

No XXX Month, Year (Replaces No 169, December 2005)

**Primary Dysmenorrhea Consensus Guideline**

*This Clinical Practice Guideline has been prepared and reviewed by the Society of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists of Canada (SOGC) Clinical Practice-Gynaecology and CANPAGO Committees and approved by the Board of the SOGC.*

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**DISCLOSURE STATEMENT**

Disclosure statements have been received from all members of the committees.

**DISCLAIMERS**

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Women have the right and responsibility to make informed decisions about their care in partnership with their health care providers. In order to facilitate informed choice women should be provided with information and support that is evidence based, culturally appropriate and

46 tailored to their needs. The values, beliefs and individual needs of each woman and her family  
47 should be sought and the final decision about the care and treatment options chosen by the  
48 woman should be respected.

49

50 **Abbreviations:**

- 51 CAM: Complementary and Alternative Therapies  
52 CHC: Combined hormonal contraceptives  
53 COC: Combined oral contraceptive  
54 COX: Cyclooxygenase  
55 DMPA: Depot medroxyprogesterone acetate  
56 GnRH: Gonadotropin-releasing hormone  
57 hfTENS: High frequency transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation  
58 lfTENS: Low frequency transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation  
59 LN-IUS: Levonorgestrel intrauterine system  
60 LUNA: Laparoscopic uterosacral nerve ablation  
61 NSAIDs: Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs  
62 PSN: Pre-sacral neurectomy  
63 RCT: Randomized controlled trial  
64 TENS: Transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation  
65

66 **Abstract**

67 **Objective:** This guideline reviews the investigation and treatment of primary dysmenorrhea.

68 **Intended Users:** Health care providers

69 **Target Population:** Women and adolescents experiencing menstrual pain for which no  
70 underlying cause has been identified.

71 **Evidence:** Published clinical trials, population studies and review articles cited in PubMed or the  
72 Cochrane database from January 2005 to March 2016.

73 **Validation methods:** Seven clinical questions were generated by the authors and reviewed by  
74 the SOGC Clinical Gynecology Committee. The available literature was searched. Guideline  
75 No. 169 was reviewed and rewritten in order to incorporate current evidence. Recommendations  
76 addressing the identified clinical questions were formulated and evaluated using the ranking of  
77 the Canadian Task Force on Preventative Health Care (Table 1).

78 **Benefits, harms and costs:** Primary dysmenorrhea is common and frequently undertreated.  
79 Effective therapy is widely available at minimal cost. Treatment has the potential to improve  
80 quality of life and to decrease time lost from school or work.

81 **Guideline update:** This guideline is a revision and update of No. 169, December 2005.

82 **Sponsors:** SOGC.

83

84 **Keywords:** Primary dysmenorrhea, secondary dysmenorrhea, pelvic pain, menstrual pain,  
85 endometriosis, menorrhagia, management of dysmenorrhea.

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89**Table 1: Key to evidence statements and grading of recommendations, using the ranking of the Canadian Task Force on Preventative Health Care**

Quality of Evidence Assessment*	Classification of Recommendations†
<p>I: Evidence obtained from at least one properly randomized controlled trial</p> <p>II-1: Evidence from well-designed controlled trials without randomization</p> <p>II-2: Evidence from well-designed cohort (prospective or retrospective) or case-control studies, preferably from more than one centre or research group</p> <p>II-3: Evidence obtained from comparisons between times or places with or without the intervention. Dramatic results in uncontrolled experiments (such as the results of treatment with penicillin in the 1940s) could also be included in the category</p> <p>III: Opinions of respected authorities, based on clinical experience, descriptive studies, or reports of expert committees</p>	<p>A. There is good evidence to recommend the clinical preventive action</p> <p>B. There is fair evidence to recommend the clinical preventive action</p> <p>C. The existing evidence is conflicting and does not allow to make a recommendation for or against use of the clinical preventive action; however, other factors may influence decision-making</p> <p>D. There is fair evidence to recommend against the clinical preventive action</p> <p>E. There is good evidence to recommend against the clinical preventive action</p> <p>I. There is insufficient evidence (in quantity or quality) to make a recommendation; however, other factors may influence decision-making</p>
<p>* The quality of evidence reported in these guidelines has been adapted from The Evaluation of Evidence criteria described in the Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care.</p> <p>† Recommendations included in these guidelines have been adapted from the Classification of recommendations criteria described in The Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care.</p>	

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92 **SUMMARY STATEMENTS:**

- 93 1. Dysmenorrhea is highly prevalent and commonly undertreated. (III)
- 94 2. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents are more effective than placebo but have more  
95 gastrointestinal side effects. All currently available NSAIDs are of comparable efficacy  
96 and safety. (I)
- 97 3. Suppression of ovulation is associated with decreased menstrual pain. (II-1)
- 98 4. Amenorrhea induced by any means is beneficial for treatment of dysmenorrhea. (II-2)
- 99 5. Hysterectomy is effective treatment. (II-2)
- 100 6. There is some evidence to support laparoscopic nerve ablation in selected cases. (II-1 )
- 101 7. Endometrial ablation is likely to reduce symptoms of dysmenorrhea when it occurs in the  
102 presence of menorrhagia. (I)

