

conditions) one by one at a rate of one stimulus per 5 s (stimulus presentation time=4 s, interstimulus interval=1 s). Stimuli were presented on a black background on a display controlled by a Windows computer.

List A (20 colored random shapes) was presented in one encoding condition (EC; encoding of colored shapes), and list B (20 white random shapes) in the other (EW; encoding of white shapes). During the two encoding conditions, subjects were asked to press a button with the index finger of their left hand as soon as the stimuli were presented and to memorize the shapes and colors of the stimuli. To boost subsequent retrieval, each encoding condition was repeated five times (from the second to the fifth runs: stimulus presentation time=3.5 s, interstimulus interval=0.5 s) and only the first encoding condition was scanned with PET.

List C (14 random shapes which were red or green at encoding, 3 random shapes which were white at encoding, and 3 new random shapes) was presented in one retrieval condition (RC; retrieval of colored shapes), and list D (14 random shapes which were white at encoding, 3 random shapes which were red or green at encoding, and 3 new random shapes) was presented in the other (RW; retrieval of white shapes). During an 80-s PET data acquisition, 14 shapes which were colored at encoding, 1 shape which was white at encoding, and 1 new shape were presented in RC, and 14 shapes which were white at encoding, 1 shape which was green at encoding, and 1 new shape were presented in RW. This procedure ensured that most of the activations occurring during the retrieval conditions were due to the target stimuli, i.e., white shapes which were colored at encoding in RC, and white shapes which were also white at encoding in RW. During the two retrieval conditions, subjects were asked to press one of four buttons with the fingers of their left hand: the index-finger button if they thought the stimulus had been presented in red at encoding, the middle-finger button if they thought it had been presented in green at encoding, the ring-finger button if they thought it had been presented in white at encoding, and the little-finger button if they thought it had not been presented at encoding.

Data acquisition

All the subjects' responses (and the reaction times) were recorded in a computer as they pressed the buttons, and these data were subsequently used for the evaluation of performance accuracy.

Regional cerebral blood flow (rCBF) was measured using PET (SET2400W Shimadzu, FWHM 4.0 mm) and ^{15}O -labeled water (approximately 180 MBq for each injection). The transaxial sampling field of view (FOV) was 256 mm, and the axial FOV was 190 mm. The thickness of the slices measured was 3.125 mm. Prior to the PET experiments, subjects had a catheter inserted into the right brachial vein for tracer administration, and their heads were fixed to an air-cushioned headrest apparatus. Each task started 10 s before PET data acquisition, and lasted 100 s. PET data acquisition lasted 80 s. A transmission scan was followed by the experiment, and the data were used to obtain corrected emission images. A T1-weighted MRI scan (1.5 T) was performed on a separate occasion for coregistration.

Data analysis

The data were analyzed with Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM2) (Wellcome Department of Imaging Neuroscience, UK). All rCBF images acquired from each subject were realigned to correct for small movements occurring between scans. This

process generated an aligned set of images and a mean image per subject. A T1-weighted structural MRI was coregistered to this mean PET image. Then the coregistered T1 image was normalized to the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) templates implemented in SPM2. The parameters from this normalization process were applied to each PET image. The PET images were reformatted to isometric voxels ($2 \times 2 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$) and smoothed with a Gaussian kernel of FWHM of 10 mm. The rCBF-equivalent measurements were adjusted to a global CBF mean of 50 ml/dl/min. Contrast of the condition effect of each voxel was assessed using *t*-statistics, resulting in a statistical image (SPM_t transformed into an SPM_z). In both standard pairwise contrasts (i.e., EC vs. EW and RC vs. RW) and a cognitive conjunction analysis (i.e., EC vs. EW conjunct with RC vs. RW) using the "global null" in SPM2 software (Friston et al., 1999, 2005), the threshold of significance was set at $p < 0.001$ (uncorrected for multiple comparisons). It should be noted that our "significant conjunction" does not mean all the contrasts were individually significant (i.e., a conjunction of significance). It simply means that the contrasts were consistently high and jointly significant. This is equivalent to inferring that one or more effects were present. To reduce the possibility of false-positive results (Type I errors), we regarded clusters of 25 or more voxels as significant. The anatomical identification of activated regions was performed using a standard space of the Talairach and Tournoux (1988) through the transformation from MNI to Talairach space (Brett et al., 2002).

Results

Behavioral measures of task performance

The mean accuracy and reaction time were, respectively, 82.6% (SD=11.3) and 1760 ms (SD=322) for RC, and 76.8% (SD=20.3) and 1758 ms (SD=432) for RW. There were no significant differences (*t*-test) in either accuracy ($p=0.12$) or reaction time ($p=0.49$) (Fig. 2), suggesting that differences in brain activation between EC and EW and between RC and RW cannot be ascribed to a difference in task difficulty.

Brain activation

First, EC was compared with EW. This contrast showed brain activations in the bilateral occipital regions, left supramarginal

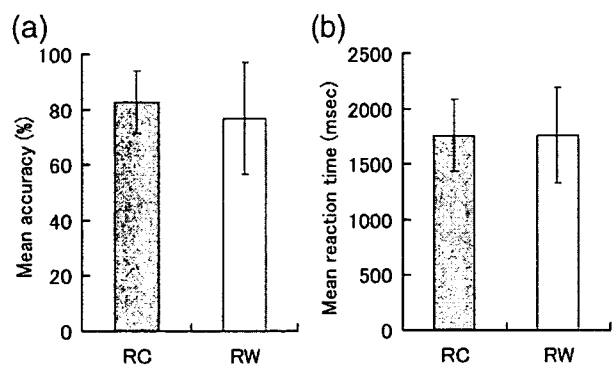


Fig. 2. (a) Mean accuracy of responses and (b) mean reaction times of the two retrieval tasks. Error bars indicate standard deviation. *T*-test showed no significant difference. Abbreviations as in Fig. 1.

Table 1
Brain regions showing activation in EC minus EW

Region (Brodmann's area)	MNI coordinates			Z value	Cluster size
	x	y	z		
R inferior occipital gyrus (BA18)	22	-94	10	4.14	114
L superior frontal gyrus (BA8/6)	-20	22	58	3.77	42
L putamen	-32	8	-4	3.87	34
L supramarginal gyrus (BA40)	-54	-56	46	3.95	26
L inferior occipital gyrus (BA18)	-14	-100	-4	4.37	136

EC, encoding of colored shapes condition; EW, encoding of white shapes condition; R, right; L, left.

gyrus, left superior frontal gyrus, and left putamen (Table 1 and Fig. 3a).

Second, RC was compared with RW. RC, relative to RW, was associated with activations in the right lingual gyrus and left middle occipital gyrus (Table 2 and Fig. 3b).

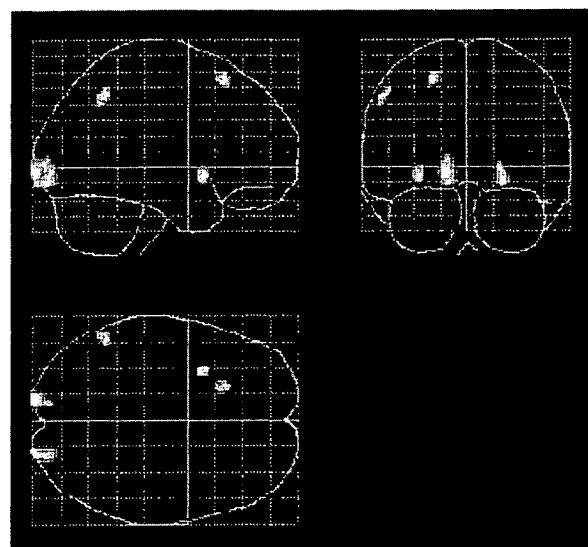
Finally, to determine whether brain regions activated during encoding were reactivated at retrieval, we used a conjunction analysis (EC vs. EW conjunct with RC vs. RW). This analysis revealed that the right parahippocampal gyrus, right lingual gyrus, right inferior occipital gyrus, and left putamen were active in both the encoding contrast and the retrieval contrast (Table 3 and Fig. 4).

Discussion

The results showed overlapping activity in the MTL and occipital lobe (the lingual and inferior occipital gyri) in the right hemisphere during the encoding and retrieval of meaningless shapes with color information compared with those without color information. In EC all stimuli were colored shapes, and in EW all stimuli were white shapes, whereas all of the stimuli in both of the retrieval conditions (RC and RW) were white shapes. Therefore, encoding-related activations in these regions probably reflect the on-line processing of color information from the external world (i.e., the process of actual color perception) and binding it with shapes. However, retrieval-related activity could not be attributed to the on-line processing of color information from the external world, but rather to the process of retrieval of color information from the recognized shapes. Hence, this finding seems to support the reactivation hypothesis that postulates that the retrieval of specific event information is associated with the reactivation of both the MTL structures and regions that were involved during the encoding of this information.

