

1 **Title:** Irritable Bowel Syndrome.

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3 **Short running head:** Irritable Bowel Syndrome.

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18 Abbreviations:	5-HT	5-hydroxytryptamine
19	CBT	cognitive behavioural therapy
20	CI	confidence interval
21	CRC	colorectal cancer
22	cGMP	Cyclic GMP
23	EMA	European Medicines Agency
24	FDA	Food and Drug Administration

25	FODMAPs	fermentable oligo-, di-, and mono-saccharides and
26		polyols
27	IBD	inflammatory bowel disease
28	IBS	irritable bowel syndrome
29	IBS-C	irritable bowel syndrome with constipation
30	IBS-D	irritable bowel syndrome with diarrhoea
31	IBS-M	irritable bowel syndrome with mixed stool pattern
32	IBS-U	irritable bowel syndrome unclassified
33	MC	microscopic colitis
34	OR	odds ratio
35	PI-IBS	post-infection IBS
36	RCT	randomised controlled trial
37	RR	relative risk
38	SeHCAT	23-seleno-25-homotaurocholic acid
39	SSRI	selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor
40	SIBO	small intestinal bacterial overgrowth
41	TCA	tricyclic antidepressant

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60

61 **ABSTRACT**

62 Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) is a functional gastrointestinal disorder whose symptoms
63 include abdominal pain associated with a change in stool form or frequency. The condition
64 affects between 5% and 10% of otherwise healthy individuals in the community at any one
65 point in time and, in most people, runs a relapsing and remitting course. The best described
66 risk factor is acute enteric infection, but IBS is also more common in people with
67 psychological co-morbidity, and in young adult females. The pathophysiology of IBS
68 remains incompletely understood, but it is well established that there is disordered
69 communication between the gut and the brain, leading to motility disturbances, visceral
70 hypersensitivity, and altered central nervous system processing. Other less reproducible
71 mechanisms may include genetic associations, alterations in gastrointestinal microbiota, and
72 disturbances in mucosal and immune function. In most people the diagnosis can be made
73 based on the clinical history, with limited, judicious, use of investigations, unless alarm
74 symptoms such as weight loss or rectal bleeding are present, or there is a family history of
75 inflammatory bowel disease or coeliac disease. Once the diagnosis is made, an empathetic
76 approach is key, and can improve quality of life and symptoms, and reduce health care
77 expenditure. The mainstays of treatment include patient education about the condition,
78 dietary changes, soluble fibre, and antispasmodic drugs. Other treatments tend to be reserved
79 for those with more severe symptoms; these include central neuromodulators, intestinal
80 secretagogues, drugs acting on 5-hydroxytryptamine or opioid receptors, or minimally
81 absorbed antibiotics (all of which are selected according to predominant bowel habit), and
82 psychological therapies. The increased understanding of the pathophysiology of IBS in the
83 last 10 years has led to a healthy pipeline of novel drugs in development.

84

85 INTRODUCTION

86 Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) is a functional gastrointestinal disorder that has a
87 substantial impact on quality of life and social functioning.^{1,2} The pathophysiology of IBS is
88 only partially understood.³ It affects between and 5% and 10% of the general population,⁴
89 and is characterised by recurrent abdominal pain in association with abnormal stool form or
90 frequency.⁵ Treatment aims to improve both abdominal pain and bowel habit, but often is
91 targeted towards the most troublesome symptom. First-line therapies include dietary changes,
92 soluble fibre, and antispasmodic drugs; in patients with more severe symptoms, treatments
93 include central neuromodulators, including low-dose tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs),
94 intestinal secretagogues, drugs acting on opioid or 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptors,
95 antibiotics, and psychological therapies.⁶ The annual direct and indirect costs related to IBS
96 are estimated to be up to €8 billion in Europe,⁷ ¥123 billion in China,⁸ and in excess of \$10
97 billion in the USA.⁹

99 SEARCH STRATEGY AND SELECTION CRITERIA

100 We searched the medical literature using MEDLINE, EMBASE, EMBASE Classic,
101 and the Cochrane central register of controlled trials during the last 10 years with the terms
102 “irritable bowel syndrome”, “epidemiology”, “prevalence”, “incidence”, “aetiology”,
103 “pathophysiology”, “diagnosis”, “investigation”, “management”, “therapy”, and “treatment”
104 in order to identify pertinent articles. In addition, we searched clinicaltrials.gov for
105 unpublished trials. We included only publications in English, and selected those articles
106 whose findings were, in our view, of the greatest importance, favouring randomised
107 controlled trials, meta-analyses, and network meta-analyses.

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109

110 **EPIDEMIOLOGY**

111 The most recent symptom-based diagnostic criteria for IBS, the Rome IV criteria,
112 were developed by consensus among experts in functional gastrointestinal disorders. The
113 criteria consist of abdominal pain associated with an alteration in either stool form or
114 frequency, occurring for at least 6 months.⁵ Patients are subgrouped according to
115 predominant stool pattern, using the Bristol stool form scale:¹⁰ IBS with diarrhoea (IBS-D),
116 IBS with constipation (IBS-C), IBS with mixed stool pattern (IBS-M), and IBS unclassified
117 (IBS-U) (Table 1). Methodological limitations make it difficult to obtain reliable estimates of
118 prevalence,¹¹ particularly because, in the absence of universally accepted biomarkers of
119 disease, the diagnosis relies on self-reported symptom clusters. However, as organic
120 gastrointestinal disease in the community is relatively rare, and a diagnosis of IBS is made
121 based on the presence of typical symptoms, population-based epidemiological studies provide
122 a close approximation of true prevalence, which is between 5% and 10% in most
123 geographical regions (Figure 1).⁴

124 Various iterations of these symptom-based diagnostic criteria have resulted in
125 differences in reported prevalence, but disease impact is substantial even in people felt to
126 have IBS, but not meeting such criteria.¹² In addition, both symptom interpretation and
127 reporting are influenced by cultural factors, and can vary among ethnic groups.¹¹ Prior to
128 publication of the Rome IV criteria in 2016,⁵ two systematic reviews examining global
129 prevalence of IBS were conducted.^{4,13} The first reported a pooled prevalence of 11.2% (95%
130 confidence interval (CI) 9.8% to 12.8%),¹³ ranging from 1.1% in Iran, using the Rome III
131 criteria, to 45% in Pakistan using Rome II. The second review reported a global prevalence of
132 8.8% (95% CI 8.7% to 8.9%).⁴ Prevalence varied widely, from 1.1% in France using the
133 Rome II criteria, and Iran using Rome III, to 35.5% in Mexico using Rome II.¹⁴ Thus,

134 despite commonly accepted prevalence ranges, variation in estimates between studies is
135 large, partly due to methodological heterogeneity.

