ATLA 41, 335–350, 2013 335

# An Analysis of the Use of Dogs in Predicting Human Toxicology and Drug Safety

#### Jarrod Bailey, 1 Michelle Thew 1 and Michael Balls 2

<sup>1</sup>British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV), London, UK; <sup>2</sup>c/o Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments (FRAME), Nottingham, UK

Summary — Dogs remain the main non-rodent species in preclinical drug development. Despite the current dearth of new drug approvals and meagre pipelines, this continues, with little supportive evidence of its value or necessity. To estimate the evidential weight provided by canine data to the probability that a new drug may be toxic to humans, we have calculated Likelihood Ratios (LRs) for an extensive dataset of 2,366 drugs with both animal and human data, including tissue-level effects and Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities (MedDRA) Level 1–4 biomedical observations. The resulting LRs show that the absence of toxicity in dogs provides virtually no evidence that adverse drug reactions (ADRs) will also be absent in humans. While the LRs suggest that the presence of toxic effects in dogs can provide considerable evidential weight for a risk of potential ADRs in humans, this is highly inconsistent, varying by over two orders of magnitude for different classes of compounds and their effects. Our results therefore have important implications for the value of the dog in predicting human toxicity, and suggest that alternative methods are urgently required.

Key words: canine, dog, drug development, preclinical testing, toxicology.

Address for correspondence: Jarrod Bailey, British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV), 16a Crane Grove, London N7 8NN, UK. E-mail: jarrod.bailey@mac.com

### Introduction

It is generally assumed that testing new pharmaceuticals on animals helps to ensure human safety and efficacy. Regulatory agencies worldwide require preclinical trials (e.g. 1, 2), which involve at least two species — typically one rodent and one nonrodent species — to determine toxicity and pharmacokinetics. The expectation is that additional data from the non-rodent will detect adverse effects not detected by rodent tests. Despite the current dearth of new drug approvals and meagre pipelines (e.g. 3, 4), this practice continues, with little supportive evidence of its value or necessity (5).

Dogs are used in significant numbers in science - approximately 90,000 are used per annum across the EU and the USA, according to the latest available figures (6–8). About 80% of this use is as the non-rodent species in the evaluation of pharmaceutical safety and efficacy (6). However, only limited evaluations of the reliability of the canine model for this purpose have been conducted, chiefly due to the difficulty of accessing relevant data, most of which are unpublished and proprietary to pharmaceutical companies. Those evaluations that have been conducted have usually employed 'concordance' metrics (e.g. 9), which various authors have interpreted as the true positive rate ('sensitivity') or the Positive Predictive Value (PPV). While these metrics are appropriate for assessing the reliability of a diagnostic test for a

specific disorder (e.g. HIV infection), the insights they provide depend critically on the question being asked of the diagnostic test. However, they are not appropriate for assessing the salient question at issue with animal models, which is whether or not they contribute significant weight to the evidence for or against the toxicity of a given compound in humans. Overcoming this key problem almost entirely overlooked by previous authors requires a precise specification of the various terms used (see *Methods*). Briefly, the appropriate metrics are Likelihood Ratios (LRs; 10): the Positive Likelihood Ratio (PLR) and the inverse Negative Likelihood Ratio (iNLR). Therefore, there is clearly a need for the kind of statistically-appropriate critical analysis that we provide here. The dataset we have used is unique, in that it is large and allows the conditional probabilities required for the LRs (PLR/iNLR) to be calculated.

#### Methods

Animal models are widely used to assess the risk that a given compound will prove toxic in humans. As with any diagnostic test, their reliability can only be assessed by performing tests in which the same compound is given to both animals and humans, and the presence or absence of toxicity recorded. This leads to a  $2 \times 2$  matrix of results, as shown in Figure 1 (11).

Figure 1: A 2 × 2 matrix of results

Compound toxic in animal model

Compound not toxic in animal model

Compound toxic in humans	Compound not toxic in humans
a: true positives (TPs)	b: false positives (FPs)
c: false negatives (FNs)	d: true negatives (TNs)

The basis of this matrix is that the human data are correct, and the dog data are true/false, if they do/do not match them. The various cells in this matrix allow a variety of diagnostic metrics to be deduced, of which the most familiar and widely used are the true positive rate for the test (or 'sensitivity' = a/[a + c]), and the true negative rate (or 'specificity' = d/[d + b]). In previous research into the reliability of animal models as predictors of toxicity in humans, some authors (e.g. 9) have focused on the sensitivity, expressed as the 'true positive concordance rate', or the so-called Positive Predictive Value (PPV), given by a/(a+b), which reflects the probability that human toxicity was correctly identified by the animal model, given that toxicity was observed in the animal model (e.g. 12). However, neither of these metrics is suitable for the role of assessing the evidential weight provided by any toxicity test. In the case of animal models, the sensitivity addresses only the ability of such models to detect toxicity that will subsequently manifest itself in humans. This is a necessary, but not sufficient, measure of evidential weight. Suppose, for example, that the animal model always indicates toxicity found in humans; it would then have a sensitivity of 100%. However, if, in addition, the model always indicates toxicity, even in humans, its evidential value is no better than simply dismissing every compound as toxic from the outset. Thus, a useful toxicity test must also be able to give insight into when toxicity seen in the animal model is not observed in humans, which requires knowledge of the *specificity* of the test.

There is, of course, an obvious reason for the focus on sensitivity in animal model evaluation: if a compound is found to be positive in an animal model, it is unlikely to go into human evaluation. Nevertheless, the fact remains that sensitivity alone cannot be an adequate guide to the value of animal models.

The case of the PPV is more subtle. This metric is a measure of the probability that human toxicity will be correctly identified, given that the animal model detected toxicity. As such, PPVs are conditional probabilities, the condition being the pre-existence of a positive animal test result. This

makes PPVs dependent on the prevalence of toxicity in compounds, and thus an inappropriate measure of the reliability of the test with any specific compound (e.g. 10, 13).

Thus, any appropriate metric of the evidential value of animal models requires knowledge of *both* the sensitivity and the specificity of the model. This, in turn, implies that the appropriate metrics for the evidential weight provided by an animal model are LRs (e.g. 13). In general, these are ratios of functions of the sensitivity and specificity, which can be extracted from the  $2 \times 2$  matrix given above. In the specific case of animal models in general, two LRs are relevant. The first is the so-called PLR, which is given by:

PLR = sensitivity/
$$(1 - \text{specificity})$$
  
=  $(a / a + c)/(b/b + d)$ 

This LR captures the ability of an animal model to add evidential weight to the belief that a specific compound is toxic. Any animal model that gives a PLR that is statistically significantly higher than 1.0, can be regarded as contributing evidential weight to the probability that the compound under test will be toxic in humans.

The other relevant LR is the so-called iNLR, given by:

iNLR = specificity/(1 - sensitivity)  
= 
$$(d / b + d)/(c / a + c)$$

This LR captures the ability of an animal model to add evidential weight to the belief that a specific compound is not toxic: any animal model that gives an iNLR that is statistically significantly higher than 1.0, can be regarded as contributing evidential weight to the probability that the compound under test will not be toxic in humans.

It is worth noting at this point that the above definitions imply that a good animal model for detecting human toxicity is not necessarily also good for detecting an absence of toxicity. That is, a high PLR does not guarantee a high iNLR; this will emerge as a key issue in this study.

The above definitions also underscore the need for data on the human toxicity of compounds that fail initial animal tests. Again, a key feature of the current study is that this issue has been overcome via data mining methods. Data were obtained from a leading pharmaceutical safety consultancy, Instem Scientific Limited (Harston, Cambridge, UK; http://www.instem-lss.com 'Safety Intelligence Programme'), with funding provided by FRAME. All the information stemmed from publicly accessible sources, including: PubMed (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed), the FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS), DrugBank (http://www.drugbank.ca), and the National Toxicology Program (http://ntp.niehs.nih.gov). Data were available for more than 2,300 drug compounds in humans and preclinical species.

Inference of the good quality of the data used in this evaluation is outlined in the *Discussion*. Compounds were selected that feature in the FAERS, FDA New Drug Applications (FDA NDAs) and DrugBank. Thus, the drugs selected for this analysis are in clinical use, and have undergone preclinical testing: human and animal data are therefore available for them. A non-redundant list of parent moieties was created, for example, by normalising therapeutic products to their generic names (e.g. Lipitor to Atorvastatin). This yielded 2,366 compounds.

A signature of the effects of each compound was created, focusing on tissue-level effects (e.g. brady-cardia and arrhythmic disorder would both be considered to be effects on heart tissues), as well as the individual observations, which were mapped to their MedDRA (Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities; http://www.meddramsso.com) counterparts. MedDRA observations are classified into four levels, Level 1 being the most specific and Level 4 providing a more generic 'System Organ Class'. These classifications help to eliminate false positives that may arise from species-specific observations, and help the identification of concordant observations that might otherwise have been missed, by their 'rolling up' into more-generic terms.

