

Effect of music on pain intensity among patients with loss of consciousness in an intensive care unit

Fariba Yaghoubinia¹, Ali Navidian², Seyed Mohammad Nasir-al-din Tabatabaei³, Sara Sheikh⁴

1. Assistant Professor, Community Nursing Research Center, Zahedan University of Medical Sciences, Zahedan, Iran.

2. Associate Professor, Community Nursing Research Center, Zahedan University of Medical Sciences, Zahedan, Iran.

3. Assistant Professor, Department of Anesthesiology, School of Medicine, Zahedan University of Medical Sciences, Zahedan, Iran.

4. MSc Student of Critical Care Nursing, School of Nursing and Midwifery, Zahedan University of Medical Sciences, Zahedan, Iran.

*Correspondence: Sara Sheikh, School of Nursing and Midwifery, Zahedan University of Medical Sciences, Zahedan, Iran.

Email: sarahsheikh91@gmail.com

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Article history:

Received: 14 September 2015

Revised: 19 December 2015

Accepted: 21 December 2015

Key words:

Pain

Music

Loss of consciousness

Intensive care unit

Background: Patients with loss of consciousness experience pain as a result of invasive procedures, mechanical ventilation, and the physical setting of the intensive care unit (ICU). The current study was conducted to determine the effect of music on pain intensity among ICU-admitted patients with loss of consciousness.

Methods: In this clinical trial, the study population consisted of intubated patients under mechanical ventilation, who were admitted to the ICU of a hospital in Zahedan, Iran in 2015. A total of 60 eligible patients were selected through convenience sampling and were divided into intervention (listening to music) and control groups (n=30 per group), using permuted-block randomization. During the intervention, the patients were exposed to Arnd Stein's instrumental music (via headphones), which was played in three 30-min sessions. On the other hand, the control group only received routine care for pain relief. Pain measurement was performed through Behavioural Pain Scale (BPS) at 5 min before the intervention and immediately after listening to music. In the control group, pain measurements were carried out within the same time intervals as the intervention group. For statistical analysis, independent t-test, paired t-test, Chi-square, and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were performed, using SPSS version 15.

Results: Evaluation of the mean pain scores over three days of the intervention showed a major decline in the intervention group ($P < 0.0001$). The difference was significant between the intervention and control groups ($P < 0.0001$). However, as the findings revealed, the difference in the control group was insignificant.

Conclusion: According to the results of the present study, music can reduce pain intensity among patients with loss of consciousness. Therefore, this type of therapy can be used as a simple and practical method for pain relief.

1. Introduction

Pain is one of the most common and important problems among patients hospitalized in intensive care units (ICUs).¹ Pain, as a health-threatening phenomenon, requires particular attention by the medical staff. In fact, considering the importance of this phenomenon, the American Pain Society has introduced pain as the "fifth vital sign".² According to the literature, pain leads to the increased activity of the neuroendocrine system, improves the sympathetic tone and risk of tachycardia, and enhances myocardial oxygen demand. In addition, pain results in immunosuppression, increases the risk of hypercoagulation and catabolism, leads to physical limitations and respiratory problems, and

impacts the patient's ability to leave the hospital bed.³

Pain can be considered as an important medical presentation in all patients. ICU-admitted patients experience pain as an important and stressful issue. Acute diseases, surgery, trauma, invasive procedures, and medical/nursing interventions are among the common causes of pain among patients.⁴ In addition, ICU-admitted patients with loss of consciousness require mechanical ventilation, which is itself an important cause of pain,⁵ requiring special care by the medical staff and nurses. However, pain is neglected in the majority of these cases, as the patients are assumed to be incapable of feeling or expressing pain due to lack of consciousness.⁶ Pain measurement in patients with loss of consciousness can be challenging due to different factors, such as

the patient's inability to communicate (due to loss of consciousness), use of analgesics, and mechanical ventilation. Therefore, inadequate pain management for such cases is a greater problem in nursing care in comparison with pain control in conscious patients.⁷

Considering the high prevalence of pain during rest (33%) and medical interventions (56%),⁸ accurate assessment by nurses and adoption of appropriate measures for pain management and alleviation are essential for ICU-admitted patients. Use of pharmacological and non-pharmacological interventions is among the possible options for pain management, although each intervention is associated with particular side-effects. For instance, although narcotics are regarded as effective analgesics, they may lead to adverse side-effects such as respiratory suppression, deep sedation, gastrointestinal symptoms, urinary retention, and hemodynamic instability.¹ Moreover, intravenous pain medications can cause complications such as infection and embolism.⁹ Today, in addition to pharmacological methods, particular attention is being paid to nursing care strategies, such as guided imagery, progressive muscle relaxation, and music therapy.¹⁰

