

**Original Article**

# Trajectories of Terminally Ill Patients' Cardiovascular Response to Receptive Music Therapy in Palliative Care

Marco Warth, MA\*, Jens Kessler, MD\*, Thomas K. Hillecke, Dr sc hum, and Hubert J. Bardenheuer, MD

Center of Pain Therapy and Palliative Care Medicine (M.W., J.K., H.J.B.), Department of Anesthesiology, Heidelberg University Hospital; and School of Therapeutic Sciences (M.W., T.K.H.), SRH University Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany

**Abstract**

**Context.** Relaxation interventions are frequently used to promote symptom relief in palliative care settings, but little is known about the underlying mechanisms.

**Objectives.** The present analysis aimed at examining the psychophysiological pathways of terminally ill patients' cardiovascular response to a live music therapy vs. prerecorded mindfulness exercise.

**Methods.** Eighty-four patients of a palliative care unit were randomly assigned to either of the two interventions. Multilevel modeling was used to analyze trajectories of physiological change. Vagally mediated heart rate variability (VM-HRV) and blood volume pulse amplitude (BVP-A) served as indices of autonomic nervous system response. Participants' gender, age, baseline scores, self-rated pain, and assignment to treatment were entered to the models as predictors.

**Results.** Both VM-HRV and BVP-A showed significant linear and quadratic trends over time, as well as substantial heterogeneity among individuals' trajectories. Baseline scores, pain, and treatment significantly accounted for random variation in VM-HRV intercepts. BVP-A levels were significantly higher in women than in men. Moreover, assignment to treatment significantly accounted for differences in the linear slopes of peripheral blood flow.

**Conclusion.** Higher levels of VM-HRV in the music therapy group highlight the importance of a therapeutic relationship for the effectiveness of relaxation interventions in end-of-life care settings. Music therapy caused significantly stronger reductions of vascular sympathetic tone and, therefore, may be indicated in the treatment of pain and stress-related symptoms in palliative care. Initial self-ratings of pain moderated patients' physiological response and need to be taken into account in clinical practice and future theory building. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2016;52:196–204. © 2016 American Academy of Hospice and Palliative Medicine. Published by Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

**Key Words**

*Music therapy, mindfulness, palliative care, randomized controlled trial, multilevel analysis, cancer, pain*

**Introduction**

Over the past several years, the benefits of complementary and alternative therapies have been increasingly recognized in the treatment of advanced malignancies.<sup>1–3</sup> In particular, mindfulness-based (MB) relaxation interventions with and without the use of creative elements such as music and arts showed promising results in improving symptom distress and quality of life.<sup>4–7</sup> However, little is known about the underlying

psychophysiological mechanisms that may elicit a relaxation response in terminally ill patients.

The World Health Organization defines palliative care as a multidisciplinary approach “[...] that improves the quality of life of patients and their families facing the problem associated with life-threatening illness.”<sup>8</sup> The German classification of procedures recommends the use of music therapy (MT) as an adjunct treatment in palliative care.<sup>9</sup> In contrast to music

The trial was registered by German Clinical Trials Register—DRKS00006137.

\*Drs. Warth and Kessler contributed equally to this work.

Address correspondence to: Marco Warth, MA, Center of Pain Therapy and Palliative Care Medicine, Department of

Anesthesiology, Heidelberg University Hospital, Im Neuenheimer Feld 131, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany. E-mail: [marco.warth@hochschule-heidelberg.de](mailto:marco.warth@hochschule-heidelberg.de)

Accepted for publication: January 29, 2016.

medicine or music listening interventions, the definition of MT highlights the importance of the therapeutic relationship and dynamic interactions between patient and therapist.<sup>10</sup> In end-of-life care, MT interventions aim at improving the patients' quality of life by supporting symptom management, enhancing emotion regulation, and communication skills, as well as facilitating spiritual experiences.<sup>11</sup> Today, MT is among the most frequently provided complementary treatments in U.S. hospices<sup>3,12</sup> and receives high acceptance by other health care professionals in the U.K.<sup>13</sup> Interventions typically encompass the use of active techniques (e.g., songs or improvisation), as well as receptive techniques such as relaxation or imagery.<sup>14</sup> The latter do not require active physical or musical participation of the patient and, therefore, are very common in work with terminally ill patients.

Although the complementary application of MT has formed an inherent part of palliative cancer care for more than 35 years,<sup>15</sup> to date, only limited evidence on its specific effects is available.<sup>6,16</sup> Empirical investigations showed that MT may improve quality of life<sup>17</sup> and alleviate pain in palliative care patients.<sup>18–21</sup> Furthermore, previous studies reported significant effects on anxiety,<sup>22,23</sup> stress,<sup>24</sup> communication,<sup>25</sup> and spirituality.<sup>26</sup> A recent retrospective analysis suggests that MT may be associated with spiritual support and a decrease of breathing problems.<sup>27</sup> However, the majority of the reported findings stem from studies with high risks of bias.<sup>6,16,28</sup>

Although certain aspects of the concept of mindfulness may be inherent in receptive MT techniques and have been subject to a recent pilot study with breast cancer patients,<sup>29</sup> more research exists on verbal MB interventions. Mindfulness is defined as to pay attention "on purpose, in the present moment, and nonjudgmentally."<sup>30</sup> MB interventions have shown to generally improve health in clinical and nonclinical populations<sup>31,32</sup> and to reduce anxiety, depression, sexual difficulties, stress, and sleep disturbances in various oncological conditions.<sup>4,33,34</sup> However, only few studies included advanced cancer patients or end-of-life care settings. One quasi-randomized study used a prerecorded body scan meditation and found significant improvements in mental and physical health over a period of one month.<sup>5</sup> In a qualitative pilot study, hospice patients reported beneficial effects after participating in mindfulness groups.<sup>35</sup>

The physiological correlates of both short-term MB and receptive MT interventions in resting positions are most likely to be represented by a relaxation response,<sup>36</sup> which is mainly modulated by a shift in the activation patterns of the autonomic nervous system. Contrasting the stress response, a relaxation response is expected to manifest in a reduction in

sympathetic arousal and increase in parasympathetic activity.<sup>36,37</sup> Study outcomes that have been commonly used for the operationalization of autonomic nervous system activity were 1) high-frequent (HF) oscillations in the beat-to-beat-intervals of successive heartbeats (i.e., heart rate variability [HRV]) as an index of vagally mediated (VM) cardiac outflow, and 2) the amplitude of peripheral blood flow (blood volume pulse amplitude [BVP-A]) as a measure of sympathetic tone.