LRs were derived for broad tissue-level effects (n = 52), and more-specific biomedical observations (BMOs; n = 384), mapped to MedDRA classifications (Levels 1 [most specific] to Level 4 [more generic 'organ class']). Fourteen BMO classifications not involving dogs were eliminated from the study. A total of 3,275 comparisons were made between the human and the dog, for 2,366 compounds, involving 436 (52 + 384) classifications of effects. The Instem Scientific data on which our analysis was based are shown in the Appendix, and the full set of data, including 95% Confidence Intervals, are available on the FRAME website (www.frame.org.uk).

With regard to potential bias: FNs are more common than FPs, since there is a bias resulting from a 'precautionary principle' not to progress positives to human administration. This has been mitigated by limiting the dataset to compounds reported in the FAERS database. Therefore, all the compounds are certain to have proceeded to market, and animal preclinical data are available for these compounds. Specific details of how the FPs that were identified arose were not sought, because they were not pertinent to this analysis, and this was not feasible, given the nature of the dataset. It must be assumed that the dog data were correlated with the human data retrospectively, and/or the human data arose from postmarketing studies, and/or clinical trials were applied for and approved, since the adverse effect(s) in dogs were minor and/or mitigated by other data.

#### Results

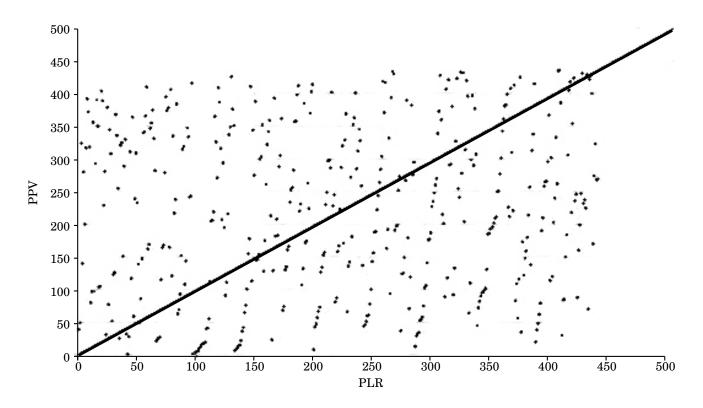
The inappropriate nature of PPVs is demonstrated in Figure 2, which shows a scatter plot of 'ranked' PPVs against equivalent ranked PLRs. Each PPV and PLR was ranked according to its value for each of the 436 classifications of effects, and these ranks were plotted against each other. The disparity is evidenced by the scatter of points, few of which lie close to the y = x line that shows an ideal correlation. The misclassifications and misplaced assumptions of the accuracy of canine data for the prediction of human adverse drug reactions (ADRs) are clear. For example, MedDRA 'Level 4, Vascular Disorder' was ranked 20/436 with regard to the most favourable classifications for human predictivity based on PPV, but its cognate PLR ranked 404/436 — one of the least predictive. Conversely, MedDRA classification 'Level 2, Ventricular Conduction' ranked 30/436 by PLR, but 406/436 by PPV.

Dog PLRs were generally high (median ~28), implying that compounds that are toxic in dogs are likely also to be toxic in humans. However, because the PLRs vary considerably (range 4.7–548.7), with no obvious pattern regarding the form of toxicity, the reliability of this aspect of canine models cannot be generalised or regarded with confidence.

In contrast, the calculated inverse negative LRs (iNLRs) are substantially more consistent, but their median value of 1.11 (range 1.01–1.92) supports the view that dogs provide essentially no evidential weight to this aspect of toxicity testing. Specifically, the fact that a compound shows no toxic effects in dogs provides essentially no insight into whether the compound will also show no toxic effects in humans.

This lack of evidential weight has important implications for the role of dogs in toxicity testing, especially for the pharmaceutical industry. The critical observation for deciding whether a candidate drug can proceed to testing in humans is the absence of toxicity in tests on animals. However,

Figure 2: Scatter plot illustrating the lack of correlation of PPVs and PLRs of biomedical observations (BMOs) and tissue effects in humans and dogs



PPVs and PLRs for all 436 results were ordered according to their value, with the highest ranking first and the lowest last. For each BMO and tissue effect, the corresponding PPV and PLR rank were plotted against each other. If a perfect correlation exists, all points should lie on the line, where, for example, the 10th, 50th, and 100th highest PPV value would also be the 10th, 50th, and 100th highest PLR values. However, the significant scatter of the data points demonstrates that little correlation exists between PPV and PLR. For example: the 20th highest PPV ranks only 404/436 for PLR, whereas the 30th highest PLR ranks only 406/436 for PPV.

our findings show that the predictive value of the animal test in this regard is barely greater than that that would be obtained by chance (see below).

## **Discussion**

The analysis presented here is urgently required, to support informed debate about the worth of animal models in preclinical testing. It is acknowledged among some stakeholders (if not universally among all stakeholders) that assessment of the scientific value of animal data in drug development is necessary, has been scarce, and has been thwarted for decades by the unavailability of relevant data for analysis (e.g. 14). Nevertheless, primarily due to concerns over privacy and commercial interests, data sharing and making data available continue to be resisted, in spite of assurances to the contrary from industry (14).

Those few analyses that have been done, tend to reflect unfavourably on animal models, including

the dog. In 2012, a study that expressly set out to minimise bias, showed that 63% of serious ADRs had no counterparts in animals, and less than 20% of serious ADRs had a true positive corollary in animal studies (15). Other similar examples exist for testing generally (e.g. 16–18) and more-specifically, for example, in teratology (e.g. 19, 20) and drug-induced liver injury (e.g. 5, 21). One notable study claimed a good concordance for dog and human toxicology (10), though neither the predictive nature of the animal data for humans, nor the evidential weight provided by those data, were addressed (22).

We have, for the first time, addressed the salient question of contribution of evidential weight for or against the toxicity of a given compound in humans by data from dog tests, by using the appropriate metrics of LRs. Furthermore, we have applied the apposite LRs to a dataset of unprecedented scale, to critically question the value of the use of the dog as a preclinical species in the testing of new pharmaceuticals.

Substantiation of data quality is evidenced by: the methods used to source the data and the assured quality of the databases supplying them (listed above); the ways in which the data had been used recently as a basis for scientific publications and presentations (e.g. 23-26); and the international corporate and academic clients that have the consultancy and its data AstraZeneca; see 23–26). In addition, the impact of 'missing data' (i.e. unpublished data held by pharmaceutical companies) was mitigated by strictly limiting the dataset to drugs "with the greatest chance of having been evaluated in all the species included in the study" (here, dogs and humans). In other words, "...lack of evidence for an association between a compound and a specific BMO demonstrates a real absence of effect, and is not due to missing data" (Instem Scientific Ltd. Analysis Report, unpublished).

Naturally, there must be caveats. Our analysis was limited to data that are published and publicly available. It is widely acknowledged that many animal experimental results/preclinical data remain unpublished and/or proprietary, for a variety of reasons (e.g. 15, 27-30). Such publication bias is a major problem (e.g. 31-34), and, compounded by other factors such as size and quality of the animal studies, variability in the requirements for reporting animal studies, 'optimism bias', and lack of randomisation and blinding (28, 35), it means that gauging the true contribution of animal data to human toxicology is impossible at least for third parties without access to pharmaceutical company files. All datasets are imperfect to varying degrees. However, it is only possible to use data which are available, and to ensure that, as far as feasible, those data are of good quality and as free from biases as possible, and that their analysis and derived conclusions are as objective as possible.

It must be made abundantly clear that we, the authors of this report, did not make decisions regarding the toxicity/non-toxicity of drugs, or decide upon or apply any criteria to such decisions. The mining of the data, and the decisions on toxicity of the drugs, were independent of the authors of this paper, and were made by one or both of the authors of the drug/toxicity papers and/or database submissions used, and the data-mining consultancy/curators of the Safety Intelligence Programme, Instem Scientific Limited. Therefore, if any pharmaceutical industry stakeholders have issues or concerns with our conclusions, we would encourage them to conduct further analyses by using their own proprietary data, and/or to facilitate such investigations by making available anonymised data, in accordance with the promotion of transparency encouraged by EU Directive 2010/63/EU(36), as well as to engage fully in constructive discussion and debate with us and our colleagues in animal protection organisations.

Our findings have practical implications for the use of animal models for toxicity testing, especially in the pharmaceutical industry. Reliance on flawed models of toxicity testing leads to two types of failure. If the models have poor PLRs, then there is a risk that many potentially useful compounds will be wrongly discarded, because of 'false positives' produced by the toxicity model. On the other hand, if the models have poor iNLRs, then many toxic compounds will wrongly find their way into human tests, and will fail in clinical trials. The relatively high PLRs found in this study show that animal models may not be leading to the loss of many potentially valuable candidate drugs through false positives. However, our results do imply that many toxic drugs are not being detected by animal models, leading to the risk of unnecessary harm to humans.