Music therapy is a cost-effective, non-invasive method, which can be simply applied by nurses, alongside other nursing strategies.¹¹ The ideal music for therapeutic purposes and stress relief is characterized by a steady rhythm, a low frequency, a relaxing melody, and a beat pattern of 60-80 beats per minute.¹² In addition, the music should have a steady tone and sound to prevent negative impacts on the listener.¹³ Application of music therapy, as a branch of alternative medicine, has been proposed for the promotion of health indicators. According to the literature, music therapy as a nursing intervention can lead to a decline in treatment side-effects and medical costs.^{14, 15}

In this regard, in a study by Naderi *et al.* (2014), music therapy could reduce pain intensity during dressing changes in burn patients.¹⁶ In addition, in a study by Abolhasani *et al.* (2008), complementary therapies such as massage and music therapy could alleviate chest pain in patients hospitalized in the coronary care unit.¹⁷ The effects of music therapy on pain management have been studied in conscious patients who can express their pain. However, since pain is often neglected in unconscious patients, pain assessment and management can be quite challenging for ICU nurses;⁶ therefore, more evaluations are required in this area.

Further research is highly recommended on music therapy, as a cost-effective and complication-free strategy in comparison with widely-used narcotics, which can induce physical and mental

side-effects in patients.^{6, 7} In addition, use of complementary methods has been less noted in ICUs.¹⁸

With this background in mind, in the present study, we aimed to determine the effects of music on pain intensity among ICU-admitted patients with loss of consciousness.

2. Methods

2.1. Design

This randomized clinical trial was performed on non-trauma patients with loss of consciousness under mechanical ventilation. The selected patients were hospitalized in the ICU of a hospital in Zahedan, Iran during April–September, 2014.

2.2. Participants and setting

In this study, The sample size was calculated using the mean comparison formula ($Z_{1-\alpha/2} = 1.96$, $Z_{1-\beta} = 1.28$, $S_1 = 1.77$, $S_2 = 1.54$, $x_1 = 5.96$, and $x_2 = 7.4$), based on a study by Motahedian and colleagues (2012).¹⁹ A sample size of 30 was considered adequate for each group (total: 60). The patients were selected through convenience sampling and were divided into control and intervention (music therapy) groups, using permuted-block randomization. As the present study comprised of two groups, blocks with a size of four were used in six different ways to equally assign the participants to a block (A: music group, B: control group; for instance: AABB, ABAB, BBAA, etc.); two patients (one from each group) were allocated to each block. The order of the blocks was randomly selected, using the table of random numbers. Then, the patients were assigned to either the intervention or control group, based on block randomization.

The inclusion criteria were as follows: 1) a consciousness level of 5-8, based on the Glasgow Coma Scale; 2) absence of hearing impairments; 3) hemodynamic stability; 4) intravenous injection of fentanyl according to the unit protocol; 5) age above 18 years; 6) patient's first experience of ICU admission within the first 24 h of patient admission; 7) lack of drug abuse, alcohol use, or cigarette smoking; 8) absence of neuromuscular or sensorimotor disorders; and 9) no chronic pain such as migraine or backache. The required information was collected from the patients' records or through inquiring the patients' families. Also, the patients' vital signs were examined for hemodynamic stability.

The exclusion criteria were as follows: 1) invasive catheter insertion with the exception of endotracheal tubes or angiocath during the study; 2) patient's consciousness; 3) extubation during the

study; 4) changes in the type or dosage of the prescribed analgesic by the physician or cessation of drug administration; 5) patient's transfer to the operating room for surgery; and 6) a substantial decline in the level of consciousness.

2.3. Instruments

The data were gathered using a demographic form and the Behavioral Pain Scale (BPS). The demographic form consisted of personal information such as the patient's age, gender, marital status, and underlying diseases. In addition, BPS was applied for monitoring pain in critically ill patients, who were unable to communicate with the clinical staff and were hospitalized in the ICU.²⁰⁻²²

BPS, which was first designed by Payen and colleagues (2001),²³ consists of three main sections: facial expressions, compliance with mechanical ventilation, and upper limb movements. Each section is scored from 1 to 4, with the total score ranging from 3 (minimum pain) to 12 (maximum pain). Higher scores on each section indicate a higher level of pain and discomfort. The reliability of this tool has been confirmed in domestic and international studies.²⁰⁻²⁴ Also, the internal reliability of this scale has been evaluated in the literature, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (94%).²³ In the present study, internal consistency was evaluated, indicating a correlation coefficient of 86%.