136 Findings from a Rome Foundation 33-nation cross-sectional survey, examining
137 worldwide prevalence and burden of functional gastrointestinal disorders in over 73,000
138 individuals in 26 countries, were published in 2020.¹⁵ Using Rome IV criteria, prevalence
139 rates ranged between 2% and 6%, with a pooled prevalence of 4.1%. In countries where both
140 Rome III and IV criteria were applied, pooled prevalence fell from 10.1% with Rome III to
141 3.8% for Rome IV. However, there remains a dearth of prevalence data from Africa, Eastern
142 Europe, and the Middle East.

143

144 **RISK FACTORS**

145 In two systematic reviews, rates of IBS were significantly higher in females^{4,13} and,
146 when 14 studies were pooled, prevalence was lower in those aged ≥ 50 (odds ratio (OR) 0.75;
147 95% CI 0.62 to 0.92) compared with those aged < 50 years.¹³ There are no reliable data on
148 IBS and socio-economic status. IBS is more common in patients with functional somatic
149 syndromes, such as fibromyalgia and chronic fatigue.¹⁶ Many other psychosocial, biological,
150 and environmental factors are associated with IBS, and may influence symptom severity
151 (Figure 2). However, it is unclear if these are genuine risk factors; most studies are cross-
152 sectional, and lack the temporal element needed to determine cause and effect.

153 Perhaps the best-recognised risk factor for IBS, observed in approximately 10% of
154 patients,¹⁷ is prior acute enteric infection. This is termed post-infection IBS (PI-IBS), and
155 can occur after bacterial, viral, or protozoal infection.¹⁸ In one retrospective cohort study,
156 even non-specific gastrointestinal infections, which comprised the vast majority of cases,
157 were associated with an equally high risk of PI-IBS to culture-confirmed bacterial or viral
158 infections.¹⁹ A meta-analysis of 45 observational studies reported a four-fold increase in

159 odds of developing IBS in exposed individuals 12 months post-infection (OR 4.2; 95% CI 3.1
160 to 5.7).¹⁸ Risk factors for development of PI-IBS included female sex, antibiotic exposure,
161 psychological distress preceding the illness, and severity of infection.¹⁸ Prognosis may be
162 better than in those with a non-infectious cause although, in one longitudinal follow-up study,
163 15% of those with PI-IBS remained symptomatic 8 years later.²⁰

164

165 **PATHOPHYSIOLOGY**

166 The biopsychosocial model to explain symptoms of abdominal pain and disordered
167 bowel habit in IBS conceptualised a genetic predisposition, where adverse events in early
168 life, psychological factors, or gastrointestinal infections then trigger alterations in the enteric
169 nervous system, which controls gastrointestinal motor, sensory, mucosal barrier, and
170 secretory responses (Figure 3).²¹

171

172 **“Traditional” Mechanisms: The Brain-gut Axis, Stress, Visceral Hypersensitivity, and** 173 **Altered Motility**

174 In addition to the psychological component of IBS,²² gut-brain communication is
175 bidirectional. Prospective longitudinal studies demonstrate that a subset of patients
176 experience gastrointestinal symptoms first,^{23,24} and psychological distress later.
177 Gastrointestinal infection and psychological disorders appear to be distinct risk factors,
178 contributing additively to the development of both PI-IBS and the extra-intestinal symptoms
179 frequently linked to IBS, such as chronic fatigue.¹⁹

180 Altered visceral sensation in IBS is characterised by central abnormalities in sensory,
181 emotional arousal, and prefrontal cortical regions of the brain. Alterations in the descending
182 pathways modulating sensation, and peripheral mechanisms are also involved in the
183 pathogenesis of visceral pain.²⁵ On average, about 60% of patients exhibit increased

184 sensitivity of the gut to different physiological stimuli.^{26,27} Disordered motility in IBS is
185 manifested by abnormal colonic myoelectric activity,²⁸ repetitive contractions of the small
186 intestine and colon, associated with abdominal pain, and alterations in gastrointestinal or
187 colonic transit.^{29,30} Accumulation of different mechanisms (psychological, sensory, and
188 motor) increases both gastrointestinal and non-gastrointestinal symptom severity, as well as
189 impairments in quality of life.^{31,32}

190

191 **The Gut Microenvironment**

192 As many IBS patients report that their symptoms are associated with eating, or
193 eliminating, certain foods,³³ it has been assumed that diet and, more recently, gastrointestinal
194 microbiota are involved in pathophysiology.

195

196 Dietary FODMAPs and Disaccharide Maldigestion

197 Fermentable oligo-, di-, and mono-saccharides and polyols (FODMAPs) are present
198 in high levels in some fruits, artificial sweeteners, legumes, and green vegetables, and are
199 poorly absorbed in all individuals. They have fermentative and osmotic effects, which may
200 contribute to symptoms in some patients.³⁴ Although randomised controlled trials (RCTs)
201 have confirmed that dietary modification can affect IBS symptoms, so far, they have not
202 confirmed symptom generation by a specific food. Patients with IBS exhibit comparable
203 increases in small intestinal water content and colonic volume to FODMAPs to those seen in
204 healthy individuals, but symptomatic responses are greater in IBS, supporting the role of
205 visceral hypersensitivity.³⁵ Dietary disaccharide maldigestion may induce symptoms
206 secondary to osmotic diarrhoea and gas production following fermentation of unabsorbed
207 sugars,^{36,37} due to disaccharidase deficiency, classically lactase or, as more recently

208 demonstrated in 4% of patients with IBS, ^{38,39} sucrase-isomaltase, which digests sucrose and
209 starch.