Low HRV has proven to be a risk factor for oncological and cardiac diseases<sup>38,39</sup> and is associated with emotional dysregulation.<sup>40–42</sup> In accordance with Porges's polyvagal theory, which emphasizes the role of myelinated vagus fibers in engaging in adaptive, prosocial behavior and in suppressing automated fear and stress responses, high VM-HRV seems to be positively correlated with resilience, social engagement, well-being, and psychological flexibility.<sup>43–45</sup>

Previous studies on apparently healthy participants' cardiovascular response to MB interventions showed significant reductions in heart rate<sup>46–48</sup> and increases in VM-HRV<sup>46–49</sup> and BVP-A.<sup>46</sup> An observational study found evidence for a positive association between HRV and the ability to mindfully regulate one's attention.<sup>50</sup> Fewer studies evaluated the cardiovascular effects of MB interventions for clinical populations. Significant decreases in heart rate and increases in the HF spectrum were reported for chronic pain patients<sup>51</sup> but were not found in myocardial infarction patients.<sup>52</sup>

Evidence on the effects of music on HRV is inconsistent. Clinical trials revealed significant increases in HF variation among preoperative patients undergoing a music listening intervention<sup>53</sup> and in elderly patients with cerebral vascular disease and dementia exposed to live music therapy sessions.<sup>54</sup> A pilot study with female cancer survivors replicated the pattern of decreased heart rate and increased VM-HRV after 2 hours of participating in MT.<sup>55</sup> In female cancer patients undergoing chemotherapy, however, listening to prerecorded monochord sounds led to a significant increase in the LF, but not in the HF spectrum.<sup>56</sup> To our knowledge, no study has yet examined the physiological response of terminally ill cancer patients to music or MT.

The present study was designed to evaluate the efficacy of an MT relaxation intervention in palliative care patients. A prerecorded verbal mindfulness exercise served as an active control group condition.<sup>28</sup> Pre-to-post changes in self-report data and physiological outcomes have been addressed in a previously published article,<sup>57</sup> identifying significant between-group effects on self-reported relaxation, well-being, and fatigue, as well as changes in subjects' physiological state before versus after the intervention. However, preliminary analyses on the individual trajectories revealed significant

heterogeneity in both baseline values and slopes among patients' cardiovascular response, raising the question of how to explain this between-subject variation.

Hence, the present analysis aimed at investigating both individual- and group-level effects of terminally ill patients' cardiovascular response to short-term MT and MB interventions and at examining mechanisms underlying these trajectories of physiological change. Because of the design of the interventions, we hypothesized U- or inverted U-shaped quadratic trends over time for both groups. Because of the personal presence of a therapist and the soothing live music sounds, we predicted a stronger relaxation response to occur in the MT group.

## Methods

### *Study Design and Procedures*

The study received institutional review board approval, was entered into the German Clinical Trials Register, and was carried out at St. Vincentius Hospital, Heidelberg between May 2013 and March 2015. A two-arm parallel randomized controlled trial was designed to evaluate and compare the effects of two different relaxation exercises for hospitalized patients in a palliative care unit. Patients were eligible for study participation if they met the following criteria: 1) receiving palliative care, 2) not in the final phase, 3) no cognitive or hearing impairments, 4) no signs of restlessness and agitation, and 5) sufficient understanding of the German or English language.

Patients who were eligible and willing to participate signed informed consent and were randomly assigned to either two sessions of live MT or two sessions of a prerecorded MB exercise, each lasting for a total of 20 minutes. Both a five-minute preintervention and postintervention recording in a resting state enveloped all sessions. During the entire duration (30 minutes), patients lay in a supine position while continuous physiological data were recorded. We used a computer-based, permuted block randomization sequence, which was concealed by use of sequentially numbered, opaque-sealed envelopes. A study assistant who was not involved in providing the interventions carried out randomization and outcome assessment.

The receptive MT intervention was carried out by a professional music therapist and included a brief body scan exercise (3 minutes), a vocal improvisation (12 minutes), and a feedback conversation on the patient's experiences (5 minutes). The first 15 minutes were accompanied by improvised musical play on the monochord. The control group (CG) intervention comprised a 20-minute recording of a mindfulness exercise consisting of a standardized body scan and meditation for supine positions,<sup>58</sup> which was

provided via headphones. In contrast to the MT session, a study assistant remained silently inside the room. Both interventions did not differ between Sessions 1 and 2. The interventions are fully described in the study protocol.<sup>11</sup>

### *Outcomes*

For purpose of the present analysis, physiological data obtained from photoplethysmography served as a dependent variable. For noninvasive, continuous recordings of participants' physiological response during the interventions, a NeXus blood volume pulse sensor (128sps) was placed on the index fingertip of the nondominant hand, detecting changes in relative peripheral blood flow.<sup>59</sup> The time point of the R-wave was used to extract interbeat intervals between successive heartbeats in milliseconds. HRV parameters were derived for six consecutive time segments of five minutes each.<sup>60</sup> Because of the relatively fast response times of parasympathetic fibers and their close linkage to respiratory rhythms, HF oscillations in interbeat intervals (0.15–0.4 Hz) are mainly attributed to vagal modulation of cardiac outflow.<sup>61</sup> The HF power density in  $\text{ms}^2$ , therefore, was used as a biomarker of parasympathetic activity.