The overlapping activity found in the MTL during the encoding and retrieval of color information attached with shapes was consistent with the findings of the study by Nyberg et al. (2000), which focused directly on the reactivation of brain regions. Nyberg et al. found left MTL activation during both the encoding and retrieval of sound information paired with words, relative to words presented alone. The results of the present study are also compatible with those of studies of memory retrieval in the context of reactivation (Gottfried et al., 2004; Woodruff et al., 2005) cited in the Introduction. With regard to the successful encoding or retrieval of color information, three neuroimaging studies have demonstrated MTL activation, although overlapping activity between encoding and retrieval was not assessed. Yonelinas et al. (2001), using fMRI, reported that bilateral MTL structures were activated during an

(a)



(b)

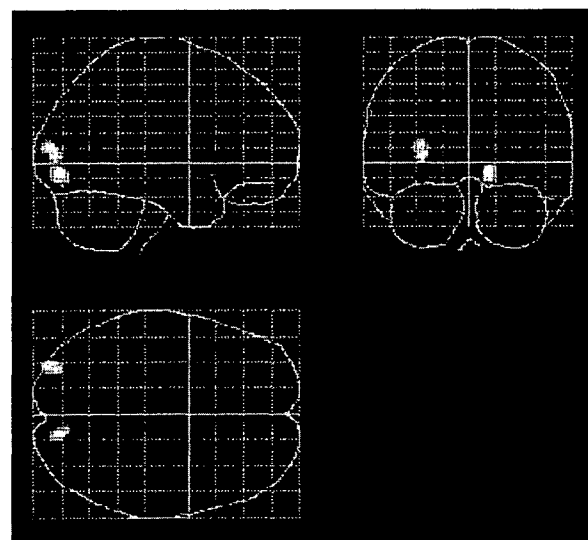


Fig. 3. (a) Brain regions showing activation in comparison of EC with EW. (b) Brain regions showing activation in comparison of RC with RW. The activations are superimposed onto MRIs of Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) templates. Abbreviations as in Fig. 1.

associative recognition task (clip-arts with colors) compared with a simple old/new judgment task. Ranganath et al. (2004) showed that activation of two right MTL regions (the posterior hippocampus and

Table 2
Brain regions showing activation in RC minus RW

Region (Brodmann's area)	MNI coordinates			Z value	Cluster size
	x	y	z		
R lingual gyrus (BA18)	14	-86	-6	4.02	69
L middle occipital gyrus (BA18)	-32	-90	10	3.73	72

RC, retrieval of colored shapes condition; RW, retrieval of white shapes condition; R, right; L, left.

Table 3
Brain regions showing overlapping activity during encoding and retrieval of color information

Region (Brodmann's area)	MNI coordinates			Z value	Cluster size
	x	y	z		
R parahippocampal gyrus (BA28)	18	-22	-16	3.68	25
R lingual gyrus (BA18)	18	-88	-6	4.12	83
R inferior occipital gyrus (BA18)	34	-88	-16	4.45	58
L putamen	-30	10	0	3.78	36

R, right; L, left.

posterior parahippocampal cortex) at encoding predicted subsequent successful retrieval of color information attached with words. Weis et al. (2004) found increased activity in bilateral MTL structures in successful color retrieval attached with buildings/landscapes at encoding. Collectively, the present findings and the data from these previous studies suggest that the MTL structures are engaged in binding specific event information with items during encoding and in recovering the same information from items during later retrieval.

Interestingly, overlapping MTL activity was identified in the right hemisphere in the present study. One possible reason for this is that the constituents of the materials encoded and retrieved in this study were non-verbal (the association between random shapes and colors). This explanation is consistent in part with some previous studies showing right MTL activation during memory for pictures and odors (Gottfried et al., 2004), bilateral MTL activation during the retrieval of colors from clip-arts (Yonelinas et al., 2001) and of colors from buildings/landscapes (Weis et al., 2004), and left MTL activation during memory for words and sounds (Nyberg et al., 2000). Two studies, however, have not reported right MTL activation during the successful encoding of words and colors (Ranganath et al., 2004) and during the retrieval of pictures from words (Woodruff et al., 2005). This may be related to the fact that these two studies found MTL activation in a somewhat different comparison (recollection-related activity; i.e., remember responses vs. know responses) from that used in others.

On the other hand, some studies have found no activation in the MTL in the context of reactivation (Nyberg et al., 2001; Persson and Nyberg, 2000; Vaidya et al., 2002; Wheeler et al., 2000). Persson and Nyberg (2000) and Wheeler et al. (2000) compared associative tasks with each other, a situation in which activation of the MTL might be cancelled out. Similarly, in the study by Nyberg et al. (2001), since the baseline condition was an associative learning task (rehearsing verb–noun commands), comparison between the target conditions (overt enactment and covert enactment) and the baseline condition might weaken the differences in activation of the MTL. Vaidya et al. (2002) compared recognition memory judgments related to words that were encoded as pictures with those that were encoded as words, and reported no activation in the MTL structures. However, their study did not involve any explicit associative learning, and it is possible that an associative learning procedure might be necessary to trigger MTL activation. The precise circumstances in which MTL activations are found (including, for example, combinations of constituents to be remembered, task procedures, and the method used for statistical comparisons) should be determined carefully in future studies.

The right occipital lobe (the lingual and inferior occipital gyri) also showed overlapping activity during the encoding and retrieval of color information attached with shapes. These sites are close to the color perception areas (V4; 28, -78, -14/-30, -76, -16)

demonstrated by Bartels and Zeki (2000). Chao and Martin (1999) reported that the right lingual gyrus is associated with color perception. Moreover, Howard et al. (1998) showed that color perception activated the bilateral posterior fusiform gyri (area V4), as well as the right-sided anterior fusiform and lingual gyri, striate cortex (area V1), and bilateral insula. However, as mentioned above, whereas encoding-related activations could be attributed to the on-line processing of color information from the external world and the binding of color with shapes, this is not the case for retrieval-related activity, which is attributable to the processes of retrieval of color information from recognized shapes. Related to this, Miceli et al. (2001) reported two brain-damaged patients who exhibited an unusual pattern of object color knowledge loss but spared color perception and naming, suggesting that the brain regions subserving color retrieval and color perception are not the same. Therefore, the overlapping activity in the occipital lobe found in the present study probably reflects processes necessary for association between the color and shape of stimuli rather than processes of color perception itself.

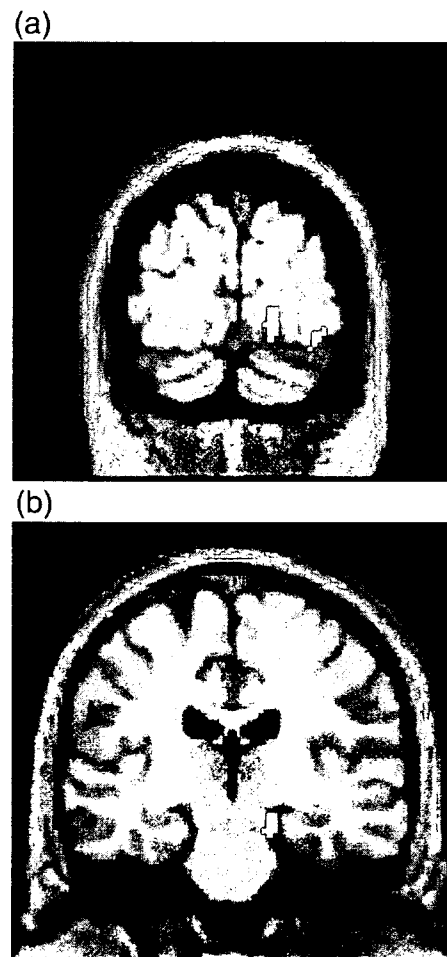


Fig. 4. Brain activations common to the encoding and retrieval of color information (EC vs. EW conjunct with RC vs. RW). The activations are superimposed onto MRIs of Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) templates. (a) Right lingual gyrus (18, -88, -6), right inferior occipital gyrus (34, -88, -16). (b) Right parahippocampal gyrus (18, -22, -16). Abbreviations as in Fig. 1.

Other than our hypothesized regions, overlapping activation of the left putamen, one component of the basal ganglia, was found during the encoding and retrieval of color information attached with shapes. Although the basal ganglia are usually thought to have a role in regulating motor behavior, previous studies have clarified their role in language processing such as word fluency, sentence comprehension, and verbal long-term memory (D'Esposito and Alexander, 1995; Grossman, 1999; Risse et al., 1984). One possible interpretation is that the activation of the left putamen might be associated with an increased cognitive demand of language processing during EC and RC (relative to EW and RW), where subjects might inwardly generate two color names throughout the conditions.

Finally, it is necessary to mention the limitations of the present study. First, we used PET and a blocked design as a measure of brain activation. Compared with fMRI, PET has the advantage of detecting some regional activation (e.g., orbitofrontal cortex, anterior temporal lobe structures, and other regions showing magnetic susceptibility-induced signal losses due to the sinus cavities), but the blocked design raises issues of expectation or effects of selective attention on activation patterns. Second, the use of multiple encoding procedures makes the relevance of the present results to episodic memory or semantic memory uncertain. A similar criticism can be applied to other previous studies (Gottfried et al., 2004; Vaidya et al., 2002; Wheeler et al., 2000). To clarify this point, it might be useful to assess the difference in brain activation between a single-study procedure and a multiple-study procedure. Alternatively, in the present study, a remember/know procedure during retrieval could have been informative. Third, to achieve our goal, it might not be necessary to use two different colors (red or green) as specific event information attached with shapes. Encoding or retrieval, or both, of two different colors might be more demanding for cognitive processes than encoding and/or retrieval of a single color, and this might be a confounding factor in the interpretation of the data, although there were no significant differences in the behavioral measures between the two retrieval conditions (RC and RW). Finally, it is not clear whether activation in the MTL is preceded by activation in the occipital lobe or vice versa during the encoding and retrieval conditions. In order to prove the validity of the reactivation hypothesis, it is critical to determine the time course of activation in each region. The animal study conducted by Naya et al. (2001) showed that the memory-retrieval signal appeared earlier in the perirhinal cortex, and neurons in the inferior temporal cortex were then gradually recruited to represent the sought target. They suggested that this finding underlies the activation (reactivation) of neurons in the inferior temporal cortex that represent a visual object retrieved from long-term memory. Also, recent studies (Dhond et al., 2005; Masumoto et al., 2006) using magnetoencephalography (MEG) have reported the time course of activation patterns in some brain regions during a recognition test, although MEG does not easily detect signals in deep or medial brain structures. If the temporal resolution of non-invasive neuroimaging techniques such as event-related fMRI improves, it will be possible to determine the time course of activation patterns in several memory-related regions, including the MTL in the human brain.

