



DECODING THE GUT-BRAIN AXIS: PSYCHOLOGICAL STRESS AS A DRIVER OF IRRITABLE BOWEL SYNDROME

*A Narrative Review of Bidirectional Pathways, Molecular Mechanisms, and Emerging
Therapeutic Paradigms*

MOHAMMAD ASAD ALI

Medical Student , Samarkand State Medical University, Uzbekistan ,
anasali9891@gmail.com

Shreya Rani

Medical Student , Samarkand State Medical University, Uzbekistan
shreyarani23005@gmail.com

Akshaya

Medical Student , Samarkand State Medical University, Uzbekistan
nakkaakshaya966@gmail.com

Ovais Ahamed Raza

Medical Student , Samarkand State Medical University, Uzbekistan
ovaisahamed13@gmail.com

Shuaib Ahmed

Medical Student , Samarkand State Medical University, Uzbekistan
shuaibahmed41820@gmail.com

Abstract

The gut-brain axis represents one of the most intricate and rapidly evolving frontiers in modern medicine, bridging gastrointestinal physiology with neuroscience, immunology, and behavioral science. Irritable bowel syndrome, conceptualized within the paradigm of disorders of gut-brain interaction, exemplifies the profound clinical consequences when this bidirectional communication network becomes dysregulated. This narrative review examines the multidimensional mechanisms through which psychological stress disrupts gut-brain homeostasis, focusing on the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, altered neurotransmitter signaling, visceral hypersensitivity, and gut microbiome perturbations. We explore how chronic psychological stress precipitates and perpetuates IBS symptomatology through immune activation, increased intestinal permeability, and aberrant processing of visceral afferent signals. Furthermore, this review synthesizes current evidence supporting integrated therapeutic approaches that target both psychological and gastrointestinal dimensions, including brain-gut psychotherapies, dietary modifications, pharmacological agents, and microbiome-targeted interventions. Understanding these interconnected pathways is essential for developing personalized treatment strategies that acknowledge the inseparable unity of mind and gut in health and disease.

Keywords: gut-brain axis, irritable bowel syndrome, psychological stress, HPA axis, visceral hypersensitivity, gut microbiome, neurotransmitters, brain-gut psychotherapy, disorders of gut-brain interaction



1. Introduction

The ancient Greek physician Hippocrates famously proclaimed that "all disease begins in the gut," a remarkably prescient observation that modern science continues to validate through increasingly sophisticated lenses. Over the past several decades, the conceptualization of human physiology has undergone a profound transformation, moving away from reductionist models that compartmentalize organ systems toward integrative frameworks that recognize the body as an interconnected whole. Nowhere is this paradigm shift more evident than in the burgeoning field of gut-brain axis research, which has illuminated the extraordinary complexity of bidirectional communication between the gastrointestinal tract and the central nervous system.

Irritable bowel syndrome stands as the most prevalent functional gastrointestinal disorder worldwide, affecting approximately 10-15% of the global population and imposing a substantial burden on healthcare systems, workplace productivity, and quality of life. Characterized by recurrent abdominal pain associated with altered bowel habits, IBS has long been misunderstood as a purely psychosomatic condition or, conversely, as a simple gastrointestinal disturbance. Contemporary understanding, however, positions IBS squarely within the framework of disorders of gut-brain interaction, acknowledging the inseparable entanglement of psychological, neurological, immunological, and microbial factors in its pathophysiology.

The relationship between psychological stress and IBS represents perhaps the most compelling clinical manifestation of gut-brain axis dysfunction. Epidemiological studies consistently demonstrate that psychological stressors, including early life adversity, chronic work-related stress, anxiety disorders, and major depressive episodes, significantly increase the risk of developing IBS and exacerbate symptoms in established disease. The mechanisms underlying this association are extraordinarily complex, involving dysregulation of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, altered autonomic nervous system tone, aberrant neurotransmitter signaling, immune system activation, perturbations of the gut microbiome, and changes in intestinal barrier integrity.

