

- 1 **Prevalence of Dysmenorrhea and Its Association with Body Mass Index among Female College Students in**
- 2 **Sulaymaniyah : A Cross Sectional Survey Study**

25

26 Abstract:

27

28 Background:

29 Dysmenorrhea is a periodic, cramping pain sensation,
30 typically experienced in the lower abdomen before or during
31 menstruation.

32 It is among the most common gynecologic issues affecting
33 female students.

34 It is a frequent cause of college absence in this age group
35 and can negatively affect academic performance.
36 In addition, overweight and obesity are common health
37 concerns among females.

38 Objectives:

39 The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship
40 between body mass index (BMI) and dysmenorrhea.
41 Although previous studies suggest a possible
42 association, the evidence remains inconclusive due to
43 existing gaps in knowledge. Therefore, this study aims to
44 determine the prevalence and severity of dysmenorrhea
45 among female college students in Sulaymaniyah across
46 different BMI categories and to evaluate the association
47 between BMI, dysmenorrhea intensity, and related
48 risk factors.

49 Methodology:

50 A cross-sectional study was conducted from January
51 2024 to March 2024 among female college students
52 aged 18–25 years (n=362) from eight
53 universities in Sulaymaniyah. Participants were

54 assessed using a self-administered questionnaire to determine
55 BMI, dysmenorrhea
56 prevalence and intensity, and
57 associated risk factors, with pain severity evaluated
58 using the **Visual Analog Scale (VAS)**. BMI levels and
59 associated risk factors were compared according to the dysmenorrhea presence
60 and severity.

61 **Results:**

62 The overall prevalence of dysmenorrhea among participants was 91.2%. Regarding
63 pain severity, 14.7% reported mild pain, 41.4% moderate pain, and 35.1% severe pain,
64 while 8.8% reported no dysmenorrhea.

63 The mean BMI values showed a decreasing trend with increasing pain severity.
64 Participants with severe dysmenorrhea had the lowest mean BMI ($n = 150$; 22.57 ± 4.05
65 kg/m^2), followed by those with moderate pain ($n = 177$; 22.95 ± 3.78 kg/m^2) and mild
66 pain ($n = 24$; 23.21 ± 3.76 kg/m^2). In contrast, students without dysmenorrhea had the
highest mean BMI ($n = 11$; 24.08 ± 3.89 kg/m^2).

65 **Statistical analysis** demonstrated no significant association between BMI and the
66 presence or severity of dysmenorrhea. However, significant associations were observed
between dysmenorrhea and its severity with menstrual irregularity, heaviness of
menstrual blood loss, and positive family history ($p < 0.05$).

67 Females with severe dysmenorrhea had the lowest normal mean BMI level, followed by
68 those with moderate dysmenorrhea, mild dysmenorrhea, and then those with no
69 dysmenorrhea. Those with no dysmenorrhea had the highest normal BMI level. The
70 mean BMI level in females with severe dysmenorrhea was ($n = 150$; 22.57 ± 4.05
71 (standard deviation) kg/m^2), with moderate dysmenorrhea ($n = 177$; 22.95 ± 3.78
72 kg/m^2), in those mild dysmenorrhea ($n = 24$; $23.21 \pm 3.76 \text{ kg/m}^2$) dysmenorrhea, and in
73 those with no pain ($n=11$; 24.08 ± 3.89).

74 **Conclusion:**

58 Dysmenorrhea is highly prevalent among female college
59 students in Sulaimaniyah, with greater severity observed
60 in individuals with menstrual irregularities, heavy
61 bleeding, or a positive family history. Body mass index
62 (BMI) was not significantly associated with
63 dysmenorrhea, suggesting that it may not be a major
64 contributing factor. These findings highlight the
65 importance of routine screening and targeted
66 reproductive health education, and further research is
67 needed to investigate other biological, genetic, and
68 lifestyle contributors to menstrual pain.

69 **Keywords:**

70 Dysmenorrhea, Overweight, College Students.

60

61 **Introduction**

62 Dysmenorrhea refers to the pain experienced before or during
63 menstruation, which is a common gynecological problem.

64 Although the pain is usually mild, it can be severe pain in some women and may hinder
their normal

65 activities for several days. Dysmenorrhea affects over 50% of women during menstrual
cycles, typically for 1-2 days each month [1]. A systematic review and meta-analysis of
66 research including more than 20,000 young women from 38 countries
67 reported dysmenorrhea prevalence was 71.1% [6]. In

68 severe cases of dysmenorrhea, additional symptoms may include

69 diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, headaches, and dizziness [1]. The repercussions of
70 dysmenorrhea span, physical, social, emotional, educational, and economic

71 domains. According to a survey targeting women aged 18 and above with primary

72 dysmenorrhea, over half reported symptoms that hindered their daily activities, while
17%

73 missed school or work [2]. Dysmenorrhea is the leading
74 cause of short-term school absences among adolescent girls, with statistics indicating
that 1 in 8 girls aged
75 14-20 miss school or work due to this condition [3]. In the US, approximately 600
76 million working hours, or \$2 billion are lost annually due to debilitating dysmenorrhea
77 in the absence of adequate relief. Studies indicate that
78 women who continue working or attending classes during
79 dysmenorrhea often demonstrate reduced productivity or performance [4]. Furthermore,
a systematic analysis of 33 studies examine the
80 relationship between primary dysmenorrhea and mental health, finding
81 that stress-related illnesses, anxiety, and depression were the most commonly
82 studied conditions in affected individuals [5]. Women with dysmenorrhea
83 report detrimental effects on social functioning, including reduced participation in
84 social and athletic activities and strained relationships with family and friends [6].
85 Moreover, untreated or improperly managed dysmenorrhea
86 may lead to nociceptive priming, increasing the risk of chronic
87 pelvic pain [5]. Overweight and obesity, characterized
88 by excessive fat accumulation, are associated with negative
89 health outcomes.

