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Complex systems, evolution, and animal models

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Abstract. In this paper, we respond to arguments made concerning our position regarding animal models (Shelley, 2010) by briefly examining the fact that animals (human and nonhuman) are complex systems that have different evolutionary trajectories. This historical fact has implications for using animals as predictive models for human response to drugs and disease.

Keywords: animal models, complex systems, evolution, prediction, medicine

In Shelley's "Why test on animals to treat humans?" (Shelley, 2010), he discusses positions and concepts set forth by various people including ourselves. We appreciate Shelley taking note of our respective works. However, we feel the need to point out that the work we have done together over the last decade (the references to our works that Shelley cited were, on average, over a decade old), largely as a result of knowledge stemming directly or indirectly from the Human Genome Project, adds support as well as another dimension to our position. These insights are not covered in our older works. In this paper, we wish to highlight our more recent work and what it implies for some of Shelley's conclusions.

We have explained our position in detail in (Shanks & Greek, 2009) and more briefly in (Shanks, Greek, & Greek, 2009). We have very clearly acknowledged that animal use in science and research has value, the lack of predictability for human response to drugs and disease notwithstanding. Our position can be summarized as follows (from Shanks & Greek, 2009, pp358-359). Living complex systems belonging to different species, largely as a result of the operation of evolutionary mechanisms over long periods of time, manifest different responses to the same stimuli due to: (1) differences with respect to genes present; (2) differences with respect to mutations in the same gene (where one species has an ortholog of a gene found in another); (3) differences with respect to proteins and protein activity; (4) differences with respect to gene regulation; (5) differences in gene expression; (6) differences in protein-protein

interactions; (7) differences in genetic networks; (8) differences with respect to organismal organization (humans and rats may be intact systems, but may be differently intact); (9) differences in environmental exposures; and last but not least; (10) differences with respect to evolutionary histories. These are some of the important reasons why members of one species often respond differently to drugs and toxins, and experience different diseases. Immense empirical evidence supports this position.

There are several characteristics about complex systems that are relevant to our position (Van Regenmortel, 2004). One is that the causes and effects of the events that a complex system experiences are not proportional to each other. Another is that the parts of a complex system are linked to and affect one another in a synergistic manner. In other words, there is positive and negative feedback. Complex systems are also robust, meaning they are resistant to change because of redundancies in the system. Probably the most important aspects of complex system as they pertain to the use animal models to predict human response to drugs and disease are that: 1. complex systems are very dependent upon initial conditions; 2. perturbations to the system have effects that are nonlinear (large perturbations may result in no change while small perturbations may wreak disaster); and 3. the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. To put all this in the context of using animals in research, very small differences in the genetic makeup of two otherwise very similar species can result in very different responses to drugs and disease.

One question that arises when any authors, ourselves included, use examples to highlight a concept is whether the examples are representative of the whole. We place the empirical evidence of animal models giving very different results from humans in the areas of toxicity, drug metabolism, research in HIV/AIDS, neuroscience and so forth in the context of what is known about complex systems (Mayr, 1998, p18) (Miska, 2003) (Editorial, 2004) (Ottino, 2004) (Van Regenmortel, 2004) and evolutionary biology. The knowledge from these two fields allows us to develop a theory that explains the empirical evidence and that allows development of future hypotheses and testing of those hypotheses.

For example, a common claim is that by genetically modifying organism A with a gene from organism B, the outcome from perturbations of system B will resemble those from A. In response to this claim, we would point out that both organisms are complex system networks and thus response to perturbations, even in the presence of the same genes, will in all likelihood vary (Jansen, 2003) (Thein, 2005) (Agarwal & Moorchung, 2005) (Boone, Bussey, & Andrews, 2007) (Dowell, et al., 2010). Evolution has arrived at exactly that situation in animals. Gene function depends on background conditions and modifier genes. They are not independent and isolated parts, like pistons. (A piston works the same way regardless of which compatible engine it is put in). Further, much empirical evidence has revealed that genetically altering an animal does not, in fact, reproduce the condition that existed in humans (Nijhout, 2003) or even in different strains of the same species (Pearson, 2002) (Dixit & Boelsterli, 2007) (Regenberg, et al., 2009). Nowhere is this more noteworthy than in the field that is currently referred to as personalized medicine or gene-based medicine (Miklos, 2005) (Weiss, et al., 2008) (Herscu, Hoover, & Randolph, 2009) (Kasowski, et al., 2010). Men and women respond differently to

drugs and disease (Simon, 2005) as do different ethnic groups (Gregor & Joffe, 1978) (Cheung, Warman, & Mulliken, 1997) (Haiman, et al., 2006). Even monozygotic twins do not always react the same to drugs or disease (Wong, Gottesman, & Petronis, 2005) (Fraga, et al., 2005) (Bruder, et al., 2008) (von Herrath & Nepom, 2009) (Javierre, et al., 2010). This puts the disanalogy argument (LaFollette & Shanks, 1996) in new light.

This leads us directly to the prediction issue that Shelley discusses. While it is true that not every species and every experiment has been tested for predictive value, the fact remains that many such tests have been performed directly or indirectly (Litchfield, 1962) (Smith & Caldwell, 1977, pp. 331-356) (Fletcher, 1978) (Ennever, Noonan, & Rosenkranz, 1987) (Sietsema, 1989) (Lumley, 1990) (Igarashi, 1994) (Igarashi, Nakane, & Kitagawa, 1995; Igarashi, Yabe, & Noda, 1996) (Johnson, et al., 2001) (Weaver, et al., 2003) (Shanks & Greek, 2009; Shanks, et al., 2009), and the empirical evidence strongly supports the theory, based on evolutionary biology and complexity, that says that two complex systems, despite the similarities, will never be similar enough to predict response to drugs and disease. The fact that *intraspecies* differences per above negate a predictive value high enough to satisfy the demands of medicine clearly indicates that *interspecies* differences will not allow prediction either.

As we have stated (Shanks & Greek, 2009), the exact value for prediction, in the form of positive predictive value (PPV) and negative predictive value (NPV) does not need to be known. In medical science, a PPV and NPV in the 0.9 neighborhood are needed and animal models fail to even approach these values. Thus animal models are not predictive for human response to drugs and disease, regardless of the so-called alternatives.

Finally, in light of the above, we conclude that the burden of proof is on those who claim that animal models *are* predictive for drug and disease response. There exists both empirical evidence and strong supporting theoretical considerations that they should not be and in fact are not.

We thank Shelley for including our research in his article and hope these comments add to the discussion regarding animals as predictive models for human response to drugs and disease.

Conflicts of Interest

None

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