103

104 **RECOMMENDATIONS:**

- 105 1. Both primary and secondary dysmenorrhea are likely to respond to the same medical  
106 therapy. Therefore, initiation of treatment should not depend on establishing a precise  
107 diagnosis. (II-1, A)
- 108 2. Health care providers should include specific questions regarding menstrual pain when  
109 obtaining a woman's medical history. (III-B)
- 110 3. A pelvic examination is not necessary prior to initiating therapy. (III-D)
- 111 4. A pelvic examination is indicated in patients not responding to conventional therapy and  
112 when organic pathology is suspected. (III-B)
- 113 5. NSAIDs, administered with regular dosing regimens, should be considered first-line  
114 treatment for most women. (I-A)

- 115 6. Hormonal therapies should be offered to women and girls who are not currently planning  
116 pregnancy unless contraindications exist. (I-A)
- 117 7. Continuous or extended use CHCs are recommended. (I-A)
- 118 8. Regular exercise is likely to improve symptoms of dysmenorrhea and should be  
119 recommended. (II-1, A)
- 120 9. Local heat in the form of heated pads or patches should be recommended as a  
121 complementary treatment for dysmenorrhea. (I, A)
- 122 10. High frequency TENS should be considered as a complementary treatment or in women  
123 unable or unwilling to use conventional therapy. (II-1, B)
- 124 11. Accupoint stimulation should be considered for women wishing to use complementary or  
125 alternative therapies. (II-1, B)
- 126 12. Ginger is recommended for women wishing to use complementary or alternative  
127 therapies. (I, A)
- 128 13. Pre-operative investigations should include a detailed history and physical examination,  
129 ultrasound, and, possibly MRI in order to discover secondary causes for dysmenorrhea  
130 and to direct appropriate therapy. (III, A)
- 131 14. Surgical intervention should only be considered if a concerted trial of medical therapy  
132 has not been successful. (III, A)
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134                                    **SECTION 1: DEFINITION AND PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**

135    “Dysmenorrhea” is derived from a Greek root meaning difficult menstrual flow.    Primary  
136    dysmenorrhea is defined as pain occurring with menses in the absence of pelvic pathology.  
137    Secondary dysmenorrhea is menstrual pain associated with underlying pelvic pathology such as  
138    endometriosis. Primary dysmenorrhea usually begins in adolescence after the establishment of  
139    ovulatory cycles<sup>1,2</sup>. Ovulatory cycles are thought to be associated with painful uterine  
140    contractions triggered by progesterone withdrawal at the beginning of menses<sup>3</sup>. These  
141    contractions result in uterine ischemia causing pain modulated and augmented by prostaglandins  
142    . Uterine contractions may last many minutes and sometimes produce uterine pressures greater  
143    than 60 mm Hg. Multiple other factors may play a role in the perception and the severity of the  
144    pain<sup>1</sup>.

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146                                    **SECTION 2: RISK FACTORS**

147    Dysmenorrhea is the most common gynaecological symptom reported by women. Ninety  
148    percent of women presenting for primary care experience some menstrual pain<sup>4</sup>. Population  
149    surveys suggest that, although prevalence rates vary considerably by geographical location,  
150    complaints of dysmenorrhea are widespread in diverse populations<sup>5-11</sup>. One third to one half of  
151    these women report moderate or severe symptoms. Symptoms are frequently associated with  
152    time lost from school, work and other activities<sup>12</sup>. In spite of the frequency and severity of  
153    dysmenorrhea, most women do not seek medical treatment for this condition<sup>5, 13</sup>.

154



155 Age is inversely related to menstrual pain<sup>13</sup> with symptoms being more pronounced in  
156 adolescents.<sup>10, 13, 14</sup> There is some evidence that parous women tend to have less  
157 dysmenorrhea<sup>7, 14-17</sup>.

158  
159 Smoking aggravates menstrual pain<sup>13, 14, 16, 18, 19</sup>. A recent prospective study found that  
160 dysmenorrhea is also associated with exposure to environmental tobacco smoke<sup>20</sup>.

161  
162 There is some evidence that frequent life changes, fewer social supports, and stressful close  
163 relationships are associated with dysmenorrhea<sup>21</sup>. There may be an increased prevalence of  
164 dysmenorrhea in lower socioeconomic groups<sup>4</sup>. Mood disorders are associated with primary  
165 dysmenorrhea<sup>22</sup> as is pain hypersensitivity<sup>23</sup>.