In this regard, our findings are entirely consistent with the acknowledged failure of animal models in general to provide guidance on likely toxicity ahead of the entry of compounds into human trials. Drug attrition has increased significantly over the past two decades (e.g. 3, 4, 37-42): 92-94% of all drugs that pass preclinical tests fail in clinical trials. mostly due to unforeseen toxicities (43–45). and half of those that succeed may be subsequently withdrawn or re-labelled due to ADRs not detected in animal tests (46). ADRs are a major cause of premature death in developed countries (47). A major contributing factor is the inadequacy of preclinical animal tests: one recent study showed that 63% of ADRs had no counterpart in animals, and less than 20% had a positive corollary in animal studies (15).

With specific regard to the dog, the most extensive study prior to the report we present here, concluded that 92% of dog toxicity studies did not provide relevant information in addition to that provided by the rat, and that the other 8% did not result in the immediate withdrawal of drugs from development, indicating that dog studies are not required for the prediction of safe doses for humans (17). There is a scientific basis for this: among several notable species differences which confound the extrapolation of data from dogs to humans, significant differences between humans and dogs in their cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYPs) — the major enzymes involved in drug metabolism — have been acknowledged for some time, compelling the conclusion that, "...it is readily seen that the dog is frequently not a good metabolic model for man and is poorly comparable to the rat and mouse" (for references, see 46). The lack of knowledge of canine CYPs has been highlighted, which is surprising, considering the extent of the use of dogs in preclinical testing. This problem is likely to be amplified by intra-species differences, as well as by inter-species differences (49). It may therefore be argued that, if many differ-

ences exist between different breeds or strains of the same species, then extrapolating pharmacokinetic data from that highly variable species to humans must not only be difficult, but must also be patently unreliable.

# **Conclusions**

This analysis of the most comprehensive quantitative database of publicly-available animal toxicity studies yet compiled, suggests that dogs are highly inconsistent predictors of toxic responses in humans, and that the predictions they can provide are little better than those that could be obtained by chance — or tossing a coin — when considering whether or not a compound should proceed to testing in humans. In other words: "...for any putative source of evidential weight to be deemed useful, its specificity and sensitivity must be such that LR+ [PLR] >1. Tossing a coin contributes no evidential weight to a given hypothesis, as the sensitivity and specificity are the same — 50% — and thus the LR+ [PLR] is equal to 1" (22).

Dog PLRs were generally high, showing that a drug which is toxic in the dog is likely to be toxic in humans. However, they were extremely variable and with no obvious pattern, suggesting this aspect of dog tests cannot be considered particularly reliable or helpful. Further, though not within the scope of this analysis, it is of great interest whether the dog revealed any significant toxicities, that were also present in humans, that other species such as the rat did not. In other words, did the dog 'catch' any true human toxicities not caught by the rat? It has been previously argued that such toxicities are relatively low in number (e.g. the development of just 11% of new compounds was terminated due to effects uniquely seen in dogs, though the human significance of these could not be determined), which would further diminish any value the canine model may have in this respect (50).

More importantly, while iNLRs were much more consistent, they revealed that dogs provide essentially no evidential weight to this aspect of toxicity testing. Specifically, if a compound shows no toxic effects in dogs, this provides essentially no insight into whether the compound will also show no toxic effects in humans. This is crucial: the critical observation for deciding whether a candidate drug can proceed to testing in humans is the absence of toxicity in tests on animals, and our findings show that the predictive value of the dog test in this regard is barely greater than by chance.

A quantitative example illustrates this. Suppose researchers wish to investigate a candidate compound belonging to a family which prior experience indicates has a 70% probability of freedom from ADRs in humans. Before conducting tests in humans, the drug is tested in dogs. By using the

median iNLR figure found by our study, if the compound shows no sign of toxicity in the dog, the probability that the compound will also show no toxic effects in humans will have been increased by the animal testing from 70% to 72%. The testing thus contributes essentially no additional confidence in the outcome, but at considerable extra cost, both in monetary terms and in terms of animal welfare. This also has obvious practical relevance to the issue of high attrition rates in clinical trials on new drug candidates.

It is argued that a comprehensive suite of more reliable alternative methods is now available (14, 51, 52). Combined with considerable public concern over the use of dogs in science (53), the high ethical costs of doing so, given the sensitive nature of dogs (e.g. 15, 54), and the expressed desire for the use of dogs as a second species in drug testing to have a scientific, rather than a habitual, basis (14), we conclude that the preclinical testing of pharmaceuticals in dogs cannot currently be justified on scientific or ethical grounds.

# **Acknowledgements**

The authors are grateful to the British Union for the Abolition of Vivisection (BUAV), the Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments (FRAME), and The Kennel Club (via FRAME), for funding. They thank Robert Matthews for advice on inferential issues, Bob Coleman for his help and encouragement during the inception of this undertaking, and Instem Scientific (previously BioWisdom; Harston, Cambridge, UK) for scientific consultancy and for data analysis on integrated data relating to adverse events in model animal species. The research described in this article is based on the analysis and conclusions of the authors: it has not been subjected to each agency's peer review and policy review; therefore, it does not necessarily reflect the views of the organisations, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

Received 23.05.13; received in final form 11.09.13; accepted for publication 19.09.13.

#### References

- Anon. (2004). Directive 2004/27/EEC of the European Parliament and the Council of 31 March 2004, amending Directive 2001/83/EC on the Community code relating to medicinal products for human use. Official Journal of the European Union L136, 30.04.2004, 34–57.
- 2. Anon. (2010). Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetics Act. Silver Spring, MD, USA: US Food and Drug Administration. Available at: http://www.fda.gov/RegulatoryInformation/Legislation/FederalFood DrugandCosmeticActFDCAct/default.htm (Acc-

- essed 11.10.13).
- Duyk, G. (2003). Attrition and translation. Science, New York 302, 603-605.
- 4. Kola, I. & Landis, J. (2004). Can the pharmaceutical industry reduce attrition rates? *Nature Reviews Drug Discovery* **3**, 711–715.
- Aithal, G.P. (2010). Mind the gap. ATLA 38, Suppl. 1, 1–4.
- UK Home Office (2013). Statistics of Scientific Procedures on Living Animals Great Britain 2012. HC 549, 60pp. London, UK: The Stationery Office.
- 7. USDA (2011). Annual Report. Animal Usage by Fiscal Year Fiscal Year 2010, 2pp. Riverdale, MD, USA: United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS). Available at: http://www.aphis.usda.gov/animal\_welfare/efoia/downloads/2010\_Animals\_Used\_In\_Research.pdf (Accessed 05.09. 13).
- 8. Anon. (2010). Sixth Report on the Statistics on the Number of Animals Used for Experimental and Other Scientific Purposes in the Member States of the European Union. SEC(2010) 1107, 14pp. Brussels, Belgium: European Commission. Available at: http://eurlex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do? uri=COM:2010:0511:REV1:EN:PDF (Accessed 10. 10.13).
- Olson, H., Betton, G., Robinson, D., Thomas, K., Monro, A., Kolaja, G., Lilly, P., Sanders, J., Sipes, G., Bracken, W., Dorato, M., Van Deun, K., Smith, P., Berger, B. & Heller, A. (2000). Concordance of the toxicity of pharmaceuticals in humans and in animals. Regulatory Toxicology & Pharmacology 32, 56-67.
- Altman, D.G. & Bland, J.M. (1994). Diagnostic tests
   Predictive values. British Medical Journal 309, 102.
- Anon. (2012). Likelihood Ratios. Oxford, UK: Centre for Evidence Based Medicine (CEBM). Available at: http://www.cebm.net/index.aspx?o= 1043 (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Greek, R. & Menache, A. (2013). Systematic reviews of animal models: Methodology versus epistemology. International Journal of Medical Sciences 10, 206–221.
- Grimes, D.A. & Schulz, K.F. (2005). Refining clinical diagnosis with likelihood ratios. *Lancet* 365, 1500–1505
- 14. Hasiwa, N., Bailey, J., Clausing, P., Daneshian, M., Eileraas, M., Farkas, S., Gyertyan, I., Hubrecht, R., Kobel, W., Krummenacher, G., Leist, M., Lohi, H., Miklosi, A., Ohl, F., Olejniczak, K., Schmitt, G., Sinnett-Smith, P., Smith, D., Wagner, K., Yager, J.D., Zurlo, J. & Hartung, T. (2011). Critical evaluation of the use of dogs in biomedical research and testing in Europe. ALTEX 28, 326–340.
- van Meer, P.J., Kooijman, M., Gispen-de Wied, C.C., Moors, E.H. & Schellekens, H. (2012). The ability of animal studies to detect serious post marketing adverse events is limited. Regulatory Toxicology & Pharmacology 64, 345–349.
- Igarashi, T., Nakane, S. & Kitagawa, T. (1995). Predictability of clinical adverse reactions of drugs by general pharmacology studies. *Journal of Tox*icological Sciences 20, 77–92.
- Broadhead, C.L., Jennings, M. & Combes, R. (1999).
   A Critical Evaluation of the Use of Dogs in the Regulatory Toxicity Testing of Pharmaceuticals, 106pp. Nottingham, UK: Fund for the Replacement