This narrative review aims to synthesize current understanding of the gut-brain axis with particular emphasis on how psychological stress serves as a critical driver of IBS pathophysiology. We examine the anatomical and functional substrates of brain-gut communication, the molecular and cellular mechanisms through which stress disrupts gastrointestinal homeostasis, the role of the gut microbiome as a mediator and target of intervention, and the clinical implications for diagnosis and treatment. Our objective is to provide a comprehensive yet accessible overview that bridges basic science with clinical practice, ultimately supporting a more nuanced and effective approach to patient care.

2. The Bidirectional Gut-Brain Communication Network

The gut-brain axis encompasses a sophisticated network of neural, endocrine, immune, and humoral pathways that enable constant information exchange between the central nervous system and the gastrointestinal tract. This bidirectional system allows the brain to modulate gut function through autonomic and neuroendocrine outputs while simultaneously receiving afferent signals from the gut that influence emotional states, cognitive processes, and stress responses. Understanding the structural and functional components of this network is essential for comprehending how psychological stress translates into gastrointestinal symptomatology.

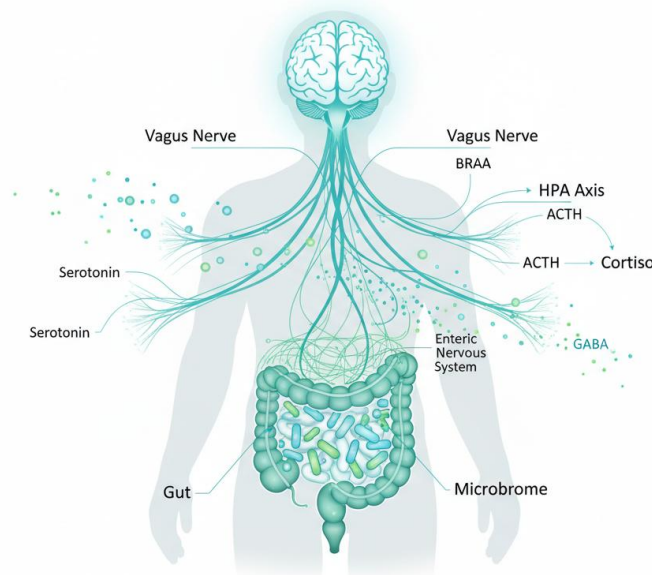


Figure 1.

The Bidirectional Gut-Brain Axis. Schematic illustration showing the major communication pathways between the brain and gastrointestinal tract, including the vagus nerve, the HPA axis with CRH-ACTH-cortisol signaling, the enteric nervous system, and neurotransmitter pathways involving serotonin, GABA, and other signaling molecules. The gut microbiome modulates these pathways through multiple mechanisms.

2.1 The Enteric Nervous System and Vagal Pathways

The enteric nervous system, often described as the "second brain," constitutes the most extensive and complex component of the peripheral nervous system, containing approximately 500 million neurons distributed throughout the wall of the gastrointestinal tract. This remarkable neural network is capable of independent information processing and can regulate digestive functions, including motility, secretion, and blood flow, without requiring direct input from the central nervous system. However, the ENS maintains extensive bidirectional communication with the brain through multiple pathways, most prominently via the vagus nerve.

The vagus nerve, the tenth cranial nerve, serves as the primary parasympathetic conduit between the brainstem and the gastrointestinal tract. Approximately 80% of vagal fibers are afferent, carrying sensory information from the gut to the brain, while the remaining 20% are efferent, transmitting motor commands from the brain to the gut. Vagal afferents express receptors for numerous gut-derived signals, including mechanical stretch, chemical mediators, gut hormones, and immune-derived cytokines. This sensory information reaches the nucleus tractus solitarius in the brainstem and subsequently projects to higher brain regions involved in emotion regulation, pain processing, and autonomic control, including the amygdala, hypothalamus, and prefrontal cortex.

Importantly, vagal signaling is not merely a passive relay of gut information to the brain. The vagus nerve plays an active role in modulating the inflammatory response through the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway, wherein acetylcholine released by vagal efferents inhibits the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines by macrophages and other immune cells. This neuroimmune regulatory mechanism has profound implications for understanding how



stress-induced changes in autonomic tone might contribute to intestinal inflammation and symptom generation in IBS.

