



Unraveling the Pain: Risk Factors Associated with Primary Dysmenorrhea Among Adolescent Females

Nisha M.M¹, Dr. Jomet George²

¹ Research Scholar, Malwanchal University, Indore

² Research Supervisor Malwanchal University, Indore

Introduction :

Primary Dysmenoria, commonly known as painful menstruation, is a popular gynecological issue among teenage women worldwide. It is characterized by lower abdominal pain, often occurring during menstruation in the absence of an underlying pelvic pathology, with nausea, headache, fatigue, and gastrointestinal disturbances. The severity of primary dysmenoria varies, but in many cases, it inhibit daily activities, school attendance and overall quality of life. It is important to understand the risk factors associated with primary dysmenoria to develop effective preventive and management strategies. This article delays various physical, lifestyle, psychological and environmental risk factors contributing to primary dysmenoria among adolescent women.

Physiological and Biological Risk Factors :

1. Age in menarche

The initial menrche (before the age of 12) has been continuously paired with high risk of primary decoration. Girls who experience menarche at an early age have a long reproductive lifetime, causing prolonged contact for menstrual cycles and possibly extending prostaglandin release, which accelerates uterine contractions and pain.

2. Family history

Genetic Purbabhas plays an important role in primary dysmenoria. Studies have shown that dysmenoria, especially in adolescents with family history of maternal history, is more likely to experience menstrual pain. This can be attributed to inherited pain sensitivity, hormonal pattern or similar lifestyle factors.

3. hormonal imbalance

Hormonal fluctuations, especially the increased levels of prostaglandins (PGF2 α and PGE2), are the major contributors in Dysmenoria. Prostaglandins triggers strong uterine contractions, leading to a decrease in blood flow to the endometrium and later ischemic pain. High estrogen levels can increase prostaglandin production, increasing menstrual cramps.

4. Menstrual cycle characteristics

Teenagers are more likely to experience dysmenoria with irregular menstrual cycle, heavy menstrual flow (menrazia), or prolonged menstrual bleeding. Excessive uterine contractions and inflammation in the long and heavy periods increase the intensity of pain.

5. Obesity and Body Mass Index (BMI)

Studies suggest a relationship between obesity and increased dysmenoria risk. Additional fat tissue contributes to systemic inflammation and hormonal imbalance, especially increased estrogen levels, which can affect the severity of menstrual pain.

Lifestyle and Behavioral Risk Factors :

1. 6. Physical activity level

Motionless lifestyle and lack of regular physical exercise are associated with high incidence of primary dysmenoria. Physical inactivity leads to poor circulation and increased stress, both contribute to menstrual pain. In contrast, medium exercise can increase endorphin release, reduce stress and promote better menstrual health.

2. 7. dietary habits

Unhealthy diet patterns, which include excessive consumption of processed foods, caffeine, sugar and high -fat foods, can increase dysmenoria. Diet rich in inflammatory foods contribute to increased prostaglandin production, increasing pain. In contrast, diet rich in omega -3 fatty acids, magnesium and vitamin B1 with nutrient diet has been found to reduce menstrual spasms.

3. 8. Caffeine and alcohol consumption

Excessive caffeine intake is associated with menstrual pain due to its vasoconstick properties, which can spoil the uterus ischemia. Similarly, alcohol disrupts hormonal balance and can contribute to increased dysmonoria symptoms.

4. 9. Smoking

The use of tobacco is an important risk factor for primary dysmenorrhea. Nicotine narrows the blood vessels, which reduces oxygen supply to the uterus, which accelerates pain. Studies have shown that adolescent smokers are more likely to experience severe menstrual cramps than non-smokers.

Psychological and Emotional Risk Factors :

1. 10. Stress and anxiety

The high levels of stress, anxiety and emotional crisis are strongly associated with primary dysmenorrhea. The stress triggers the release of cortisol and catecholamine, which can increase the perception of pain and muscle stress, increasing menstrual cramps.

2. 11. Depression

Adolescents suffering from depression are more at risk than severe dysmenorrhea. Depression changes the perception of brain pain and is often associated with low physical activity, poor diet and disrupted sleep, which all contribute to intensive menstrual pain.

3. 12. Poor quality of sleep

Sleep disturbances, including inadequate sleep duration and poor sleep quality, have been found to spoil the primary dysmenorrhea. Lack of sleep affects the body's ability to regulate pain, increase inflammation and contribute to overall discomfort during menstruation.

Environmental and Social Risk Factors

1. 13. socioeconomic status

Low socio-economic condition has been identified as a risk factor for dysmenorrhea. Limited access to high stress levels due to healthcare, poor nutrition and financial constraints can contribute to all menstrual increase.