210

211 The Microbiome

212 Although some studies demonstrate that patients with IBS have a different
213 gastrointestinal microbiome, compared with healthy controls, ^{40,41} the role of the microbiota
214 is still questioned, particularly because what constitutes a “healthy” microbiome remains
215 unclear. A systematic review demonstrated few consistent findings in IBS (possibly because
216 age, sex, race, diet, and antibiotic intake were not controlled for in included studies), and
217 certainly no microbiome signature differentiating IBS subgroups. ⁴² Antibiotics change the
218 intestinal microbiome, and have been associated with development of IBS. ⁴³ Small intestinal
219 bacterial overgrowth (SIBO), has also been implicated, ⁴⁴ but its role is controversial due, in
220 large part, to limitations of available diagnostic tests, such as glucose and lactulose breath
221 tests ⁴⁵ and culture of jejunal aspirates. ⁴⁶

222

223 Bile Acids

224 Up to 25% of patients who meet criteria for IBS-D have idiopathic bile acid
225 diarrhoea, demonstrated by abnormal retention following 23-seleno-25-homotaurocholic acid
226 (SeHCAT) scanning, ⁴⁷ or total 48-hour faecal bile acid levels. ⁴⁸ The latter correlated with
227 stool number and form, and colonic transit, in one case series of patients. ⁴⁹ Excess faecal bile
228 acids in IBS-D appeared to be associated with dysbiosis, specifically a Clostridia-rich
229 microbiota, in a case-control study. ⁵⁰

230

231

232

233 Barrier Function and Immune Activation

234 Acute gastrointestinal infections induce changes in intestinal permeability and the
235 microbiome.⁵¹ This may promote activation of immune cells, including T-lymphocytes and
236 mast cells, in the gastrointestinal epithelium,⁵² leading to cytokine release, which can modify
237 neural control of gastrointestinal motor, sensory, and secretory functions. Pathophysiological
238 alterations can last for years. For example, in PI-IBS neuronal signalling remained sensitised
239 2 years after the infection.⁵³ Other investigators have reported increased gastrointestinal
240 permeability and elevated immune cell counts, even in patients with IBS without an infective
241 aetiology.^{54,55}

242

243 **Genetics**

244 Although research into the genetics of IBS lags behind other conditions, like
245 inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), genome-wide association studies have provided
246 associations with variants on chromosome 9 (9q31.2 locus) that are linked to the functions of
247 diverse ion channels and autonomic dysfunction,⁵⁶ and mutations in the sucrase-isomaltase
248 gene,^{38,39} as previously discussed. In addition, approximately 2% of IBS patients carry
249 missense mutations in *SCN5A*,⁵⁷ which alters the function of the voltage-gated
250 mechanosensitive Na⁺ channel Na_v1.5, and affects smooth muscle function and mechanical
251 sensitivity. In twin studies, concordance of a diagnosis of IBS is commoner in monozygotic,
252 compared with dizygotic twins; however, having a parent with IBS is a stronger predictor,
253 suggesting that environmental factors such as learned illness behaviour are more important.⁵⁸

254

255 **CLINICAL PRESENTATION AND DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS**

256 Although IBS is a multifactorial and heterogeneous disorder, there are some typical
257 features. The condition is most common among females aged 20 to 40 years,^{4,13} although in

258 some countries appears more prevalent in males.⁵⁹ It can occur at any age;¹⁵ the average age
259 of participants in clinical trials of novel drugs in IBS is around 45 years, illustrating the broad
260 age range of patients. Coexistent mood problems and extra-intestinal symptoms, including
261 back pain, gynaecological and bladder symptoms, headache, and fatigue are common,^{60,61} as
262 is overlap with other functional gastrointestinal disorders.⁶² The presence of abdominal pain
263 is essential to the definition of IBS. Accordingly, the differential diagnosis is broad, but other
264 features help narrow this down. Firstly, as IBS is a chronic disorder, causes of acute
265 abdominal pain are ruled out. Secondly, the pain is recurrent, but it is intermittent rather than
266 continuous. Thirdly, pain is usually in the lower abdomen, although Asian patients may
267 report upper abdominal pain.⁶³ Finally, and most critically, pain in IBS is associated with
268 defaecation, and occurs at the time when the patient experiences alterations in stool frequency
269 or consistency.⁵ Although IBS is subgrouped according to predominant stool pattern,⁵ this
270 fluctuates in many patients.⁶⁴ Abdominal bloating is not a cardinal symptom but is very
271 common, and supports the diagnosis, particularly if it is diurnal. It is often accompanied by
272 visible abdominal distension.⁶⁵

273 In order to understand the precise meaning of terms such as diarrhoea or constipation,
274 as well as the impact of the disorder on social functioning and wellbeing, a thorough history
275 is essential. The Bristol stool form scale is a useful tool to assess stool consistency in the
276 clinic, and can be used to direct treatment, which is discussed later. A detailed history helps
277 differentiate between IBS and other disorders characterised by abdominal pain in association
278 with altered bowel habit, including coeliac disease, IBD, colorectal cancer (CRC), and
279 microscopic colitis (MC). These are considered below.

280

281

282

283 **INVESTIGATIONS**

284 Although there is no universally accepted biomarker for IBS, exhaustive investigation
285 to exclude an organic cause for the symptoms is discouraged, as this is expensive, and many
286 patients are not reassured by such an approach.⁶⁶ Once a clinical diagnosis of IBS is made, it
287 is unlikely to be revised, even during extended follow-up.⁶⁷ Guidelines recommend a
288 “positive” diagnosis using symptom-based diagnostic criteria, such as the Rome criteria, and
289 minimising investigations (Figure 4).⁶ Although the Rome IV criteria have yet to be
290 validated independently, in secondary care sensitivity of the Rome III criteria was 68.8%,
291 specificity 79.5%, and positive and negative likelihood ratios 3.35 and 0.39, respectively.⁶⁸
292 The addition of other features from the clinical history, including absence of nocturnal stools,
293 presence of anxiety, depression, or extra-intestinal symptoms, and a normal full blood count
294 and C-reactive protein enhances the diagnostic performance of the Rome III criteria.⁶⁹

295 There is little evidence to support a routine panel of blood tests, other than full blood
296 count, C-reactive protein, and serological screening for coeliac disease, which has a
297 prevalence of 1% in most Western countries, and is an important differential diagnosis. A
298 meta-analysis demonstrated an almost three-fold higher odds of positive coeliac serology in
299 patients with symptoms suggestive of IBS (OR 2.75; 95% CI 1.35 to 5.61), compared with
300 healthy controls, irrespective of predominant stool pattern.⁷⁰