### 168 **SECTION 3: DIAGNOSIS / DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS / INVESTIGATIONS**

#### 169 170 **DIAGNOSIS OF PRIMARY DYSMENORRHEA**

171 Typically, primary dysmenorrhea is characterized by crampy, suprapubic pain that begins  
172 between a few hours before and a few hours after the onset of the menstrual bleeding.  
173 Symptoms peak with maximum blood flow<sup>24</sup> and may persist up to 2 to 3 days. Symptoms are  
174 more or less reproducible from one menstrual period to the other<sup>25</sup>. The pain is characteristically  
175 colicky and located in the midline of the lower abdomen but may also be described as dull and  
176 may extend to both lower quadrants, the lumbar area, or the thighs. Associated symptoms

177 include diarrhea, nausea and vomiting, fatigue, light-headedness, headache, dizziness and, rarely,  
 178 syncope and fever<sup>24, 26-29</sup>. These symptoms have been attributed to prostaglandin release<sup>1, 2</sup>.

179  
 180 Adolescents may experience menstrual pain with their first periods without any demonstrable  
 181 underlying cause, especially when the bleeding is heavy and accompanied by clots<sup>26</sup>. However,  
 182 onset of dysmenorrhea with menarche should alert the physician to the possibility of an  
 183 obstructing malformation of the genital tract.

184  
 185 ***Differential diagnosis***

186 The differential diagnosis of primary dysmenorrhea is summarized in Table 2. Endometriosis is  
 187 the most frequent cause of secondary dysmenorrhea. In adolescent girls undergoing laparoscopy  
 188 for chronic pelvic pain not responding to NSAIDs and oral contraceptives, endometriosis is  
 189 found in approximately 70%<sup>30</sup>. Non-gynecological causes of chronic pelvic pain, including  
 190 pelvic adhesions, inflammatory bowel diseases, irritable bowel syndrome, interstitial cystitis, and  
 191 psychiatric disorders, may be more symptomatic during menses<sup>22</sup>.

<b>Table 2.</b> Differential diagnosis of dysmenorrhea
Primary dysmenorrhea
Secondary dysmenorrhea <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Endometriosis</li> <li>• Adenomyosis</li> <li>• Uterine myomas</li> <li>• Cervical stenosis</li> <li>• Obstructive lesions of the genital tract</li> </ul>
Other causes of menstrual pain may include <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pelvic inflammatory disease</li> <li>• Pelvic adhesions</li> <li>• Irritable bowel syndrome</li> <li>• Inflammatory bowel disease</li> <li>• Interstitial cystitis</li> <li>• Mood Disorders</li> </ul>

- Myofascial pain

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**CLINICAL APPROACH**

***History***

Many women consider menstrual pain, even severe and incapacitating, as inevitable. They may not seek medical assistance and frequently do not make use of the therapies that are available.<sup>13,</sup>  
<sup>26</sup> When a health care provider identifies menstrual pain on history, an attempt should then be made to differentiate between primary and secondary dysmenorrhea. Menstrual history should include age at menarche, length and regularity of cycles, amount of bleeding and length of time elapsed between menarche and the beginning of dysmenorrhea. Dysmenorrhea occurring with menarche may indicate a Mullerian anomaly. The pain should be clearly defined in terms of type, location, radiation, and associated symptoms, as well as the chronology of the onset of pain in relation to menstrual bleeding. The severity and duration of symptoms, the progression over time, and the degree of the patient’s disability should be established. Significant gastrointestinal or urinary symptoms or the presence of pelvic pain not related to the menstrual cycle may suggest non-gynecological causes of pelvic pain.

In obtaining a thorough history, it is important to inquire about sexual activity, dyspareunia, and contraception. Adolescents may use dysmenorrhea as a pretext to obtain contraception<sup>28</sup>. Past obstetric and gynaecologic history, in particular, sexually transmitted infections, pelvic infection, infertility, sexual violence and pelvic surgery, as well as other medical and psychiatric problems should be recorded (Table 3).

214 The patient should also be asked about all types of therapy tried in the past. Since many patients  
215 do not use medication in adequate doses, it is essential to inquire about the way medication was  
216 utilized. Campbell and McGrath report that in a group of high school girls aged 14 to 21 years  
217 using over-the-counter medications for menstrual discomfort, only 31% took the recommended  
218 daily dosage. Of those using a prescription drug, 13% reported using less than the prescribed  
219 dose. In the same study, participants waited a median of 30 minutes after the onset of pain  
220 before taking their medication and only 16% of them took it prophylactically<sup>31</sup>.

**Table 3.** Dysmenorrhea History Checklist

1. Menstrual history
2. Relationship between menarche and onset of dysmenorrhea
3. Timing of pain in relation to menses and amount of menstrual flow
4. Characterization, severity, chronology and resulting disability
5. Sexual history including inquiry as to sexual abuse
6. Inquiry about chronic pain syndromes and medical conditions
7. Presence of symptoms of depression, anxiety or other psychiatric disorders
8. Previous treatment including dose, duration of use, side effects and response

221

## 222 **PHYSICAL EXAMINATION**

223 An abdominal examination should be done in every patient to rule out palpable pathology. In a  
224 woman who has never been sexually active and presents with a typical history primary  
225 dysmenorrhea, pelvic examination is not necessary<sup>25-28</sup>. Some authors recommend inspecting the  
226 external genitalia of all patients to exclude an abnormality of the hymen<sup>27</sup>. On the other hand,  
227 when history is suggestive of organic disease or congenital malformation of the genital tract, and  
228 when the patient does not respond to the conventional therapy of primary dysmenorrhea, a pelvic  
229 examination is indicated.