90 Height and weight measurements are used to calculate body
91 mass index (BMI) to identify overweight and obese
92 individuals. Excessive weight results from an imbalance
93 between calorie intake and expenditure, increasing the risk of
94 diabetes, heart disease, and cancer [7]. In a study conducted
95 in Iraq, 76% of women were overweight or obese, indicating
96 that only one-quarter had normal weight, highlighting the
97 urgent need for further attention to this issue [8].

98 Increased weight in young females has been associated with
99 dysmenorrhea. Primary dysmenorrhea involves elevated
100 prostaglandin production by the endometrium, which induces
101 uterine contractions. It has been suggested that
102 dysmenorrhea may occur due to increased prostaglandin
103 production in overweight and obese individuals [9]. However,
104 other studies do not list obesity as an associated factor [10].

105 Given the high prevalence of dysmenorrhea and the
106 inconsistent findings regarding its relationship with BMI, this
107 study aims to investigate the association between BMI and
108 dysmenorrhea, determine the prevalence of dysmenorrhea,
109 and identify associated risk factors among female college
110 students in Sulaimani city.

107 **Materials & Methods**

108 An analytical, observational, cross-sectional study was conducted
109 from January to March 2024 in Sulaimani city. The study
110 included 362 female college students aged 18–25 years from
111 the departments of Medicine, Veterinary, Engineering,
112 Nursing, Pharmacy, Sciences, Dentistry, Medical Laboratory
113 Sciences, Humanities, and Law across all eight universities in
114 Sulaymaniah: University of Sulaimani, Komar University, Cihan
115 University, Tishk International University, Sulaimani
116 Polytechnic University, University of Human Development,
117 Qaiwan International University, and American University of
118 Iraq – Sulaymaniyah.

119 Convenience and snowball sampling techniques were
120 employed to select participants. Data were collected using a
121 semi-structured, self-administered questionnaire, pre-tested
122 for clarity and provided in both English and Kurdish. Data
123 collection was conducted via an online questionnaire using
124 Google Forms (n=150) and a paper-based questionnaire
125 (n=212) distributed on campus.

126 The questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section
127 collected socio-demographic information, and the second
128 section gathered detailed menstrual information, including
129 age at menarche, menstrual flow quantity, menstrual
130 regularity, cycle duration, dysmenorrhea severity and
131 associated symptoms, family history of dysmenorrhea,
132 physical activity, dietary habits, and pain relief methods.
133 Menstrual pain was assessed using the Visual Analogue Scale
134 (VAS), a standard 10-point numerical rating tool, with higher
135 scores indicating greater pain intensity. Scores of 1–3, 4–7,
136 and 8–10 were classified as mild, moderate, and severe
137 dysmenorrhea, respectively.

138 Body mass index (BMI) was calculated using the formula
139 $\text{weight (kg)}/\text{height}^2 (\text{m}^2)$. For on-site participants (n=212),

140 height and weight were measured with a tape measure and a
141 digital scale (1.0 g accuracy), while online participants
142 self-reported their measurements. Based on WHO guidelines,
143 participants were categorized as underweight ($<18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$),
144 normal ($18.5\text{--}24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$), overweight ($25\text{--}29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$), and
145 obese ($\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$).
146 Ethical approval was obtained from the Clinical Sciences
147 Department, College of Medicine, University of Sulaimani.
148 Participation was voluntary, and informed consent was
149 obtained from all participants prior to enrollment.
150 Confidentiality of personal information was ensured.
151 Data were entered into Microsoft Excel and transferred to
152 SPSS version 27 for analysis. Eligibility criteria included female
153 university students aged 18–24 years proficient in Kurdish or
154 English. Exclusion criteria were females under 18,
155 non-students, students enrolled in universities outside
156 Sulaimani, and those who refused or failed to complete the
157 questionnaire. Descriptive statistics (frequencies,
158 percentages, means, standard deviations) were calculated,
159 and the Chi-Square test was used. A p-value <0.05 was
160 considered statistically significant.

154 **Results**

155 A total of 362 female participants aged 18 years and
156 above were included to evaluate the relationship
157 between dysmenorrhea and BMI. Sociodemographic
158 data are presented in Table 1. Menstrual characteristics
159 of the participants are presented in Table 2.

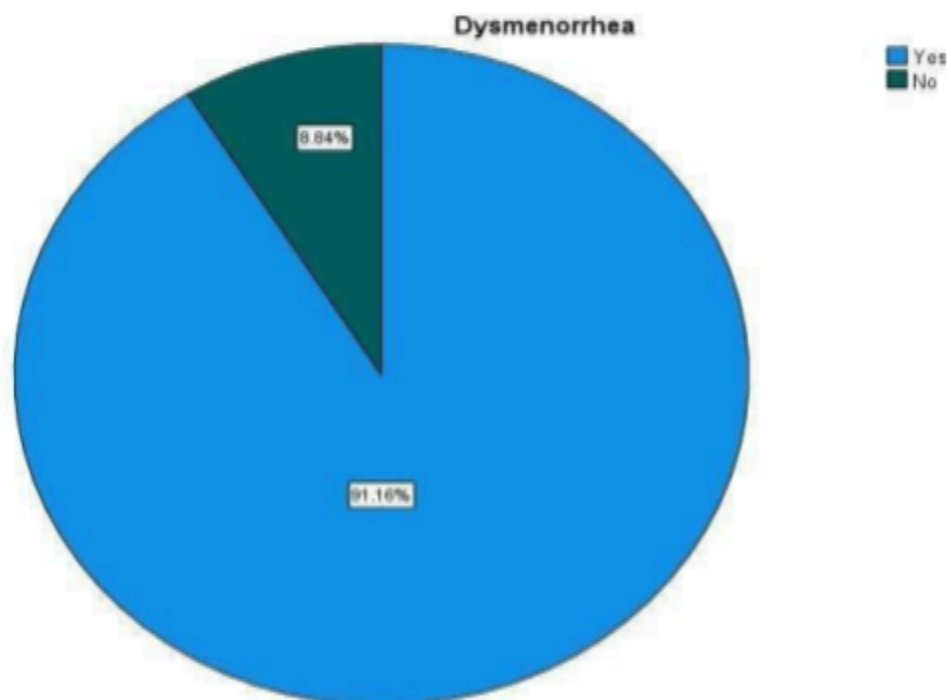
160 The most common sites of pain were the lower abdomen
161 and back, with 96.3% of participants reporting cramping
162 pain. Additionally, 78.7% had a positive family history of
163 dysmenorrhea.