2. 14. Educational and professional stress

Educational pressure and work related stress can increase dysmenorrhea symptoms. Teenagers with high academic charge, prolonged screen time, and lack of relaxation techniques are more likely to experience acute menstrual cramps.

3. 15. Entrepreneurship

In exposure to environmental pollutants, endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs) such as phthalates and bisphenol A (BPA), can affect hormonal balance and contribute to dysmenorrhea. These chemicals are usually found in plastic, personal care products and industrial waste, making them difficult to avoid completely.

Management and Preventive Measures :

Understanding the risk factors associated with primary dysmenorrhea is the route for effective management and prevention strategies. Some major approaches include:

- Regular exercise: Menstrual pain can decrease due to engagement in medium-sporting physical activities like yoga, stretching and aerobic practice.
- Healthy diets: Processed foods, reducing the intake of caffeine and sugar, can help manage dysmenorrhea, involving anti-inflammatory foods such as fish, nuts, leafy greens and whole grains.
- Stress management technique: practices such as meditation, deep breathing practice and mindfulness therapy can reduce stress and improve pain tolerance.
- Adequate sleep: Maintaining a proper sleep schedule and improving sleep quality through relaxation techniques can help reduce the intensity of pain.
- Hydration and herbal remedies: Drinking adequate water and herbal tea can provide relief with anti-inflammatory properties, such as ginger and chamomile tea.
- Heat therapy: Applying a heating pad or warmly compressing in the lower abdomen can help to relax the uterine muscles and reduce cramps.
- Medical counseling: Adolescents with severe dysmenorrhea should seek medical advice. Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), such as ibuprofen and naproxen, are usually prescribed for pain relief, while hormonal therapy may be recommended for frequent cases.

Conclusion :

Primary dysmenorrhea is a versatile condition affected by a combination of physical, lifestyle, psychological and environmental factors. Adolescents can significantly improve menstrual health among women, addressing these risk factors through lifestyle modifications, stress management and timely medical intervention. Increasing awareness and providing accessible healthcare solutions will help reduce the burden of primary dysmenorrhea and improve the quality of life for affected individuals. Future research should focus on the interaction of these risk factors to develop personal intervention to effectively manage menstrual pain.

REFERENCE :

1. 1.Habibi N, Huang MS, Gan WY, Zulida R, Safavi SM. Prevalence of primary dysmenorrhea and factors associated with its intensity among under graduate students:A cross-sectional study. *Pain Manag Nurs*. 2015;16:855–61. doi: 10.1016/j.pmn.2015.07.001. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]

2. 2.Hu Z, Tang L, Chen L, Kaminga AC, Xu H. Prevalence and risk factors associated with primary dysmenorrhea among Chinese female university students:A cross-sectional study. *J Pediatr Adolesc Gynecol.* 2020;33:15–22. doi: 10.1016/j.jpag.2019.09.004. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
3. 3.Aktaş D. Prevalence and factors affecting dysmenorrhea in female university students:Effect on general comfort level. *Pain Manag Nurs.* 2015;16:534–43. doi: 10.1016/j.pmn.2014.10.004. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
4. 4.Türkmen H. Üniversite öğrencilerinde dismenore görülme sıklığıve dismenoreye etki eden faktörler. *CBU SBED.* 2019;6:39–46. [Google Scholar]
5. 5.Subasinghe KA, Hapoo L, Jayasinghe YL. Prevalence and severity of dysmenorrhoea, and management options reported by young Australian women. *RACGP.* 2016;45:829–34. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
6. 6.Iacovides S, Avidon I, Baker FC. What we know about primary dysmenorrhea today:A critical review. *Hum Reprod Update.* 2015;21:762–78. doi: 10.1093/humupd/dmv039. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
7. 7.Burnett M, Lemyre M. No-345 primary dysmenorrhea consensus guideline. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can.* 2017;39:585–95. doi: 10.1016/j.jogc.2016.12.023. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
8. 8.ACOG Commite Opinion No:760. Dysmenorrhea and endometriosis in the adolescent. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2018;132:e249–58. doi: 10.1097/AOG.0000000000002978. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
9. 9.Fernández-Martínez E, Onieva-Zafra MD, Parra-Fernández ML. Lifestyle and prevalence of dysmenorrhea among Spanish female university students. *PLoS One.* 2018;13:e0201894. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0201894. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
10. 10.Orhan C, Çelenay ŞT, Demirtürk F, Özgül S, Üzelpasacı E, Akbayrak T. Effects of menstrual pain on the academic performance and participation in sports and social activities in Turkish university students with primary dysmenorrhea:A case control study. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res.* 2018;44:2101–9. doi: 10.1111/jog.13768. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]