230

## 231 **INVESTIGATIONS**

232 Laboratory testing or imaging is not generally helpful in the diagnosis of primary dysmenorrhea.  
233 There is no evidence for the routine use of ultrasound in the initial evaluation of dysmenorrhea.  
234 For women who suffer from dysmenorrhea refractory to first-line therapy, or in women who  
235 have a clinical abnormality on physical examination, ultrasound may help to identify causes of  
236 secondary dysmenorrhea. In adolescents, in whom a pelvic examination is impossible or  
237 unsatisfactory, ultrasound may uncover a pelvic mass or an obstructing müllerian malformation.  
238 Ultrasonography cannot detect subtle signs of organic disease such as utero-sacral ligament  
239 tenderness or nodules and cervical motion tenderness.

240  
241 Magnetic resonance imaging is a promising diagnostic tool for fibroids, adenomyosis, deep  
242 endometriosis and uterine anomalies. This expensive test should be reserved for investigation of  
243 recalcitrant cases of dysmenorrhea that do not respond to 3-6 months of adequate therapy.<sup>32, 33</sup>

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246 Endometriosis may be associated with an elevated Ca125 level and a negative test has sometimes  
247 been used as a surrogate marker for primary dysmenorrhea<sup>34</sup>. However, because of its low  
248 sensitivity and specificity, Ca125 is not recommended in the absence of an adnexal mass.

249  
250 Laparoscopy is used to establish a definite diagnosis of endometriosis, pelvic inflammatory  
251 disease, or pelvic adhesions. It should be performed when these pathologies are strongly  
252 suspected and when a reasonable trial of medical therapy has failed. In adolescent girls not  
253 responding to therapy, diagnostic laparoscopy should not be unduly postponed as the prognosis  
254 for pain control in endometriosis may be improved by an early diagnosis<sup>35</sup>. Gynaecologists are

255 usually experienced with the laparoscopic diagnosis of endometriosis in adult women. In  
256 adolescents, however, the appearance of endometriotic implants may have variable morphology.  
257 In these younger patients, red flame, white and clear lesions are seen more frequently than the  
258 classical blue-black and powder burns lesions found in adults<sup>36</sup>. Laufer has proposed that using  
259 fluid as a distension medium during laparoscopy facilitates the identification of clear lesions that  
260 may be missed with conventional laparoscopic techniques<sup>37</sup>. Biopsies of visible lesions,  
261 especially when atypical, are recommended in order to have histological confirmation of the  
262 diagnosis.

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## 264 **SECTION 4: MEDICAL TREATMENT**

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### 266 **NON-HORMONAL MEDICAL THERAPY**

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#### 268 **ACETAMINOPHEN**

269 Acetaminophen is an analgesic that that acts as a weak COX inhibitor in the presence of high  
270 peroxide concentrations present in inflammatory tissues. It acts centrally and produces analgesia  
271 by raising the pain threshold. Acetaminophen has good gastrointestinal tolerance and no  
272 inhibition of hemostasis. A randomized trial published in 2007, showed acetaminophen and  
273 acetaminophen with caffeine to be superior to placebo in the treatment of primary  
274 dysmenorrhea<sup>38</sup>. Acetaminophen and pamabrom in combination are marketed for the temporary  
275 relief of dysmenorrhea. Pamabrom is a mild, short-acting diuretic that relieves water retention.  
276 There is some evidence supporting the use of acetaminophen with pamabrom.<sup>39</sup>

277

278 **NON-STERIODAL ANTI-INFLAMATORY DRUGS (NSAIDS)**

279 Uterine prostaglandin overproduction is thought to be a contributing factor to the pain of  
280 dysmenorrhea. NSAIDs are analgesics which inhibit the COX enzymes, thereby, inhibiting the  
281 peripheral production of prostaglandins. In a recent Cochrane review, NSAIDs were found to  
282 be consistently more effective than placebo although adverse effects were significantly more  
283 common<sup>40</sup>. When NSAIDs were compared with each other, there was little evidence of  
284 superiority with regard to either efficacy or safety. Women taking NSAIDs were significantly  
285 less likely to report restriction of daily activities and absenteeism from work or school compared  
286 to women taking placebo.

287  
288 If effective treatment is initiated with the onset of bleeding and/or associated symptoms, NSAIDs  
289 are usually not required for more than 2 or 3 days. Recommended dosing includes starting with  
290 an initial loading dose followed by regular, scheduled dosing up to the recommended daily  
291 maximum.