164 Figure 1 shows that 91.2% (n = 330) of participants
165 experienced dysmenorrhea. Percentages of
166 dysmenorrhea severity and BMI categories are
167 presented in pie charts (Figures 2 and 3, respectively).

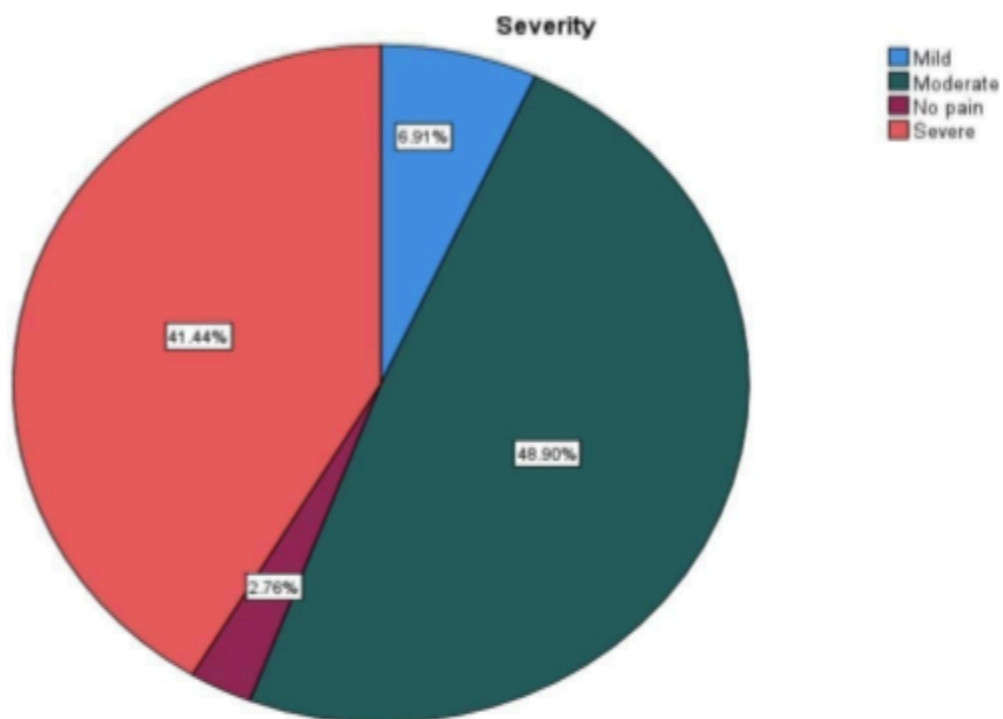
168
169 Chi-square analysis indicated that family history was the
170 primary factor associated with dysmenorrhea. No
171 statistically significant association was found between
172 BMI and the prevalence or severity of dysmenorrhea
173 (Tables 4 and 5, $p > 0.05$).

174
175 Other factors, including age at menarche, marital status, exercise, smoking, and
176 alcohol consumption, were not significantly associated with dysmenorrhea.

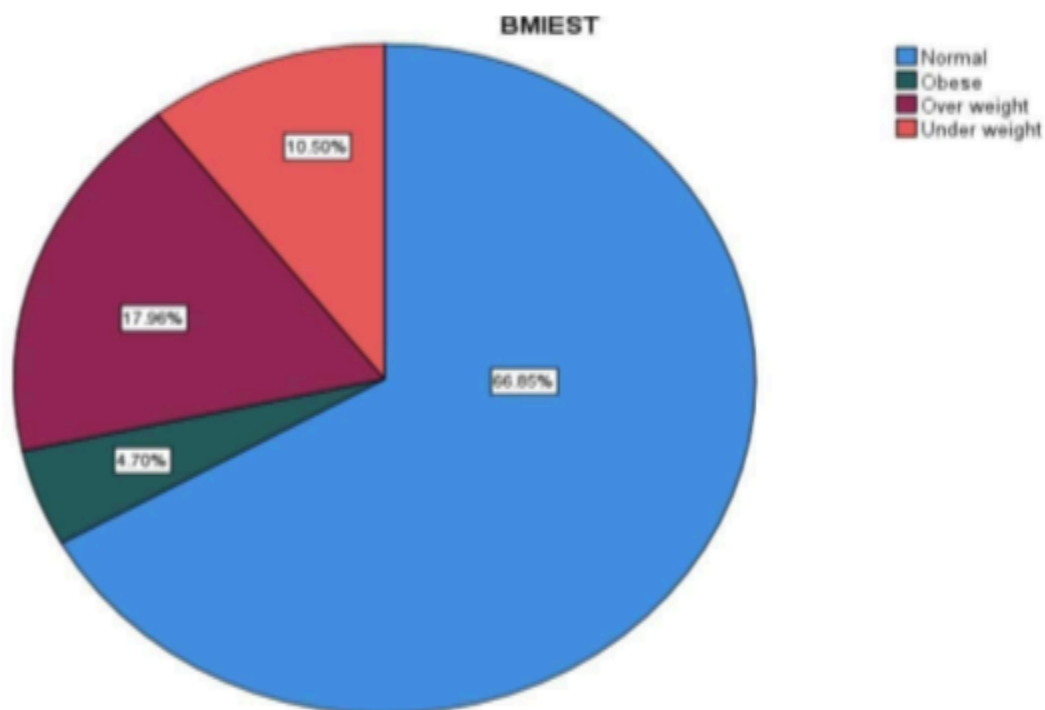
177 Figure 1: In this study, 91.2% of participants experienced dysmenorrhea,
whereas 8.8% did not.