2.4. Data Collection

The intervention group was exposed to music. For this purpose, a light instrumental piece of music, called "Beach Walk" (Top-Hits, Zum Entspannen Vol. 1) by Arnd Stein was played over 30 min for three consecutive days between 4 p.m. and 6 p.m. to avoid interference with the hospital unit activities. This piece of music is not melancholic, stimulating, or exciting and is a combination of melodic and soft rhythms which distract the listener from distress without causing anxiety or anguish.²⁵ To perform the intervention, a music player (Sony, Japan), a headphone set (Sony, Japan), and a stopwatch (Sony, Japan) were used. The headphone set was used to prevent the interference of unit sounds with the music being played.²⁶ Also, the headphones were disinfected and the pads were replaced after use to prevent infection transmission.

The pain scores were documented for unconscious patients, using BPS at 5 min before the intervention and immediately after the intervention. Pain measurement was performed by the researcher in the same manner for all the patients. The control group received routine care, and the measurements

were carried out within the same time intervals as the intervention group.

2.5. Ethical considerations

The data were collected after obtaining permission from the university ethics committee and the hospital authorities. Also, consent forms were obtained after explaining the study objectives and the intervention process to the families of eligible patients.

2.6. Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis, independent t-test (for the mean comparison of pain scores in the two groups), paired t-test (for the mean comparisons before and after the intervention), Chi-square (for examining the difference between the groups regarding variables such as marital status, underlying diseases, and gender), and covariance analysis (for controlling the effects of contributing variables) were performed, using SPSS version 15.

3. Results

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the patients. As presented in this table, there was no significant difference between the groups in terms of demographic characteristics. On the first day, the results of independent sample t-test showed a significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the mean pain score before the intervention ($P < 0.0001$). On this day, pain intensity significantly reduced in the intervention group following listening to music ($P < 0.0001$). On the other hand, the decline in pain was minor and statistically insignificant in the control group (Table 2). Considering the fact that the mean pain score was different between the two groups on the first day before the intervention, covariance adjustment was carried out. By covariate adjustment of the effect of pain score on the first day before the intervention, the mean pain scores were found to be significantly lower in the intervention group compared to the controls, based on the covariance analysis. According to the findings, music could result in pain alleviation ($P < 0.0001$).

On the second day, there was no significant difference between the two groups before the intervention, whereas the difference was significant following the intervention ($P < 0.001$). Also, on the second day, the mean pain score significantly decreased in the intervention group after the intervention ($P < 0.001$).

On the third day, there was a significant difference in the mean pain score between the two groups before the intervention ($P < 0.0001$); the

difference between the groups was also significant after the intervention. Based on the findings, the mean pain score significantly decreased in the intervention group following listening to music ($P < 0.0001$).

Considering the fact that the mean pain score in the pretest was different between the two groups on the third day before the intervention, covariance

adjustment was performed. Based on the ANCOVA results, the mean pain score was significantly lower in the intervention group, compared to the controls in the posttest; therefore, listening to music could decrease pain intensity on the third day, as well ($P < 0.0001$) (Table 2).

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants

Variables		Intervention N (%)	Control N (%)	P-value
Gender	Male	16 (53.3)	14 (46.7)	0.6*
	Female	14 (46.7)	16 (53.3)	
Marital status	Single	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	0.19*
	Married	22 (73.3)	26 (86.7)	
Underlying diseases	Renal	3 (10)	5 (16.7)	0.84*
	Cardiac	6 (20)	7 (23.8)	
	Gastrointestinal	6 (20)	7 (23.8)	
	Neurological	7 (23.3)	6 (20)	
	Respiratory	8 (26.7)	5 (16.7)	
Age	M \pm SD	50.3 \pm 7.69		0.16**

*Chi-square test; **Independent samples t-test

Table 2. The mean comparison of pain scores in the control and intervention groups