- of Animals in Medical Experiments (FRAME).
- 18. Litchfield, J.T.J. (1962). Symposium on clinical drug evaluation and human pharmacology. XVI. Evaluation of the safety of new drugs by means of tests in animals. Clinical Pharmacology & Therapeutics 3, 665–672.
- 19. Bailey, J. (2008). Developmental toxicity testing: Protecting future generations? *ATLA* **36**, 718–721.
- Schardein, J. (2000). Chemically Induced Birth Defects, 3rd edn, 1019pp. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press.
- Spanhaak, S., Cook, D., Barnes, J. & Reynolds, J. (2008). Species Concordance for Liver Injury, 6pp. Cambridge, UK: Biowisdom Ltd. Available at: http://www.biowisdom.com/files/SIP\_Board\_Species\_Concordance.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- 22. Matthews, R.A. (2008). Medical progress depends on animal models doesn't it? *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine* **101**, 95–98.
- 23. Barnes, J.C., Matis, S., Kenna, G., Swinton, J., Bradley, P.M., Day, N.C., Reed, J.Z., Reynolds, J. & Cook, D. (2008). The Safety Intelligence Program: An Intelligence Network for Drug-induced Liver Injury, 2pp. Cambridge, UK: Biowisdom Ltd. Available at: http://bioblog.instem.com/downloads/ Carboxylic\_acids\_A4.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- 24. Sidaway, J.R.M., Roberts, S., Huby, R., Nicholson, A., Pemberton, J., South, M., Noeske, T., Engkvist, O., Bradley, P. & Reed, J. (2012). Drug Toxicities Associated With Pharmacological Activity: Using Harmonised Data to Make the 'Known' Visible, 2pp. Macclesfield, UK: Safety Assessment, AstraZeneca. Available at: http://bioblog.instem.com/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2012/03/SOT2012\_make-the-known-visible\_poster.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Fourches, D., Barnes, J.C., Day, N.C., Bradley, P., Reed, J.Z. & Tropsha, A. (2010). Cheminformatics analysis of assertions mined from literature that describe drug-induced liver injury in different species. Chemical Research in Toxicology 23, 171-183.
- Greco, I., Day, N., Riddoch-Contreras, J., Reed, J., Soininen, H., Kloszewska, I., Tsolaki, M., Vellas, B., Spenger, C., Mecocci, P., Wahlund, L.O., Simmons, A., Barnes, J. & Lovestone, S. (2012). Alzheimer's disease biomarker discovery using in silico literature mining and clinical validation. Journal of Translational Medicine 10, 217.
- 27. Wandall, B., Hansson, S.O. & Ruden, C. (2007). Bias in toxicology. *Archives of Toxicology* 81, 605–617.
- Hackam, D.G. (2007). Translating animal research into clinical benefit. *British Medical Journal* 334, 163–164.
- ter Riet, G., Korevaar, D.A., Leenaars, M., Sterk, P.J., Van Noorden, C.J., Bouter, L.M., Lutter, R., Elferink, R.P. & Hooft, L. (2012). Publication bias in laboratory animal research: A survey on magnitude, drivers, consequences and potential solutions. PLoS One 7, e43404.
- Briel, M., Muller, K.F., Meerpohl, J.J., von Elm, E., Lang, B., Motschall, E., Gloy, V., Lamontagne, F., Schwarzer, G. & Bassler, D. (2013). Publication bias in animal research: A systematic review protocol. Systematic Reviews 2, 23.
- 31. van der Worp, H.B., Howells, D.W., Sena, E.S., Porritt, M.J., Rewell, S., O'Collins, V. & Macleod, M.R. (2010). Can animal models of disease reliably inform human studies? *PLoS Medicine* 7, e1000245.

 Sena, E.S., van der Worp, H.B., Bath, P.M., Howells, D.W. & Macleod, M.R. (2010). Publication bias in reports of animal stroke studies leads to major overstatement of efficacy. *PLoS Biology* 8, e1000344.

- Perel, P., Roberts, I., Sena, E., Wheble, P., Briscoe, C., Sandercock, P., Macleod, M., Mignini, L.E., Jayaram, P. & Khan, K.S. (2007). Comparison of treatment effects between animal experiments and clinical trials: Systematic review. *British Medical Journal* 334, 197.
- 34. Schott, G., Pachl, H., Limbach, U., Gundert-Remy, U., Ludwig, W.D. & Lieb, K. (2010). The financing of drug trials by pharmaceutical companies and its consequences. Part 1: A qualitative, systematic review of the literature on possible influences on the findings, protocols, and quality of drug trials. Deutsches Arzteblatt International 107, 279–285.
- Kilkenny, C., Parsons, N., Kadyszewski, E., Festing, M.F., Cuthill, I.C., Fry, D., Hutton, J. & Altman, D.G. (2009). Survey of the quality of experimental design, statistical analysis and reporting of research using animals. *PLoS One* 4, e7824.
- Anon. (2010). Directive 2010/63/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 22 September 2010 on the protection of animals used for scientific purposes. Official Journal of the European Union L276, 20.10.2010, 33–79.
- US FDA (2004). Innovation or Stagnation: Challenge and Opportunity on the Critical Path to New Medical Products, 12pp. Silver Spring, MD, USA: US Department of Health and Human Services, Food and Drug Administration. Available at: http://www. fda.gov/ScienceResearch/Special Topics/CriticalPath Initiative/CriticalPathOpportunitiesReports/ucm077 262.htm (Accessed 10.10.13).
- 38. Issa, A.M., Phillips, K.A., Van Bebber, S., Nidamarthy, H.G., Lasser, K.E., Haas, J.S., Alldredge, B.K., Wachter, R.M. & Bates, D.W. (2007). Drug withdrawals in the United States: A systematic review of the evidence and analysis of trends. *Current Drug Safety* 2, 177–185.
- Bennani, Y.L. (2011). Drug discovery in the next decade: Innovation needed ASAP. Drug Discovery Today 16, 779–792.
- Eichler, H.G., Aronsson, B., Abadie, E. & Salmonson, T. (2010). New drug approval success rate in Europe in 2009. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery 9, 355–356.
- Hughes, B. (2008). 2007 FDA drug approvals: A year of flux. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery 7, 107–109.
- 42. Hartung, T. (2009). Toxicology for the twenty-first century. *Nature, London* **460**, 208–212.
- 43. Harding, A. (2004). More compounds failing phase I. FDA chief warns that high drug attrition rate is pushing up the cost of drug development. The Scientist, 6 August 2004. Available at: http:// www.the-scientist.com/?articles.view/articleNo/

- 23003/title/More-compounds-failing-Phase-I/(Accessed 10.10.13).
- Okie, S. (2006). Access before approval a right to take experimental drugs? New England Journal of Medicine 355, 437–440.
- Aurup, P. (2012). Er Danmark et Attraktivt Land for Klinisk Forskning? (Is Denmark an Attractive Country for Clinical research?), 23pp. Ballerup, Denmark: MSD Laboratories. Available at: http:// di.dk/SiteCollectionDocuments/Opinion/Sundhed/ Høring/Præsentation%20-%20Peter%20Aurup, %20Merck.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Anon. (1990). FDA Drug Review: Post Approval Risks 1976–1985. GAO/PEMD-90-15, 132pp. Washington, DC, USA: US General Accounting Office. Available at: http://161.203.16.4/d24t8/141456.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Lazarou, J., Pomeranz, B.H. & Corey, P.N. (1998).
   Incidence of adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients: A meta-analysis of prospective studies.
   Journal of the American Medical Association 279, 1200–1205.
- Gad, S.C. (2006). Animal Models in Toxicology, 952pp. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press.
- Martinez, M.N., Antonovic, L., Court, M., Dacasto, M., Fink-Gremmels, J., Kukanich, B., Locuson, C., Mealey, K., Myers, M.J. & Trepanier, L. (2013). Challenges in exploring the cytochrome P450 system as a source of variation in canine drug pharmacokinetics. *Drug Metabolism Reviews* 45, 218–230
- 50. Broadhead, C.L., Betton, G., Combes, R., Damment, S., Everett, D., Garner, C., Godsafe, Z., Healing, G., Heywood, R., Jennings, M., Lumley, C., Oliver, G., Smith, D., Straughan, D., Topham, J., Wallis, R., Wilson, S. & Buckley, P. (2000). Prospects for reducing and refining the use of dogs in the regulatory toxicity testing of pharmaceuticals. Human & Experimental Toxicology 19, 440–447.
- Spielmann, H., Kral, V., Schäfer-Korting, M., Seidle, T., McIvor, E., Rowan, A. & Schoeters, G. (2011). The AXLR8 Consortium. Alternative Testing Strategies, Progress Report 2011, 364pp. Berlin, Germany: Institute of Pharmacy, Free University of Berlin. Available at: http://scrtox.eu/~scrtox/images/stories/AXLR8-2011.pdf (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Anon. (2007). Toxicity Testing for the 21st Century: A Vision and a Strategy, 216pp. Washington, DC, USA: National Academies Press.
- Anon. (2009). Public Opinion. London, UK: European Coalition to End Animal Experiments.
   Available at: http://www.eceae.org/en/what-we-do/campaigns/12-million-reasons/public-opinion (Accessed 10.10.13).
- Hare, B., Brown, M., Williamson, C. & Tomasello, M. (2002). The domestication of social cognition in dogs. Science, New York 298, 1634–1636.