174 Figure 2 shows that, among participants who
175 experienced pain, 7%, 49%, and 41% had mild,
176 moderate, and severe dysmenorrhea, respectively.



186 Figure 3 shows the distribution of BMI categories
187 among students, with 10%, 66%, 17%, and 4%
188 classified as underweight, normal weight, overweight,
189 and obese, respectively.



190

192 Most participants (236/362) were from the College of
193 Medicine at the University of Sulaimani. The majority
194 were single and reported a moderate economic
195 status (Table 1).

196

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| University | | |
| Sulaimani | 236 | 65.2% |
| Komar | 47 | 13% |
| Qaiwan | 4 | 1.1% |
| AUIS | 18 | 5% |
| Polytechnic | 23 | 6.4% |
| Human Development | 16 | 4.4% |
| Tishk | 13 | 3.6% |
| Cihan | 5 | 1.4% |
| Department | | |
| Medicine | 133 | 36.7% |
| Dentistry | 29 | 8% |
| Pharmacy | 18 | 5% |
| Nursing | 17 | 4.7% |
| Veterinary | 7 | 1.9% |
| Medical laboratory scientist | 19 | 5.2% |
| Engineering | 34 | 9.4% |
| Sciences | 14 | 3.9% |
| Law | 9 | 2.5% |
| Humanities | 7 | 1.9% |
| Other | 68 | 18.8% |
| Academic year | | |
| Stage 1 | 41 | 11.3% |
| Stage 2 | 62 | 17.1% |
| Stage 3 | 41 | 11.3% |
| Stage 4 | 160 | 44.2% |
| Stage 5 | 40 | 11% |
| Stage 6 | 18 | 5% |
| Marital Status | | |
| Single | 342 | 94.5% |
| Married | 19 | 5.2% |
| Divorced | 1 | 0.3% |
| Residency | | |
| Inside city | 269 | 74.3% |
| Outside city | 93 | 25.7% |
| Economic Status | | |
| Low | 9 | 2.5% |
| Moderate | 293 | 80.9% |
| High | 60 | 16.6% |

196 Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics of the
 197 Participants.

198
 199 Among the management strategies, the most
 200 commonly used methods were rest and sleep
 201 (72.6%), heat therapy (69.2%), and medication
 202 (52.5%) (Table 2).

203

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Age of menarche | | |
| 9_11 | | |
| 12_14 | | |
| 15_17 | | |
| 18_20 | | |
| Menstruate every month | | |
| Yes | | |
| No | | |
| Menstrual duration | | |
| 2_3 | | |
| 3_5 | | |
| 5_7 | | |
| More than 7 | | |
| Heaviness of blood loss | | |
| Light | | |
| Moderate | | |
| Heavy | | |
| Dysmenorrhea | | |
| Yes | | |
| No | | |
| Onset of menstrual pain | | |
| Before period | | |
| At the beginning of the period | | |
| At the end of the period | | |
| After period | | |
| Pain duration | | |
| Few hours | | |
| 1_2 days | | |
| More than 2 days | | |
| Site of pain | | |
| Lower abdomen | | |
| Back | | |
| Thighs | | |
| Other places | | |
| Type of pain | | |
| Cramp pain | | |
| Throbbing pain | | |
| Other | | |
| Management Strategies | | |
| Rest and Sleep | | |
| Heat | | |
| Medication | | |
| Herbal Medicine | | |
| Exercise | | |
| Other | | |
| Family history of dysmenorrhea | | |
| Yes | | |
| No | | |

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Lifestyle factors | | |
| Type of diet | | |
| Healthy diet | 35 | 9.7% |
| Mixed | 308 | 85.1% |
| Unhealthy diet | 19 | 5.2% |
| Exercise | | |
| Yes, frequently | 24 | 6.6% |
| Yes, occasionally | 166 | 45.9% |
| No | 172 | 47.5% |
| Smoking | | |
| Yes, frequently | 14 | 3.9% |
| Yes, occasionally | 20 | 5.5% |
| No | 328 | 90.6% |
| Alcohol consumption | | |
| Yes, frequently | 2 | 0.6% |
| Yes, occasionally | 12 | 3.3% |
| Never | 348 | 96.1% |
| Stress | | |
| Yes, highly stressed | 171 | 47.2% |
| Yes, moderately stressed | 163 | 45% |
| No | 28 | 7.7% |
| Mild or Persistent Depression | | |
| Yes | 337 | 93.9% |
| No | 22 | 6.1% |

199

200 **Table 2.** Menstrual Characteristics of the Participants.

201 Table 2 shows that most participants reported a
202 mixed diet (85.1%) and were non-smokers
203 (90.6%). The majority were non-alcohol consumers
204 (96.1%). However, many reported experiencing
205 stress (47.2%) and premenstrual mood swings and
206 depression (47.4%) (Table 3).

205

206

207 **Table 3.** Lifestyle Characteristics of the Participants.