301 Whether any further investigations are required in a patient with new onset symptoms
302 depends, to some extent, on bowel habit, unless alarm symptoms or signs (Table 2) are
303 present.⁷¹ The latter are an indication for urgent colonoscopy. Colonoscopy should also be
304 performed if the patient is aged ≥ 50 years and has not already had age-related CRC
305 screening. In addition, unexplained rectal bleeding or iron-deficiency anaemia needs
306 investigation, regardless of age. A family history of coeliac disease, IBD, or CRC is also
307 relevant. In a patient with IBS-C, the diagnosis is secure, unless there are obstructive

308 symptoms (excessive straining, sense of incomplete rectal evacuation, or digitation of the
309 anus to facilitate defaecation) or digital rectal examination suggests a defaecatory disorder,⁷²
310 which is the result of incoordination of the normal functions required for rectal evacuation. If
311 present, anorectal manometry with balloon expulsion testing may be helpful, as the treatment
312 of choice for these conditions is biofeedback,⁷³ rather than dietary or drug therapy.

313 In a patient with diarrhoea, there may be greater concern for a missed organic
314 diagnosis. Faecal calprotectin, which is a cytosol protein released by neutrophils, can
315 differentiate between IBS and IBD,^{74,75} avoiding the need for colonoscopy, for which the
316 yield is low. In a cross-sectional survey of almost 500 patients with IBS, only 0.4% of
317 patients were found to have IBD at colonoscopy, 1.5% MC, and there were no cases of CRC.
318 ⁷⁶ MC is more common in females over the age of 45 years. There are other clues to MC as a
319 cause of symptoms, rather than IBS, which should lead to consideration of colonoscopy to
320 obtain colonic biopsies. These include the fact that the presence of abdominal pain is
321 variable, duration of symptoms tends to be shorter, and patients often have coexistent
322 autoimmune disease, report nocturnal diarrhoea and weight loss, or are taking drugs, such as
323 a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug or a proton pump inhibitor.^{77,78}

324 Bile acid diarrhoea is another important differential in patients presenting with IBS-D,
325 as its estimated population prevalence is 1%. It can be diagnosed using SeHCAT scanning, a
326 fasting serum 7 α -hydroxy-4-cholesten-3-one, fibroblast growth factor-19, or 48-hour faecal
327 bile acid excretion,⁷⁹ but these are not universally available. A therapeutic trial of a bile acid
328 sequestrant as a surrogate diagnostic test is an alternative, although it is unclear what dose
329 should be used, and problems with medication compliance may compromise its utility.⁸⁰

330 The reported association between SIBO and IBS is contentious.⁴⁴ Investigations to
331 exclude SIBO should only be considered in patients with clear risk factors, such as previous
332 gastric or intestinal surgery, or known structural abnormalities, including jejunal

333 diverticulosis. Hydrogen breath tests may be falsely positive, as they are a marker for rapid
334 transit.⁴⁵ Instead, culture of jejunal aspirates should be considered if SIBO is suspected.⁸¹

335

336 **NATURAL HISTORY AND IMPACT**

337 The typical course in IBS consists of fluctuating symptoms, in terms of bowel habit.⁶⁴
338 Incidence of new-onset IBS was approximately 1.5% to 2.5% per year, over 10 to 12 years, in
339 three longitudinal studies.⁸²⁻⁸⁴ However, prevalence remains stable, because the number of
340 people developing new symptoms is matched by the number whose symptoms disappear or
341 fluctuate to another functional gastrointestinal disorder.^{83,84} IBS causes morbidity, but not
342 mortality,⁸⁵ and affects quality of life¹ to the same degree as organic gastrointestinal
343 disorders such as Crohn's disease.⁸⁶

344 It also impacts work productivity,^{1,2} social integration, and psychosocial factors, such
345 as general and gut-related anxiety, depression, and somatisation.^{60,87} Some of these
346 associations are bidirectional,^{23,24} so that psychosocial factors can exacerbate IBS symptoms,
347 and the illness experience, and vice versa. One cross-sectional survey showed the impact on
348 daily activity differs according to stool pattern; those with IBS-D avoided travel or leaving
349 the house, due to concerns about toilet access, and those with IBS-C avoided sexual
350 intercourse and reported difficulty concentrating.⁸⁸ Associations with severity include
351 overlap with other functional gastrointestinal disorders,⁶² and consulter status.⁸⁹ However,
352 those who consult with symptoms also have poorer quality of life, increased rates of
353 psychological symptoms, and reduced coping.⁸⁹ There is a direct correlation between number
354 of overlapping functional gastrointestinal disorders, reduced quality of life, and increased
355 health care utilisation and gastrointestinal surgery.⁶² Patients are willing to accept a 1%
356 median risk of sudden death in return for a 99% chance of cure of their symptoms with a
357 hypothetical medication.⁹⁰

358 MANAGEMENT

359 As no medical therapy is proven to alter the natural history of IBS, and the majority of
360 RCTs are only conducted over a 12-week period meaning that their long-term efficacy is
361 unknown, an empathetic approach is key. This can improve quality of life and symptoms,⁹¹
362 reduce health care visits, and enhance adherence to treatment.^{92,93} Management should
363 commence with explanation of the disorder, its pathophysiology, and natural history. In fact,
364 structured patient education about the condition led to a significantly greater improvement in
365 symptoms, compared with written information, in one RCT.⁹⁴ Treatment is directed towards
366 the predominant symptom, with a realistic discussion of the limitations of available therapies,
367 in order to manage expectations, as most improve symptoms in only 25% to 30% of patients
368 (Table 3), and have only been tested in referral populations. The final decision as to the
369 choice of treatment should be the patient's, after they receive full information on available
370 options in a dialogue with the doctor.