# **Appendix**

Table A1: Raw data from Instem Scientific's 'Safety Intelligence Programme', showing the number of drugs associated with ADRs in humans and dogs

	Parameters	Number of drugs							
	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	Dog b (FP)	Human c (FN)	Neither d (TN)	Dog total	Human total		
1	Level 1 — qrs prolongation	10	0	22	2334	10	32		
2	Level 2 — glomerulonephritis and nephrotic syndrome	13	0	104	2249	13	117		
3	Level 2 — kidney neoplastic disorder	8	0	57	2301	8	65		
4	Level 1 — ocular hypertension	6	0	17	2343	6	23		
5	Level 3 — glaucoma and ocular hypertension	6	0	19	2341	6	25		
6	Level 2 — glaucomas (excluding congenital)	6	0	19	2341	6	25		
7	Level 1 — nephrotic syndrome	8	0	68	2290	8	76		
8	Level 2 — renal neoplasms (malignant)	7	0	49	2310	7	56		
9 10	Level 3 — renal and urinary tract neoplasms (malignant and unspecified)  Level 2 — urinary tract neoplasms (unspecified malignancy not	7	0	50	2309	7	57		
10	elsewhere classified; nec)	6	0	27	2333	6	33		
11	Level 1 — kidney neoplastic disorder	6	0	27	2333	6	33		
12	Level 1 — orthostatic hypotension	10	0	170	2186	10	180		
13	Level 2 — hepatic peroxisome proliferation	5	0	16	2345	5	21		
14	Level 1 — cholestatic jaundice	7	0	131	2228	7	138		
15	Brain	78	1	854	1433	79	932		
16	Level 2 — renal failure and impairment	62	2	510	1792	64	572		
17	Bodily fluid	474	18	980	894	492	1454		
18	Skin	154	7	1066	1139	161	1220		
19	Large intestine	44	2	810	1510	46	854		
20	Kidney	214	11	696	1445	225	910		
21	Heart	509	27	727	1103	536	1236		
22	Liver	515	31	853	967	546	1368		
23	Vasculature	465	28	842	1031	493	1307		
24	Nervous tissue	165	10	1001	1190	175	1166		
25	Level 2 — cholestasis and jaundice	47	3	418	1898	50	465		
26	Nerve	43	3	459	1861	46	502		
27	Level 4 — cardiac disorder	480	34	698	1154	514	1178		
28	Muscle	168	12	829	1357	180	997		
29	Level 4 — blood and lymphatic system disorders	28	2	465	1871	30	493		
30	Level 4 — hepatobiliary disorder	472	34	787	1073	506	1259		
31	Level 3 — hepatic and hepatobiliary disorders	338	26	764	1238	364	1102		
32	Level 3 — renal disorder	75	6	394	1891	81	469		
33	Ear	12	ĺ	444	1909	13	456		
34	Level 4 — vascular disorder	415	35	835	1081	450	1250		
35	Bodily fluid liver	304	26	848	1188	330	1152		
36	Level 3 — renal disorders (excluding nephropathies)	113	10	591	1652	123	704		
37	Level 4 — skin and subcutaneous tissue disease	195	18	619	1534	213	814		
38	Level 2 — hepatic lipid peroxidation	32	3	129	2202	35	161		
39	Level 4 — investigation	339	$3\overline{2}$	723	$\frac{1272}{1272}$	371	1062		
40	Level 1 — kidney failure	21	2	292	2051	23	313		

All entries are numbered for identification only (column 1). The second column (parameters) indicates the specific biomedical observation (BMO) in question (e.g. 'bradycardia' or 'arrhythmic disorder'), or tissue-level effects (e.g. 'heart', which would encompass these two BMOs). The BMOs were mapped to their MedDRA (Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities) counterpart, which are classified into four levels, level 1 being the most specific and level 4 providing a more generic 'System Organ Class'. The number of drugs for which ADRs were observed in each species is shown in columns 3–8. Human/Dog represents drugs for which an ADR was reported in both humans and dogs: these are True Positives (TPs), and correspond to cell 'a' in the 2 × 2 matrix (see Methods, Figure 1). Dog represents drugs for which an ADR was reported in dogs, but not in humans: these are False Positives (FPs), and correspond to cell 'b' in the 2 × 2 matrix. Human represents drugs for which an ADR was reported in humans, but not in dogs: these are False Negatives (FNs), and correspond to cell 'c' in the 2 × 2 matrix. Human represents drugs for which an absence of ADRs was evident in both humans and dogs: these are True Negatives (TNs), and correspond to cell 'd' in the 2 × 2 matrix. Notably, lack of an association between a compound and a specific BMO was assumed (by the data provider) to demonstrate a real absence of effect, and not be due to missing data. To minimise the impact of missing data, the group of compounds in the dataset were chosen with the greatest chance of having been evaluated in all the species included in the study (see Methods). The total number of drugs exhibiting ADRs in each species, regardless of the presence or absence of ADRs in the other species, is given in the final two columns: Dog = a + b (TP + FP); Human = a + c (TP + FN).

 $nec = not \ elsewhere \ classified.$ 

# Parameters

# Number of drugs

	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	g Dog b (FP)		Neither d (TN)		Human total
41	Level 4 — injury, poisoning and procedural complications	276	27	670	1393	303	946
42	Level 4 — renal and urinary disorders	222	22	630	1492	244	852
43	Breast	20	2	434	1910	22	454
44	Adrenal gland	10	1	224	2131	11	234
45	Pancreas	19	2	421	1924	21	440
46	Level 3 — cardiac and vascular investigations (excluding enzyme tests)	320	34	647	1365	354	967
47	Level 3 — arrhythmic disorder Level 3 — skin vascular abnormalities Level 2 — trophic disorders Level 4 — musculoskeletal disorder	294	32	577	1463	326	871
48		182	20	482	1682	202	664
49		9	1	110	2246	10	119
50		105	12	706	1543	117	811
51	Neuromuscular tissue Level 4 — neurological disorder Haemolymphoid tissue Joint Level 1 — cardiac hypertrophy	104	12	712	1538	116	816
52		85	10	627	1644	95	712
53		68	8	748	1542	76	816
54		17	2	420	1927	19	437
55		25	3	106	2232	28	131
56	Level 2 — hepatic microsomal lipid peroxidation Level 1 — interstitial nephritis Respiratory tissue Level 2 — haemolysis Level 4 — respiratory, thoracic and mediastinal disorders	8	1	26	2331	9	34
57		8	1	108	2249	9	116
58		70	9	653	1634	79	723
59		15	2	330	2019	17	345
60		112	15	717	1522	127	829
61	Level 1 — muscle twitching Level 2 — non-site specific vascular disorders nec Level 3 — vascular disorder Level 2 — skin vasomotor conditions Level 1 — vasodilation	29	4	162	2171	33	191
62		137	19	382	1828	156	519
63		150	21	525	1670	171	675
64		171	24	331	1840	195	502
65		113	16	246	1991	129	359
66	Level 2 — nephropathies and tubular disorders nec	56	8	313	1989	64	369
67	Level 1 — congestive heart failure	7	1	158	2200	8	165
68	Prostate gland	7	1	234	2124	8	241
69	Level 3 — chemical injury and poisoning	168	25	544	1629	193	712
70	Level 2 — poisoning and toxicity	168	25	544	1629	193	712
71	Level 2 — vascular test Stomach Level 2 — electrocardiogram observation Level 2 — rate and rhythm disorders nec Level 3 — muscular disorder	193	29	580	1564	222	773
72		86	13	863	1404	99	949
73		59	9	306	1992	68	365
74		208	32	530	1596	240	738
75		78	12	632	1644	90	710
76 77 78	Level 3 — epidermal and dermal conditions Urogenital tissue Level 3 — decreased and non-specific blood pressure disorders	13 70	2 11	354 695	1997 1590	15 81	367 765
79 80	and shock Bodily fluid kidney Level 3 — general system disorders nec	153 61 30	$   \begin{array}{c}     25 \\     10 \\     5   \end{array} $	498 479 502	1690 1816 1829	178 71 35	$651 \\ 540 \\ 532$
81 82 83 84 85	Level 3 — central nervous system vascular disorders  Level 1 — jaundice  Level 2 — dermal and epidermal conditions nec  Level 1 — hypertrophy  Level 3 — respiratory and mediastinal neoplasms (malignant and unspecified)	18 12 12 6 6	3 2 2 1	266 327 329 68	2079 2025 2023 2291 2287	21 14 14 7	284 339 341 74
86 87 88 89 90	Level 2 — lower respiratory tract neoplasms Level 3 — respiratory tract neoplastic disorder Level 2 — hepatocellular damage and hepatitis nec Level 2 — heart rate and pulse investigations Level 3 — arteriosclerosis, stenosis, vascular insufficiency and necrosis	6 6 215 203	1 1 36 34 29	79 79 582 529	2280 2280 1533 1600	7 7 251 237 200	85 85 797 732
91	Level 1 — acute kidney failure Lung Level 2 — myocardial disorder Level 2 — vascular hypotensive disorders Level 3 — myocardial disorder	34	6	289	2037	40	323
92		96	17	733	1520	113	829
93		73	13	198	2082	86	271
94		145	26	470	1725	171	615
95		100	18	321	1927	118	421
96 97 98 99	Level 2 — muscle observation Bodily fluid cardiovascular Level 4 — immunological disorder Level 2 — cerebrovascular and spinal necrosis and vascular	50 105 44	9 19 8	336 608 527	1971 1634 1787	59 124 52	386 713 571
100	insufficiency Level 2 — inflammatory kidney disease	11 11	2 2	138 155	2215 2198	13 13	149 166