208

209

210 Table 3 shows that the p-value for the association
 211 between dysmenorrhea prevalence and menstrual
 212 regularity was 0.01, indicating statistical
 213 significance. A strong association was also
 214 observed between dysmenorrhea prevalence and
 215 positive family history ($p = 0.001$).

| Dysmenorrhea | |
|--------------------------------|---------|
| Variable | P value |
| Marital Status | 0.92 |
| BMI_ESTIMATION | 0.468 |
| Menstruation | 0.01 |
| Age of menarche | 0.121 |
| Mood swing and Depression | 0.522 |
| Stress | 0.206 |
| Family history of dysmenorrhea | 0.001 |
| Menstrual duration | 0.06 |
| Heaviness of blood loss | 0.106 |
| Type of diet | 0.811 |
| Exercise | 0.885 |
| Smoking | 0.106 |
| Alcohol consumption | 0.905 |

217

Table 4. Factors Associated with Dysmenorrhea. 218
 Table 4 shows statistically significant
 219 associations between dysmenorrhea severity
 220 and the heaviness of menstrual blood loss ($p =$
 221 0.002), as well as family history of
 222 dysmenorrhea ($p = 0.006$).
 223

221

222

| Severity | |
|--------------------------------|---------|
| Variable | P value |
| Marital Status | 0.462 |
| BMI_ESTIMATION | 0.793 |
| Menstruation Irregularity | 0.57 |
| Age of menarche | 0.227 |
| Mood swing and Depression | 0.727 |
| Stress | 0.055 |
| Family history of dysmenorrhea | 0.006 |
| Menstrual duration | 0.583 |
| Heaviness of blood loss | 0.002 |
| Type of diet | 0.696 |
| Exercise | 0.281 |
| Smoking | 0.179 |
| Alcohol consumption | 0.637 |

223

224

225 Table 5. Factors Associated with the Severity of Dysmenorrhea.

226 The primary objective of this study was to
 227 determine the relationship between BMI and
 228 dysmenorrhea severity. As shown in Table 6,
 229 the mean BMI across all severity categories
 230 was within the normal range; however, the
 231 lowest mean BMI was observed among
 232 participants with severe dysmenorrhea.

233

229

230

| Severity of dysmenorrhea | BMI | |
|--------------------------|-------|--------------|
| | Mean | St.deviation |
| Mild | 23.21 | 3.76 |
| Moderate | 22.95 | 3.78 |
| Severe | 22.57 | 4.05 |
| No pain | 24.08 | 3.89 |

231

232

233 Table 6. Association Between Dysmenorrhea Severity and Mean BMI

234 **DISCUSSION**

235 Before or during menstruation, dysmenorrhea is a severe cramping feeling in the lower
236 abdomen that is frequently accompanied by headaches, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea,
237 and sweating [30]. It is a common gynecological issue that has a detrimental impact on
238 women's everyday activities and quality of life [11]. According to the results of our study,
239 91.2% of female college students in Sulaimani had dysmenorrhea. In line with our
240 findings, a research conducted in Jordan found that 90.1% of women had
241 dysmenorrhea [12]. A prospective study conducted on female college students in China
242 found that 56.4% of them had dysmenorrhea; the reason for this discrepancy in the
243 reported prevalence might be attributed to genetics, dietary differences, and cultural
244 attitudes in the various regions [21]. But it also needs to be taken into consideration that
245 this finding depends on the females' perception of pain. The most prevalent type of pain
246 reported by participants was cramping (96.3%). Additionally, the most frequent site of
247 pain for the majority of the female participants (92.7%) was lower abdomen; in a
248 research done in Northern Ethiopia amongst university students most participants also
249 reported the most frequent site of pain to be lower abdomen [13]. The most frequently
250 reported sites of pain beyond the lower abdomen were the back (73.7%) and thighs
251 (43.8%). While the lower abdomen is the primary location of cramping during
252 dysmenorrhea, radiating pain to the back and thighs is a recognized symptom. These

253 findings of our research align with the established symptoms of dysmenorrhea
254 described in medical literature. Furthermore, 58.5% of participants reported
255 experiencing the onset of menstrual pain premenstrually, which is consistent with the
256 typical pattern of dysmenorrhea pain starting before menstruation [34]. Positive family
257 history of dysmenorrhea ($p = 0.001$) was significantly associated with prevalence and
258 intensity of dysmenorrhea in our analysis and a similar result was obtained from India,
259 and Iran [14, 28]. Positive family history that is shown to be a risk factor for
260 dysmenorrhea could be due to genetic predisposition. It can also be due to visual
261 learning behavior between mother and daughter [22]. Our analysis concluded that there
262 was no significant association between BMI and dysmenorrhea according to results
263 obtained from the chi-square test we conducted and in two researches from Turkey and
264 Iran they also found no association between dysmenorrhea with BMI [19, 28]. On the
265 contrary, in a study in India they found them to be significant and related [18]. Also
266 according to our results the prevalence of dysmenorrhea was higher in those with
267 normal BMI, this goes along with a study done in Iran where they found that the
268 frequency of dysmenorrhea was higher in the normal weight group [16]. However this
269 finding is not consistent with a Japanese study where frequency of dysmenorrhea was
270 greatest amongst the underweight group [15]. And also not consistent with a study done
271 at a university in Turkey where they found the prevalence of primary dysmenorrhea to
272 be higher among young women who were overweight or obese [17]. These
273 discrepancies could be explained by the hypothesis that quality of diet and not just the
274 total calories leading to a certain BMI might be a more relevant factor in dysmenorrhea.
275 The link between BMI and dysmenorrhea might be influenced by diet composition within
276 each BMI category. For example, people with normal BMI who consume a healthy diet
277 might experience less dysmenorrhea compared to those with normal BMI who have a
278 diet high in processed foods and unhealthy fats. In fact, a cross-sectional study
279 amongst Iranian women concluded that high fruit and vegetable intake reduces the risk
280 of dysmenorrhea [28]. We also inquired about the dietary type of the participants, only
281 35 participants reported adherence to a healthy eating pattern.