2.2 The Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal Axis

The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis constitutes the primary neuroendocrine system mediating the stress response. When an individual perceives a psychological or physical threat, parvocellular neurons in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus synthesize and secrete corticotropin-releasing hormone and arginine vasopressin. These neuropeptides travel through the hypophyseal portal system to the anterior pituitary, stimulating the release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone into the systemic circulation. ACTH, in turn, acts upon the adrenal cortex to stimulate the synthesis and secretion of glucocorticoids, primarily cortisol in humans.

Cortisol exerts widespread effects throughout the body, mobilizing energy stores, suppressing non-essential physiological processes, and modulating immune function to facilitate adaptive responses to stress. Critically, cortisol acts in a negative feedback manner on the hypothalamus and pituitary to constrain the stress response and restore homeostasis. Under conditions of chronic psychological stress, however, this negative feedback mechanism becomes impaired, leading to sustained HPA axis activation, elevated cortisol levels, and glucocorticoid receptor resistance.

The gastrointestinal tract is richly supplied with glucocorticoid receptors expressed on epithelial cells, immune cells, enteroendocrine cells, and enteric neurons, rendering it highly responsive to cortisol signaling. Cortisol can alter gut permeability, modulate immune cell function, affect enteric neuron excitability, and influence the composition and metabolic activity of the gut microbiota. These effects converge to create an intestinal environment characterized by increased sensitivity, altered motility, and low-grade inflammation, precisely the constellation of abnormalities observed in IBS.

2.3 Epidemiological Context

The global prevalence of IBS varies considerably depending on the diagnostic criteria employed and the methodology of assessment. Recent meta-analytic evidence provides important context for understanding the scope of this condition and its relationship to psychosocial factors.

Diagnostic Criteria		Overall Prevalence	Female	Male
Rome III		13.21%	(10.70-15.69% (12.29-19.41) 15.94)	11.10% (8.89-13.52)
Rome IV		17.14%	(12.00-20.17% (14.48-26.54) 22.99)	11.45% (7.39-16.29)
Probabilistic (Rome III)	Sampling	11.19% (8.55-14.12)	14.20% (10.80-17.90)	9.80% (7.10-12.90)
Probabilistic (Rome IV)	Sampling	13.28% (8.36-19.13)	16.50% (10.20-23.80)	9.90% (5.60-15.20)

Table 1. Global Prevalence Estimates of Irritable Bowel Syndrome Stratified by Diagnostic Criteria and Sex. Data synthesized from recent large-scale meta-analyses (43 studies, n=188,885).

3. Neurotransmitters, Visceral Sensitivity, and Motility

The gut and brain share a common language of neurotransmitter signaling, with numerous chemical messengers operating in both systems to regulate physiological and psychological processes. Serotonin, in particular, has emerged as a central player in the pathophysiology of IBS, serving as a critical nexus linking stress, gut function, and visceral sensation.

Over 95% of the body's serotonin is located within the gastrointestinal tract, predominantly stored in enterochromaffin cells of the intestinal mucosa. These specialized enteroendocrine cells release serotonin in response to mechanical stimulation, chemical signals from the gut contents, and neural inputs, including vagal and sympathetic efferents. Released serotonin activates 5-HT₃ receptors on intrinsic primary afferent neurons and extrinsic vagal and spinal afferents, initiating peristaltic reflexes, modulating intestinal secretion, and conveying sensory information to the central nervous system.

Psychological stress profoundly affects serotonergic signaling in the gut through multiple mechanisms. Stress-induced cortisol release stimulates tryptophan hydroxylase expression in enterochromaffin cells, potentially increasing serotonin synthesis. Simultaneously, stress can alter the expression and function of the serotonin transporter, which is responsible for terminating serotonergic signaling through reuptake. The resulting imbalance between serotonin availability and clearance may contribute to the diarrhea-predominant symptoms seen in some IBS patients through excessive activation of secretomotor reflexes.