	Parameters	Number of drugs						
	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	Dog b (FP)	Human c (FN)	Neither d (TN)	Dog total	Human total	
101	Uterus Bladder Level 3 — cardiac disorder signs and symptoms Level 3 — hypertension Pituitary gland	11	2	201	2152	13	212	
102		11	2	293	2060	13	304	
103		65	12	509	1780	77	574	
104		96	18	520	1732	114	616	
105		16	3	221	2126	19	237	
106	Level 2 — hepatic failure and associated disorders Level 1 — hypotension Level 2 — bronchospasm and obstruction Level 3 — bronchial disorders (excluding neoplasms) Eye	16	3	274	2073	19	290	
107		140	27	442	1757	167	582	
108		31	6	376	1953	37	407	
109		31	6	376	1953	37	407	
110		77	15	762	1512	92	839	
111	Level 3 — injury Level 1 — hepatic apoptosis Level 2 — central nervous system vascular disorders Level 3 — haemolyses and related conditions Level 2 — hepatic collagen synthesis	120	24	511	1711	144	631	
112		15	3	111	2237	18	126	
113		10	2	90	2264	12	100	
114		15	3	339	2009	18	354	
115		5	1	23	2337	6	28	
116	Level 1 — atrial flutter Level 1 — glutathione depletion Level 2 — haematological analyses nec Level 1 — liver failure Level 1 — cardiomyocyte apoptosis	5	1	26	2334	6	31	
117		5	1	29	2331	6	34	
118		5	1	29	2331	6	34	
119		10	2	221	2133	12	231	
120		5	1	32	2328	6	37	
121 122 123 124 125	Level 2 — cardioprotection  Level 3 — haematology investigations (including blood groups)  Level 1 — lung neoplastic disorder  Level 2 — encephalopathies (toxic and metabolic)  Level 2 — respiratory tract and pleural neoplasms (malignancy unspecified nec)	5 5 5 5	1 1 1 1	35 40 49 49	2325 2320 2311 2311	6 6 6 6	40 45 54 54	
126	Level 2 — diabetic complications (renal)  Level 1 — abnormal liver function  Level 2 — hepatic enzymes and function abnormalities  Level 1 — toxic hepatitis  Level 3 — cardiac physiological observation	5	1	52	2308	6	57	
127		10	2	323	2031	12	333	
128		10	2	323	2031	12	333	
129		5	1	94	2266	6	99	
130		229	46	322	1769	275	551	
131 132 133 134 135	Level 2 — cardiac disorder Digestive tissue Level 4 — general disorders and administration site conditions Level 2 — ventricular arrhythmias and cardiac arrest Level 2 — peripheral vasoconstriction, necrosis and vascular insufficiency	64 49 58 118	13 10 12 25	378 731 599 390	1911 1576 1697 1833	77 59 70 143	442 780 657 508	
136 137 138 139 140	Salivary gland Level 1 — vasoconstriction Level 1 — cardiotoxicity Level 1 — thrombosis Mouth	9 100 26 13 13	2 23 6 3	440 185 142 186 297	1915 2058 2192 2164 2053	11 123 32 16 16	449 285 168 199 310	
141	Level 2 — ischaemic coronary artery disease Level 1 — tachycardia Level 3 — hepatic physiological phenomenon Level 2 — hypertension Level 3 — coronary arterial disease	89	21	413	1843	110	502	
142		112	27	402	1825	139	514	
143		267	65	519	1515	332	786	
144		73	18	480	1795	91	553	
145		93	23	413	1837	116	506	
146	Level 1 — nephrotoxicity  Level 1 — injury  Level 1 — left ventricular hypertrophy  Level 1 — asthma  Level 1 — kidney papillary necrosis	36	9	212	2109	45	248	
147		20	5	150	2191	25	170	
148		8	2	62	2294	10	70	
149		12	3	218	2133	15	230	
150		4	1	27	2334	5	31	
151 152 153 154 155	Level 2 — atrial natriuretic factor secretion Level 2 — renal disorders (congenital) Level 3 — renal and urinary tract disorders (congenital) Level 1 — acute lung injury Level 1 — pulmonary toxicity	4 4 4 4	1 1 1 1 1	28 32 37 39 46	2333 2329 2324 2322 2315	5 5 5 5 5	32 36 41 43 50	
156	Level 2 — herg current Level 2 — inflammation Level 2 — non-site specific gastrointestinal haemorrhages Level 2 — hepatic and hepatobiliary disorders Level 1 — torsade de pointes	4	1	77	2284	5	81	
157		4	1	109	2252	5	113	
158		4	1	125	2236	5	129	
159		138	36	524	1668	174	662	
160		19	5	163	2179	24	182	