The amount of peripheral blood flow in the fingertips' capillaries, on the other hand, is predominantly subject to adrenergic innervation by the sympathetic nervous system, leading to tonic vasoconstriction. An increase in BVP-A, therefore, is associated with a reduction in sympathetic arousal. Thus, the mean BVP-A of each five-minute segment was considered an inversely related index of vascular sympathetic tone.<sup>59</sup>

### *Statistical Analysis*

Sample size calculations were adapted for the analysis of covariance models used within the primary analysis<sup>57</sup> and were presented in the study protocol.<sup>11</sup> Baseline characteristics were analyzed with means, standard deviations, frequencies, independent-samples *t*-tests, and  $\chi^2$ -tests.

Multilevel modeling with the software package HLM 7<sup>62</sup> was used to analyze trajectories of patients' physiological response because different observations in the dependent variable were "nested" within participants, and preliminary analysis revealed substantial between-subject heterogeneity regarding the intercepts and slopes. Two models were calculated for each outcome independently: The first model (M1) included two repeated-measures factors only (TIME and TIME<sup>2</sup>) and examined, whether mean data of the entire sample showed the expected linear and quadratic trend over time. In addition, HLM detected the amount of random variation between individuals' intercepts, linear, and quadratic slopes.

In case of significant heterogeneity, a second model (M2) was built, including the following set of predictors to account for random variance:

**Baseline.** Values from the 5-minute segment before the onset of the intervention were considered a covariate to account for between-subject variability in the subsequent trajectories of physiological change.<sup>63,64</sup>

**Age and Gender.** Previous findings identified a negative relationship between HRV and age. In addition, evidence suggests that HRV indexes are higher in men, whereas differences adapt with increasing age.<sup>65–68</sup> Therefore, participants' age and gender were added as control variables.

**Pain.** Although the underlying mechanisms are still subject to discussion, several studies showed an association between pain and autonomic arousal.<sup>69–71</sup> Hence, self-ratings of acute pain were assessed before each session via visual analogue scale, 0–10. Pain ratings were expected to moderate the effects.

**Treatment.** While controlling for the influence of the aforementioned variables, assignment to one of the two treatment groups was added to the model as a predictor. We expected an interaction between individual trajectories and treatment to manifest in stronger increases in parasympathetic activity and stronger decreases in sympathetic arousal in the MT group.

In accordance with procedures from similar studies, each predictor was tested for significant influences on the intercepts, linear, and quadratic trends and was deleted from the model in case of nonsignificant associations.<sup>64,72</sup> Categorical variables were dummy-coded (0/1) and continuous predictors were grand-mean centered.<sup>73</sup> The repeated-measures factors TIME and TIME<sup>2</sup> were coded so that “0” concurred with the first interval after the onset of the intervention (labeled in subsequent figures as “0–5 min.”). Outcome variables were log-transformed because of skewed distributions in raw data. For each time segment and patient, data were averaged between Sessions 1 and 2. Restricted maximum likelihood was chosen to estimate the model parameters.<sup>73</sup> Type-I error probability was set on  $\alpha = 0.05$  for all statistical tests.

## Results

Eighty-four patients (60 female, mean age = 63.0  $\pm$  13.4 years) with progressive, life-threatening disease participated in this study; 82 were diagnosed with advanced cancer. No significant differences occurred between treatment arms regarding gender, age, and diagnosis (all  $P > 0.05$ , Table 1). After removal of

Table 1  
Baseline Characteristics

Variable	MT (N = 42)	CG (N = 42)	P <sup>a</sup>
Gender (female) <sup>b</sup>	28 (66.7%)	32 (76.2%)	0.33
Age <sup>c</sup>	63.8 (14.1)	62.2 (12.8)	0.59
Diagnosis (Cancer) <sup>b</sup>	41 (97.6%)	41 (97.6%)	1.00

MT = music therapy; CG = control group.

<sup>a</sup>Statistically significant if  $P < 0.05$ .

<sup>b</sup>Mean, SD,  $t$ -test.

<sup>c</sup>Frequency,  $\chi^2$  test.

erroneous recordings from movement artifacts and low peripheral blood flow, physiological data from 80 (log\_BVP-A) and 73 (log\_HF) patients were available for statistical analysis. A patient flowchart for physiological outcomes is presented in Figure 1.

First, M1 was built for the trajectories of parasympathetic modulation of heart rate (log\_HF). Both a significant negative linear ( $P = 0.02$ ) and positive quadratic fixed effect ( $P < 0.001$ ) were found for the group mean development over time, indicating a U-shaped trajectory on average. Furthermore, as summarized in Table 2, HLM identified significant between-subjects variation regarding the intercepts ( $P < 0.001$ ), linear ( $P = 0.003$ ), and quadratic slopes ( $P < 0.001$ ).

Hence, a second model was built including predictors that accounted for the observed heterogeneity. Regression coefficients and  $P$ -values are summarized in Table 3. Despite participants' baseline scores ( $P < 0.001$ ), self-ratings of pain showed a marginally significant negative effect on the intercept ( $P = 0.055$ ), and a significant positive effect on the linear slope ( $P = 0.003$ ). Thus, log\_HF was initially lower in patients reporting high levels of pain, but the increase in parasympathetic outflow over time was also stronger in these patients. While controlling for baseline and pain, assignment to either of the treatment arms significantly predicted the intercepts of log\_HF scores ( $P = 0.002$ ), indicating that log\_HF was generally higher in the MT group than in the CG. Modulation of the patients' parasympathetic response by the factors pain and treatment is shown in Figure 2.