Time of pain control	Groups	Before the intervention	After the intervention	Changes	*P-value
		M \pm SD	M \pm SD	M \pm SD	
First day	Intervention	7.2 \pm 1.03	4.57 \pm 0.97	2.63 \pm 0.76	<0.001
	Control	6 \pm 1.28	5.97 \pm 1.18	0.03 \pm 0.41	0.66
	**P	<0.001	<0.001	<0.0001	
Second day	Intervention	5.83 \pm 1.14	3.73 \pm 0.86	1.2 \pm 0.84	0.001
	Control	6.33 \pm 1.09	6.33 \pm 1.06	0.00 \pm 0.37	1.00
	**P	0.89	<0.001	<0.0001	
Third day	Intervention	4.87 \pm 0.9	3.17 \pm 0.37	1.7 \pm 0.79	0.0001
	Control	6.2 \pm 0.99	6.2 \pm 0.99	0.00 \pm 0.26	1.00
	**P	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.003	

*Paired t-test; **t-test

4. Discussion

The results of the present study showed that use of instrumental music could alleviate pain in patients with loss of consciousness. In line with our findings, Ajri and colleagues (2011) showed that music could reduce the pain score in unconscious patients after the intervention.²⁷ In their study, the type of music differed from the present study and was selected by the patients' families; on the contrary, in the present study, the music was similar for all the patients. Regardless of the type of music, listening to music could result in reduced pain among patients in the intervention group through mechanisms such as increased endorphin secretion and interference with pain-processing pathways.^{28, 29}

The study by Ajri *et al.* (2011) was similar to the present research regarding the study population; in their study, the sample consisted of patients with a

consciousness level of 5 to 10. Also, in the present study, non-trauma patients were examined who seem to be different from trauma patients in terms of reactions to painful stimuli;²⁷ this was also in line with the study by Ajri and colleagues.

Several studies have confirmed the positive effects of music selected by the patients on pain relief.³⁰⁻³² Although these studies differed from the present research regarding the type of music, therapy was still effective in pain relief. It should be noted that no specific type of music is superior to other genres in terms of relaxing effects; in fact, the most important factor is the patient's personal interest.³³ However, in our study, the patients were unable to choose their favorite music due to loss of consciousness. In the study by Ajri and colleagues (2011), the mean pain score after the intervention was lower than that reported in the present study. The difference in the reported pain scores might be

attributed to variations in pain measurement tools.²⁷ Furthermore, a study by Jasemi *et al.* (2013) on patients with cancer in Urmia, Iran showed that patients' exposure to their favorite music could significantly reduce their pain.³⁴ Similarly, based on a study by Iconomido *et al.* (2004), patients' exposure to music could reduce pain intensity after surgery.²⁶ The discussed findings were in congruence with the present results (which revealed the positive effects of music on pain alleviation), despite the differences between these studies in terms of the study population, type of music, and pain measurement tools.

Different theories have been proposed regarding music physiology. Some psychiatrists believe that listening to music leads to endorphin secretion and pain relief. Moreover, music by energizing the body through affecting brain neurons can influence respiratory and heart rates, which are in fact physiological indicators of relaxation or stress.²⁸ Also, the gate control theory of pain, proposed by Melzack and Wall (1983), suggests that pain perception and processing are complex phenomena, involving the transmission of signals which reach the brain through a series of specific neurons (the pathway is known as the pain gate). Now, if the gate is open, a painful input can create the feeling of pain. Some mechanisms can interfere with the processing pathways and partially or completely block the gate; in fact, music is able to suppress pain through these mechanisms.²⁹

In a study by Motahedian *et al.* (2012), not only music reduced pain in postoperative patients under spinal anesthesia, but also it decreased the patients' need for narcotic analgesics after surgery.¹⁹ In addition, in consistence with the present study, Sen *et al.* (2010) introduced music therapy as a method of pain relief after cesarean section.²⁸

In general, conflicting results have been reported in several studies. For instance, in a study by Besel (2006) on patients under mechanical ventilation, the results showed no major difference in pain scores before and after listening to music. The discrepancy between the findings might be due to differences in the applied pain scales. It should be noted that in the study by Besel *et al.*, a graphic rating scale was used,³⁵ which seems to lack sufficient sensitivity for pain measurement;³⁶ also, the mentioned research was a pilot study conducted on a limited sample size.

There were certain limitations in the present study, among which we can mention the small

sample size and the research setting which was restricted to a teaching hospital.

These factors can in fact limit the generalizability of the findings. In addition, in this study, the effect of music on pain was investigated among patients with respiratory, renal, cardiac, gastrointestinal, and neurological problems. The control and intervention groups were homogenous in terms of the underlying diseases and the intervening factors were controlled by the researcher. However, the nature of the disease might have affected the pain intensity, which was uncontrollable by the researcher.