Parameters

# Number of drugs

	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	Dog b (FP)		Neither d (TN)		Human total
161	Level 1 — arrhythmic disorder Level 2 — heart failure Level 1 — hypertension Level 2 — renal and urinary tract injuries nec	79	21	383	1883	100	462
162		30	8	326	2002	38	356
163		71	19	477	1799	90	548
164		26	7	185	2148	33	211
$\frac{165}{166}$	Level 1 — renal injury  Level 2 — renal structural abnormalities and trauma  Level 2 — allergic conditions	26 26 26	7 7 7	185 189 374	2148 2144 1959	33 33 33	$ \begin{array}{r} 211 \\ 215 \\ 400 \end{array} $
168	Level 3 — allergic conditions Level 2 — coronary necrosis and vascular insufficiency Level 2 — left ventricular failure	26	7	377	1956	33	403
169		62	17	409	1878	79	471
170		21	6	165	2174	27	186
171	Level 4 — congenital, familial and genetic disorders Level 2 — central nervous system haemorrhages and cerebrovascular accidents Level 3 — lower respiratory tract disorders	21	6	294	2045	27	315
172		7	2	209	2148	9	216
173	(excluding obstruction and infection)  Bone Level 2 — signs and symptoms	38	11	368	1949	49	406
174		31	9	398	1928	40	429
175		24	7	439	1896	31	463
176	Level 2 — non-site specific embolism and thrombosis	17	5	230	2114	22	247
177	Level 2 — non-site specific injuries nec	20	6	158	2182	26	178
178	Level 1 — ventricular tachyarrhythmia	10	3	32	2321	13	42
179	Cardiovascular tissue	73	22	445	1826	95	518
180	Level 1 — long qt interval	23	7	186	2150	30	209
181	Level 1 — cardiac arrest Level 2 — renal disorder Level 2 — cardiac conduction abnormality Level 1 — bradycardia Level 4 — metabolism and nutrition disorders	23	7	211	2125	30	234
182		19	6	185	2156	25	204
183		44	14	278	2030	58	322
184		78	25	271	1992	103	349
185		62	20	368	1916	82	430
186	Level 3 — tissue disease Level 1 — pulmonary oedema Level 4 — eye disorder Level 2 — muscular disorder Level 3 — immunological disorder	24	8	218	2116	32	242
187		18	6	145	2197	24	163
188		9	3	88	2266	12	97
189		15	5	286	2060	20	301
190		12	4	258	2092	16	270
191	Level 3 — cardiac and vascular disorders congenital Level 2 — renal observation Oesophagus Level 3 — gastrointestinal haemorrhage Level 2 — gastrointestinal haemorrhage	9	3	173	2181	12	182
192		6	2	85	2273	8	91
193		9	3	258	2096	12	267
194		6	2	159	2199	8	165
195		6	2	177	2181	8	183
196	Level 1 — hepatic injury Level 2 — abdominal injury Level 1 — hepatotoxicity Musculoskeletal tissue Level 2 — pulmonary oedema	61	21	341	1943	82	402
197		61	21	343	1941	82	404
198		92	32	386	1856	124	478
199		23	8	525	1810	31	548
200		20	7	197	2142	27	217
201 202 203 204 205	Level 1 — liver disorder Level 1 — muscular disorder Level 1 — liver cirrhosis Nose Level 1 — hypoxia	17 8 8 8 8 13	6 3 3 5	211 113 139 401 150	2132 2242 2216 1954 2198	23 11 11 11 11	228 121 147 409 163
206	Level 2 — conditions associated with abnormal gas exchange	13	5	151	2197	18	164
207	Level 2 — muscle tone abnormalities	13	5	232	2116	18	245
208	Level 1 — ventricular arrhythmia	41	16	159	2150	57	200
209	Level 3 — neuromuscular disorder	23	9	351	1983	32	374
210	Level 3 — heart failure	53	21	388	1904	74	441
211	Bodily fluid cardiac Level 4 — endocrine disorder Level 2 — hepatic monooxygenase system Level 1 — sudden cardiac death Level 3 — encephalopathy	53	21	443	1849	74	496
212		10	4	125	2227	14	135
213		5	2	15	2344	7	20
214		5	2	48	2311	7	53
215		5	2	52	2307	7	57
216 217 218 219 220	Thyroid gland Level 3 — diabetes-related disorder Level 2 — vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation Level 1 — acute liver failure Level 1 — muscle rigidity	10 5 5 5 5	4 2 2 2 2 2	266 63 69 76 134	2086 2296 2290 2283 2225	14 7 7 7 7	276 68 74 81 139

#### **Parameters** Number of drugs Human/Dog Dog Human Neither Dog Human Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4) b (FP) c (FN) d (TN) a (TP) total Level 1 — vascular disorder $\frac{7}{7}$ Level 2 — vascular anomalies congenital nec Level 2 — purpuras (excluding thrombocytopenic) Level 3 — coagulopathies and bleeding diatheses (excluding thrombocytopenic) Level 3 — infections (pathogen unspecified) Level 2 — cardiomyopathy Level 4 — neoplasms benign, malignant and unspecified (including cysts and polyps) Level 2 — parenchymal lung disease Level 2 — myocardial contraction Level 2 — pulmonary vascular resistance Level 2 — musculoskeletal and connective tissue signs and symptoms nec $\overline{12}$ Level 3 — musculoskeletal disorder Level 1 — endothelial dysfunction Level 2 — vascular malformations and acquired anomalies Level 1 — cardiac disorder Level 4 — gastrointestinal disorder Level 3 — heart valve disorder Level 3 — vascular physiological observation Level 2 — non-site specific necrosis and vascular insufficiency nec Level 1 — cardiac lesion Level 2 — cell metabolism disorders nec Level 1 — pulmonary fibrosis Level 2 — neuromuscular disorder Bodily fluid vascular Level 1 — hepatitis Level 3 — metabolic disorder Level 3 — vasculitis Level 3 — pulmonary vascular disorder Level 1 — bronchial spasm Level 3 — respiration disorder Level 2 — supraventricular arrhythmia Level 1 — cholestasis Level 1 — contracture Level 1 — aortic valve insufficiency Level 2 — diseases of aortic valve Level 3 — fatal outcomes Level 2 — death and sudden death Gallbladder - miscellaneous and site unspecified neoplasms Level 3 -(malignant and unspecified) Cartilage Level 2 — biliary excretion Level 1 — arterial thrombosis Level 1 — fibrosis Level 2 — fibrosis Level 2 — vasculitides Level 1 — acute hepatitis Level 2 — muscle weakness Level 1 — myoclonus Level 2 — neurological signs and symptoms nec Integumentary tissue Level 3 — renal physiological observation Level 3 — embolism and thrombosis Level 1 — cardiomyopathy Level 1 — hepatocyte damage Level 3 — biliary tract neoplasm Level 3 — haemorrhage Level 1 — vasospasm Endocrine tissue Bodily fluid muscle Level 1 — liver neoplastic disorder

# Number of drugs

	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	Dog b (FP)		Neither d (TN)		Human total
281 282 283	Level 2 — biliary tract neoplasm  Level 2 — hepatobiliary neoplasms (malignancy unspecified)  Level 1 — renal disorder	24 24 12	14 14 7	99 99 148	2229 2229 2199	38 38 19	123 123 160
$\frac{284}{285}$	Level 1 — ventricular tachycardia Level 2 — l-type calcium current	27 10	16 6	147 90	$\frac{2176}{2260}$	43 16	$\begin{array}{c} 174 \\ 100 \end{array}$
286 287	Level 1 — haemorrhage Level 1 — cerebral vasospasm	15 5	9 3	$\frac{269}{27}$	$2073 \\ 2331$	24 8	284 32
$\frac{288}{289}$	Level 3 — ancillary infectious topics Level 2 — inflammatory disorders following infection	5 5	3	86 86	$\frac{2272}{2272}$	8	91 91
290	Level 2 — lower respiratory tract inflammatory and immunologic conditions	5	3	163	2195	8	168
291 292	Level 1 — muscle spasm Level 1 — myocardial disorder	$^8_{22}$	5 14	98 60	$\frac{2255}{2270}$	13 36	106 82
293 294	Level 2 — cardiac afterload Level 2 — liver cirrhosis	11 14	7 9	$\frac{40}{239}$	$\frac{2308}{2104}$	18	51 253
295	Level 2 — liver cirriosis Level 1 — ischaemic disease	20	13	141	2192	23 33	161
$\frac{296}{297}$	Level 1 — ischaemic cardiomyopathy Level 1 — ventricular fibrillation	$\frac{20}{27}$	13 18	$\frac{156}{127}$	$2177 \\ 2194$	$\frac{33}{45}$	$\frac{176}{154}$
298	Level 3 — hepatobiliary neoplasms (malignant and unspecified)	24	16	116	2210	40	140
$\frac{299}{300}$	Level 1 — st-segment elevation Level 1 — necrosis	9 9	6 6	30 59	$2321 \\ 2292$	$\frac{15}{15}$	39 68
301	Level 2 — necrosis	9	6	60	2291	15	69
$\frac{302}{303}$	Level 2 — hemorrhage Level 1 — apoptosis	18 6	$^{12}_{4}$	$\frac{372}{92}$	$\frac{1964}{2264}$	30 10	390 98
$\frac{304}{305}$	Level 2 — arterial and aortic injuries Level 1 — neoplastic disorder	3 6	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{12}{118}$	$\frac{2349}{2238}$	$\begin{array}{c} 5 \\ 10 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 15 \\ 124 \end{array}$
306	Level 2 — neoplasms unspecified (malignancy and site	C		100	0004	10	100
307	unspecified nec) Level 2 — hepatic lipid level	$\frac{6}{3}$	$rac{4}{2}$	$\frac{122}{20}$	$\frac{2234}{2341}$	$\frac{10}{5}$	$\frac{128}{23}$
$\frac{308}{309}$	Level 1 — renal fibrosis	3 3	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\frac{22}{22}$	$2339 \\ 2339$	5 5	$\frac{25}{25}$
310	Level 1 — right ventricular hypertrophy Level 1 — hepatic mitochondrial swelling	3	2	36	2325	5	39
311 312	Level 1 — glomerular sclerosis Level 2 — pericardium disorder	3 3	$\frac{2}{2}$	39 47	$2322 \\ 2314$	5 5	42 50
313	Small intestine	6	4	233	2123	10	239
314 315	Level 1 — hypersensitive vasculitis Level 1 — inflammation	3 3	$\frac{2}{2}$	85 96	$\frac{2276}{2265}$	5 5	88 99
316 317	Level 2 — cutaneous vasculitis Level 2 — peripheral vascular disorder	3 3	$\frac{2}{2}$	102 143	$\frac{2259}{2218}$	5 5	105 146
318	Connective tissue	3	2	204	2157	5	207
319 320	Level 2 — muscle tone abnormal Level 1 — pulmonary hypertension	10 17	$\begin{array}{c} 7 \\ 12 \end{array}$	$\frac{208}{94}$	$\frac{2141}{2243}$	17 29	218 111
321	Level 2 — systemic vascular resistance	24	17	79	2246	41	103
$\frac{322}{323}$	Level 2 — hepatic cytochrome p450 level Level 1 — renal impairment	$7 \\ 7$	5 5	$\begin{array}{c} 50 \\ 276 \end{array}$	$\frac{2304}{2078}$	$\frac{12}{12}$	$\begin{array}{c} 57 \\ 283 \end{array}$
$\frac{324}{325}$	Level 2 — hepatic protein biosynthesis Bone-marrow	11 15	8 11	61 302	$\frac{2286}{2038}$	19 26	$\begin{array}{c} 72 \\ 317 \end{array}$
326	Level 3 — lipid metabolism disorder	19	14	137	2196	33	156
$\frac{327}{328}$	Level 2 — lipid metabolism and deposit disorders nec Level 1 — hepatic necrosis	19 46	$\frac{14}{34}$	$\frac{137}{177}$	$\frac{2196}{2109}$	33 80	$\frac{156}{223}$
329 330	Level 1 — premature cardiac complex Level 3 — pericardium disorder	4 4	3	51 72	$\frac{2308}{2287}$	7 7	55 76
331	Level 1 — muscle weakness	4	3	174	2185	7	178
$\frac{332}{333}$	Level 1 — myocardial infarction Level 2 — pulmonary hypertension	$\frac{21}{17}$	$\frac{16}{13}$	$\frac{296}{108}$	$\frac{2033}{2228}$	$\frac{37}{30}$	$\frac{317}{125}$
$\frac{334}{335}$	Level 3 — electrolyte and fluid balance conditions Level 4 — infections and infestations	9	7 7	$\frac{107}{381}$	$\frac{2243}{1969}$	16 16	$\frac{116}{390}$
336 337	Level 1 — hepatomegaly Ovary	16 11	13 9	116 327	2221 2019	29 20	132 338
338	Level 1 — hepatic steatosis	18	15	135	2198	33	153
$\frac{339}{340}$	Level 1 — cardiogenic shock Testis	6 19	$\begin{array}{c} 5 \\ 16 \end{array}$	$\frac{83}{260}$	$\frac{2272}{2071}$	$\frac{11}{35}$	$   \begin{array}{r}     89 \\     279   \end{array} $