282 This limited sample size for participants following a healthy diet restricted our ability to
283 further study any possible association between a healthy diet and the risk of

284 dysmenorrhea. In China, increased menstrual blood flow during menstruation has been
285 shown to be associated to severity of dysmenorrhea and this goes in accordance with
286 our highly significant association (p-value =0.002) that we found between heaviness of
287 blood loss and severity of dysmenorrhea amongst our research participants [21]. This
288 association might be due to the fact that the synthesis of prostaglandins in endometrial
289 tissue and prostaglandin release in menstrual fluid are both elevated in many of these
290 dysmenorrhea patients. The uterine muscle becomes uncontrollably hyperactive due to
291 an increase in prostaglandins, which causes uterine ischaemia and pain [33]. Therefore
292 heavier bleeding might be associated with a thicker endometrium potentially leading to
293 more prostaglandin and stronger contractions resulting in worse cramp and pain. Our
294 study also identified a significant association between irregularity of menstrual cycles
295 and dysmenorrhea prevalence (p-value=0.01). The participants with irregular menstrual
296 cycles experienced dysmenorrhea more. Previous research has also found irregular
297 menstrual cycles to be a significant risk factor for dysmenorrhea and this supports our
298 findings [36, 37]. Regular menstrual cycles depend on hormonal balance including
299 estrogen and progesterone; irregular cycles often indicate hormonal imbalance and this
300 imbalance can lead to overproduction of prostaglandins and enhance uterine
301 contractions and contribute to dysmenorrhea. In addition, both irregular cycles and
302 dysmenorrhea can happen due to an underlying gynecological disease like polycystic
303 ovarian syndrome, endometriosis,..etc. and this can also explain the association
304 between menstrual irregularity and dysmenorrhea. Our study also aligns with results
305 obtained from a study amongst female college students in Northern Ethiopia in finding
306 no significant association between age at first menarche and prevalence of
307 dysmenorrhea [13]. However, this contradicts findings from an Egyptian study amongst
308 adolescents [20]. The difference in age groups between our study and the Egyptian
309 research could be the reason for the conflicting results. The hormonal fluctuations that
310 occur in that period of life that could impact menstrual experiences potentially lead to
311 association between early menarche and dysmenorrhea in adolescents compared to
312 college students. Alcohol drinking has previously been associated with prevalence of
313 dysmenorrhea [13]. However, in this study no association was found between drinking
314 alcohol and prevalence or severity of dysmenorrhea, but the cause of no association

315 finding may be due to only 14 subjects submitting that they were alcohol consumers.
316 Exercise also showed no relation to prevalence and intensity of dysmenorrhea in our
317 study. A number of studies have also failed to find any relation between intensity of
318 dysmenorrhea and participation in exercise [13, 23, 25, 28]. A number of other studies
319 found that physically active groups reported lower prevalence of dysmenorrhea and
320 positive influence on dysmenorrhea; this could be due to exercise being a moderator of
321 stress and stress is known to increase sympathetic activity and to dysmenorrhea
322 through increasing severity of uterine contraction. Physical activity also causes release
323 of endorphins by the brain and this may increase pain threshold [24, 26]. Smoking also
324 showed no significant association with dysmenorrhea or its severity in our study
325 although it has been shown to be associated in two studies and a meta-analysis of
326 observational studies [25, 29, 31]. Yet, only 34 of our participants reported being
327 smokers and this may be the reason for the outcome of our analysis. A significant
328 portion of our subjects (premenstrually 47.4% and during menstruation 32.6%) reported
329 mood swings and depression. This aligns with this study showing pooled prevalence of
330 PMS worldwide was 47.8% [32].

331 These mental health symptoms can contribute to repetitive absenteeism reported in
332 previous research on school and work absences in this age group [2, 3, 4, 5, 29].
333 Among the management strategies employed by our subjects rest and sleep were
334 mostly used reported by 72.6% of the female participants. Heat therapy followed closely
335 with a prevalence of 69.2%. Medication use was reported by 52.5% of participants while
336 herbal remedies and exercise were used by 10.2% and 4.5% of participants,
337 respectively. Our findings suggest a preference for non-pharmaceutical management
338 strategies for dysmenorrhea amongst the participating female college students. In
339 addition, a high proportion of the females (41% severe, 49% moderate) reported
340 experiencing moderate to severe dysmenorrhea. This preference of non-pharmaceutical
341 approaches could have a potential association with this finding because medication
342 drugs like NSAIDs are highly effective in treating dysmenorrhea [35].

343

344 **Strengths and Limitations:**

345 Our research design employed several strategies to ensure the validity and reliability of
346 the findings. The most important point of our survey is that this is the first study to
347 explore the relationship between dysmenorrhea and BMI in this region, thus it will serve
348 as a reference for future research and programs. In addition, this study sheds light on
349 an important health issue that affects the quality of female students' lives, and if it
350 becomes severe it might lead to inefficiency. The Visual Analogue Scale (VAS), a
351 standard pain assessment tool for assessing the severity of dysmenorrhea, was one of
352 the comprehensive data collection methods used in our study. We also measured
353 participant height and weight using a scale to obtain a reliable estimate of BMI, and the
354 majority of our questionnaires (n = 212) were given to participants in printed paper. Two
355 languages, English and Kurdish (local language) were used to write the questionnaire in
356 order to make it easier for respondents to understand. To comprehensively evaluate the
357 findings, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of this study. This study was
358 restricted to the area of Sulaymaniyah, Iraq. Future studies can be designed with a
359 broader scope to encompass a larger region within Kurdistan to enhance
360 generalizability. Furthermore, data collection time constraints limited the sample size.
361 Also, the study relied on self-reported data, which can be susceptible to biases like
362 social desirability or recall bias. A convenience sampling technique was employed,
363 potentially limiting the representativeness of the sample. A formal sample size
364 calculation was not performed. Future studies can benefit from a priori sample size
365 calculation to ensure adequate statistical power. This study employed a cross-sectional
366 design, which cannot establish causal relationships between variables. The study
367 participants were all university students. Future research can be designed to include
368 participants with varying educational backgrounds. Further studies and research need
369 to be conducted to explore these potential connections and to confirm the findings.