5. Conclusion

The findings of the present study showed that use of music, as a simple, economical, and practical method, alongside other pain relief methods, could be effective in reducing pain intensity among ICU-admitted patients. It is suggested that future studies investigate the effects of music on need for analgesics among unconscious ICU-admitted patients.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Authors' contributions

Fariba Yaghoubinia: was responsible for the study design, drafting, and final approval of the article. Ali Navidian: contributed to the study design, data analysis, and drafting of the manuscript. Seyed Mohammad Nasir-al-din Tabatabaei: contributed to the study design and drafting. Sara Sheikh: was responsible for the study design, data collection, and drafting of the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

This article was extracted from M.Sc. thesis in nursing, submitted to Zahedan School of Nursing and Midwifery (No.: 1502; Ethics Committee Code: IR.ZAUMS.REC.1394.52). This study was registered in the IRCT (IRCT2015051722300N1). Hereby, we would like to thank the authorities of Zahedan University of Medical Sciences and the selected hospital. We also express our gratitude to all the participants and their families for their sincere cooperation.

References

1. Fink M, Abraham E, Vincent J, Louis Kochaneik. Text Book of critical care fink. 6th ed, Philadelphia, Saunders Co; 2005:13-15.

2. Taylor C, Lillis C, LeMone P, Lynn P. Nursing principles. Mahdavi F, Shokripour Z, Larijani H. (Persian translators). 2nd ed. Tehran: Hayanabasaleh; 2005: 7-9.
3. Marino PL. The ICU book. 4th ed. Philadelphia. Lippincott Williams &Wilkins; 2007: 94.