371

372 Lifestyle, Diet, and Probiotics

373 The effect of lifestyle changes in IBS has not been well studied; in a small RCT of
374 physiotherapist-administered exercise, symptoms improved significantly, compared with a
375 control arm with no changes to physical activity.⁹⁵ Traditionally, patients with IBS were told
376 to increase dietary fibre intake. However, bran may exacerbate symptoms,⁹⁶ although
377 ispaghula husk was more efficacious than placebo in a meta-analysis of seven RCTs (relative
378 risk (RR) of remaining symptomatic 0.83; 95% CI 0.73 to 0.94).⁹⁷ Several RCTs
379 demonstrate that FODMAP restriction leads to an improvement in IBS symptoms, compared
380 with habitual diet.^{98,99} However, other RCTs suggest that "traditional" dietary advice to eat
381 small regular meals, avoid known trigger foods, and reduce alcohol and caffeine, is as
382 effective as a low FODMAP diet.^{100,101} Long-term FODMAP restriction may lead to

383 deleterious alterations in the microbiome.¹⁰² FODMAPs should, therefore, be reintroduced to
384 tolerance after a limited period of restriction, but RCTs conducted to date only examine the
385 effect on symptoms during FODMAP elimination. There is little evidence to support benefit
386 of a gluten-free diet in IBS.¹⁰³ However, as wheat contains fructans, which is a FODMAP, it
387 incorporates elements of a low FODMAP diet; some patients may, therefore, adapt a low
388 FODMAP diet to one that instead avoids gluten.¹⁰⁴ There have been numerous RCTs of
389 probiotics in IBS but, although some trials show positive results, ability to make
390 recommendations as to which combination, species, or strain is effective is limited due to the
391 wide variety of products studied, and the conflicting results among individual trials.¹⁰⁵

392

393 **First-line Medical Therapies**

394 Laxatives, antidiarrhoeals, and antispasmodics are all used first-line in IBS. Most
395 RCTs of these drugs are old, and are hampered by suboptimal methodology and
396 heterogeneous patient selection, meaning that efficacy according to predominant stool pattern
397 is uncertain. In addition, efficacy endpoints do not meet current recommendations from the
398 Food and Drug Administration (FDA) or European Medicines Agency (EMA). Although
399 osmotic and stimulant laxatives are efficacious in chronic constipation,¹⁰⁶ there is little
400 evidence for their use in IBS. A placebo-controlled trial of polyethylene glycol in 139
401 patients with IBS-C demonstrated an increased number of bowel movements, but no
402 improvement in abdominal pain.¹⁰⁷ Similarly, there are only a few small RCTs of
403 antidiarrhoeals, such as loperamide.⁶ Nevertheless, some patients find laxatives or
404 antidiarrhoeals useful. Antispasmodic drugs were more efficacious than placebo in a meta-
405 analysis of 26 trials (RR of remaining symptomatic 0.65; 95% CI 0.56 to 0.76), although side
406 effects were more common (RR 1.60; 95% CI 1.15 to 2.21).⁶ In terms of individual drugs,
407 otilonium, cimetropium, pinaverium, and hyoscine had the most evidence for efficacy;

408 availability is an issue in some countries. A 4-week RCT of pinaverium, recruiting 427
409 Chinese patients with IBS-D, and which used FDA-recommended endpoints, demonstrated a
410 significant benefit of the drug over placebo for both abdominal pain and diarrhoea,¹⁰⁸
411 suggesting antispasmodics may be efficacious in IBS-D. Peppermint oil also appeared
412 superior to placebo in a meta-analysis of seven RCTs (RR of remaining symptomatic 0.54;
413 95% CI 0.39 to 0.76),⁶ although a subsequent placebo-controlled trial of small intestinal or
414 ileocolonic-release formulations did not demonstrate efficacy for either FDA or EMA-
415 recommended endpoints.¹⁰⁹

416

417 **Second-line Medical Therapies**

418 Given the accepted role of the gut-brain axis in IBS, the use of antidepressant drugs
419 and CNS targeted medications, or central neuromodulators, as a potential therapy is logical.
420 There is some evidence for efficacy of TCAs; a meta-analysis of 12 RCTs reported a RR of
421 remaining symptomatic of 0.65 (95% CI 0.55 to 0.77) compared with placebo, but trial
422 quality was low and in most RCTs patients were not recruited according to predominant stool
423 pattern.¹¹⁰ Adverse events were more common (RR 1.56; 95% CI 1.23 to 1.98). TCAs have
424 neuromodulatory properties and also slow gastrointestinal transit,¹¹¹ so may be best for
425 patients with predominant pain and/or diarrhoea. Evidence for efficacy of selective serotonin
426 reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) in the same meta-analysis was less convincing.¹¹⁰ A 12-week
427 placebo-controlled trial of pregabalin in 85 patients failed to demonstrate adequate relief of
428 symptoms, but there were significant improvements in global symptoms, pain, diarrhoea, and
429 bloating.¹¹² All other second-line therapies are licensed and are used based on predominant
430 stool pattern.

431 5-HT₄ receptor agonists accelerate gastrointestinal transit. Tegaserod was more
432 efficacious than placebo in IBS-C,¹¹³ but was withdrawn due to a small excess number of

433 cerebrovascular and cardiovascular ischaemic events. It was reintroduced in the USA in 2018
434 for female patients <65 years without existing cardiovascular disease. Prucalopride, another
435 5-HT₄ agonist, was superior to placebo in chronic constipation;¹⁰⁶ there are no RCTs in IBS-
436 C. Intestinal secretagogues, such as lubiprostone, linaclotide, plecanatide, and tenapanor act
437 on ion channels in enterocytes, leading to water efflux, thereby accelerating gastrointestinal
438 transit and improving stool consistency. Placebo-controlled trials have demonstrated efficacy
439 of these drugs in IBS-C;¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁷ there have been no head-to-head trials. A network meta-
440 analysis of 15 RCTs demonstrated similar efficacy for all drugs, but linaclotide was ranked
441 first for improvements in global symptoms, abdominal pain, and stool frequency; tenapanor
442 ranked first for improvement in bloating.¹¹⁸ Diarrhoea was the most common adverse event
443 with all drugs except lubiprostone, which causes nausea in up to 20% of patients.¹¹⁸

444 Licensed therapies for IBS-D include the 5-HT₃ antagonists alosetron and ramosetron,
445 a peripherally acting mixed opioid receptor agonist/antagonist eluxadoline, and the minimally
446 absorbed antibiotic rifaximin. 5-HT₃ antagonists and eluxadoline slow gastrointestinal transit
447 and reduce visceral hypersensitivity.¹¹⁹ 5-HT₃ antagonists also alter rectal compliance.¹²⁰
448 Rifaximin has been tested on the basis that alterations in the gastrointestinal microbiota and
449 SIBO may, in part, be responsible for symptoms in IBS; the exact mechanism of action
450 remains uncertain.¹²¹ Although all these drugs have demonstrated efficacy over placebo,
451^{113,122-124} again there have been no head-to-head trials. A network meta-analysis of 18 RCTs
452 demonstrated that 5-HT₃ receptor antagonists ranked first for improvement in global
453 symptoms, abdominal pain, and stool consistency.¹²⁵ All drugs, except rifaximin, were more
454 likely to cause constipation than placebo. A crossover placebo-controlled trial of
455 ondansetron, another 5-HT₃ antagonist, in 120 patients with IBS-D demonstrated significant
456 improvements in stool consistency and urgency, but not pain;¹²⁶ a large RCT is ongoing.¹²⁷

457 Figure 5 outlines the spectrum of medications available for pain, constipation, and
458 diarrhoea in IBS, as well as drugs in development. Overall, there is a plethora of choices for
459 diarrhoea or constipation, but still an unmet clinical need for relief of pain.