370

371 **Conclusion**

372 This study demonstrated that dysmenorrhea is highly prevalent among the participants,

373 highlighting its relevance as a public health concern in young female populations.

374 The analysis showed no statistically significant association between dysmenorrhea

375 and body mass index, marital status, mood changes, or depressive symptoms.

376 In contrast, chronic illness and a positive family history were significantly related

377 to the occurrence of dysmenorrhea. Additionally, the average BMI values were
378 within the normal range across all pain severity categories,
379 including those without symptoms, indicating no observable relationship between
380 BMI and dysmenorrhea severity. Future research with broader samples and improved designs
381 is recommended to validate and further explore these outcomes.

382 **Recommendations**

383 We recommended that further research should be conducted on the relationship
384 between dysmenorrhea and BMI, to find the exact cause and risk factor of
385 dysmenorrhea, and also to find management of dysmenorrhea. Further studies on
386 greater sample size, involving people from both public and private institutions and using
387 random techniques in selecting sample size in order for the results and outcomes
388 become more accurate. General awareness about dysmenorrhea being published
389 among the population, to attend to the condition. Health education programs regarding
390 menstruation, proper nutrition and healthy lifestyle should be established in the schools
391 to give students age-appropriate information regarding these important issues.

392

393 **Consent and Ethical Approval**

394 This study was approved by the Ethics
395 Committee of the College of Medicine,
396 University of Sulaimani. The study was
397 conducted in accordance with international
398 guidelines and the 2008 Declaration of
399 Helsinki. Written Informed consent was obtained
400 from all participants. Participants were assured
401 of the confidentiality of their personal
information, 402 and participation was voluntary.

403

402

403 **Availability of data:**

404 The data used to support the findings of this study are included within the article.

405 **Competing interests**

406 The authors confirm that there are no competing interests.

417 **References**

418 1. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Dysmenorrhea: Painful Periods.
419 (2022). Available at: <https://www.acog.org/womens-health/faqs/dysmenorrhea-painful-periods>
420 (Accessed: 18 April 2024).

421 2. Burnett MA, Antao V, Black A, Feldman K, Grenville A, Lea R, Lefebvre G, Pinsonneault O,
422 Robert M. Prevalence of primary dysmenorrhea in Canada. *Journal of Obstetrics and*
423 *Gynaecology Canada*. 2005 Aug 1;27(8):765-70.

424 3. Ferries-Rowe E, Corey E, Archer JS. Primary dysmenorrhea: diagnosis and therapy.
425 *Obstetrics & Gynecology*. 2020 Nov 1;136(5):1047-58.

- 426 4. Dawood, YM., Dysmenorrhea, Glob Libr Womens Med Website. (2008) Available at:
427 <https://www.glowm.com/section-view/heading/Dysmenorrhea/item/9#.YHevoBNKjOQ>
428 (Accessed: 18 April 2024)
- 429 5. MacGregor B, Allaire C, Bedaiwy MA, Yong PJ, Bougie O. Disease burden of dysmenorrhea:
430 Impact on life course potential. *International journal of women's health*. 2023 Dec 31:499-509.
- 431 6. Armour M, Parry K, Manohar N, Holmes K, Ferfolja T, Curry C, MacMillan F, Smith CA. The
432 prevalence and academic impact of dysmenorrhea in 21,573 young women: a systematic
433 review and meta-analysis. *Journal of women's health*. 2019 Aug 1;28(8):1161-71.
- 434 7. World Health Organization (WHO). Obesity and Overweight. World Health Organization.
435 2024. Available at: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight>
- 436 8. Al Tawil NG, Abdulla MM, Abdul Ameer AJ. Prevalence of and factors associated with
437 overweight and obesity among a group of Iraqi women. *EMHJ-Eastern Mediterranean Health*
438 *Journal*, 13 (2), 420-429, 2007. 2007.
- 439 9. Docanto MM, Ham S, Corbould A, Brown KA. Obesity-associated inflammatory cytokines and
440 prostaglandin E2 stimulate glucose transporter mRNA expression and glucose uptake in
441 primary human adipose stromal cells. *Journal of Interferon & Cytokine Research*. 2015 Aug
442 1;35(8):600-5.
- 443 10. Amirkhani Z, Akhlaghdoust M, RABIE SG, Jangholi E, SADEGHI MR, Ghenaat F, Zarbati N,
444 Jafarabadi M. Relation between fluoxetine and menstrual cycle disorders.
- 445 11. Wong LP. Attitudes towards dysmenorrhoea, impact and treatment seeking among
446 adolescent girls: A rural school-based survey. *Australian Journal of Rural Health*. 2011
447 Aug;19(4):218-23.
- 448 12. Mukattash TL, Tahaineh L, AlRawi N, Jarab A, Hammad H, Nuseir K. Behaviors and
449 attitudes towards dysmenorrhea; a crosssectional survey of 2,000 jordanian university students.
450 *Jordan Medical Journal*. 2013 Mar 31;47(1):26-34.
- 451 13. Yesuf TA, Eshete NA, Sisay EA. Dysmenorrhea among university health science students,
452 northern Ethiopia: impact and associated factors. *International Journal of Reproductive*
453 *Medicine*. 2018 Jan 21;2018.

