic review. International journal for quality in health care: journal of the International Society for Quality in Health Care 33(3): 106.
- 41. Glidewell L, Hunter C, Ward V, McEachan RR, Lawton R, et al. (2022) Explaining variable effects of an adaptable implementation package to promote evidence-based practice in primary care: a longitudinal process evaluation. Implementation Science 17(1): 1-24.
- 42. Blanca MJ, Arnau J, López-Montiel D, Bono R, Bendayan R (2013) Skewness and kurtosis in real data samples. Methodology: European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioral and Social Sciences 9(2): 78-84.
- 43. Krippendorff K (2018) Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology. Sage publications.
- 44. Elo S, Kyngäs H (2008) The qualitative content analysis process. Journal of Advanced Nursing 62(1): 107-115.
- 45. Morgan DL (1993) Qualitative content analysis: a guide to paths not taken. Qualitative Health Research 3(1): 112-121.
- 46. Onwuegbuzie AJ, Leech NL (2019) On Qualitizing. International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches 11(2).

- 47. Elo S, Kääriäinen M, Kanste O, Pölkki T, Utriainen K, et al. (2014) Qualitative content analysis: A focus on trustworthiness. SAGE Open 4(1): 2158244014522633.
- 48. Hsieh HF, Shannon SE (2005) Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. Qualitative Health Research 15(9): 1277-1288.
- 49. Kyngäs H (2020) Inductive Content Analysis. In: Kyngäs H, Mikkonen K, et al. (Eds.), The Application of Content Analysis in Nursing Science Research. Springer, pp: 13-21.
- 50. Erlingsson C, Brysiewicz P (2017) A hands-on guide to doing content analysis. African Journal of Emergency Medicine 7(3): 93-99.
- 51. Cohen J (1960) A coefficient of agreement for nominal scales. Educational and Psychological Measurement 20: 37-46.
- 52. Cogan N, Morton L, Georgiadis E (2019) Exploring the effect of the hospital gown on wellbeing: a mixed methods study. The Lancet 394(S32).
- 53. Pavithra A (2022) Towards developing a comprehensive conceptual understanding of positive hospital culture and approaches to healthcare organisational culture change in Australia. Journal of Health Organization and Management 36(1): 105-120.
- 54. Singh P, King Shier K, Sinclair S (2018) The colours and contours of compassion: A systematic review of the perspectives of compassion among ethnically diverse patients and healthcare providers. PLoS One 13(5): e0197261.
- 55. Tehranineshat B, Rakhshan M, Torabizadeh C, Fararouei M (2019) Compassionate care in healthcare systems: a systematic review. Journal of the National Medical Association 111(5): 546-554.
- 56. Arunachalam P, D'Souza B (2022) Patient-Centered Hospital Gowns: A Novel Redesign of Inpatient Attire to Improve Both the Patient and Provider Experience. American Society of Mechanical Engineers 84815: V001T04A008.
- 57. Oliver D (2017) David Oliver: Fighting pyjama paralysis in hospital wards. BMJ: British Medical Journal (Online) pp: 357.
- 58. Hwang C, McCoy L, Shaw MR (2022) Redesigning maternity hospital gowns. Fashion Practice 14(1): 79-98.
- 59. Robinson S (2022) Promoting health in the National

- Health Service. In Principles and Practice of Health Promotion and Public Health Routledge pp: 382-408.
- 60. Balbale SN, Turcios S, LaVela SL (2015) Health care employee perceptions of patient-centered care. Qualitative Health Research 25(3): 417-425.
- 61. Patey AM, Fontaine G, Francis JJ, McCleary N, Presseau J, et al. (2022) Healthcare professional behaviour: health impact, prevalence of evidence-based behaviours, correlates and interventions. Psychology & Health 38(6): 1-29.
- 62. Chauhan A, Walton M, Manias E, Walpola RL, Seale H, et al. (2020) The safety of health care for ethnic minority patients: a systematic review. International Journal for Equity in Health 19(1): 118.
- 63. Kyrazis CB, Stein EB, Carroll EF, Crissman HP, Kirkpatrick DL, et al. (2023) Imaging Care for Transgender and Gender Diverse Patients: Best Practices and Recommendations. Radiographics 43(2): e220124.
- 64. Smith JB, Willis EM, Hopkins-Walsh J (2022) What does person-centred care mean, if you weren't considered a person anyway: An engagement with person-centred care and Black, queer, feminist, and posthuman approaches. Nursing Philosophy 23(3): e12401.
- 65. Cuevas AG, O'Brien K, Saha S (2017) What is the key to culturally competent care: Reducing bias or cultural tailoring? Psychology Health 32(4): 493-507.
- 66. McQuerry M, Easter E, Cao A (2021) Disposable versus reusable medical gowns: A performance comparison. American Journal of Infection Control 49(5): 563-570.
- 67. Russell G (2022) Have we forgotten the moral justification for patient-centred care?. BMJ Quality & Safety 31(3): 172-174.
- 68. Aiyegbusi OL, Hughes SE, Calvert MJ (2022) The Role of Patient-Reported Outcomes (PROs) in the Improvement of Healthcare Delivery and Service. In Handbook of Quality of Life in Cancer pp: 339-352.
- 69. Oliver D (2020) David Oliver: There's no dignity in hospital gowns. British Medical Journal pp: 368.
- Glanz K, Bishop DB (2010) The role of behavioral science theory in development and implementation of public health interventions. Annual Review of Public Health 31: 399-418.
- 71. Michie S, Van Stralen MM, West R (2011) The behaviour change wheel: a new method for characterising and designing behaviour change interventions.

Implementation Science 6(1): 42.

- 72. Cane J, Richardson M, Johnston M, Ladha R, Michie S (2015) From lists of behaviour change techniques (BCTs) to structured hierarchies: Comparison of two methods of developing a hierarchy of BCTs. British Journal of Health Psychology 20(1): 130-150.
- 73. Cowdell F, Dyson J (2019) How is the theoretical domains framework applied to developing health behaviour interventions? A systematic search and narrative synthesis. BMC Public Health 19: 1-10.
- 74. Michie S, Richardson M, Johnston M, Abraham C, Francis J, et al. (2013) The behavior change technique taxonomy

- (v1) of 93 hierarchically clustered techniques: building an international consensus for the reporting of behavior change interventions. Annals of Behavioral Medicine 46(1): 81-95.
- 75. Braun V, Clarke V (2006) Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology 3(2): 77-101.
- 76. Gordon LA, Pokorny CG (2019) Mapping the Systemof-Use for the Patient Hospital Gown. In International Textile and Apparel Association Annual Conference Proceedings 76(1).