Similar model building procedures were applied to the analysis of sympathetic arousal (log\_BVP-A). M1 identified a significant positive linear ( $P < 0.001$ ) and negative quadratic trend over time ( $P < 0.001$ ), resulting in an inversely U-shaped mean curve. The mean curve, again, did not adequately represent individual-level trajectories regarding intercepts ( $P < 0.001$ ), linear ( $P < 0.001$ ), and quadratic slopes ( $P < 0.001$ , Table 2).

Despite the baseline values (all  $P < 0.001$ ), pain, gender, and treatment contributed to the explanation of between-subjects differences. Participants' subjective level of pain significantly affected the linear slopes of log\_BVP-A ( $P = 0.01$ ), implying that high ratings of pain led to a slower reduction of sympathetic arousal. Patients' gender explained substantial differences in



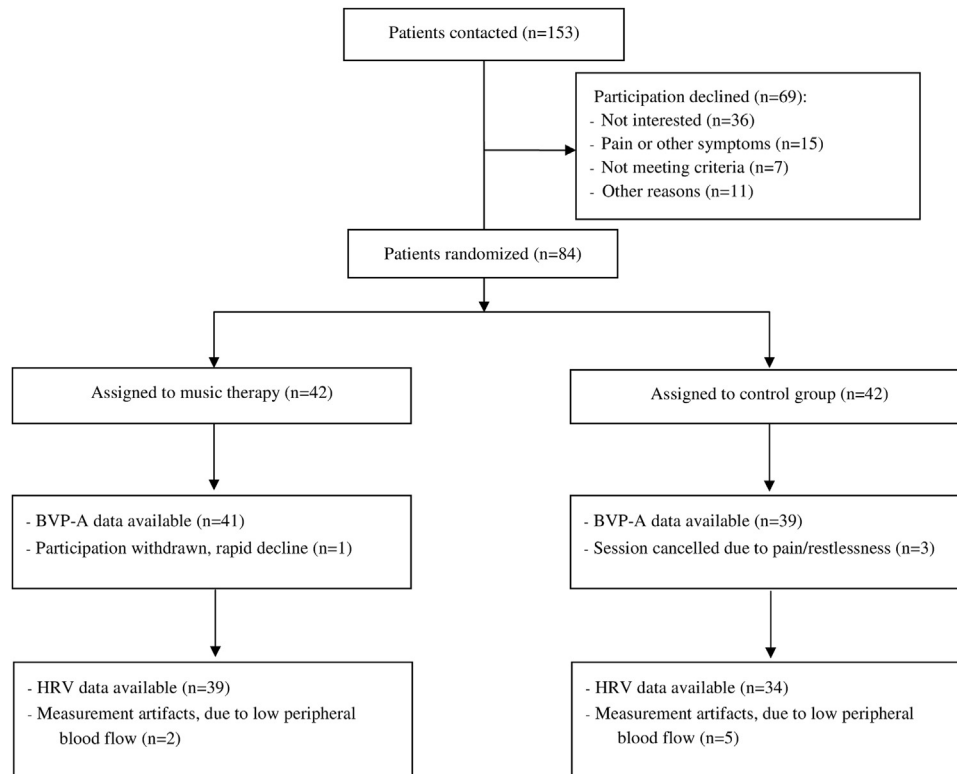


Fig. 1. Patient flowchart. BVP-A = blood volume pulse amplitude; HRV = heart rate variability.

the general intercept of sympathetic arousal ( $P = 0.03$ ), with women showing generally more arousal than men. Allocation to MT vs. CG (treatment) significantly predicted the linear slopes of peripheral blood flow ( $P = 0.03$ ) with stronger increases in the MT group. Figure 3 illustrates the influence of pain and treatment on participants' sympathetic response.

## Discussion

Exceeding the scope of previous effectiveness research,<sup>17,18,57</sup> the present findings add important

insights to the study of the underlying mechanisms of relaxation and mindfulness techniques for terminally ill patients.

Table 3  
Final Estimation of Fixed Effects (M2)

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	SE	t-value	df	P-value
log_HF					
For INTRCPT, $\beta_0$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{00}$	4.817	0.147	32.733	69	<0.001
Treatment, $\gamma_{01}$	<b>0.535</b>	<b>0.179</b>	<b>3.154</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>0.002</b>
Baseline, $\gamma_{02}$	0.860	0.057	15.141	69	<0.001
Pain, $\gamma_{03}$	-0.094	0.048	-1.953	69	0.055
For time, $\beta_1$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{10}$	-0.168	0.071	-2.347	71	0.022
Pain, $\gamma_{11}$	0.030	0.010	3.022	71	0.003
For time <sup>2</sup> , $\beta_2$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{20}$	0.072	0.020	3.575	72	<0.001
log_BVP-A					
For INTRCPT, $\beta_0$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{00}$	3.531	0.050	70.314	75	<0.001
Treatment, $\gamma_{01}$	-0.005	0.048	-0.100	75	0.921
Gender, $\gamma_{02}$	0.103	0.047	2.197	75	0.031
Baseline, $\gamma_{03}$	0.932	0.038	24.793	75	<0.001
Pain, $\gamma_{04}$	0.012	0.011	1.059	75	0.293
For time, $\beta_1$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{10}$	0.088	0.022	3.963	76	<0.001
Treatment, $\gamma_{11}$	<b>0.030</b>	<b>0.014</b>	<b>2.227</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>0.029</b>
Baseline, $\gamma_{12}$	-0.164	0.029	-5.685	76	<0.001
Pain, $\gamma_{13}$	-0.008	0.003	-2.556	76	0.013
For time <sup>2</sup> , $\beta_2$ :					
INTRCPT, $\gamma_{20}$	-0.026	0.006	-4.628	78	<0.001
Baseline, $\gamma_{21}$	0.027	0.008	3.552	78	<0.001

M2 = model 2; SE = standard error; df = degrees of freedom; log\_HF = log-transformed high frequency power.