Acknowledgments

This study was partly supported by a JST grant on research and education in molecular imaging. Some of the experimental results

were obtained using supercomputing resources at the Information Synergy Center, Tohoku University.

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Increased colonic pain sensitivity in irritable bowel syndrome is the result of an increased tendency to report pain rather than increased neurosensory sensitivity

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Gut 2007;56:1202-1209; originally published online 4 May 2007;
doi:10.1136/gut.2006.117390

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NEUROGASTROENTEROLOGY

Increased colonic pain sensitivity in irritable bowel syndrome is the result of an increased tendency to report pain rather than increased neurosensory sensitivity

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Gut 2007;56:1202–1209. doi: 10.1136/gut.2006.117390

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Revised 23 March 2007
Accepted 11 April 2007
Published Online First
3 May 2007

Objective: The aim was to determine whether lower visceral pain thresholds in irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) primarily reflect physiological or psychological factors.

Methods: Firstly, 121 IBS patients and 28 controls underwent balloon distensions in the descending colon using the ascending methods of limits (AML) to assess pain and urge thresholds. Secondly, sensory decision theory analysis was used to separate physiological from psychological components of perception: neurosensory sensitivity ($p(A)$) was measured by the ability to discriminate between 30 mm Hg vs 34 mm Hg distensions; psychological influences were measured by the report criterion—that is, the overall tendency to report pain, indexed by the median intensity rating for all distensions, independent of intensity. Psychological symptoms were assessed using the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI).

Results: IBS patients had lower AML pain thresholds (median: 28 mm Hg vs 40 mm Hg; $p < 0.001$), but similar neurosensory sensitivity (median $p(A)$: 0.5 vs 0.5; $p = 0.69$; 42.6% vs 42.9% were able to discriminate between the stimuli better than chance) and a greater tendency to report pain (median report criterion: 4.0 ("mild" pain) vs 5.2 ("weak" pain); $p = 0.003$). AML pain thresholds were not correlated with neurosensory sensitivity ($r = -0.13$; $p = 0.14$), but were strongly correlated with report criterion ($r = 0.67$; $p < 0.0001$). Report criterion was inversely correlated with BSI somatisation ($r = -0.26$; $p = 0.001$) and BSI global score ($r = -0.18$; $p = 0.035$). Similar results were seen for the non-painful sensation of urgency.

Conclusion: Increased colonic sensitivity in IBS is strongly influenced by a psychological tendency to report pain and urge rather than increased neurosensory sensitivity.

During balloon distension of the rectum or colon patients with irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) report pain and discomfort at abnormally low volumes or pressures.^{1–3} These lower pain thresholds have been interpreted to represent visceral hypersensitivity^{4–6} and have been attributed to physiological differences in IBS patients.^{4–6} Mertz *et al* even proposed that lower pain thresholds are "a reliable biological marker of IBS."⁷ However, it is impossible to attribute lower IBS pain thresholds specifically to underlying physiological mechanisms^{3, 10} since cognitive and psychological influences affect the reporting of pain and, by extension, affect threshold measurements.^{1, 11, 12}

The physiological and psychological components that determine pain thresholds can be separately quantified by sensory decision theory analysis (SDT).¹³ In SDT stimuli of different intensities are presented in an unpredictable order and subjects rate the intensity of each stimulus. Statistical decision theory is then used to determine:

- (1) The *discrimination index* ($p(A)$): a measure of neurosensory sensitivity (physiological) that is based on the subject's ability to discriminate between two stimuli of similar, yet distinct, intensities. The discrimination index is reduced by local nerve blocks and analgesics, but is immune to cognitive and psychological manipulations.^{14, 15}
- (2) The *report criterion* (B): a measure of the subject's overall tendency to label any stimuli as weak vs intense, independent of the actual stimulus intensity. The report criterion is susceptible to cognitive and psychological

manipulations such as suggestion and placebo, but is not affected by analgesics.^{14–16}

The primary aim of this study was to determine whether differences in pain thresholds between patients with IBS and healthy controls are explained primarily by differences in neurosensory sensitivity (physiological differences) or differences in the overall tendency to report pain (psychological differences). The secondary aim was to determine and explain differences in urge thresholds. Ultimately, a better understanding of the factors that affect these thresholds will improve our understanding of the mechanisms responsible for hypersensitivity and might help to direct therapy. Accordingly, we used AML to compare sensory thresholds in both IBS patients and healthy controls, and SDT supplemented by psychological questionnaires to determine how physiological and psychological factors contribute to these thresholds. We hypothesised that, compared to healthy controls, IBS patients would have: (1) lower AML determined pain and urge thresholds; (2) similar levels of neurosensory sensitivity; and (3) a lower report criterion (that is, an increased overall tendency to report stimuli as intense). (4) We also hypothesised that AML pain thresholds and the report criterion would be inversely correlated with levels of psychological distress.

Abbreviations: AML, ascending methods of limits; BSI, Brief Symptom Inventory; IBS, irritable bowel syndrome; IBS-C, constipation predominant irritable bowel syndrome; IBS-D, diarrhoea predominant irritable bowel syndrome; IOP, individual operating pressure; ROC, receiver operator characteristic; SDT, sensory decision theory analysis

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects were recruited by advertisements or physician referrals and screened by telephone. The study was approved by the institutional review board of the University of North Carolina (UNC) and all subjects provided informed consent.

IBS patients

The study population consisted of 132 patients (84% female; median age 35 years) who met Rome II criteria for IBS¹⁷ and had current symptom activity (abdominal pain at least once a week in the past month). Twenty-seven IBS patients were constipation predominant (IBS-C), 31 were diarrhoea predominant IBS (IBS-D), and 61 were not classifiable as either. These subjects had no history of gastrointestinal resection (other than appendectomy or cholecystectomy), known IBS, coeliac disease, lactose malabsorption, heart disease, or diabetes mellitus, and they were not pregnant at the time of study. IBS patients were required to stop the following medications—antidepressants (seven days before study), antispasmodics, muscle relaxants or narcotic analgesics (three days); and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents (one day).

Controls

The control population consisted of 31 subjects (71% female; median age 40 years) without any significant or recurring gastrointestinal symptoms; exclusion criteria were average stool frequency of less than three per week or more than three per day, abdominal pain, use of a laxative or anti-diarrhoeal agent on more than two occasions over the previous year, history of alcohol or substance abuse, a psychiatric diagnosis, or any of the medical conditions listed above for the IBS patients. None of these healthy subjects had used any antidepressants, antispasmodics, muscle relaxants, or narcotic analgesics for at least one year. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents were not permitted for at least one day before the study. There were no significant differences between the IBS group and healthy controls for age ($p = 0.72$) or sex ($p = 0.12$).

Psychological evaluation

On the first day of the study subjects reported to the UNC General Clinical Research Center (GCRC) at 11 am where they completed the Brief Symptom Inventory-18 (BSI-18). This is an 18-item measure of psychological distress along three primary symptom dimensions: somatisation, anxiety, and depression.¹⁸ The BSI-18 was also scored for the global severity index. The rationale for including the BSI somatisation scale is that somatic hypervigilance is hypothesised to play a part in visceral

hypersensitivity.¹² The BSI depression, anxiety, and global scales were included based on the convention of regarding depression and anxiety as the primary dimensions of psychological distress.

Colonic sensory testing

At approximately 4 pm subjects underwent bowel preparation with 3 oz of Fleets Phospho-Soda followed by an overnight fast. On the morning of the second day (approximately 8 am) a barostat catheter was placed into the descending colon for sensory testing. Firstly, a guide wire was inserted to the level of the splenic flexure using a flexible sigmoidoscope. The sigmoidoscope was then withdrawn and a barostat catheter (Model No C7-CB-0026, Mui Scientific, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) was inserted over the guide wire. The guide wire was then withdrawn and barostat placement was confirmed by fluoroscopy. No sedation was used throughout the duration of this procedure. A 600 ml plastic bag (Model No CT-BP600R, Mui Scientific, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) was attached to the catheter, and the catheter was connected to a computer controlled piston type pump (barostat) that was capable of inflating and deflating the bag at a rate of 38 ml/s (G&J Electronics, Willodale, Ontario, Canada). The pump was interfaced to a computer running a software program that recorded the pressure inside the bag 16 times per second.