292

293 **HORMONAL TREATMENT**

294

295 **COMBINED HORMONAL CONTRACEPTIVES (CHC)**

296 Dysmenorrhea responds favourably to inhibition of ovulation. The combined oral contraceptive  
297 (COC) suppresses ovulation and endometrial tissue growth, thereby decreasing menstrual fluid  
298 volume and prostaglandin secretion<sup>41-43</sup> with subsequent decreases in intrauterine pressure<sup>42</sup> and  
299 uterine cramping<sup>44</sup>. CHC use is consistently associated with a lower prevalence of  
300 dysmenorrhea. Multiple observational studies support this association<sup>13, 45-52</sup>. A 2004 Cochrane

301 review, including four randomized trials, determined that COCs with 35mcg of ethinyl estradiol  
302 were superior to placebo for menstrual pain relief. Treatment with COC compared to placebo  
303 did significantly reduce absences from work or school<sup>53</sup>. In a randomized controlled trial,  
304 Hendrix demonstrated a significant reduction in painful menstrual cramping in users of a COC  
305 containing 20 mcg of ethinyl estradiol compared with placebo<sup>54</sup>. Similarly, Harada et al.  
306 confirmed that a low dose COC was superior to placebo in the treatment of dysmenorrhea<sup>55</sup>.

307  
308 Extended cycle or continuous CHC may have a number of advantages, including a decreased  
309 prevalence of dysmenorrhea<sup>56-58</sup>. A randomized trial by Dmitrovic and Kunselman compared  
310 continuous versus cyclical oral contraceptive regimens and used dysmenorrhea as the primary  
311 treatment outcome. In this well-designed study, the COC was shown to be significantly more  
312 effective when used in a continuous manner<sup>59</sup>. A recent Cochrane review concluded that  
313 continuous and extended use CHC regimens were superior to cyclical regimens for pain relief in  
314 dysmenorrhea<sup>60</sup>.

315  
316 It is important to note that many of these trials did not differentiate between primary and  
317 secondary dysmenorrhea. Hormonal contraceptives appear to be efficacious in both. In a  
318 secondary analysis of two randomized trials, the COC was shown to be beneficial even in those  
319 women who were subsequently found to have an underlying organic cause for their pain<sup>61</sup>. In  
320 general, hormonal treatments for primary dysmenorrhea tend to be effective treatment for those  
321 conditions that produce secondary dysmenorrhea. Therefore, it is reasonable to maximize  
322 medical treatment in all women complaining of dysmenorrhea without awaiting the results of  
323 further investigations even if organic pathology is suspected (Figure 1).



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**PROGESTIN REGIMENS**

Depot medroxyprogesterone acetate (DMPA) works primarily by suppressing ovulation<sup>62</sup>. It can also induce endometrial atrophy<sup>63</sup>. Amenorrhea rates range from 55% at 12 months and 68% at 24 months<sup>64</sup>. Women using DMPA for contraception tend to report reduced rates of dysmenorrhea<sup>65-67</sup>. The progesterone-only pill may decrease menstrual flow and up to 10% of users will develop amenorrhea. Continuous oral progestin is useful as an alternative to the CHC with comparable pain relief and fewer side effects<sup>68</sup>. Dienogest, is a progestin that is significantly more efficient than placebo and non-inferior to leuprolide acetate in treating dysmenorrhea resulting from endometriosis. It induces a 39% amenorrhea rate at 6 months and presents a generally well tolerated side effect profile<sup>69</sup>. As many patients presenting with primary dysmenorrhea may in fact have endometriosis lesions, dienogest is an interesting empiric treatment option in women not in need of contraception.

Dysmenorrhea associated with endometriosis and adenomyosis has been shown to improve in LNG-IUS 52 mg users<sup>70,71</sup>. In general, women with either primary or secondary dysmenorrhea are likely to report a reduction in menstrual pain with the LNG-IUS 52 mg<sup>72-74</sup>. In a Cochrane review of LNG-IUS used for heavy menstrual bleeding, dysmenorrhea was significantly decreased in women randomized to the LNG-IUS 52 mg<sup>75</sup>.

**SECTION 5: COMPLEMENTARY AND ALTERNATIVE THERAPY (CAM)**

347 Exercise, local heat, behavioural interventions, and dietary/herbal supplements are commonly  
348 utilized by women in an effort to relieve dysmenorrhea<sup>76</sup>.

### 349 **EXERCISE**

350 In a review of 4 randomized, controlled trials and 2 observational studies, exercise was  
351 associated with a reduction in dysmenorrhea symptoms<sup>77</sup>. However, these studies were noted to  
352 have multiple methodological flaws. The authors of a 2010 Cochrane review were only able to  
353 identify one qualified trial on which to base their conclusions. In that study, there was some  
354 evidence that exercise reduced menstrual symptoms based on a sustained decrease in Moos'  
355 Menstrual Distress Questionnaire scores over three cycles<sup>78</sup>. An open-label randomized trial of  
356 non-athlete adolescents compared an aquatic exercise regimen with no treatment<sup>79</sup>. The  
357 intervention group showed significant reduction in dysmenorrhea. Assuming that exercise is  
358 unlikely to result in harm, it is reasonable to recommend it even without strong supportive  
359 evidence from randomized trials.