4. Hanif C. Pain management in the critical ill patients with mechanical ventilator: a literature review. *Journal Keperawatan Medical Bedah* 2013; 1(1): 25-34.
5. Barr J, Fraser GL, Puntillo K, Ely W, Gélinas C, Dasta JF, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the management of pain, agitation, and delirium in adult patients in the intensive care unit. *Critical Care Medicine* 2013; 41(1): 263-306.
6. Urden LD, Stacy KM, Lough ME. *Thelan's critical care nursing*. 1st ed, London: Mosby; 2006, chapter 9:130-149.
7. Urden LD, Stacy KM, Lough ME. *Critical care nursing diagnosis and management*. 6th ed, London: Mosby; 2010: 135-7.
8. Payen JF, Chanques G, Mantz J, Hercule C, Auriant I, Leguillou JL, et al. Current practices in sedation and analgesia for mechanically ventilated critically ill patients: A prospective multicenter patient-based study. *The Journal of the American Society of Anesthesiologists* 2007; 106(4): 687-95.
9. Boyce BA, Yee BH. Incidence and severity of phlebitis in patients receiving peripherally infused amiodarone. *Critical Care Nurse* 2012; 32(4): 27-34.
10. Gagner-T Jdllesen D, Yurkovich EE, Gragert M. Use of music therapy and other IINIS in acute care. *Journal Psychosocial Nursing & Mental Health Services* 2001; 39(10): 26-37.
11. Lee OK, Chung YF, Chan MF, Chan WM. Music and its effect on the physiological responses and anxiety levels of patients receiving mechanical ventilation: A pilot study. *Journal of Clinical Nursing* 2005; 14(5): 609-20.
12. Voss J, Good M, Yates B, Baun M, Thompson A, Hertzog M. Sedative music reduces anxiety and pain during chair rest after open-heart surgery. *Pain* 2004; 112 (1-2): 197-203
13. Akombo DO. Effects of listening to music as an intervention for pain and anxiety in bone marrow transplantation patient. [Phd thesis]. University of Florida 2006.
14. Vahabi S. The effect of music therapy and relaxation on hospitalized ccu patients' anxiety. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry and Clinical Psychology* 2002; 8(3): 75-82. [Persian]
15. Yousefinejad. Ostadkelayeh. A., Madadi. A., Majedzadh SR, Shabannia R, Sadeghian N, Zarinara AR, et al. The effect of music therapy on chronic pain in patients with cancer. *The Journal of Qazvin University of Medical Sciences* 2005; 9(34): 39-42. [Persian]
16. Naderi F, Aghayi A, Mohammadzadeh M, Nazemi S, Salmani F, Rashvand M. Comparing the effect of music on pain threshold, anxiety, behavioral responses to pain and the hemodynamic parameters during dressing change in burn patients. *Quarterly of the Horizon of Medical Sciences* 2014; 20(1): 63-8. [Persian]
17. Abolhasani SH, Khalifezade A, Zarkeshan R, Hashemi SM. Comparison of the effect of back massage and sound replacement on chest pain in patients hospitalized in coronary care unit. *Journal of shahrkord. University of Medical Sciences*. 2009; 10(4): 72-6. [Persian]
18. Young RJ, Worswick D, Stoffell B. Complementary medicine in intensive care: Ethical and legal perspectives. *Anaesthesia and Intensive Care* 2001; 29(3): 227-38.
19. Motahedian E, Movahedirad S, Hajizadeh E, Lak M. The effect of music therapy on postoperative pain intensity in patients under spinal anesthesia. *Journal of Critical Care Nursing* 2012; 5(3): 139-44.
20. Safari M, Sedighi L, Fallahi NG, Rahimi BF, Soltanian AR, Nikoo SM. The effectiveness of behavioral pain scale in the pain assessment of patients with low level of consciousness. *Journal of Anesthesiology and Pain*. 2012; 3(1): 22-8 [Persian]
21. Chen YY, Lai YH, Shun SC, Chi NH, Tsai PS, Liao YM. The Chinese behavior pain scale for critically ill patients: translation and psychometric testing. *International Journal of Nursing Studies* 2011; 48(4): 438-48.
22. Young J, Siffleet J, Nikolettis S, Shaw T. Use of a behavioural pain scale to assess pain in ventilated, unconscious and/or sedated patients. *Intensive and Critical Care Nursing* 2006; 22(1): 32-9.
23. Payen JF, Bru O, Bosson JL, Lagrasta A, Novel E, Deschaux I, et al. Assessing pain in critically ill sedated patients by using a behavioral pain scale. *Critical Care Medicine* 2001; 29(12): 2258-63.
24. Aïssaoui Y, Zeggwagh AA, Zekraoui A, Abidi K, Abouqal R. Validation of a behavioral pain scale in critically ill, sedated, and mechanically ventilated patients. *Anesthesia & Analgesia* 2005; 101(5): 1470-6.
25. Mohammadi Zadeh A. *Application of music therapy in medical and psychology*. 3rd ed, Tehran. Asrar-e-Danesh; 2010: 156-160. [Persian]
26. Ikonomidou E, Rehnström A, Naesh O. Effect of music on vital signs and postoperative pain. *AORN Journal* 2004; 80(2): 269-78.
27. Ajri M. The effect of preferred music on physiological and behavioral parameters of pain in unconscious patients admitted to the Intensive care unit. [MSc thesis]. Tehran, Iran: Tehran University of Medical Sciences 2012.
28. Sen H, Yanarateş O, Sızlan A, Kılıç E, Ozkan S, Dağlı G. The efficiency and duration of the analgesic effects of musical therapy on postoperative pain. *The Journal of the Turkish Society of Algology* 2010; 22(4): 145-50.
29. Melzack R, Wall P. *Textbook of pain*. 6th ed Edinburgh, UK: Churchill Livingstone; 2013.
30. McCaffrey R, Locsin RC. Music listening as a nursing intervention: A symphony of practice. *Holistic Nursing Practice* 2002; 16(3): 70-7.
31. Dunn K. Music and the reduction of postoperative pain. *Nursing Standard* 2004; 18 (36) :33-9
32. Clark M, Isaacks-Downton G, Wells N, Redlin-Frazier S, Eck C, Hepworth JT, et al. Use of preferred music to reduce emotional distress and symptom activity during radiation therapy. *Journal of Music Therapy* 2006; 43(3): 247-65.
33. Siedliecki SL, Good M. Effect of music on power, pain, depression and disability. *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 2006; 54(5): 553-62.
34. Jasemi M, Eghtedar S, Aghakhani N, Khodabandeh F, Sayadi L. Music therapy reduces the intensity of pain among patients with cancer. *Thrita* 2013; 2(4): 76-9.
35. Besel J.M. The effects of music therapy on comfort in the mechanically ventilated patient in the intensive care unit. [MSc thesis]. Montana: Montana state university Bozeman 2006.
36. Mattacola CG, Perrin DH, Gansneder BM, Allen JD, Mickey CA. A comparison of visual analog and graphic rating scales for assessing pain following delayed onset muscle soreness. *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation* 1997; 6(1): 38-46.

How to cite: Yaghoubinia F, Navidian A, Tabatabaei S.M, Sheikh S. Effect of music on pain intensity among patients with loss of consciousness in an intensive care unit. *Medical - Surgical Nursing Journal* 2016; 4(4): 35-40.