Subjects were instructed to give separate ratings of the intensity of pain and urgency to defecate experienced at the end of each distension, using a six point scale (0 = no sensation; 1 = weak; 2 = mild; 3 = moderate; 4 = strong; 5 = intense) (fig 1). The scale was visible to subjects during the procedure. Sample distensions were then performed during which the barostat bag was inflated in a stepwise fashion by increasing bag pressure by 4 mm Hg every 15 seconds until the subject reported moderate pain (rating of 3). The purpose of the sample distensions was threefold: (1) to insure that the barostat bag was unfolded; (2) to teach the subject how to use the rating scale to rate the intensity of colonic sensations; and (3) to decrease anticipatory anxiety. The barostat bag was then slowly inflated with 30 ml of air and the pressure was allowed to equilibrate for 3 minutes. The average pressure during the last 15 seconds defined the individual operating pressure (IOP): the minimum pressure required to overcome mechanical forces and inflate the bag with 30 ml of air.

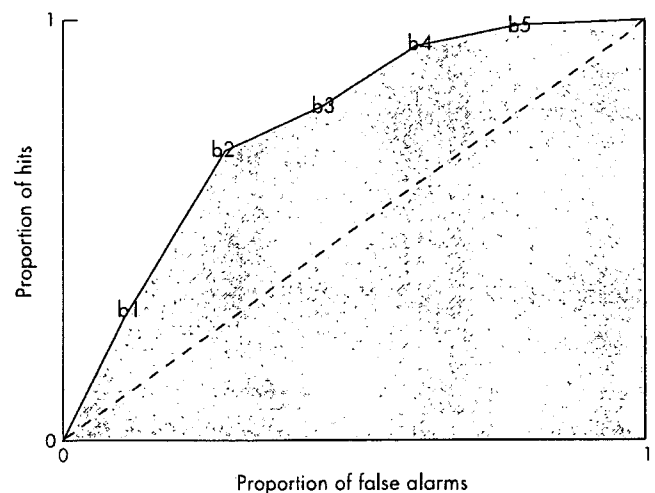


Figure 2 Receiver operator characteristic curve (ROC curve); each point represents the proportion of hits and false alarms for a given boundary (b1–b5). The total area under the ROC curve represents p(A).

	Numeric rating	Descriptor	Beta value
Boundary 5	5	Intense	1
Boundary 4	4	Strong	2
Boundary 3	3	Moderate	3
Boundary 2	2	Mild	4
Boundary 1	1	Weak	5
	0	None	6

Figure 1 Subjects rated the intensity of each stimulus on the six point rating scale showed above. The corresponding descriptor and beta value for each numeric rating are shown. Boundaries separate consecutive ratings.

Ascending method of limits (AML) protocol

This protocol started approximately 90 minutes following barostat placement. Phasic distensions were 30 seconds in duration and were separated by 30-second rest intervals starting at the IOP and progressively increasing in 2 mm Hg steps until either the subject requested the research nurse to stop the protocol or 48 mm Hg was reached. The pain threshold was defined as the amount of pressure above IOP at which the subject first reported moderate pain (absolute distending pressure minus the IOP). If the subject requested that the research nurse stop the trial before moderate pain was reported (for example, because of urge to defecate) then the pain threshold was not determined. If the subject reached 48 mm Hg without reporting moderate pain, then the pain threshold was defined as 50 mm Hg minus the IOP. The urge threshold was defined analogously.

Sensory decision theory (SDT) protocol

This protocol started approximately 100 minutes following barostat placement. Subjects were instructed that the purpose was to evaluate how well they could discriminate between different balloon pressures. Twenty-four 30-second phasic distensions (eight at 30 mm Hg, eight at 32 mm Hg, and eight at 34 mm Hg) were presented in an unpredictable order separated by 30-second rest intervals at the IOP. These stimulus intensities were selected to bracket the average pain threshold determined by AML in a previous study of SDT.¹⁹ The choice of 2 mm Hg increments between stimuli was based on this previous study in which this difference was found to work well (that is, subjects made some errors of classification but discrimination was better than chance).¹⁹ This protocol followed the recommendation of McNicol²⁰ and one of the co-investigators who is an expert on SDT (WCC). The subjects were able to stop the protocol at any time.

Discrimination index ($p(A)$) and report criterion (B) values for the 30 mm Hg vs 34 mm Hg stimuli were calculated for each subject using a computer program developed by MN Janal and

WC Clark (personal communication). This program was based on formulas taken from McNicol for non-parametric SDT analysis of rating scale data.²⁰

The meaning of the discrimination index ($p(A)$) is clear: it is a measure of the ability to distinguish between the two stimulus intensities, based on the sensory intensity ratings reported in response to them. However, the computational formula is complex: (1) ratings on the rating scale used by the subject to subjectively rate the intensity of stimuli that are presented, are separated by multiple boundaries (fig 1). (2) For each boundary one calculates the proportion of all the higher intensity stimuli (that is, 34 mm Hg distensions) that received ratings above this boundary (this is the "hit" rate for this boundary) and one separately calculates the proportion of the lower intensity stimuli (that is, 30 mm Hg distensions) that received ratings above this boundary (this is the "false alarm" rate for this boundary). Thus, in this study hit rates and false alarm rates were calculated for each of five boundaries. (3) These hit rates and false alarm rates are plotted against each other to create a receiver operator characteristic curve (ROC curve) as shown in figure 2. The curve is drawn by connecting the different intersections of hit and false alarm rates calculated for each boundary (shown by the solid line in fig 2). (4) $P(A)$ is the total area under the ROC curve (shaded area in fig 2) expressed as a proportion of the maximum possible area. The broken diagonal line in figure 2 goes through all the points for which the hit rate and the false alarm rates are equal; this represents chance performance or no discrimination, and the index, $p(A)$ is 0.5. All values less than 0.5 are considered chance performance and are rounded up to 0.5. Thus, $p(A)$ is a number between 0.5 (chance) and 1.0 (perfect discrimination) that measures the ability to discriminate between the two intensities independently of what rating labels the subject uses to describe the stimuli.

The report criterion (B) is the median rating assigned by the subjects to all stimuli. Firstly, the ratings assigned to the

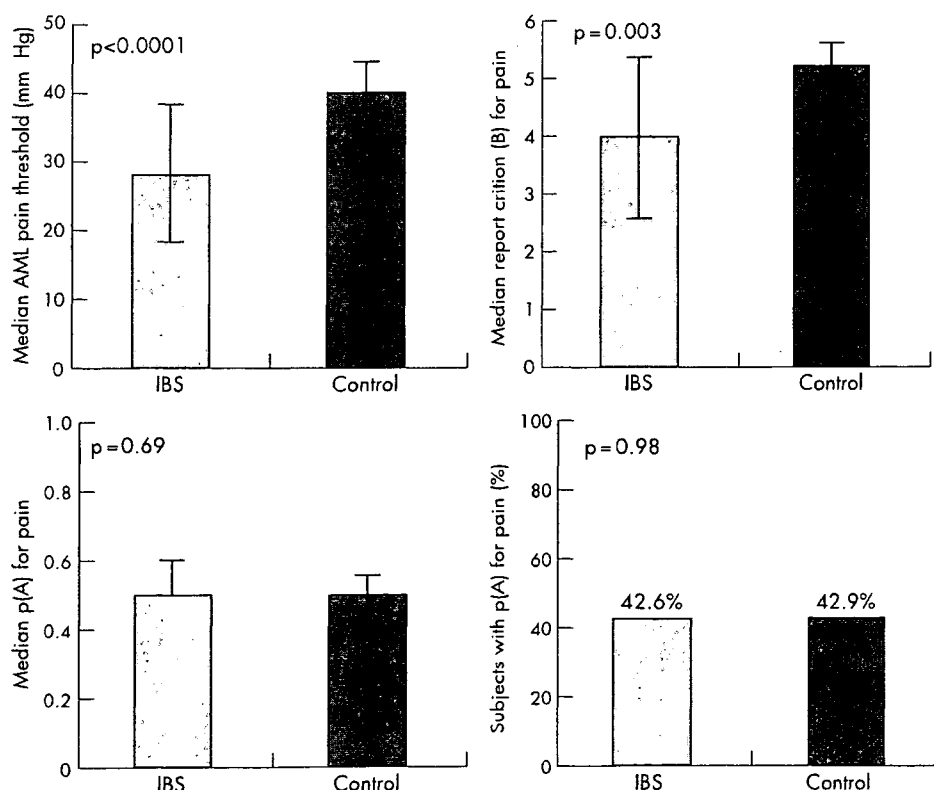


Figure 3 (Top left) Median AML pain thresholds: thresholds were significantly higher in healthy controls than in IBS subjects. (Top right) The pain report criterion (B) across both 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg stimuli: IBS patients had a lower criterion, which reflects their increased tendency to report pain irrespective of stimulus intensity. (Bottom left) The median pain neurosensory sensitivity ($p(A)$). There were no differences between the two groups. (Bottom right) The percentage of subjects whose ability to discriminate painful sensations between 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg stimuli was better than chance ($p(A) > 0.5$): there was no difference between the two groups. The bars on each graph represent the interquartile range.

30 mmHg distensions were pooled with ratings for the 34 mmHg distensions. Secondly, each response on the six-point rating scale was assigned an individual report criterion (B) value. Based on SDT convention, a numerically low criterion means a "liberal" tendency to rate most of the stimuli as intense, whereas a numerically high criterion means a "conservative" or "stoic" tendency to label most stimuli as less intense. Therefore, higher (that is, more intense) subject ratings are assigned lower B values and vice versa (fig 2). Thirdly, the overall report criterion (B) was determined as the B value on the six point rating scale for which half of total responses to both stimulus intensities were to categories above the criterion and half were to categories below the criterion.¹³

There was a strong correlation between AML pain thresholds and pain report criterion ($r = 0.67$; $p < 0.0001$). On the contrary, AML pain thresholds did not correlate with neurosensory sensitivity for pain ($r = -0.13$; $p = 0.14$).