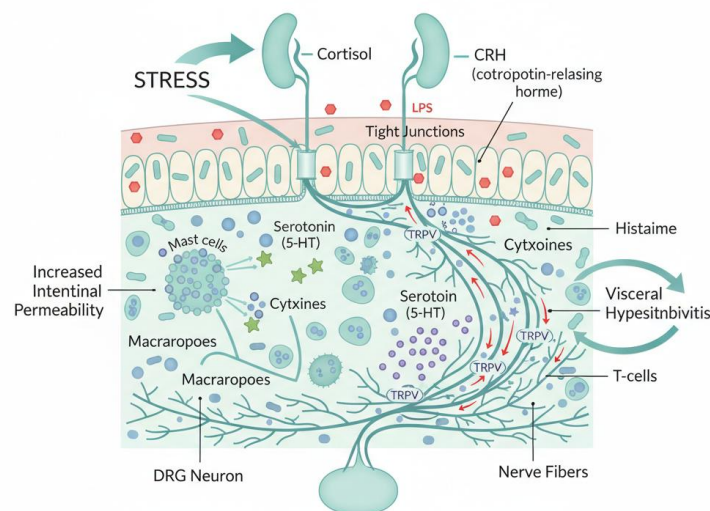


Figure 2. Cellular Mechanisms of Visceral Hypersensitivity and Intestinal Barrier Dysfunction in IBS. Stress-induced CRH and cortisol disrupt tight junction integrity, increasing intestinal permeability. Mast cell activation releases histamine, cytokines, and proteases, while enterochromaffin cells release serotonin (5-HT). These mediators sensitize primary afferent neurons through TRPV and other receptor channels, leading to enhanced pain signaling and visceral hypersensitivity.

Visceral hypersensitivity, defined as an enhanced perception of normal intestinal sensations or a lowered threshold for pain in response to gut distension, represents a hallmark feature of IBS. This phenomenon results from sensitization at multiple levels of the neuraxis, including peripheral sensitization of gut afferents, spinal cord hyperexcitability, and altered processing



within supraspinal pain modulatory circuits. Stress-induced release of corticotropin-releasing hormone from both central and peripheral sources plays a particularly important role in visceral sensitization by activating mast cells, increasing intestinal permeability, and directly sensitizing nociceptive nerve endings.

Mast cells have emerged as crucial effectors linking psychological stress to visceral hypersensitivity. These immune cells are strategically positioned throughout the gut wall, particularly in close proximity to enteric nerves and blood vessels. Mast cells express receptors for numerous stress mediators, including CRH, substance P, and cortisol, enabling them to respond directly to neuroendocrine signals of psychological distress. Upon activation, mast cells release a diverse array of pro-inflammatory and vasoactive mediators, including histamine, tryptase, cytokines, and prostaglandins, which can sensitize nearby afferent nerve endings and increase intestinal permeability.

4. The Gut Microbiome as a Mediator of Brain-Gut Signaling

The trillions of microorganisms residing in the human gastrointestinal tract, collectively termed the gut microbiome, have revolutionized our understanding of human physiology and disease. These microbial communities, dominated by bacteria of the phyla Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes, together with smaller populations of Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, and other taxa, possess a collective genome exceeding the human genome by more than 100-fold. Through their metabolic activities, the gut microbiota produces a vast array of bioactive molecules that can influence host physiology, including neurotransmitters, short-chain fatty acids, bile acid metabolites, and immune-modulatory compounds.

The concept of the microbiota-gut-brain axis extends the traditional gut-brain axis framework by incorporating the microbiome as an active participant in bidirectional communication. Gut microbes can signal to the brain through neural pathways, primarily via the vagus nerve; through endocrine mechanisms, including modulation of the HPA axis; through immune-mediated signaling via cytokines and other immune mediators; and through the production of neuroactive metabolites that can enter systemic circulation and cross the blood-brain barrier.

Alterations in the composition and function of the gut microbiota, termed dysbiosis, have been consistently observed in patients with IBS. While no single microbial signature defines IBS, common findings include reduced microbial diversity, altered Firmicutes-to-Bacteroidetes ratios, and changes in the abundance of specific taxa. These compositional shifts are accompanied by functional consequences, including altered short-chain fatty acid production, modified bile acid metabolism, and changes in the synthesis of neuroactive compounds such as gamma-aminobutyric acid, serotonin, and dopamine.

Psychological stress can directly modulate the gut microbiome through several mechanisms. Stress-induced changes in gut motility alter the physical environment in which microbes reside, affecting nutrient availability and microbial community structure. Cortisol and other stress hormones can influence microbial gene expression and metabolic activity. Additionally, stress-induced increases in intestinal permeability allow bacterial products such as lipopolysaccharide to translocate across the epithelial barrier, triggering local and systemic immune responses that further reshape the microbial ecosystem. The resulting dysbiosis may then perpetuate gut-brain



axis dysfunction through impaired production of beneficial metabolites, increased generation of pro-inflammatory signals, and compromised intestinal barrier function.