Bold text indicates significant effects of treatment allocation.

Table 2  
Final Estimation of Variance Components (Random Effects)

Random Effect	Model 1 (M1)				Model 2 (M2)			
	Var	$\chi^2$	df	P-value	Var	$\chi^2$	df	P-value
log_HF								
INTRCPT, $\gamma_0$	2.812	1235.49	72	<0.001	0.808	395.78	69	<0.001
TIME, $\gamma_1$	0.127	109.46	72	0.003	0.129	109.61	71	0.002
TIME <sup>2</sup> , $\gamma_2$	0.016	151.97	72	<0.001	0.016	152.29	72	<0.001
Residual, $e$	0.443				0.196			
log_BVP-A								
INTRCPT, $\gamma_0$	0.547	7380.88	79	<0.001	0.051	728.17	75	<0.001
TIME, $\gamma_1$	0.043	489.98	79	<0.001	0.027	333.82	76	<0.001
TIME <sup>2</sup> , $\gamma_2$	0.002	474.90	79	<0.001	0.002	408.80	78	<0.001
Residual, $e$	0.007				0.007			

Var = variance; df = degrees of freedom; log\_BVP-A = log-transformed blood volume pulse amplitude; log\_HF = log-transformed high frequency power.

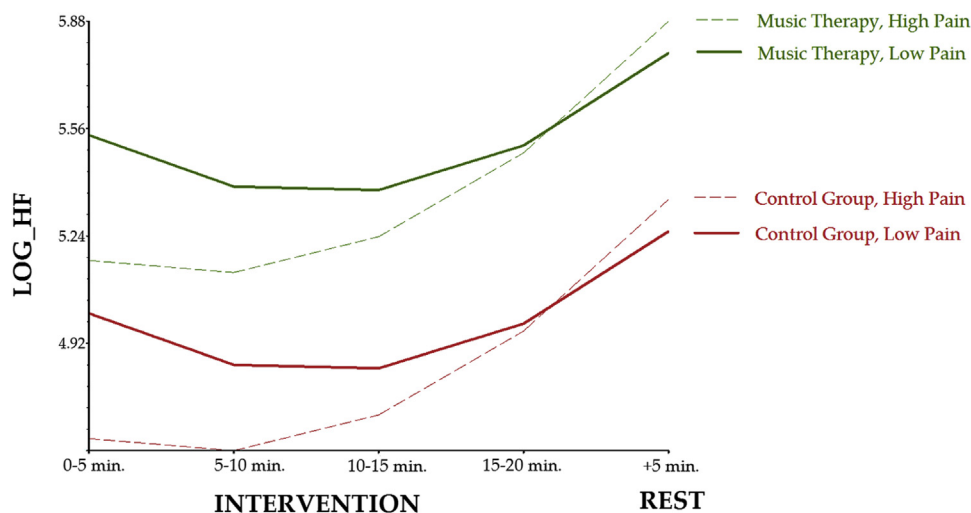


Fig. 2. Predicted values of log\_HF modulated by treatment and pain (controlling for baseline scores). Group = treatment; High Pain = 2 points above average; log\_HF = log-transformed high frequency power; Low Pain = 2 points below average.

VM-HRV was examined as a biomarker of parasympathetic cardiac outflow. Regarding the entire sample (M1), trajectories of change were not in the predicted direction, as with the beginning of the interventions, VM-HRV was initially reduced. With the progression of the treatment, the slopes became more positive, exceeding the initial values at the end of the session (Fig. 2). This finding contradicts the assumption of a simple, linear relation between the relaxation response and parasympathetic activity. Some authors argued that a state of subjective relaxation may rather be related to a general decrease in cardiac outflow with a relative shift toward parasympathetic dominance.<sup>49,74</sup> The psychophysiological interpretability of alternative HRV indices such as the frequency ratios, however, has been subject to controversial discourse.<sup>49,63,75</sup>

Clinically relevant inferences can be drawn from predictor analysis. Subjective ratings of acute pain significantly interacted with the linear slopes of VM-

HRV. Interestingly, the positive linear slope over the entire duration of a session was more positive, if patients initially reported higher levels of pain (Fig. 2). This means that baseline differences in VM-HRV caused by pain can be compensated by use of MT and MB interventions.

The type of treatment did not affect the slopes of the parasympathetic response. However, the level of VM-HRV was generally higher during the MT than during MB sessions. This finding is consistent with Porges's polyvagal theory, as one major difference between the two interventions was the presence of a therapeutic interaction in the MT group. Although the number of persons inside the patient's room was held constant across conditions, the therapeutic skills and both verbal and nonverbal communication initiated by the music therapist may have driven the patients to engage in prosocial behavior, resulting in increased vagal modulation of cardiac activity.<sup>45,61</sup>