Level 1 — myocarditis

#### **Parameters** Number of drugs Human/Dog Dog Human Neither Dog Human Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4) b (FP) c (FN) d (TN) a (TP) total total Level 1 — heart failure Level 1 — centrilobular hepatic necrosis Level 3 — acid-base disorders Level 2 — action potential duration Level 3 — procedural related injuries and complications nec Level 2 — cardiovascular injuries Level 1 — atrial fibrillation $\frac{28}{7}$ Level 2 — action potential Level 1 — hyperaemia Level 2 — hepatic glutathione level Level 2 — cardiac function diagnostic procedures Level 2 — liver respiration Level 1 — coronary artery vasospasm Level 2 — hepatic RNA synthesis Level 2 — renal vascular and ischaemic conditions Level 1 — ECG abnormality Level 2 — circulatory collapse and shock Level 1 — complete atrioventricular block Level 2 — effective renal plasma flow $\frac{4}{7}$ Level 1 — hepatic fibrosis Level 1 — oedema Level 2 — total fluid volume increased Level 2 — metabolic acidoses (excluding diabetic acidoses) Level 2 — oedema Level 2 — bile acid biosynthesis Level 3 — increased intracranial pressure and hydrocephalus Level 2 — increased intracranial pressure disorders Level 3 — neurological disorder Thymus gland Level 2 cerebrospinal fluid tests (excluding microbiology) Level 1 — intracranial hypertension Level 3 — neurological, special senses and psychiatric investigations Level 2 — vascular tissue neoplasm Level 2 — nervous system haemorrhagic disorders $Level\ 2-coronary\ blood\ flow$ Level 2 — bile flow Level 2 — cardiac and vascular procedural complications Level 1 — infarct size Level 2 — coronary arterial disease Level 3 — bile duct disorder Level 2 — hepatic portal blood flow Level 2 — heart weight Level 2 — hepatic glycogen level Level 2 — hepatocyte proliferation Level 2 — liver weight Level 2 — hepatic glucose release Level 1 — left ventricular dysfunction Level 2 — atrioventricular conduction Level 1 — myocardial infarct size Level 2 — hepatic drug metabolism Level 1 — muscle hypotonia Level 2 — left ventricular mass Level 2 — hepatic blood flow Level 1 — myocardial fibrosis Level 2 — renal blood flow Level 1 — atrioventricular block Level 2 — hepatobiliary signs and symptoms Level 1 — coronary artery thrombosis Level 2 — site specific embolism and thrombosis nec Level 2 — renal function Level 2 — ventricular refractory period Level 2 — hepatic cytochrome p450 function Level 1 — high cardiac output $\dot{2}$ Level 1 — chronic hepatitis

Parameters Number of drugs			lrugs				
	Adverse effect: tissue-level or BMO (MedDRA Level 1-4)	Human/Dog a (TP)	Dog b (FP)	Human c (FN)	Neither d (TN)	Dog total	Human total
406 407 408 409 410	Level 2 — non-infectious myocarditis  Level 4 — pregnancy, puerperium and perinatal conditions  Level 1 — st-segment depression  Level 1 — inflammatory kidney disease  Level 2 — cardiac conduction	2 2 2 2 2 5	3 3 3 3 8	50 65 67 68 28	2311 2296 2294 2293 2325	5 5 5 5 13	52 67 69 70 33
411	Level 1 — infarction Level 1 — hepatocyte hypertrophy Level 2 — site-specific vascular disorders nec Level 2 — bile duct infections and inflammations Level 2 — liver vascular disorder	5	8	74	2279	13	79
412		15	25	40	2286	40	55
413		3	5	29	2329	8	32
414		3	5	42	2316	8	45
415		4	7	78	2277	11	82
416	Level 2 — renal vascular resistance	9	16	48	2293	25	57
417	Level 3 — hepatobiliary investigations	6	11	241	2108	17	247
418	Level 2 — hepatic function test	6	11	241	2108	17	247
419	Level 2 — cardiac function	8	15	88	2255	23	96
420	Level 1 — centrilobular hypertrophy	9	18	22	2317	27	31
421	Level 1 — ventricular premature complex Level 3 — vascular injury Level 2 — ventricular conduction Level 2 — mixed acid-base disorders Level 1 — acidosis	8	16	117	2225	24	125
422		5	10	59	2292	15	64
423		2	4	6	2354	6	8
424		2	4	17	2343	6	19
425		2	4	17	2343	6	19
426	Level 1 — tachyarrhythmia Level 1 — hepatic enzyme level Level 2 — coronary vascular resistance Level 3 — hepatic and biliary neoplasms (benign) Level 1 — ischaemia-reperfusion injury	2	4	33	2327	6	35
427		3	6	104	2253	9	107
428		13	28	25	2300	41	38
429		15	33	106	2212	48	121
430		5	11	67	2283	16	72
431	Level 2 — biliary secretion Level 2 — left ventricular pressure Level 1 — altered hepatic foci Level 1 — cholangitis Level 2 — hepatic enzyme function	4	9	36	2317	13	40
432		7	17	33	2309	24	40
433		2	5	14	2345	7	16
434		2	5	24	2335	7	26
435		2	5	28	2331	7	30
436	Level 1 — arteriosclerosis Level 2 — hepatobiliary neoplasms benign Level 2 — renal plasma flow Level 2 — left ventricular function Level 2 — myocardial blood flow	2	5	37	2322	7	39
437		13	33	105	2215	46	118
438		3	8	30	2325	11	33
439		3	8	31	2324	11	34
440		7	19	24	2316	26	31
441	Level 1 — hepatocellular adenoma Level 2 — hepatic vacuolation Level 2 — cerebral blood flow Level 3 — neurological physiological observation Level 2 — peripheral vascular resistance	12	33	97	2224	45	109
442		2	6	9	2349	8	11
443		5	16	79	2266	21	84
444		5	16	83	2262	21	88
445		7	24	53	2282	31	60
446	Level 2 — ventricular repolarisation Level 2 — left ventricular systolic blood pressure Level 2 — hepatocyte vacuolation Level 1 — hepatocyte degeneration Level 2 — left ventricular contraction	2	7	17	2340	9	19
447		5	19	24	2318	24	29
448		5	26	22	2313	31	27
449		2	12	16	2336	14	18
450		2	12	16	2336	14	18