360

### 361 **TRANSCUTANEOUS ELECTRICAL NERVE STIMULATION (TENS)**

362 TENS involves the use of electrodes to stimulate the skin at various frequencies and intensities in  
363 an attempt to diminish pain perception. TENS may be categorized as either high (hfTENS) or  
364 low frequency (lfTENS). The 2002 Cochrane Review of eight trials provided support for the use  
365 of hfTENS as an efficacious treatment option<sup>80</sup>. Similarly, a recent randomized, single-blind  
366 trial demonstrated results favouring the application of hfTENS in combination with heat  
367 therapy<sup>81</sup>. Although there is no evidence that hfTENS is superior to standard therapy<sup>82</sup> it may be  
368 a useful alternative for those women unable or unwilling to use NSAIDs. Adverse outcomes  
369 associated with hfTENS may include muscle tightness, headaches, nausea, redness or burning of

370 the skin. Low frequency TENS does not appear to be superior to placebo and is not  
371 recommended<sup>83-87</sup>.

372

373 **ACUPUNCTURE AND ACUPRESSURE**

374 The application of acupoint stimulation (acupressure and acupuncture), alone or in combination  
375 with other therapies, has been the subject of active investigation in recent years. The 2011  
376 Cochrane Review provided some evidence for the use of acupuncture in the symptomatic relief  
377 of primary dysmenorrhea based on a meta-analysis of six randomized trials<sup>88</sup>. Acupuncture was  
378 superior to placebo and to Chinese herbs in the relief of menstrual pain. A very recent Cochrane  
379 review of acupuncture and acupressure included evidence from 42 RCT involving 4,640 women.  
380 The authors commented that all RCT except one were assessed as being at moderate to high risk  
381 of bias. The single well-designed trial failed to demonstrate superiority of acupuncture over  
382 placebo. The authors concluded that the evidence supporting acupuncture is inconsistent and  
383 unreliable.<sup>89</sup>

384

385 The authors of a systematic review of acupoint stimulation included pooled data from 25  
386 randomized, controlled trials. They concluded that these modalities provided benefit but  
387 acknowledged that many trials were of low methodological quality<sup>90</sup>. A recent, open-label,  
388 randomized trial compared acupuncture with COC. In this small trial, symptom relief was  
389 superior in the COC group, but COC was associated with more side-effects<sup>91</sup>.

390

391 Current evidence suggests that the principle application of acupoint stimulation appears to be in  
392 women who prefer an alternative or an adjunct to conventional, pharmacological treatment.

393

394 **BEHAVIOURAL INTERVENTIONS**

395 Behavioural interventions used in the treatment of dysmenorrhea include biofeedback,  
396 desensitization, Lamaze exercises, hypnotherapy and relaxation training<sup>92</sup>. A Cochrane Review  
397 based on five randomized trials comparing behavioural therapies to placebo or other treatments  
398 reported that the behavioural therapies showed some merit. However, the authors concluded that  
399 the results should be viewed with caution because of inconsistency in the reporting of data, small  
400 trial size, poor methodological quality and age of the trials<sup>93</sup>. It would be premature to endorse  
401 the use of behaviour therapies as a treatment of choice for primary dysmenorrhea except as an  
402 addition or alternative to pharmacological therapy.

403

404 **TOPICAL HEAT**

405 An RCT compared the efficacy of topical heat with oral ibuprofen and/or placebo. Heated pads  
406 applied to the lower abdomen were superior to placebo and comparable to ibuprofen for pain  
407 relief. Faster improvement occurred when heat was applied along with ibuprofen compared with  
408 ibuprofen alone<sup>94</sup>. Another randomized trial also showed comparable results with local heat and  
409 oral ibuprofen<sup>95</sup>. A topical heat wrap provided significantly better analgesia than  
410 acetaminophen<sup>96</sup>. Local heat and exercise may provide comparable symptomatic relief in  
411 adolescents<sup>97</sup>. Because heated pads are easily accessible and inexpensive, they can be  
412 recommended for pain relief in primary dysmenorrhea.

413

414 **DIETARY SUPPLEMENTS**

415 An abundance of medicinal herbs and vitamins have been proposed for the treatment of primary  
416 dysmenorrhea. A concerted effort has been made to test the efficacy of these products and  
417 multiple randomized trials are now published. Most trials were conducted in Iran using cohorts  
418 of students in their late teens and early twenties. Methodological rigour is hampered by the lack  
419 of standardization and incomplete reporting. There are also difficulties with ensuring credible  
420 blinding in controlled trials and adequate sample size.