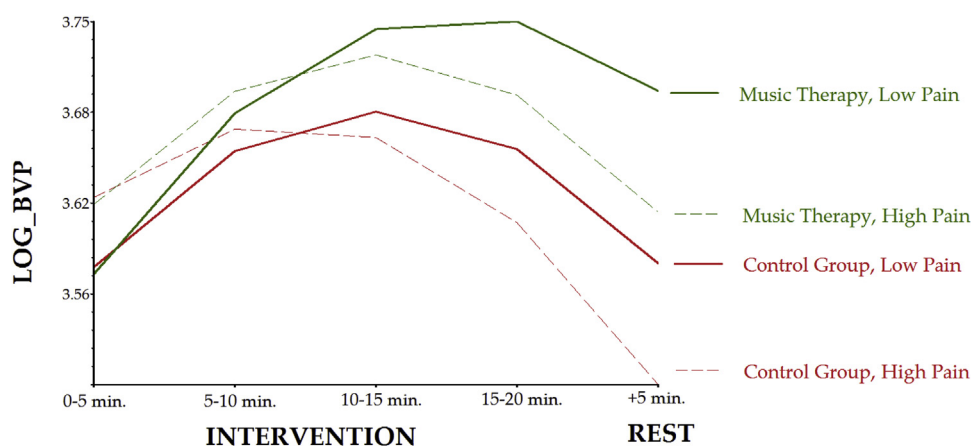


Fig. 3. Predicted values of log\_BVP-A modulated by treatment and pain (controlling for baseline scores and gender). Group = treatment; High Pain = 2 points above average; log\_BVP-A = log-transformed blood volume pulse amplitude; Low Pain = 2 points below average.

Regarding sympathetic vascular tone, baseline values had a strong influence on the entire shape of each individual's response curve. Furthermore, BVP-A intercepts differed by gender, with women's levels of sympathetic arousal being significantly higher throughout the entire session. This corresponds to previous metaanalytic findings of women reporting a higher level of distress in the course of a cancer progression.<sup>76</sup>

Self-ratings of acute pain moderated the trajectories of sympathetic tone. With higher scores on the visual analogue scale, the reduction of sympathetic tone was less pronounced. Hence, although even patients with high levels of pain showed the expected inversely U-shaped time course (Fig. 3), patients with lower levels benefited more from the interventions regarding the reduction of sympathetic arousal.

While controlling for baseline differences, gender, and pain, the linear slopes differed significantly between treatment arms. Confirming the hypothesis, the average increase in peripheral blood flow was significantly higher in the MT group compared to the CG. This difference in the patients' growth rate can be interpreted as direct evidence for the stress-reducing effect of the MT relaxation intervention, which differed from the MB intervention in the live played soothing sounds of the monochord, vocal improvisation synchronized with the patients breathing, and the building of a therapeutic relationship.

Methodological limitations of the present study encompass the lack of outcome assessor blinding and the missing of a no-treatment condition. Furthermore, although the use of a photoplethysmography sensor causes significantly lower patient burden, it also carries the disadvantage of lower sampling rate compared to common electrocardiogram recordings. Hence, future studies may address these issues in subsequent designs making further use of the rapidly developing methods for minimally invasive, physiological measurements.

The present study presents results of hierarchical linear modeling of objective, physiological data from a randomized controlled trial on the effects of MT intervention in palliative care. First, results highlight the importance of a therapeutic relationship for both an increase in VM-HRV and a reduction of sympathetic arousal, and thus, speak in favor of the application of live MT over, for example, music listening or music medicine interventions in end-of-life-care settings. Second, specific characteristics of the receptive MT intervention used in this study caused significant reductions of vascular sympathetic tone. Hence, the study presents evidence for an indication of MT in the treatment of pain and stress-related symptoms in palliative care. Finally, self-rated levels of acute pain proved to be an important moderator in explaining individual differences in the physiological response to relaxation interventions.

## Disclosures and Acknowledgments

No funding was received for this study and the authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## References

1. Lewis CR, de Vedia A, Reuer B, Schwan R, Tourin C. Integrating complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) into standard hospice and palliative care. *Am J Hosp Palliat Care* 2003;20:221–228.
2. Marchand L. Integrative and complementary therapies for patients with advanced cancer. *Ann Palliat Med* 2014;3:160–171.
3. Bercovitz A, Sengupta M, Jones A, Harris-Kojetin LD. Complementary and alternative therapies in hospice: the National Home and Hospice Care Survey: United States, 2007. *Natl Health Stat Report* 2011;33:1–20.
4. Shennan C, Payne S, Fenlon D. What is the evidence for the use of mindfulness-based interventions in cancer care? A review. *Psychooncology* 2011;20:681–697.
5. Tsang SC, Mok ES, Lam SC, Lee JK. The benefit of mindfulness-based stress reduction to patients with terminal cancer. *J Clin Nurs* 2012;21:2690–2696.
6. Bradt J, Dileo C. WITHDRAWN: music therapy for end-of-life care. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2014CD007169.
7. Bradt J, Dileo C, Grocke D, Magill L. Music interventions for improving psychological and physical outcomes in cancer patients. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2011CD006911.
8. World Health Organization. WHO definition of palliative care 2015. Available at: <http://www.who.int/cancer/palliative/definition/en>. Accessed April 20, 2015.
9. Deutsches Institut für Medizinische Dokumentation und Information. Operationen- und Prozedurenschlüssel. [German Procedure Classification] 2014. Available at: <http://www.dimdi.de/static/de/klassi/ops/index.htm>. Accessed May 5, 2014.
10. Bruscia KE. Defining music therapy, 2nd ed. Gilsum, NH: Barcelona Publishers, 1998.
11. Warth M, Kessler J, Koenig J, et al. Music therapy to promote psychological and physiological relaxation in palliative care patients: protocol of a randomized controlled trial. *BMC Palliat Care* 2014;13:1–7.
12. Kozak LE, Kayes L, McCarty R, et al. Use of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) by Washington State hospices. *Am J Hosp Palliat Care* 2008;25:463–468.
13. O'Kelly J, Koffman J. Multidisciplinary perspectives of music therapy in adult palliative care. *Palliat Med* 2007;21:235–241.
14. Warth M, Koenig J, Keßler J, et al. Musiktherapie in der palliativmedizinischen Versorgung: Gegenwärtiger Stand und aktuelle Entwicklungen. [Music therapy in palliative care: State of the art and recent developments]. *Musiktherapeutische Umschau* 2014;35:261–274.
15. Munro S, Mount B. Music therapy in palliative care. *Can Med Assoc J* 1978;119:1029–1034.
16. Korczak D, Wastian M, Schneider M. Music therapy in palliative setting. *GMS Health Technol Assess* 2013;9:1–6.