The concept of psychobiotics, referring to live microorganisms that confer mental health benefits through interactions with commensal gut bacteria, has emerged from this research paradigm. Several probiotic strains have demonstrated beneficial effects on both gastrointestinal and psychological symptoms in clinical trials, supporting the therapeutic potential of microbiome-targeted interventions. However, the complexity of host-microbe interactions necessitates continued research to identify optimal strains, dosing regimens, and patient populations for these approaches.

5. Clinical Implications and Therapeutic Approaches

The recognition that psychological stress drives IBS pathophysiology through multiple converging pathways has profound implications for clinical management. Traditional approaches that focus exclusively on either psychological or gastrointestinal symptoms are unlikely to achieve optimal outcomes. Instead, contemporary evidence supports integrated treatment strategies that address the full spectrum of disease manifestations.

5.1 Pharmacological Interventions

Several pharmacological agents target specific mechanisms within the gut-brain axis. Antispasmodic medications, including hyoscyamine and dicyclomine, reduce smooth muscle contraction and can alleviate cramping and pain. Peppermint oil, which acts as a natural smooth muscle relaxant, has demonstrated efficacy in meta-analytic studies. For diarrhea-predominant IBS, the non-absorbed antibiotic rifaximin alters the gut microbiome and reduces symptoms, while eluxadoline, a mixed mu-opioid receptor agonist and delta-antagonist, modulates gut motility and sensation.

Serotonergic agents represent a pharmacological class directly targeting the neurotransmitter abnormalities in IBS. Tegaserod, a 5-HT₄ receptor agonist that stimulates gut motility and secretion, has been used for constipation-predominant IBS, while alosetron, a 5-HT₃ receptor antagonist, reduces visceral sensitivity and slows transit in diarrhea-predominant IBS. Tricyclic antidepressants, such as amitriptyline, exert multiple beneficial effects through anticholinergic actions, modulation of pain pathways, and improvement of mood symptoms.

5.2 Brain-Gut Psychotherapy

Brain-gut psychotherapies have emerged as among the most effective interventions for IBS, with meta-analytic evidence supporting a number needed to treat of approximately 2. Cognitive behavioral therapy addresses maladaptive thought patterns and behaviors that perpetuate the illness experience, including catastrophizing about symptoms and illness-related anxiety. Through cognitive restructuring, relaxation training, and graded exposure to feared situations, CBT can reduce symptom severity, improve quality of life, and decrease healthcare utilization, with benefits maintained at 12-month follow-up.

Gut-directed hypnotherapy represents another evidence-based psychological intervention with particularly robust effects. This specialized form of hypnosis combines traditional hypnotic induction with suggestions specifically targeted to gastrointestinal function. Clinical trials have demonstrated improvements in abdominal pain, bloating, bowel dysfunction, and quality of life, with approximately 80% of treatment responders maintaining benefits for up to five years.



Neuroimaging studies suggest that hypnotherapy may normalize activity in the anterior cingulate cortex, a brain region involved in pain processing that shows altered function in IBS patients.

Mindfulness-based stress reduction and related contemplative practices have also shown promise, potentially through effects on autonomic nervous system balance, emotional regulation, and pain processing. These approaches teach patients to develop non-judgmental awareness of bodily sensations, reducing the distress and reactivity that amplify symptoms.

Treatment Category	Specific Interventions	Mechanism of Action	Evidence Level
Brain-Gut Psychotherapy	CBT, Gut-Directed Hypnotherapy, MBSR	Modulates pain processing, autonomic tone, stress response	Strong (NNT=2)
Dietary Modification	Low-FODMAP Soluble Fiber	Diet, Reduces fermentation, alters microbiome, improves stool form	Moderate to Strong
Antispasmodics	Hyoscyamine, Dicyclomine, Peppermint Oil	Reduces smooth muscle contraction	Moderate
Tricyclic Antidepressants	Amitriptyline, Desipramine	Modulates pain, improves motility, anxiolytic	Strong
Serotonergic Agents	Tegaserod, Alosetron	Modulates gut motility and visceral sensitivity	Moderate
Microbiome-Targeted	Rifaximin, FMT	Probiotics, Alters microbial composition and metabolites	Moderate

Table 2. Summary of Major Therapeutic Approaches for Irritable Bowel Syndrome Targeting the Gut-Brain Axis. Recommendations reflect current guidelines from major gastroenterology societies.