460

461 **Psychological Therapies**

462 Similar to central neuromodulators, psychological therapies may exert not only
463 central effects on mood, but also peripheral effects on pain perception, visceral
464 hypersensitivity, and gastrointestinal motility.^{128,129} A meta-analysis of 36 RCTs
465 demonstrated that cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), gut-directed hypnotherapy,
466 relaxation therapy, multi-component psychological therapy, and dynamic psychotherapy were
467 all more effective than a control intervention.¹¹⁰ Some have evidence for efficacy out to 12
468 months of follow-up.¹³⁰ These may be intensive, in terms of hours of therapist contact, but
469 subsequent RCTs demonstrate that minimal contact CBT, CBT via the telephone, and group
470 gut-directed hypnotherapy are also effective, even for patients whose symptoms are
471 refractory to medical therapy.¹³¹⁻¹³³ Whether earlier intervention with psychological
472 therapies can change the natural history of IBS, or whether augmentative therapy with a
473 psychological therapy and a central neuromodulator has additive benefit, is unclear.

474

475 **FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND CONTROVERSIES**

476 Reasons for the difference in prevalence of IBS across different countries, remain
477 uncertain, and prevalence data from certain regions are lacking. Our understanding of the
478 epidemiology is likely to increase as the Rome Foundation global cross-sectional survey
479 database of 73,076 participants is mined further.¹⁵ Despite considerable efforts, a biomarker
480 for IBS remains elusive. A validation study of antibodies to bacterial toxins and host cell
481 adhesion proteins performed only modestly in distinguishing IBS from health.¹³⁴ A case-

482 control study reported distinct faecal and urinary metabolomic profiles in those with IBS, ¹³⁵
483 which might allow the development of microbe-based treatments. The efficacy of probiotics
484 and faecal microbiota transplantation is inconsistent, ^{105,136} although a RCT of faecal
485 microbiota transplantation using a single, healthy, well-characterised donor demonstrated
486 efficacy. ¹³⁷ However, more than 50% of patients in this trial continued to have moderate to
487 severe symptoms. With the discovery of actionable biomarkers to identify the mechanisms
488 underlying symptoms the hope is that, in the future, IBS therapy will move away from drugs
489 targeting the predominant symptom, or symptoms, towards one where patients are stratified
490 based on underlying pathophysiology, using these biomarkers, in order to facilitate
491 individualised treatment. ¹³⁸

492 Other pharmacological therapies are in development (Figure 5). Drugs that reduce
493 uptake of sodium ions from the lumen, via transporters expressed in the intestine, result in
494 water retention in the lumen and looser stools. These include mizagliflozin, a sodium-glucose
495 cotransporter-1 inhibitor, and DRAinh-A250, an inhibitor of the solute carrier 26A3. In a
496 phase 2 placebo-controlled trial of mizagliflozin in patients with chronic constipation,
497 response rates were significantly higher with 5mg and 10mg doses, and the medication
498 appeared safe, ¹³⁹ albeit after only 1 week of treatment. When administered intraluminally,
499 DRAinh-A250 blocked fluid absorption in mouse colonic loops and reversed loperamide-
500 induced constipation; ¹⁴⁰ there are no human studies to date.

501 Bile acids are physiological laxatives, and are implicated in the pathophysiology of
502 IBS. ⁴⁸ Inhibition of the ileal bile acid transporter by elobixibat accelerated colonic transit in
503 patients with constipation, ¹⁴¹ and a trial in Japan demonstrated that a 10mg dose was
504 efficacious in patients with constipation, including IBS-C. ¹⁴² Although the drug is licensed in
505 Japan, adverse events occurred in 30% of patients, particularly diarrhoea and abdominal pain,
506 and this was only a 2-week trial.

507 Novel analgesic approaches include further refinements of existing secretagogues.
508 Cyclic GMP (cGMP) production in enterocytes is stimulated by some of these drugs, such as
509 linaclotide. When transported into the extracellular space at the basolateral membrane,¹⁴³
510 cGMP leads to decreased conduction of submucosal afferent nociceptive neurons, attenuating
511 visceral pain.¹⁴⁴ A preliminary RCT of targeted colonic delivery of linaclotide in patients
512 with IBS-C demonstrated pain relief, without effects on constipation,¹⁴⁵ suggesting that
513 cGMP release from enterocytes reduces the function of peripheral visceral afferents.

514 When conventional opioids bind to μ -opioid receptors, they induce analgesia through
515 activation of G protein-mediated pathways, but they also activate β -arrestin, which inhibits
516 gastrointestinal motility and depresses central functions, such as cognition and respiration.
517 New biased μ -opioid receptor ligands activate the G protein pathway exclusively, leading to
518 analgesia with reduced gastrointestinal dysfunction.¹⁴⁶ Oliceridine is a biased μ -opioid
519 receptor ligand with comparable analgesic effects to morphine although there are, as yet, no
520 human studies in visceral pain.¹⁴⁷ The cannabinoid type-2 receptor agonist, olotinab, has the
521 potential to alter immune function, as well as sensation, given expression of cannabinoid
522 type-2 receptors in the brain, peripheral nervous system, and gastrointestinal tract. In an
523 open-label trial in patients with quiescent Crohn's disease, it reduced abdominal pain and
524 improved bowel movements.¹⁴⁸ Clinical trials are being conducted in IBS.¹⁴⁹ The histamine-
525 $_1$ receptor antagonist ebastine appears to attenuate visceral hypersensitivity *in vitro*¹⁵⁰ and, in
526 a RCT of 45 patients, led to significant improvements in both global symptoms and
527 abdominal pain compared with placebo;¹⁵⁰ a larger trial is in progress.¹⁵¹

528 In summary, the greater understanding of pathophysiological mechanisms in IBS has
529 ushered in the development of novel treatment strategies to manage patients, particularly the
530 abdominal pain component of IBS, for which central neuromodulators or psychological
531 therapies are currently the main approaches. The diverse molecular mechanisms to which

532 drugs in development are targeted augurs for substantial impact in the management of IBS in
533 the foreseeable future. Nevertheless, a strong doctor-patient relationship with attention to the
534 clinical history, an appreciation of the impact of symptoms on the patient's life, together with
535 an explanation of the condition and its natural history, and shared decision-making, remain
536 key to effective management.