Data analysis

The data were not normally distributed. Consequently, non-parametric statistical tests were used. Significance was set at a p value of 0.05. Firstly, Wilcoxon rank sum tests were used to compare IBS patients to controls with respect to the following measures: AML determined pain and urge thresholds; SDT determined pain and urge discrimination index (p(A)) and report criterion values (B); BSI anxiety, depression, somatisation, and global severity index scores. Secondly, Spearman correlations were used to determine associations between AML pain thresholds with SDT determined pain discrimination index (p(A)) and report criterion (B). Thirdly, Spearman correlations were used to determine associations between both AML pain thresholds and pain report criteria (B) with the following measures: p(A), BSI anxiety, depression, somatisation, and global severity index scores.

RESULTS

Excluded subjects

In all, 119 IBS patients and 29 control subjects underwent colonic sensory testing. Of the 13 IBS patients who did not undergo colonic sensory testing, three withdrew consent after the first day, possibly because of apprehension regarding the pain test procedure, three refused flexible sigmoidoscopy, two did not tolerate sigmoidoscopy, one had an extremely elevated blood pressure, and one had colonic inflammation detected on sigmoidoscopy. Of the three excluded control subjects, one did not tolerate the flexible sigmoidoscopy and two had exclusionary medical conditions that were detected during the study (lactose intolerance in one and previous colonic surgery in the other).

Pain thresholds, neurosensory sensitivity, and report criterion

On the AML protocol IBS patients had lower pain thresholds (median 28 mmHg vs 40 mmHg; $p = 0.0002$). On sensory

decision theory analysis there were no differences in pain neurosensory sensitivity (median p(A): 0.5 vs 0.5; $p = 0.69$; 42.6% of IBS patients vs 42.9% of healthy controls had p(A) > 0.5 (chance); $p = 0.98$). Conversely, IBS patients had a lower pain report criterion, which represents their increased tendency to report stimuli as being relatively painful irrespective of the actual intensity of the stimulus (median B: 4.0 (median response = mild pain) vs 5.2 (median response = weak pain); $p = 0.003$) (fig 3).

Psychometric scores and pain report criterion

IBS patients scored higher than controls on all psychometric scales (table 1). There were modest inverse correlations between pain report criterion (B) and BSI global score ($r = -0.18$; $p = 0.035$) and BSI somatisation ($r = -0.26$; $p = 0.001$) (table 2). Higher psychological distress correlated with an increased tendency to report pain.

Urge thresholds, neurosensory sensitivity, and report criterion

Sensory thresholds for urge were lower than those for pain. On the AML protocol IBS patients had lower urge thresholds than controls (median: 18 mmHg vs 34 mmHg; $p = 0.002$), but on sensory decision theory analysis there were no differences in urge neurosensory sensitivity (median p(A): 0.55 vs 0.50; $p = 0.17$; 63.1% of IBS patients vs 46.4% of healthy controls had urge p(A) > 0.5 (chance); $p = 0.10$). Conversely, IBS patients had a lower urge report criterion, which represents their increased tendency to report relatively intense urge irrespective of the actual intensity of the stimulus (median B: 3.0 (median response = "moderate" urge) vs 4.2 (median response = "mild"); $p = 0.006$) (fig 4).

There was a strong inverse correlation between AML urge thresholds and urge report criterion ($r = -0.51$; $p < 0.0001$) and a weaker but significant inverse correlation with neurosensory sensitivity to urge ($r = -0.22$; $p = 0.007$).

Psychometric scores and urge report criterion

There were modest inverse correlations between urge report criterion (B) and BSI global score ($r = -0.19$; $p = 0.03$), BSI somatisation ($r = -0.18$; $p = 0.04$), and BSI anxiety ($r = -0.17$; $p = 0.05$) (table 3). Higher psychological distress correlated with an increased tendency to report urge.

Additional analyses of SDT data

There was a moderately strong positive correlation between pain and urge discrimination (p(A)) ($r = 0.50$; $p < 0.0001$). Similarly, there was a moderately strong positive correlation between pain and urge report criteria (B) $r = 0.44$; $p < 0.0001$).

The SDT test involved 24 distensions at pressures, which were painful for most subjects, and consequently some subjects did not complete all trials. The accuracy of discrimination index (p(A)) and report criterion (B) values in subjects who underwent fewer SDT distension trials might have been lower because of increased variance. We therefore excluded subjects who completed fewer than one-half (<12) of all trials (33 IBS, 4 controls, $p = 0.158$) and repeated the comparison between IBS patients and controls for pain p(A) and report criterion (B). The pattern of results and the significance of the differences did not change for pain p(A) (median p(A) 0.5 vs 0.5; $p = 0.31$; % with pain p(A) > chance: IBS = 47.1%; control = 41.7%; $p = 0.63$;) or pain report criterion (median B: IBS = 4.4; control = 5.4; $p = 0.0001$).

Repeated distension of the colon has been previously shown to induce hyperalgesia ("sensitisation") in IBS patients.⁸ Thus, it is possible that as a result of this potential sensitisation, the intensity ratings made by IBS patients to late SDT trials may

Table 1 Psychological profiles of IBS and control populations

	IBS median (range)	Controls median (range)	p Value
BSI global severity index	49 (33-78)	42 (33-63)	<0.0001
BSI anxiety	50 (38-74)	39 (38-61)	<0.0001
BSI depression	48 (40-81)	42 (40-61)	= 0.006
BSI somatisation	55 (41-74)	41 (41-66)	<0.0001

Table 2 Spearman's correlations: AML pain threshold and pain report criterion (B)

	Correlation (rho) with AML pain threshold	Correlation (rho) with SDT pain report criterion (B)
Pain p(A)	-0.13 p=0.1	-0.16 p=0.04
Pain B	0.67 p<0.0001	-
BSI global severity index	-0.22 p=0.01	-0.18 p=0.04
BSI anxiety	-0.11 p=0.2	-0.04 p=0.7
BSI depression	-0.11 p=0.2	-0.07 p=0.4
BSI somatisation	-0.28 p=0.001	-0.26 p=0.001

Table 3 Spearman's correlations: AML urge threshold and urge report criterion (B)

	Correlation (rho) with AML urge threshold	Correlation (rho) with SDT urge report criterion (B)
Urge p(A)	-0.22 p=.007	-0.09 p=0.3
Urge B	-0.51 p<0.0001	-
BSI global severity index	-0.19 p=0.03	-0.18 p=0.04
BSI anxiety	-0.17 p=0.05	-0.15 p=0.07
BSI depression	-0.07 p=0.4	-0.12 p=0.15
BSI somatisation	-0.18 p=0.04	-0.16 p=0.06

have been affected. In order to test for this we first determined the change in pain intensity ratings between the first and the last 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg trials (change in ratings = pain intensity rating to the last 30 mm Hg stimuli plus pain intensity rating to the last 34 mm Hg stimuli minus pain intensity ratings to the first 30 mm Hg stimuli minus pain intensity rating to the first 34 mm Hg stimuli). We then used the Wilcoxon rank sum test of differences to compare change in intensity ratings between IBS patients and controls who completed at least one-half (≥ 12) of all trials. There was no difference between the two groups ($p = 0.22$).

Finally, the intensities of the three SDT stimuli (30 mm Hg, 32 mm Hg, 34 mm Hg) were below AML pain thresholds for some subjects (mostly controls) and above threshold for other subjects (mostly IBS patients). Therefore, it was possible that certain subjects failed to demonstrate discrimination (p(A)) because they assigned the same ratings to all stimuli (either calling all of them "intense" or calling all of them non-painful). We identified nine (7.4%) IBS patients and nine (35%) healthy controls who rated each SDT stimulus as zero pain intensity. One IBS patient rated all stimuli as "intense." All other subjects varied their pain intensity ratings. When we excluded the 10 IBS patients and nine healthy controls who did not vary their

pain intensity ratings and repeated the analysis, the pattern of results and the significance of the differences did not change for pain p(A) (median p(A) 0.5 vs 0.52; $p = 0.8$); percentage with pain p(A) > chance: IBS = 45.6%; control = 52.2%; $p = 0.57$) or pain report criterion (median B: IBS = 3.9; control = 4.52; $p = 0.04$).

DISCUSSION

In this study we first used AML to measure pain and urge thresholds and we then used SDT to determine the two components of these thresholds: physiologically determined neurosensory sensitivity and psychologically determined report criterion. Using these techniques, we demonstrated that lower AML determined pain and urge thresholds in patients with IBS are explained primarily by an increased tendency to report pain and urge, not increased neurosensory sensitivity. Since this lower report criterion reflects psychological phenomena, increased colonic sensitivity in IBS appears to be determined more by psychological factors than by physiological factors.