5.3 Dietary and Lifestyle Interventions

Dietary modifications represent a cornerstone of IBS management, with the low-FODMAP diet receiving the strongest evidence base. This dietary approach restricts fermentable oligosaccharides, disaccharides, monosaccharides, and polyols that are poorly absorbed in the small intestine and undergo rapid fermentation by gut bacteria, producing gas and osmotically active byproducts that can distend the intestinal lumen and trigger symptoms in sensitive individuals. Clinical trials demonstrate significant symptom improvement in approximately 50-80% of patients during the restriction phase, followed by systematic reintroduction and personalization to establish a sustainable long-term eating pattern.

Adequate soluble fiber intake, particularly psyllium, has demonstrated consistent benefits across IBS subtypes, likely through effects on stool consistency, gut microbiome composition, and fermentation products. Physical activity interventions, including aerobic exercise, yoga, and tai chi, have shown beneficial effects on IBS symptoms through improvements in autonomic function, stress resilience, gut motility, and psychological well-being.



6. Conclusion

The gut-brain axis represents a fundamental organizing principle for understanding human health and disease, with IBS serving as a paradigmatic example of what occurs when this delicate communication system becomes dysregulated. The evidence reviewed herein demonstrates that psychological stress is not merely an epiphenomenon or comorbidity in IBS but a genuine pathophysiological driver that operates through well-characterized neural, endocrine, immune, and microbial mechanisms.

The HPA axis serves as a critical conduit through which psychological stress translates into gastrointestinal dysfunction, with cortisol-mediated effects on gut permeability, immune activation, motility, and microbial composition creating a self-perpetuating cycle of symptom generation. Neurotransmitter systems, particularly serotonin signaling, provide additional mechanisms linking emotional states to gut function, while visceral hypersensitivity amplifies the clinical impact of these physiological changes. The gut microbiome, once considered merely a bystander, has emerged as an active participant in this process, both responding to stress signals and contributing to brain-gut axis dysfunction through its metabolic and immune-modulatory activities.

These insights carry important implications for clinical practice. First, they validate the lived experience of patients who recognize the connection between their emotional states and gastrointestinal symptoms, moving the clinical conversation beyond unhelpful dichotomies of "organic" versus "functional" disease. Second, they support the integration of psychological and dietary interventions alongside traditional pharmacotherapy, targeting the multiple converging pathways that generate symptoms. Third, they open avenues for personalized medicine approaches that consider individual differences in stress responsivity, microbial composition, and psychological vulnerability.

Looking forward, several research frontiers hold particular promise. Advances in neuroimaging continue to refine our understanding of brain-based alterations in IBS, potentially enabling biomarker development and treatment matching. Microbiome science is rapidly evolving, with fecal microbiota transplantation, defined consortia of beneficial bacteria, and targeted prebiotics representing potential future interventions. The development of peripherally restricted drugs that target gut-specific receptors without central nervous system side effects may improve the risk-benefit profile of pharmacological treatment.

Ultimately, the story of the gut-brain axis in IBS is one of remarkable biological complexity and profound clinical relevance. It reminds us that human beings cannot be compartmentalized into separate organ systems but must be understood as integrated wholes in which mind, brain, gut, and microbiome constitute an inseparable unity. By embracing this perspective, clinicians can offer patients not merely symptom suppression but a genuine path toward restoration of the delicate equilibrium that defines health.