17. Hilliard RE. The effects of music therapy on the quality and length of life of people diagnosed with terminal cancer. *J Music Ther* 2003;40:113–137.
18. Gutsell KJ, Schluchter M, Margevicius S, et al. Music therapy reduces pain in palliative care patients: a randomized controlled trial. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2013;45:822–831.
19. Krout RE. The effects of single-session music therapy interventions on the observed and self-reported levels of pain control, physical comfort, and relaxation of hospice patients. *Am J Hosp Palliat Care* 2001;18:383–390.
20. Lee H. The effect of live music via the iso-principle on pain management in palliative care as measured by self-report using a graphic rating scale (GRS) and pulse rate. PhD thesis. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, 2005.
21. Curtis SL. Music therapy and the symphony: a university-community collaborative project in palliative care. *Music Med* 2011;3:20–26.
22. Horne-Thompson A, Grocke D. The effect of music therapy on anxiety in patients who are terminally ill. *J Palliat Med* 2008;11:582–590.
23. Planas Domingo J, Escudé Matamoros N, Farriols Danés C, et al. Effectiveness of music therapy in advanced cancer patients admitted to a palliative care unit: a non-randomized controlled, clinical trial. *Music Med* 2015;7:23–31.
24. Nakayama H, Kikuta F, Takeda H. A pilot study on effectiveness of music therapy in hospice in Japan. *J Music Ther* 2009;46:160–172.
25. Brown J. Comparison of the effects of music and conversation on hospice patient's predisposition to communicate and communication behaviors. PhD thesis. Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University, 2006.
26. Włodarczyk N. The effect of music therapy on the spirituality of persons in an in-patient hospice unit as measured by self-report. *J Music Ther* 2007;44:113–122.
27. Burns DS, Perkins SM, Tong Y, Hilliard RE, Cripe LD. Music therapy is associated with family perception of more spiritual support and decreased breathing problems in cancer patients receiving hospice care. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2015;50:225–231.
28. Warth M, Kessler J, Koenig J, et al. Methodological challenges for music therapy controlled clinical trials in palliative care. *Nord J Music Ther* 2015;24:344–371.
29. Lesiuk T. The effect of mindfulness-based music therapy on attention and mood in women receiving adjuvant chemotherapy for breast cancer: a pilot study. *Oncol Nurs Forum* 2015;42:276–282.
30. Kabat-Zinn J. *Wherever you go, there you are: Mindfulness meditation in everyday life*. New York: Hyperion Books, 1994.
31. Grossman P, Niemann L, Schmidt S, Walach H. Mindfulness-based stress reduction and health benefits. *J Psychosom Res* 2004;57:35–43.
32. Hofmann SG, Sawyer AT, Witt AA, Oh D. The effect of mindfulness-based therapy on anxiety and depression: a meta-analytic review. *J Consult Clin Psychol* 2010;78:169–183.
33. Zainal NZ, Booth S, Huppert FA. The efficacy of mindfulness-based stress reduction on mental health of breast cancer patients: a meta-analysis. *Psychooncology* 2013;22:1457–1465.
34. Lengacher CA, Reich RR, Paterson CL, et al. The effects of mindfulness-based stress reduction on objective and subjective sleep parameters in women with breast cancer: a randomized controlled trial. *Psychooncology* 2015;24:424–432.
35. Chadwick P, Newell T, Skinner C. Mindfulness groups in palliative care: a pilot qualitative study. *Spirituality Health Int* 2008;9:135–144.
36. Dusek JA, Benson H. Mind-body medicine: a model of the comparative clinical impact of the acute stress and relaxation responses. *Minn Med* 2009;92:47–50.
37. Benson H, Greenwood MM, Klemchuk H. The relaxation response: psychophysiological aspects and clinical applications. *Int J Psychiatry Med* 1975;6:87–98.
38. Thayer JF, Yamamoto SS, Brosschot JF. The relationship of autonomic imbalance, heart rate variability and cardiovascular disease risk factors. *Int J Cardiol* 2010;141:122–131.
39. Chiang JK, Kuo TB, Fu CH, Koo M. Predicting 7-day survival using heart rate variability in hospice patients with non-lung cancers. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e69482.
40. Clamour A, Lincoln TM, Thayer JF, Koenig J. Resting vagal activity in schizophrenia: a meta-analysis of heart rate variability as a potential endophenotype. *Br J Psychiatry* 2016;208:9–16.
41. Nagpal ML, Gleichauf K, Ginsberg JP. Meta-analysis of heart rate variability as a psychophysiological indicator of posttraumatic stress disorder. *J Trauma Treat* 2013;3:1–8.
42. Kemp AH, Quintana DS, Gray MA, et al. Impact of depression and antidepressant treatment on heart rate variability: a review and meta-analysis. *Biol Psychiatry* 2010;67:1067–1074.
43. Kemp AH, Quintana DS. The relationship between mental and physical health: insights from the study of heart rate variability. *Int J Psychophysiol* 2013;89:288–296.
44. Kashdan TB, Rottenberg J. Psychological flexibility as a fundamental aspect of health. *Clin Psychol Rev* 2010;30:865–878.
45. Porges SW. The polyvagal theory: new insights into adaptive reactions of the autonomic nervous system. *Cleve Clin J Med* 2009;76:S86–S90.
46. Sarang P, Telles S. Effects of two yoga based relaxation techniques on heart rate variability (HRV). *Int J Stress Manag* 2006;13:460–475.
47. Telles S, Raghavendra BR, Naveen KV, et al. Changes in autonomic variables following two meditative states described in yoga texts. *J Altern Complement Med* 2013;19:35–42.
48. Melville GW, Chang D, Colagiuri B, Marshall PW, Cheema BS. Fifteen minutes of chair-based yoga postures or guided meditation performed in the office can elicit a relaxation response. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med* 2012;2012:501986.
49. Krygier JR, Heathers JAJ, Shahrestani S, et al. Mindfulness meditation, well-being, and heart rate variability: a preliminary investigation into the impact of intensive Vipassana meditation. *Int J Psychophysiol* 2013;89:305–313.
50. Burg JM, Wolf OT, Michalak J. Mindfulness as self-regulated attention: associations with heart rate variability. *Swiss J Psychol* 2012;71:135–139.
51. Garland EL, Froeliger B, Howard MO. Effects of mindfulness-oriented recovery enhancement on reward