421  
422 Ginger has been studied in several small randomized trials that suggest that doses of 750-2000  
423 mg during the first 3-4 days menses may have comparable effectiveness to NSAIDs<sup>98,99</sup> and are  
424 likely superior to placebo<sup>100-102</sup>. A recent Cochrane review included 27 randomized trials (3,101  
425 women) studying dietary supplements for dysmenorrhea. The authors concluded that high  
426 quality evidence is lacking. On the basis of at least one RCT there was some evidence for the  
427 efficacy of ginger, fenugreek, fish oil, fish oil plus vitamin B1, valerian, vitamin B1 alone,  
428 zataria, and zinc sulphate<sup>103</sup>.

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## **SECTION 6: SURGICAL MANAGEMENT**

432 While most women will see their pain improved with medical treatment, especially if  
433 amenorrhea is achieved, some will have persisting pain. In these cases, the cause of the pain  
434 might not be primary dysmenorrhea. Thorough exploration of other possible etiologies must be  
435 performed in order to optimize therapy. (see Endometriosis: Diagnosis and Management<sup>104</sup>)  
436 Detailed physical exam including evaluation of the rectovaginal septum, levator ani and  
437 abdominal wall muscles must be part of the evaluation in order to guide surgical exploration and

438 therapy. Complementary investigations such as pelvic ultrasound and, possibly an MRI, a  
439 cystoscopy and/or colonoscopy may help avoid unnecessary laparoscopy. CA-125 testing should  
440 be performed in women with adnexal masses.

441 The timing of laparoscopic investigation and treatment of dysmenorrhea remains a challenge.  
442 Physicians should keep the number of surgeries to a minimum as repeated procedures  
443 induce stress and may evolve to the development of other possible pain syndromes such as  
444 neuropathic pain and adhesions. The woman's desire for pregnancy must be taken into  
445 account. The available evidence suggests that the first surgery for endometriosis may improve  
446 fertility<sup>105</sup>, but subsequent surgeries are not associated with the same positive effect. Patients  
447 should be encouraged to give a real chance to medical treatment until pregnancy is desired or  
448 precise diagnosis becomes essential.

#### 449 **LAPAROSCOPY**

450 Ultimately, a diagnostic laparoscopy may be helpful. Ideally, the surgeon should be ready to  
451 proceed simultaneously to treatment if endometriosis, the most frequent pathology associated  
452 with dysmenorrhea, is found. Prior to surgery, the desire to preserve fertility must be clearly  
453 defined. All options and associated risks must be discussed; a plan should be clearly established,  
454 defining procedures to be performed in regard to the presence or absence of anomalies. Informed  
455 consent should be obtained for any procedures that will be considered during the surgery  
456 including the risk of complications.

#### 457 **TREATMENT OF ENDOMETRIOSIS**

458 Surgical treatment of endometriotic lesions by excision or ablation reduces dysmenorrhea.<sup>106-108</sup>  
459 In 2013, Alkatout<sup>106</sup> published a prospective study of 450 women with symptomatic  
460 endometriosis who underwent laparoscopy and then were randomized to medical treatment with  
461 GnRH agonists, surgical treatment of lesions alone or combined with medical treatment. Among  
462 them, 78 women with dysmenorrhea underwent isolated surgical treatment and 65% reported  
463 relief one year after surgery.

464

#### 465 **CONSERVATIVE SURGICAL PROCEDURES**

466 Two methods of pelvic denervation have been described: LUNA and PSN. These procedures can  
467 be performed laparoscopically by a properly trained surgeon. Jonhson<sup>107</sup> reported that women  
468 with dysmenorrhea without endometriosis improved their pain VAS score significantly more  
469 with LUNA compared with controls. This improvement was not seen in women with  
470 endometriosis. The 2015 Cochrane Review<sup>108</sup> concluded that there is some randomized trial  
471 evidence that LUNA is effective for treatment of primary dysmenorrhea. However, the results  
472 did not differ at 6 months. Zullo<sup>109, 110</sup> studied the effect of the addition of PSN to laparoscopic  
473 treatment of endometriosis for dysmenorrhea. He found significant improvement with cure rates  
474 at 6, 12 and 24 months of 87.3%, 85.7% and 83.3% with PSN compared to 60.3%, 57.1% and  
475 53.3% without PSN.

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#### 477 **SURGICAL OPTIONS IN THE ABSENCE OF VISUAL ABNORMALITIES**

478 If anatomy is strictly normal at laparoscopy and there is no evidence of deep infiltrating

479 endometriosis on MRI, few surgical treatment options are available. Hysterectomy, either  
480 laparoscopic total or subtotal, is associated with a high degree of patient satisfaction<sup>111</sup>. It  
481 addresses primary dysmenorrhea much better than it addresses non-cyclic pelvic pain, which  
482 may have myofascial, neuropathic, bladder or gastro-intestinal components. Women should be  
483 well counseled about the 7.9% complication rate of hysterectomy for benign conditions<sup>112</sup> as  
484 well as the risk of persistent pain, occurrence of new myofascial or neuropathic pain and, of  
485 course, the irreversible sterilization.