References:

1. Mayer EA, Tillisch K. The brain-gut axis in abdominal pain syndromes. *Annu Rev Med.* 2011;62:381-396.



2. Carabotti M, Scirocco A, Maselli MA, Severi C. The gut-brain axis: interactions between enteric microbiota, central and enteric nervous systems. *Ann Gastroenterol*. 2015;28(2):203-209.
3. Cryan JF, O'Riordan KJ, Cowan CSM, et al. The microbiota-gut-brain axis. *Physiol Rev*. 2019;99(4):1877-2013.
4. Sudo N. Biogenic Amines: Responses to Stress and Interaction with Psychotropic Drugs. In: *The Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis*. 2024.
5. Taha BA, et al. Global prevalence and risk factors of irritable bowel syndrome from 2006 to 2024: a meta-analysis. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2025;37(12):1314-1325.
6. Black CJ, Paine PA, Agrawal A, et al. British Society of Gastroenterology guidelines on the management of irritable bowel syndrome. *Gut*. 2021;70(7):1214-1240.
7. Lovell RM, Ford AC. Global prevalence of and risk factors for irritable bowel syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2012;10(7):712-721.
8. Gwee KA, et al. Psychometric scores and persistence of irritable bowel after infectious diarrhoea. *Lancet*. 1996;347(8995):150-153.
9. Fukudo S. Role of corticotropin-releasing hormone in irritable bowel syndrome and intestinal inflammation. *J Gastroenterol*. 2007;42 Suppl 17:48-51.
10. Martinez C, et al. The Rhombencephalic Sleep Centre in Regulation of Visceral Function. *Neurogastroenterol Motil*. 2012;24(12):1139-e563.
11. Bonaz B, Bazin T, Pellissier S. The Vagus Nerve at the Interface of the Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis. *Front Neurosci*. 2018;12:49.
12. Mayer EA, Knight R, Mazmanian SK, Cryan JF, Tillisch K. Gut microbes and the brain: paradigm shift in neuroscience. *J Neurosci*. 2014;34(46):15490-15496.
13. Foster JA, McVey Neufeld KA. Gut-brain axis: how the microbiome influences anxiety and depression. *Trends Neurosci*. 2013;36(5):305-312.
14. Sudo N, Chida Y, Aiba Y, et al. Postnatal microbial colonization programs the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal system for stress response in mice. *J Physiol*. 2004;558(Pt 1):263-275.
15. Dinan TG, Cryan JF. Melancholic microbes: a link between gut microbiota and depression? *Neurogastroenterol Motil*. 2013;25(9):713-719.
16. Surdea-Blaga T, Baban A, Dumitrascu DL. Psychosocial determinants of irritable bowel syndrome. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2012;18(7):616-626.
17. Drossman DA. Functional Gastrointestinal Disorders: History, Pathophysiology, Clinical Features and Rome IV. *Gastroenterology*. 2016;150(6):1262-1279.
18. Lydiard RB. Irritable bowel syndrome, anxiety, and depression: what are the links? *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2001;62 Suppl 8:38-45.
19. Mayer EA, Craske M, Naliboff BD. Depression, anxiety, and the gastrointestinal system. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2001;62 Suppl 8:28-36.
20. Mawe GM, Hoffman JM. Serotonin signalling in the gut--functions, dysfunctions and therapeutic targets. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2013;10(8):473-486.
21. Gershon MD, Tack J. The serotonin signaling system: from basic understanding to drug development for functional GI disorders. *Gastroenterology*. 2007;132(1):397-414.



22. Barbara G, et al. Mast cell-dependent excitation of visceral-nociceptive sensory neurons in irritable bowel syndrome. *Gastroenterology*. 2007;132(1):26-37.
23. Buhner S, et al. Activation of human enteric neurons by supernatants of colonic biopsy specimens from patients with irritable bowel syndrome. *Gastroenterology*. 2009;137(4):1425-1434.
24. Camilleri M, Madsen K, Spiller R, Greenwood-Van Meerveld B, Verne GN. Intestinal barrier function in health and gastrointestinal disease. *Neurogastroenterol Motil*. 2012;24(6):503-512.
25. De Palma G, Collins SM, Bercik P. The microbiota-gut-brain axis in functional gastrointestinal disorders. *Gut Microbes*. 2014;5(3):419-429.
26. Rajilic-Stojanovic M, et al. Intestinal microbiota and diet in IBS: causes, consequences, or epiphenomena? *Am J Gastroenterol*. 2015;110(2):278-287.
27. Saulnier DM, et al. Gastrointestinal microbiome signatures of pediatric patients with irritable bowel syndrome. *Gastroenterology*. 2011;141(5):1782-1791.