Pain is a complex perceptual experience that can only be measured indirectly.²¹ Gastrointestinal pain sensitivity is typically measured by pain thresholds, which are defined as the lowest stimulus intensity to which subjects report pain. However, pain

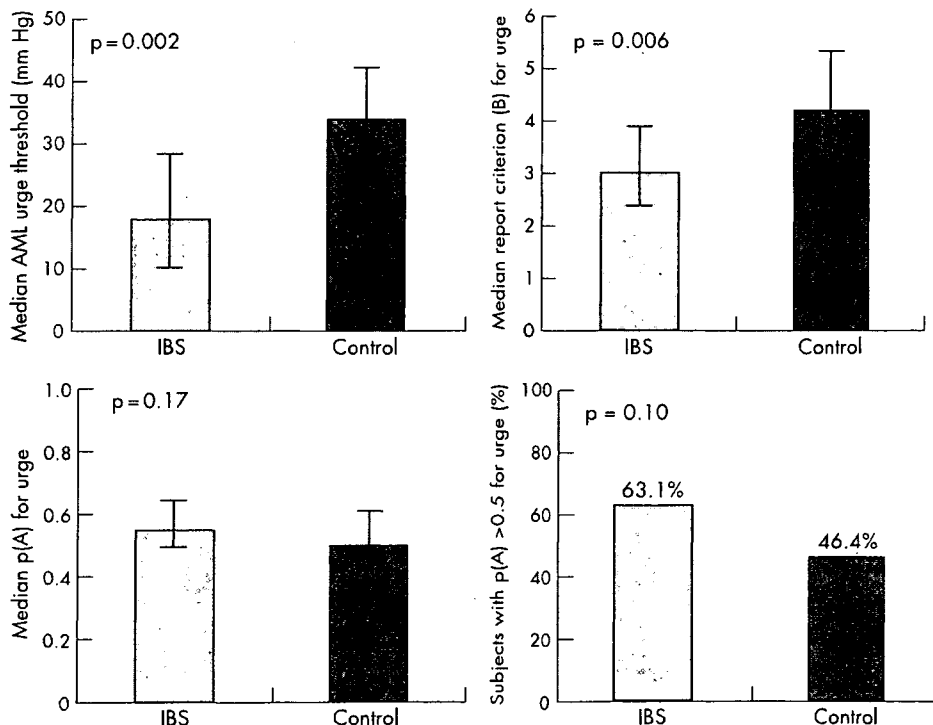


Figure 4 (Top left) Median AML urge thresholds: thresholds were significantly higher in healthy controls than IBS subjects. (Top right) The median urge report criterion (B) to 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg stimuli: IBS patients had a lower criterion which reflects their increased tendency to report urge irrespective of stimulus intensity. (Bottom left) The median urge neurosensory sensitivity (p(A)). There were no differences between the two groups. (Bottom right) The percentage of subjects whose ability to discriminate urge sensations between 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg stimuli was better than chance (p(A)>0.5): there was no difference between the two groups. The bars on each graph represent the interquartile range.

Increased colonic pain sensitivity in IBS

thresholds are not equivalent with painful sensations since pain reports are influenced by non-neurosensory factors such as placebo, emotion, attention, and distraction.¹³

SDT is an alternative pain measurement technique that separately quantifies the individual components of the pain response: neurosensory sensitivity ($p(A)$), a measure of neurosensory function based on the ability to discriminate between stimuli; and report criterion (B), a measure of stoicism based on the overall tendency to report pain.¹⁴ Importantly, previous research has shown that only the criterion is susceptible to changes in cognitive or psychological variables.^{13–15} The discrimination index, $p(A)$, changes in response to analgesic drugs but is not influenced by psychological manipulations.^{15–16} In this study, IBS patients had similar pain neurosensory sensitivity and lower pain report criterion compared to healthy controls. In other words, their tendency to report pain at lower thresholds related not to increased neural sensitivity, but rather to their predilection towards reporting pain.

Whereas SDT has been widely used in somatic pain research¹³ it has been used only rarely in previously published studies on visceral pain sensitivity in functional gastrointestinal disorders. Bradley *et al* observed lower AML pain thresholds, similar neurosensory sensitivity, and decreased report criterion for balloon distensions of the oesophagus in patients with non-cardiac chest pain,²² which is similar to the findings of this study. Whitehead *et al* observed lower AML pain thresholds and similar neurosensory sensitivity for rectal distensions in women with IBS,¹⁹ which is also similar to the findings of this study. However, they did not measure the report criterion.

Similar to pain, our findings also suggest that lower AML determined urge thresholds in patients with IBS are largely explained by an increased tendency to report urge. However, the finding that urge thresholds and urge neurosensory sensitivity were inversely correlated ($r = -0.22$, $p < 0.005$) suggests that lower urge thresholds in IBS may also be attributable—albeit to a lesser extent—to increased urge neurosensory sensitivity. These findings contrast with those reported by Corsetti *et al* who, using non-painful, barely perceivable balloon distensions, found that patients with IBS had increased neurosensory sensitivity and similar report criterion. However, unlike our study, their study involved a small population (22 patients and 13 controls) in which there were no psychological differences between the IBS and control groups.²³

The increased tendency to report pain and urge in patients with IBS may be the downstream result of multiple cognitive and psychological processes. Firstly, patients with IBS appear to be hypervigilant to gastrointestinal sensations.^{12–24} For example, on functional brain imaging they show similar, abnormal cortical responses to both actual and anticipated (sham) distensions.^{25–26} Secondly, hypervigilance may reduce the intensity at which they notice gut distensions²⁸ and sensations. Thirdly, once perceived, subjects with IBS interpret these sensations through a generally negative schema (framework for explaining reality),²⁸ which leads them to attribute their sensations to disease.²⁹ Finally, disease attribution in turn further increases attention to gastrointestinal symptoms³⁰ through which a cycle of gastrointestinal sensory amplification is ultimately established.³¹ Along these lines, in our study somatisation was more common in IBS and was correlated inversely with pain thresholds and directly with the response criterion. This is similar to findings that in Gulf War veterans with IBS, lower pain thresholds could be largely explained by increased somatic focus.³² Other investigators have also found that global psychological distress is correlated with the amount of brain activation in response to painful rectal distension³³ and

is inversely correlated with tolerance for painful balloon distension of the rectum.³⁴

In order to assess visceral sensitivity independently from these cognitive processes, some have proposed measuring cortical activity during subliminal distensions (that is, not consciously perceived).^{35–36} Lawal *et al* used this approach and found increased cortical activation in subjects with IBS. They interpreted this as evidence for neural hypersensitivity that is independent of cognitive input.³⁷ However, it is unclear whether these distensions were truly subliminal since most individuals can perceive distensions as small as 5 mm Hg³⁸; the distensions in their study ranged from 10 mm Hg to 20 mm Hg. Secondly, their observation that cerebral activation in IBS patients did not increase in a positive dose-response fashion suggests that IBS patients were globally hypersensitive at baseline. This global hypersensitivity was attributed by Naliboff and Mayer to cognitive and psychological processes such as uncertain expectation and hypervigilance, that could not be completely controlled for in the study.³⁹

Although our data demonstrate that psychological phenomena strongly influence pain thresholds, our experimental methods may not have been sensitive enough to detect subtle differences in neurosensory sensitivity. Thus, we cannot rule out the effects of peripheral physiological mechanisms, such as sensitisation of colonic afferent pathways.^{9–42–43} This afferent hypersensitivity has been credited to inflammation based on evidence that experimentally induced colonic inflammation lowers rectal pain thresholds in animal models.⁴² Nonetheless, inflammation has not been shown to explain lower thresholds in IBD patients.^{43–44}

Study limitations

Two potential limitations to this study were posed by the repeated balloon distensions required by the SDT protocol. Firstly, certain subjects failed to complete all 24 SDT trials because of intolerable levels of pain or urge. We estimated the effects of this by repeating our analyses without including those subjects who completed fewer than half of the trials. The results were the same. Secondly, the process of repeated very intense colonic distensions (60 mm Hg) has been previously shown to induce rectal hypersensitivity in subjects with IBS.⁸ We estimated the effects of this by comparing the change in pain intensity ratings between early and late stimuli in IBS patients and healthy controls. There was no difference between the two groups.

SDT, which quantifies the ability of subjects to discriminate between very similar stimuli, required that we use stimulus intensities that were very close to each other (30 mm Hg vs 34 mm Hg). This might have been too close to allow for adequate discrimination—that is, the measurement of neural sensitivity may have been insensitive. However, most subjects can perceive a 5 mm Hg increase in stimulus intensity.¹⁹ In this study 43% of both IBS patients and healthy controls were able to discriminate between the 30 mm Hg and 34 mm Hg distensions at better than chance levels ($p(A)$ values above 0.5).

Calculation of the report criterion required us to use the same stimuli for all subjects, irrespective of their AML thresholds. As a result, the ability of some subjects to discriminate between SDT stimuli might have been affected either because the test stimuli were well above their pain threshold or they were so far below their pain threshold that none of them were perceived as painful. We tested for this by excluding subjects who rated all stimuli as equally painful and repeating the analysis. The results did not change. Furthermore, in our previous smaller study where we individualised SDT stimulus intensities for each patient based on their AML determined pain threshold (though we did not compute a report criterion), we still found

that subjects with IBS and healthy controls had similar neurosensory sensitivity to pain.¹⁹

A theoretical limitation is that we used pressure rather than volume based balloon distensions. Some investigators prefer volume based distensions or indices that integrate pressure and volume into estimates of wall tension.⁴⁵ We followed the recommendations of an international consensus committee⁴⁶ by scaling our distensions in pressure rather than volume because it is recognised that volume thresholds are influenced by muscle tone, which varies from hour to hour in response to meal ingestion and anxiety. Individual differences in pain thresholds are believed to be more stable and reproducible when measured on a pressure scale rather than a volume scale.