486 There is some evidence<sup>107, 108</sup> that LUNA may be helpful for some patients with primary  
487 dysmenorrhea without visual abnormalities at laparoscopy. Pre-sacral neurectomy may also  
488 have a place in conservative surgical treatment of primary dysmenorrhea<sup>113</sup>, but the literature  
489 mainly addresses women with endometriosis. Endometrial ablation, usually indicated for  
490 abnormal uterine bleeding, reduces dysmenorrhea efficiently<sup>114</sup> with lower complication rates  
491 than hysterectomy. Endometrial ablation and long-term contraception may be offered as a  
492 minimally invasive option to women with dysmenorrhea and menorrhagia who do not desire  
493 future fertility.

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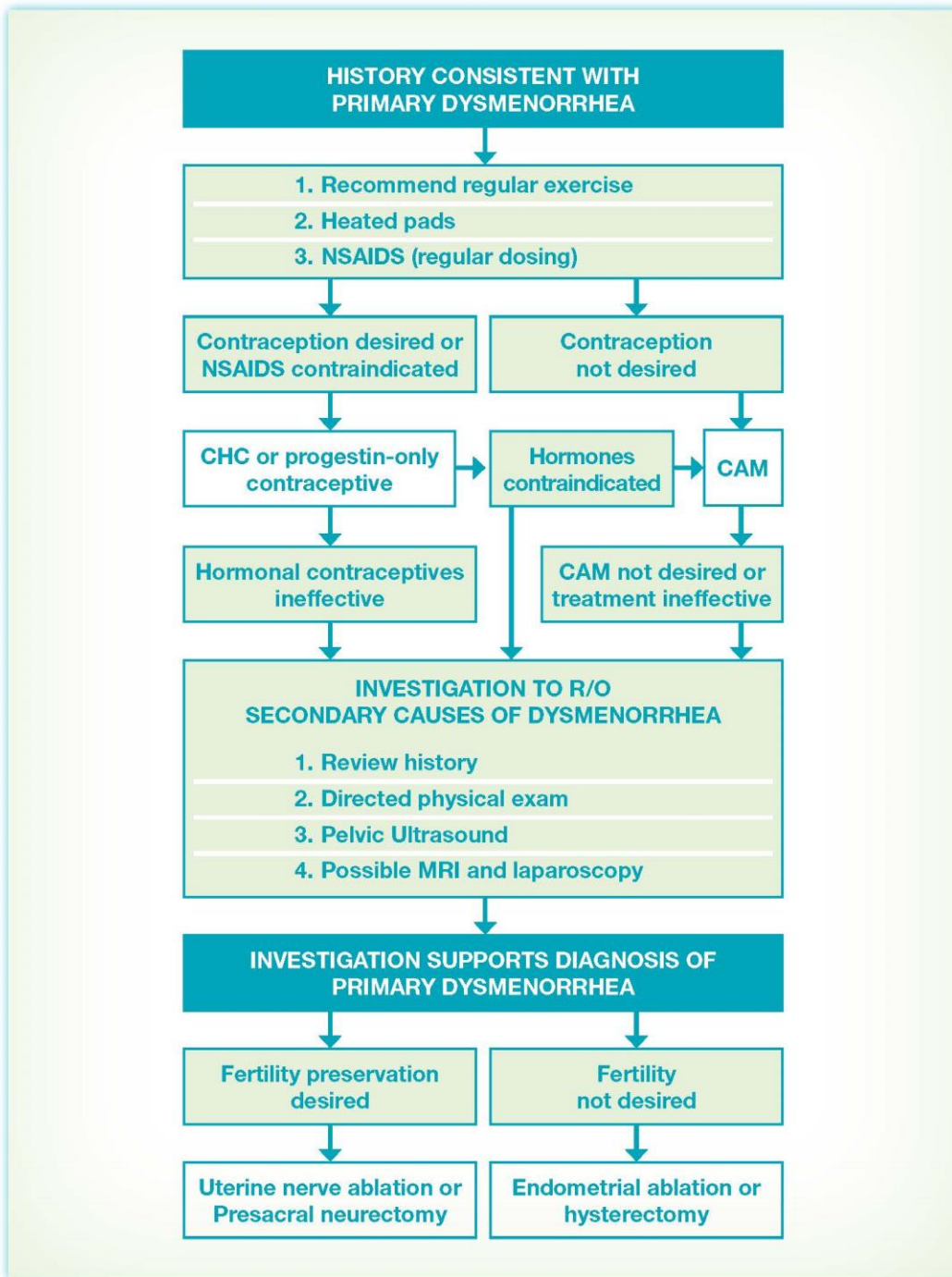
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506 **Figure 1.** Primary Dysmenorrhea Algorithm



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