- 454 14. Kiran B, Sandozi T, Akila L, Chakraborty A, Meherban RR. A study of the prevalence,
455 severity and treatment of dysmenorrhoea in medical and nursing students. *Int J Pharm Bio Sci.*
456 2012 Jan;3(1):P161-70.
- 457 15. Hirata M, Kumabe K, Inoue Y. Relationship between the frequency of menstrual pain and
458 bodyweight in female adolescents. [*Nihon koshu eisei zasshi*] *Japanese Journal of Public*
459 *Health.* 2002 Jun 1;49(6):516-24.
- 460 16. Khodakarami B, Masoomi SZ, Faradmal J, Nazari M, Saadati M, Sharifi F, Shakhbabaei M.
461 The severity of dysmenorrhea and its relationship with body mass index among female
462 adolescents in Hamadan, Iran. *Journal of midwifery and reproductive health.* 2015 Oct
463 1;3(4):444-50.
- 464 17. Aktaş D, Külcü DP, Şahin E. The relationships between primary dysmenorrhea with body
465 mass index and nutritional habits in young women. *J Educ Res Nurs.* 2023 Jun 1;20(2):143-9.
- 466 18. Chauhan M, Kala J. Relation between dysmenorrhea and body mass index in adolescents
467 with rural versus urban variation. *The journal of obstetrics and gynecology of India.* 2012
468 Aug;62:442-5].
- 469 19. Gujral T. Association of primary dysmenorrhea with stress and BMI among undergraduate
470 female students-a cross sectional study. *Turkish Journal of Physiotherapy and Rehabilitation.*
471 2022 Jun 16;32(3).
- 472 20. Mohamed EM. Epidemiology of dysmenorrhea among adolescent students in Assiut City,
473 Egypt. *Life Sci J.* 2012;9(1):348-53.
- 474 21. Zhou H, Yang Z. Prevalence of dysmenorrhea in female students in a Chinese university: a
475 prospective study. *Health.* 2010;2(4):311-4.
- 476 22. Aktaş D. Prevalence and factors affecting dysmenorrhea in female university students:
477 effect on general comfort level. *Pain Management Nursing.* 2015 Aug 1;16(4):534-43.
- 478 23. Blakey H, Chisholm C, Dear F, Harris B, Hartwell R, Daley AJ, Jolly K. Is exercise
479 associated with primary dysmenorrhoea in young women?. *BJOG: An International Journal of*
480 *Obstetrics & Gynaecology.* 2010 Jan;117(2):222-4.
- 481 24. Izzo A, Labriola D. Dysmenorrhoea and sports activities in adolescents. *Clinical and*
482 *experimental obstetrics & gynecology.* 1991 Jan 1;18(2):109-16.

- 483 25. Kritz-Silverstein D, Wingard DL, Garland FC. The association of behavior and lifestyle
484 factors with menstrual symptoms. *Journal of women's health & gender-based medicine*. 1999
485 Nov;8(9):1185-93.
- 486 26. Mahvash N, Eidy A, Mehdi K, Zahra MT, Mani M, Shahla H. The effect of physical activity on
487 primary dysmenorrhea of female university students. *World Applied Sciences Journal*.
488 2012;17(10):1246-52.
- 489 27. Wang L, Wang X, Wang W, Chen C, Ronnennberg AG, Guang W, Huang A, Fang Z, Zang
490 T, Xu X. Stress and dysmenorrhoea: a population based prospective study. *Occupational and
491 environmental medicine*. 2004 Dec 1;61(12):1021-6.
- 492 28. Tavallae M, Joffres MR, Corber SJ, Bayanzadeh M, Rad MM. The prevalence of menstrual
493 pain and associated risk factors among Iranian women. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology
494 Research*. 2011 May;37(5):442-51.
- 495 29. Burnett MA, Antao V, Black A, Feldman K, Grenville A, Lea R, Lefebvre G, Pinsonneault O,
496 Robert M. Prevalence of primary dysmenorrhea in Canada. *Journal of Obstetrics and
497 Gynaecology Canada*. 2005 Aug 1;27(8):765-70.
- 498 30. Lobo RA, Gershenson DM, Lentz GM, Valea FA. *Comprehensive gynecology E-book*.
499 Elsevier Health Sciences; 2016 Jun 22.
- 500 31. Qin LL, Hu Z, Kaminga AC, Luo BA, Xu HL, Feng XL, Liu JH. Association between cigarette
501 smoking and the risk of dysmenorrhea: A meta-analysis of observational studies. *PloS one*.
502 2020 Apr 15;15(4):e0231201.
- 503 32. Direkvand-Moghadam A, Sayehmiri K, Delpisheh A, Kaikhavandi S. Epidemiology of
504 premenstrual syndrome (PMS)-a systematic review and meta-analysis study. *Journal of clinical
505 and diagnostic research: JCDR*. 2014 Feb;8(2):106.
- 506 33. Dawood MY. Dysmenorrhoea and prostaglandins: pharmacological and therapeutic
507 considerations. *Drugs*. 1981 Jul;22(1):42-56.
- 508 34. Viljoen MJ. *General Nursing-Medical and Surgical Textbook*. Pearson South Africa; 1988.
- 509 35. Gumanga SK, Kwame-Aryee R. Prevalence and severity of dysmenorrhoea among some
510 adolescent girls in a secondary school in Accra, Ghana. *Postgraduate medical journal of Ghana*.
511 2012;1(1):9-14.

- 512 36. Alim¹ RZ, Annas BU. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DURATION AND REGULARITY OF
513 MENSTRUAL CYCLE WITH PRIMARY DYSMENORRHEA IN ADOLESCENTS.
- 514 37. Acheampong K, Baffour-Awuah D, Ganu D, Appiah S, Pan X, Kaminga A, Liu A. Prevalence
515 and predictors of dysmenorrhea, its effect, and coping mechanisms among adolescents in Shai
516 Osudoku District, Ghana. *Obstetrics and gynecology international*. 2019 May 20;2019.
- 517 38. Ramaiah P, Albokhary AA. Muscle Relaxation Strategies on Dysmenorrhea: An
Interventional Study. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Research International*. 2021 Apr
20;79–8