- responsiveness and opioid cue-reactivity. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 2014;231:3229–3238.
52. Leonaite A, Vainoras A. Heart rate variability during two relaxation techniques to assess the effect of music therapy on anxiety reduction of patients. *Comput Cardiol* 2003;30:469–472.
53. Chiu HW, Kuo MC, Chaing HS, Hsu CY. Using heart rate variability analysis to assess the effect of music therapy on anxiety reduction of patients. *Comput Cardiol* 2003;30:469–472.
54. Kurita A, Takase B, Okada K, et al. Effects of music therapy on heart rate variability in elderly patients with cerebral vascular disease and dementia. *J Arrhythm* 2006;22:161–166.
55. Chuang C-Y, Han W-R, Li P-C, Young S-T. Effects of music therapy on subjective sensations and heart rate variability in treated cancer survivors: a pilot study. *Complement Ther Med* 2010;18:224–226.
56. Lee EJ, Bhattacharya J, Sohn C, Verres R. Monochord sounds and progressive muscle relaxation reduce anxiety and improve relaxation during chemotherapy: a pilot EEG study. *Complement Ther Med* 2012;20:409–416.
57. Warth M, Kessler J, Hillecke TK, Bardenheuer HJ. Music therapy in palliative care: a randomized controlled trial to evaluate effects on relaxation. *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 2015;112:788–794.
58. Kabat-Zinn J, Kesper-Grossman U. *Stressbewältigung durch die Praxis der Achtsamkeit*. [Reducing stress by practicing mindfulness]. Freiburg: Arbor, 1999.
59. Alian AA, Shelley KH. Photoplethysmography. *Best Pract Res Clin Anaesthesiol* 2014;28:395–406.
60. Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology. Heart rate variability. Standards of measurement, physiological interpretation, and clinical use. *Eur Heart J* 1996;17:354–381.
61. Shaffer F, McCraty R, Zerr CL. A healthy heart is not a metronome: an integrative review of the heart's anatomy and heart rate variability. *Front Psychol* 2014;5:1040.
62. Raudenbush SW, Bryk AS, Congdon S. *HLM 7 for windows*. [computer software]. Skokie, IL: Scientific Software International, 2011.
63. Quintana DS, Heathers JAJ. Considerations in the assessment of heart rate variability in biobehavioral research. *Front Psychol* 2014;5:805.
64. Kristjansson SD, Kircher JC, Webb AK. Multilevel models for repeated measures research designs in psychophysiology: an introduction to growth curve modeling. *Psychophysiology* 2007;44:728–736.
65. Voss A, Schroeder R, Heitmann A, Peters A, Perz S. Short-term heart rate variability—influence of gender and age in healthy subjects. *PLoS One* 2015;10:e0118308.
66. Antelmi I, de Paula RS, Shinzato AR, et al. Influence of age, gender, body mass index, and functional capacity on heart rate variability in a cohort of subjects without heart disease. *Am J Cardiol* 2004;93:381–385.
67. Lutfi MF, Sukkar MY. The effect of gender on heart rate variability in asthmatic and normal healthy adults. *Int J Health Sci (Qassim)* 2011;5:146–154.
68. Umetani K, Singer DH, McCraty R, Atkinson M. Twenty-four hour time domain heart rate variability and heart rate: relations to age and gender over nine decades. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 1998;31:593–601.
69. Koenig J, Williams DP, Kemp AH, Thayer JF. Vagally mediated heart rate variability in headache patients—a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Cephalalgia* 2016;36:265–278.
70. Appelhans BM, Luecken LJ. Heart rate variability and pain: associations of two interrelated homeostatic processes. *Biol Psychol* 2008;77:174–182.
71. Koenig J, Jarczok MN, Ellis RJ, Hillecke TK, Thayer JF. Heart rate variability and experimentally induced pain in healthy adults: a systematic review. *Eur J Pain* 2014;18:301–314.
72. Craske MG, Niles AN, Burklund LJ, et al. Randomized controlled trial of cognitive behavioral therapy and acceptance and commitment therapy for social phobia: outcomes and moderators. *J Consult Clin Psychol* 2014;82:1034–1048.
73. Raudenbush SW, Bryk AS. *Hierarchical linear models—Applications and data analysis methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2006.
74. McCraty R, Atkinson M, Tomasino D, Bradley RT. *The coherent heart—Heart-brain interactions, psychophysiological coherence, and the emergence of system-wide order*. Boulder Creek, CA: Institute of HeartMath, 2006.
75. Heathers JA. Everything hertz: methodological issues in short-term frequency-domain HRV. *Front Physiol* 2014;5:177.
76. Hagedoorn M, Sanderman R, Bolks HN, Tuinstra J, Coyne JC. Distress in couples coping with cancer: a meta-analysis and critical review of role and gender effects. *Psychol Bull* 2008;134:1–30.