537

538 **Contributors**

539 ACF, ADS, MC, and MC did the literature search, wrote the manuscript, and drafted the
540 figures. ACF and MC revised the initial manuscript. All authors critically revised subsequent
541 versions of the manuscript and approved the final version of the manuscript.

542

543 **Declaration of Interests**

544 ACF has no conflicts of interest. ADS has no conflicts of interest. MC has acted as a
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548

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975

976 **FIGURE LEGENDS.**

977 **Figure 1. Global Prevalence of Irritable Bowel Syndrome According to the Rome III**
978 **Criteria*.**

979 ***Note, the prevalence data reported here are taken from studies using the Rome III**
980 **criteria for IBS, summarised in references 4, 13, and 15.**

981 **Figure 2. Factors Affecting Symptom Severity in Irritable Bowel Syndrome.**

982 **Figure 3. Pathophysiological Mechanisms Involved in Irritable Bowel Syndrome.**

983 ***Genome-wide association studies have demonstrated associations with variants of**
984 **chromosome 9 (reference 56), and mutations in the sucrase-isomaltase gene (references**
985 **37 and 38), and studies have shown approximately 2% of IBS patients carry mutations**
986 **in *SCN5A* (reference 57), which alters the function of the voltage-gated**
987 **mechanosensitive Na⁺ channel Na_v1.5.**

988 **†See references 17 to 20.**

989 **±Gastrointestinal symptoms include abdominal pain, abnormal stool form and/or**
990 **frequency, and bloating (reference 5); non-gastrointestinal symptoms include back pain,**
991 **gynaecological and bladder symptoms, headache, and fatigue (reference 60).**

992 **Figure 4. Suggested Diagnostic Algorithm for Patients with Suspected Irritable Bowel**
993 **Syndrome.**

994 ***Abdominal pain, related to defaecation, associated with change in stool form or stool**
995 **frequency (reference 5).**

996 **†Full blood count and C-reactive protein/erythrocyte sedimentation rate**

997 **±See Table 2.**

998 **§Including family history of inflammatory bowel disease, coeliac disease, or colorectal**
999 **cancer, or features suggestive of microscopic colitis (female, age ≥50 years; co-existent**
1000 **autoimmune disease; proton pump inhibitor or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug**

1001 **use; duration of diarrhoea < 12 months; weight loss; or nocturnal diarrhoea (references**
1002 **77 and 78)).**

1003 **‡Consider measuring SeHCAT retention, serum 7 α -hydroxy-4-cholesten-3-one, serum**
1004 **fibroblast growth factor-19, or 48-hour faecal bile acid excretion, where available, or a**
1005 **trial of a bile acid sequestrant, to exclude bile acid diarrhoea.**

1006 ****If the initial faecal calprotectin level is within the abnormal range the suspicion for**
1007 **inflammatory bowel disease is high, proceed to colonoscopy (reference 74); if the initial**
1008 **faecal calprotectin level is indeterminate according to local laboratory values, repeat the**
1009 **test off non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and refer for colonoscopy if the repeat**
1010 **test remains indeterminate or is within the abnormal range.**

1011 **††If features suggestive of a defaecatory disorder, including obstructive symptoms (such**
1012 **as a feeling of incomplete evacuation or the need to digitate during defaecation) or**
1013 **paradoxical anal contraction on straining during digital rectal examination, are present**
1014 **consider anorectal manometry with balloon expulsion testing.**

1015 **Figure 5. Current and Emerging Treatment Options for Irritable Bowel Syndrome.**

1016

1017 **Table 1. The Rome IV Criteria for Irritable Bowel Syndrome*.**

Rome IV IBS Diagnostic Criteria			
1. Recurrent abdominal pain, on average, at least 1 day per week in the last 3 months and associated with two or more of the following: a. Related to defaecation; b. Associated with a change in frequency of stool; c. Associated with a change in stool form.			
AND			
2. Criteria fulfilled for the last 3 months with symptom onset at least 6 months prior to diagnosis			
IBS-C	IBS-D	IBS-M	IBS-U
≥25% of bowel movements of Bristol stool form types 1 or 2, and <25% of Bristol stool form types 6 or 7.	≥25% of bowel movements of Bristol stool form types 6 or 7, and <25% of Bristol stool form types 1 or 2.	≥25% of bowel movements of Bristol stool form types 1 or 2, and ≥25% of bowel movements of Bristol stool form types 6 or 7.	Patients who meet criteria for IBS, but who do not fall into one of the other three subgroups according to Bristol stool form type.

1018 ***Adapted from reference 5.**

1019

1020 **Table 2. Lower Gastrointestinal Alarm Symptoms and Signs (Based on the UK's NICE**
1021 **Guidance*).**

Definite Referral Criteria	
•	Aged ≥ 40 years with unexplained weight loss and abdominal pain.
•	Aged ≥ 50 years with unexplained rectal bleeding.
•	Aged ≥ 60 years with change in bowel habit, a positive faecal occult blood test, or iron deficiency anaemia.

1022 ***Adapted from reference 71.** Regardless of age, adults with unexplained rectal bleeding or
1023 iron-deficiency anaemia (especially if accompanied by abdominal pain, change in bowel
1024 habit, or weight loss), or an abdominal or rectal mass, need investigation to exclude other
1025 gastrointestinal disorders, including cancer.

1026

Table 3. Summary of Evidence for Efficacy of Treatment Approaches for Irritable Bowel Syndrome*.