Conclusion

These data show that lower pain and urge thresholds in subjects with IBS are strongly influenced by cognitive and psychological factors. Peripheral physiological events such as inflammation⁴² and temporal summation⁸ have also been shown to influence pain sensitivity. However, these data suggest that, when explaining the differences between IBS patients and healthy controls, the contribution of peripheral physiological events may be relatively small compared to the cognitive and psychological influences that are reflected in the report criterion index, which reflects the generalised tendency to report pain. The implications of this finding are far reaching. Firstly, it underscores the importance of accounting for psychological factors when interpreting tests of sensory function. Secondly, it highlights the important part played by centrally mediated processes in the pathophysiology of visceral sensitivity in IBS and suggests that novel therapies for pain in IBS should target centrally mediated mechanisms.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Supported by grants R24 DK67674, R01 DK31369, RR00046, and T32DK7634 from the National Institutes of Health in the United States.

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EDITOR'S QUIZ: GI SNAPSHOT

Answer

From question on page 1190

The echocardiogram demonstrates a pericardial effusion with cardiac tamponade. This resulted in ischaemic hepatitis (IH) and acute liver failure (ALF). An emergency pericardiocentesis was performed, and circulatory function immediately improved. Liver and renal function normalised over the next 15 days (fig 1).

IH is an uncommon but well described cause of ALF. In this case, ischaemic liver injury occurred because of a combination of factors: right heart failure (acute hepatic congestion) and decreased hepatic arterial perfusion, secondary to hypotension from cardiac tamponade.

IH occurs in the setting of the following predisposing factors: reduced hepatic arterial flow states, passive liver congestion and arterial hypoxaemia. Aetiologies include cardiac arrest and intraoperative hypotension (eg, cardiac bypass) on a background of respiratory or left ventricular failure.

Treatment aims at removing the insult to the liver and maximising cardiac output, thus improving oxygenation. Fulminant hepatic failure is uncommon, and usually occurs with pre-existing cirrhosis. The condition is reversible, depending on the underlying cause of the circulatory insult. Because of the setting of major circulatory failure (eg, cardiac arrest) and good prognosis if circulation is restored, liver transplantation is rarely indicated.

When presented with ALF, it is important to consider ischaemia, a reversible condition. Although cardiac tamponade is a rare cause of IH, this case demonstrates the benefit of early diagnosis and removing the insult to the liver with resultant rapid and complete clinical improvement of the IH.

doi: 10.1136/gut.2006.095547a

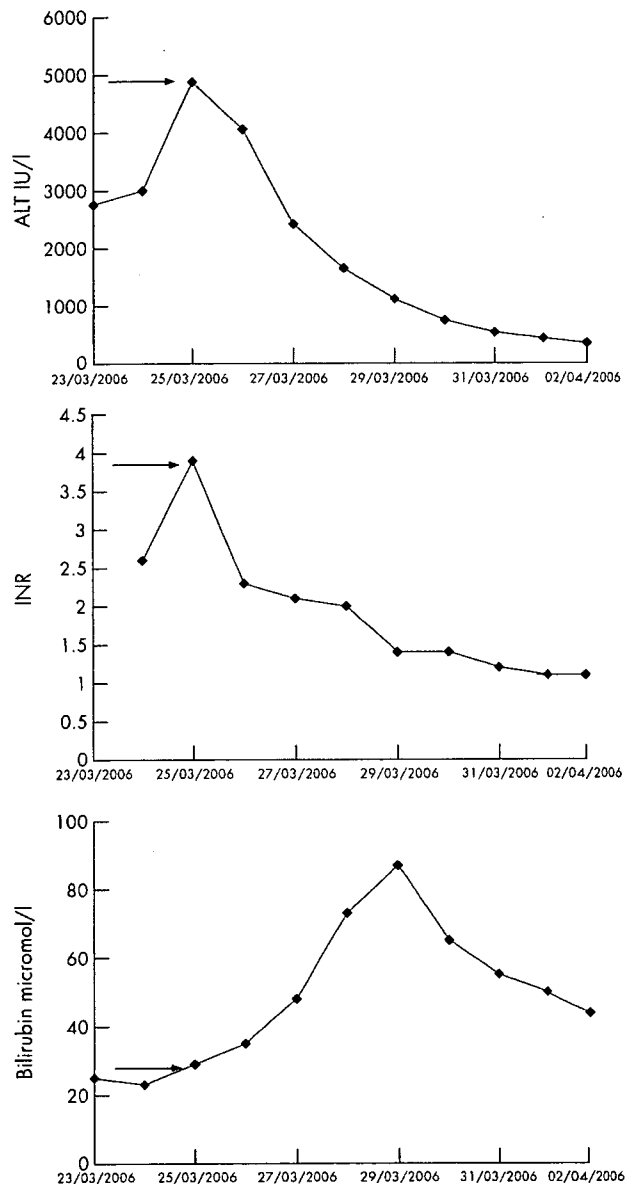


Figure 1 Graphs showing the biochemical changes in the reported case. The acute rise and fall in alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and international normalised ratio (INR), with a delayed rise in bilirubin, are characteristic of ischaemic hepatitis. The arrows denote when pericardiocentesis was performed.

IV. 新聞・報道等

過敏性腸症候群の分類

下痢型 **便秘型** **混合型**
(軟便、便秘とも多い)

便秘の便、水のような便が多いタイプ
本の実のようなコロコロした便・硬い便が集まったようなソーゼン形の便が多いタイプ (女性に多い)

代表的なストレス病

主に10~20代 5月に多い発症

「ひといい時は、通勤途中に電車の中で嘔吐するたびに降りて、トイレに駆け込んだ。東京都内、30代の男性会社員は、中学生のころから試験の時などにおなかを下しがちだったが、就職後は通勤にも困るほど頻りに嘔吐するようになった。通勤電車の中で動けないというストレスが症状を悪化させたため、職場の近くに引っ越したところもあった。精神科に入院しても、根本的な改善にはつながらず、人前で嘔吐するような仕事のうち、3日坊からトイレを数回まわらすなど独自の工夫で乗り切っている。

男性のよくなる症状の病名は「過敏性腸症候群」と呼ばれる。内臓病などで調べても原因がわからないのは、腸がうまく働かないからだ。

過敏性腸症候群

頻繁な下痢や便秘、腹痛で通勤にも困るほど。どうしたら改善する。

腸管やおなかの不快感に下痢や便秘を伴う。慢性的に出るおならに他人も少なくない。医師でも悩まされている。開腹の手術に動ける30代の消化器内科医の男性は、自身も過敏性腸症候群の患者だ。中学も年々から下痢でし

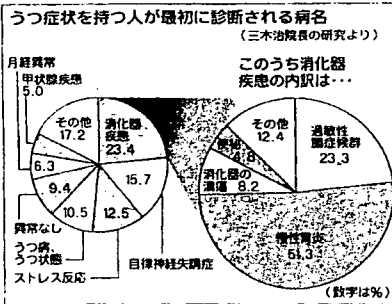
福土 豊・東北大学教授 (行動医学) は「過敏性腸症候群は、自律神経系を介して、腸の運動や分泌を調節する。自律神経系が乱れると、腸の運動や分泌が正常に働かなくなり、下痢や便秘を伴う。慢性的に出るおならに他人も少なくない。医師でも悩まされている。開腹の手術に動ける30代の消化器内科医の男性は、自身も過敏性腸症候群の患者だ。中学も年々から下痢でし

原因避け 食生活見直し

整腸剤、抗不安薬で治療

うつ病の可能性も

やすくなり、今でもは、腸症候群は長期的なストレス期間の前などは、朝、朝食を抜いて下痢止めを飲む。10~20代が多く、患者数は、人の14%程度。自分が診察している患者の中には、会社に入社して5月に発症



過敏性腸症候群の診断基準 (国際基準)

- 腹痛か腹部不快感が一定日数(※)ある
- ※一定日数とは、過去3カ月の中のどこかの1カ月間で少なくとも3日以上のこと (連続しなくてもよい)
- 下記の2項目以上が当てはまる
 - ①排便によって症状が改善する
 - ②排便の頻度が変わる
 - ③便の外見が変わる(例：下痢がちになるなど)

「第2の脳」 不明点なお

腸は「第2の脳」と呼ばれるほど複雑な腸脳相互作用を担っている。消化器疾患、過敏性腸症候群、うつ病、自律神経失調症、甲状腺疾患、その他、目録神経失調症、ストレス反応

腸は「第2の脳」と呼ばれるほど複雑な腸脳相互作用を担っている。消化器疾患、過敏性腸症候群、うつ病、自律神経失調症、甲状腺疾患、その他、目録神経失調症、ストレス反応

腸は「第2の脳」と呼ばれるほど複雑な腸脳相互作用を担っている。消化器疾患、過敏性腸症候群、うつ病、自律神経失調症、甲状腺疾患、その他、目録神経失調症、ストレス反応

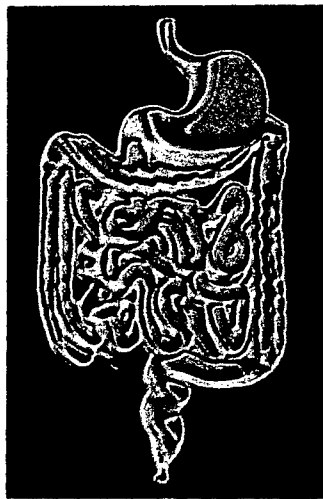
腸は「消化器を過剰に刺激しない食餌、飲み物が基本」と話し、V501コーヒールや酸飲料、スパイスの利いた辛い料理、脂っこい料理、などは避けるよう勧める。下痢が続いている時に、果糖ドリンクを飲む患者もいるが、ドリンクに含まれるカフェインや炭酸が腸を刺激するので注意した方がいい。