Therapy	Specific Intervention†	IBS Subgroup Studied	Efficacy	Quality of Data	Adverse Events	Limitations of Data
Diet, lifestyle, and probiotics	Soluble fibre (e.g. ispaghula 20 - 30g/day)	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	Effective	Moderate	Total adverse events no more common with soluble fibre in three RCTs	Only one RCT at low risk of bias; only a small number of patients in existing RCTs
	Low FODMAP diet	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	May be effective	Very low	Total adverse events rarely reported	All RCTs at high risk of bias; heterogeneity between study designs; imprecision in estimate of effect; impact of FODMAP reintroduction not studied within the design
	Exercise	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	May be effective	Very low	Total adverse events not reported	Only two RCTs, which were at high risk of bias; inconsistent effects on symptoms
	Probiotics	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	May be effective	Very low	Total adverse events no more common with probiotics in a meta-analysis of 36 RCTs	Heterogeneity between studies; possible publication bias; only a small number of RCTs assessing each individual probiotic, meaning that it is difficult to know which species or strain is effective
First-line therapies	Peppermint oil (200mg three times daily)	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	Effective	Low	Total adverse events no more common with peppermint oil in a meta-analysis of six RCTs	Only two RCTs at low risk of bias; heterogeneity between studies; trials used very specific formulations so data cannot be extrapolated to other available products; heartburn may be an issue
	Laxatives (e.g. polyethylene glycol 13.8g once daily and titrated)	Patients with IBS-C	Unclear efficacy	Low	Rates of abdominal pain numerically higher with polyethylene glycol in one RCT	Only two RCTs; both RCTs unclear risk of bias; effect on abdominal pain unclear
	Antidiarrhoeals (e.g. loperamide 4mg as required)	Patients with IBS-D and IBS-M	Unclear efficacy	Very low	Total adverse events no more common with antidiarrhoeals in two RCTs	Only two RCTs; both RCTs unclear risk of bias; not all patients met criteria for IBS; no significant effect on IBS symptoms when data pooled; constipation may be an issue

	Antispasmodics (e.g. cimetropium 50mg three times daily, hyoscine 10-20 mg three times daily, otilonium 20-40mg three times daily, or pinaverium 50mg three times daily)	No specific IBS subgroup selected, other than one RCT in patients with IBS-D	May be effective	Very low	Total adverse events significantly more common with antispasmodics in a meta-analysis of 26 RCTs, particularly dry mouth, dizziness, and blurred vision	Only two RCTs at low risk of bias; heterogeneity between studies; possible publication bias; only a small number of RCTs assessing each individual antispasmodic
Second-line therapies	5-HT ₄ agonists (e.g. tegaserod 6mg twice daily)	IBS-C	Effective	High	Diarrhoea significantly more common with tegaserod in a meta-analysis of six RCTs	Concerns regarding small excess of cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events led to withdrawal of tegaserod, reintroduced in 2018 but only for specific patients; no RCTs of prucalopride
	Linaclotide (290mcg once daily)	IBS-C	Effective	High	Diarrhoea significantly more common with linaclotide in a meta-analysis of three RCTs	None
	5-HT ₃ antagonists (e.g. alosetron 0.5-1mg twice daily, ramosetron 2.5-5mcg once daily, or ondansetron 4mg once daily and titrated)	IBS-D and IBS-M	Effective	High	Constipation significantly more common with alosetron in a meta-analysis of three RCTs	All RCTs of ramosetron conducted in Japan; serious adverse events with alosetron included ischaemic colitis and severe constipation leading to restricted use; ramosetron is safer, although constipation is still more common with active therapy
	TCAs (e.g. amitriptyline 10-30mg at night or desipramine 50mg at night)	No specific IBS subgroup selected, other than one RCT in patients with IBS-D	Effective	Moderate	Total adverse events significantly more common with TCAs in a meta-analysis of six RCTs, particularly dry mouth and drowsiness	Only three RCTs at low risk of bias; possible publication bias; some atypical trials included
	Lubiprostone (8mcg twice daily)	IBS-C	Effective	Moderate	Nausea significantly more common with lubiprostone in a meta-analysis of three RCTs	Only a modest benefit over placebo in published RCTs
	Plecanatide (3-6mg once daily)	IBS-C	Effective	Moderate	Diarrhoea significantly more common with plecanatide in a meta-analysis of two RCTs	Only a modest benefit over placebo in published RCTs

	Tenapanor (50mg twice daily)	IBS-C	Effective	Moderate	Rates of diarrhoea numerically higher with tenapanor	Awaiting publication of all phase 3 trial data
	Eluxadoline (100mg twice daily)	IBS-D	Effective	Moderate	Rates of constipation, nausea, and vomiting numerically higher with eluxadoline in a pooled analysis of two RCTs	Heterogeneity between studies; only a modest benefit over placebo in published RCTs; no benefit over placebo in terms of abdominal pain; serious adverse events include acute pancreatitis and sphincter of Oddi spasm
	Rifaximin (550mg three times daily)	IBS-D and IBS-M	Effective	Moderate	Total adverse events no more common with rifaximin in a pooled analysis of three RCTs	Only a modest benefit over placebo in published RCTs
	SSRIs (e.g. fluoxetine 20mg once daily)	No specific IBS subgroup selected, other than one RCT in patients with IBS-C	May be effective	Low	Total adverse events no more common with SSRIs	Only one RCT at low risk of bias; heterogeneity between studies
	Pregabalin (225mg twice daily)	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	May be effective	Low	Total adverse events numerically higher with pregabalin, particularly blurred vision, dizziness, and altered sensation	Only one single-centre RCT although global symptoms, abdominal pain, diarrhoea, and bloating improved significantly
Psychological therapies	CBT or gut-directed hypnotherapy	No specific IBS subgroup recruited	Effective	Very low	Adverse events not reported in individual RCTs, precluding their assessment in a meta-analysis of 36 RCTs	All RCTs at high risk of bias due to the nature of the interventions studied; heterogeneity between studies; possible publication bias; only a small number of RCTs assessing each intervention; time consuming due to need for therapist contact; limited availability in some countries

*Data adapted from reference 6.

†Most drugs should be trialled for 3 months, with their efficacy then reviewed, with the exception of rifaximin, which is a 2-week treatment course. A low FODMAP diet should not be maintained long-term; the restriction phase in RCTs to date has been a maximum of 3 to 4 weeks.