内臓感覚

脳と腸の不思議な関係

福土 審

Fukudo Shin



NHKBOOKS

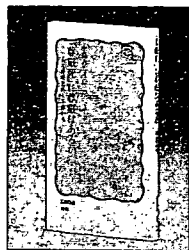
1093

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最後の瞬間

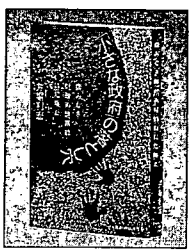


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最後の瞬間
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山田和香

知られざる魯山人
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「知られざる魯山人」
山田和香

李方子 一韓国人として悔いなく

小田部雄次

李方子 一韓国人として悔いなく
小田部雄次
「李方子」
小田部雄次

マンハッタンを歩く

ヒートハミル

マンハッタンを歩く
ヒートハミル
「マンハッタンを歩く」
ヒートハミル

内臓感覚 脳と腸の不思議な関係

福士 謙

内臓感覚 脳と腸の不思議な関係
福士 謙
「内臓感覚」
福士 謙

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2007年冬のターシャからの贈り物
2006年のクリスマスにNHKで放送され、大好評を博した「ターシャからの贈り物」がDVDと愛蔵本

私の読書日記

暴力革命、IBS、高松塚への道

ノンフィクション作家
立花 隆



×月×日

かつてパレスチナに渡り、日本赤軍に合流したこともある若松孝二監督が『実録・連合赤軍——あさま山荘への道程』という三時間十分の長編ドキュメンタリータッチの映画を作った。試写を見た。実写記録と役者を使ったドラマが交錯して不思議なリアリティを醸し出す映画だった。

この映画のもとになった史実部分は、ほとんどが、彩流社から出ている連合赤軍幹部と兵士たちの手記をベースにしている。たとえば、坂口弘『あさま山荘1972』（上下巻、各1845円＋税）、永田洋子『十六の墓碑』（上下巻、上1500円・下1800円＋税）、植垣康博『兵士たちの連合赤軍』（1800円＋税）などだ。

以前のそもそもの「赤軍派」結成前後のあたり（日本赤軍の重信房子もいた頃）から詳しく描いている。その辺は、赤軍派の創設者、塩見孝也の『赤軍派始末記』（1800円＋税）がよい資料になる。

×月×日

連合赤軍事件のみならず、戦前の日本共産党のリンチ殺人事件など、暴力革命路線をとる革命党の内部で、洋の東西を問わず、よく同志殺しが起る。その手の殺人で歴史上最も有名な事件が、一八六九年、帝政ロシアで起きたネチャーエフ事件だ。

この事件を下敷きに書かれたのが、ドストエフスキ一の最高傑作の一つ『悪霊』（新潮文庫、上下巻、上819円・下895円＋税）である。



『アレクサンドル二世暗殺』

なかでも有名なのが、一八八一年に起きたロシア皇帝アレクサンドル二世の暗殺事件。この事件を詳細に描いたのが、エドワード・ラジンスキー『アレクサンドル二世暗殺』（NHK出版、上下巻、各2300円＋税）。

たちばなたかし 1940年長崎県生まれ。『宇宙からの帰還』『サル学の現在』『シベリア鎮魂歌——香月泰男の世界』『滅びゆく国家』ほか著書多数。

「エフ事件の共通項が見えてくる。彼らは一般社会の道徳をいっさい認めない。道徳の唯一の引当金、それはこ

アこれだなどと思われる症例が詳しく解説されていた。病名は過敏性腸症候群（IBS）。心因性の病気で、心臓内圧が不安定なストレス

いっても、脳に最も近い臓器だからだ。セカンド・ブレインといわれるくらい、本質において脳に近いところがあるから。特に情動作

の大発見といわれた高松塚古墳が、当局の保存策の不手際から、カビだらけになったことだ。その結果、あの貴重な壁画がいまや消え

褪せ、形もよくわからなくなるほど劣化していったのです。文化庁は、カビが生えた原因を、「いわゆる地球温暖化の影響で、気温が三度ほ

な彩し台ドラマに引き込まれた。驚くべき迫力。この迫力は、それが本當に起きたことだという事実

エフ事件の共通項が見えてくる。彼らは一般社会の道徳を

唯一の判断基準は、それによつて革命の実現が近づくかどうかである。革命の実現のためには、自ら死ぬ覚悟を持つとともに、革命に有害な人物を自ら抹殺する勇気を持たなければならぬ

×月×日

安倍首相の突然の辞任をめぐっては、何がその真の原因であったか、さまざまの説が駆けめぐった。結局、最大の要因として浮かびあがったのは健康問題。入院した慶應病院の医師の説明では、持病の大腸の慢性疾患がどんどん悪くなり、下痢が止まらず、ものが食べられず、やせる一方だったという。

といつても何らかの感染症にかかっていたわけでもなければ、大腸ガンなどの重大疾患もないという。

福土審『内臓感覚』(NHKブックス 970円+税)を読んでいたら、ハハ

植垣康博『兵士たちの連合赤軍』(1800円+税)なのだ。映画は、「連合赤軍」結成

アこれだなど思われる症例が詳しく解説されていた。病名は過敏性腸症候群(IBS)。心因性の病気で、

心理的社会的なストレスで、腹痛、便通異常(下痢・便秘)が慢性的に持続する。不安・うつなどの神経症状も起きやすい。

まさに安倍首相の症状にピッタリではないか。

最近欧米の先進国で患者が顕著に増えている病気で、腹部の異常を訴えて医者にかかる患者のうち、平均二〇％はIBSだという。X線検査、血液検査、尿検査などを施しても、特定の病因が見当たらないため重大視しない人が多いが、実は大腸の機能不全のうちこれがいちばん多い。

なぜ大腸がこのような心因性の病気にかかりやすいのかといえば、腸は進化論的にいっても、発生的に

チャーエフ事件だ。ペテルブルグの大学生だったネチャーエフは、革命のためには、殺人であれ、恐

いっても、脳に最も近い臓器だからだ。セカンド・ブレインといわれるくらい、

本質において脳に近いところがあるから。特に情動作用においては腸が脳に直接働きかけている。

そもそも腸は動物にとつて最も大事な臓器。脳がなくても生きられる動物はい

るが、あらゆる動物が、腸なしには生きられない。だいたい脳は、腸の神経細胞組織が発達してきたといつてもいい臓器。両者の仕組みはよく似ている。腸はいつも脳に神経パルスを送つて働きかけているし、脳から腸への信号も常に出て

いる。腸が心因性の機能不全症を起すことがよくあるのはある意味で当然なのだ。

体質的にIBSにかかりやすい人はどの国でも一定数いるらしい。しかし、それだけ総理大臣辞任にまでいたつた人が出たのは日本だけらしい。

×月×日

いま思い出しても腹が立つのは、三十五年前、世紀



『アレクサンドル二世暗殺』

の大発見といわれた高松塚古墳が、当局の保存策の不

手際から、カビだらけになったことだ。その結果、あの貴重な壁画がいまや消えたも同然の状態になってしまった。しかも当局がそれをずつと隠蔽してきたため、適切な修復策がこうじ

られることもなかった。高松塚古墳の発掘を中心

的に行つてきた網干善教氏が生前(昨年死去)語りおろした回想録『高松塚への道』(草思社 1700円+税)を読むと、その怒りはさらに強まる。

網干氏も、それをずつと何も知らないままできたのだ。三年前はじめて、文化庁監修で出た『国宝高松塚古墳壁画』という一万八千九百円の豪華な図録を見て

事実には気がついた。「僕はページをめくつた瞬間、言葉を失いました。鳥肌さえ立ちました。

『これはいったい何やねん』思わずつぶやいていました。

三十年前、あんなに鮮やかだった白虎の壁画が、ほとんど見る影もなくなつて色

フスキーの作品をはるかに上まわる悪魔的な事件だったとわかる。読めば読むほど、連合赤軍事件とネチャ

ら、形もよくわからなくなるほど劣化していったのです」

文化庁は、カビが生えた原因を、「いわゆる地球温暖化の影響で、気温が三度ほど上がったから」と説明しているが、網干氏にいわせるとぜんぜんちがう。文化庁の純然たるミスである。

高松塚古墳はもともと厚い封土でおおわれ、その上に鬱蒼とした竹藪があつた。文化庁はその竹藪を伐採し、封土を全部めくつてしまった。

「しかし僕に言わせれば、竹藪を伐採し、土をめくつてしまつたら、古墳内の温度が上がらないほうがおかしい。担当者は自分たちに都合のいい説明をしているだけ、そしてマスコミは文化庁のその発表を、鵜呑みにしてそのまま書いていただけです」

「文化庁は三十年間、保存のために手を尽くしてきました、一所懸命やってきました、とやう。けれども、じつはまったく何もやってこなかったのではないのか」

何もやらないどころか破壊してきたのだ。

たちはなかし『シベリア鎮魂歌』

『私の読書日記』は、立花隆、鹿島茂、池澤夏樹、山崎努、酒井順子の五氏が毎週交代で執筆いたします。