RVC OPEN ACCESS REPOSITORY - COPYRIGHT NOTICE

This is the peer-reviewed, manuscript version of the following article:

Lees, P., Pelligand, L., Whiting, M., Chambers, D., Toutain, P., Whitehead, ML. (2017) Comparison of veterinary drugs and veterinary homeopathy: part 1. Veterinary Record 181, 170-176.

The final version is available online via http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/vr.104278.

The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Comparison of veterinary drugs and veterinary homeopathy: part 1

AUTHORS: P. Lees, D. Chambers, L. Pelligand, P.-L. Toutain, M. Whiting, M.L. Whitehead

JOURNAL TITLE: Veterinary Record PUBLISHER: BMJ Publishing Group PUBLICATION DATE: August 2017

DOI: 10.1136/vr.104278



REVIEW

Comparison of veterinary drugs and veterinary homeopathy: Part 1

- P. Lees, D. Chambers, L. Pelligand, P.-L. Toutain, M. Whiting, M.L. Whitehead
- **P. Lees**, CBE, BPharm, PhD, DSc, FRoySocBiol, HonAssoc RCVS, Drhc(Gent), HonFellowECVPT
- **L. Pelligand**, Docteur Veterinaire, CertVA, DipECVAA, DipECVPT, PgCert(VetEd), FHEA, PhD, MRCVS
- **M. Whiting**, BSc, BVetMed, MA, PhD, DipECAWBM(AWSEL), MRCVS, FHEA The Royal Veterinary College, Hawkshead Campus, Hatfield, Herts, AL9 7TA, UK
- D. Chambers, BVSc, MSc, MRCVS

Hall Manor, Kelly, Lifton, Devon, PL16 0HQ, UK

P.-L. Toutain, DVM, DSc(PhD)

Toxalim, Ecole Nationale Veterinaire de Toulouse, France

M.L. Whitehead, BSc, PhD, BVSc, CertSAM, MRCVS

Chipping Norton Veterinary Hospital, Banbury Road, Chipping Norton, Oxon, OX7 5SY, UK

E-mail for correspondence: martincnvets@gmail.com

Summary

We are all trying to understand our own age, and we rightly use the past to help us to do so. But we cannot gain this understanding unless we pay the past the respect it deserves. We must understand just how different it was (Moore 2010).

For many years after its invention around 1796, homeopathy was widely used in humans and later in animals. Over the intervening period (1796-2016) pharmacology emerged as a science from Materia Medica (medicinal materials) to become the mainstay of veterinary therapeutics. There remains today a much smaller, but significant, use of homeopathy by veterinary surgeons. Homeopathic products are sometimes administered when conventional drug therapies have not succeeded, but are also used as alternatives to scientifically based therapies and licensed products. The principles underlying the veterinary use of drug-based and homeopathic products are polar opposites; this provides the basis for comparison between them. This two-part review compares and contrasts the two treatment forms in respect of history, constituents, methods of preparation, known or postulated mechanisms underlying responses, legal basis for use and scientific credibility in the 21st century. Part 1 commences with a consideration of why therapeutic products actually work or appear to do so.

Why medicinal products work or seem to work

2 European Union (EU) terminology refers to medicinal substance-based products. In this review these will be termed drug-based products. A drug 3 may be defined as a medicine or other substance which has a physiological 4 effect or acts on a pathophysiological process, when ingested or otherwise 5 introduced into the body. For drug-based products, clinical use is based on 6 established pharmacological actions and, in many cases, on established 7 molecular mechanisms. In this review, such conventional medicinal 8 products specifically exclude homeopathic products. A summary of the use 9 of homeopathic products in animals in the EU has been provided by the 10 European Council for Classical Homeopathy (2007). The EU definition 11 (Directive 2001/83/EC, as amended) of a homeopathic medicinal product is 12 "any medicinal product prepared from substances called homeopathic stocks 13 14 in accordance with a homeopathic manufacturing procedure described by the European Pharmacopoeia or, in the absence thereof, by the pharmacopoeias 15 currently used officially in the Member States. A homeopathic medicinal 16 product may contain a number of principles". For homeopathic medicinal 17 products, mechanisms of action are unknown (vide infra). 18 Nevertheless, there are several possible explanations as to why and how products in both 19 categories work or just appear to. They may possess genuine efficacy 20 (something actually happens) or 'apparent efficacy' (something is only 21 perceived to happen). In addition is 'indirect or vicarious efficacy'. An 22 example is an owner, who wrongly perceives a behavioural problem in a dog, 23 and this triggers undesired behaviours in the dog. If treated, by a product of 24 either class, the owner might then cease triggering the negative behaviour 25 and the product, without direct action, receives credit for achieving a 26 positive outcome. 27

Coincidence

28

1

- 29 Commonly, there is an understandable but regrettable reluctance to accept
- 30 that coincidence might be the explanation for a given observation. The fact
- 31 that many illnesses resolve, irrespective of treatment given, means that

- resolution or improvement and treatment may simply be coincidental. If a veterinarian gives a treatment and the animal gets better, there is a strong cognitive bias (the *post hoc ergo propter hoc* bias, Rudolf 1938, Pinto 2001, Gay 2006) to believe that the treatment is responsible, but this assumption might be misplaced.
 - Any cure can be confounded by many factors, which render establishing a causal relationship between treatment and cure difficult. Confounding factors may mask an actual association or, more commonly, falsely indicate an apparent association between treatment and outcome, when there is no actual association (Skelly and others 2012). For every effect, we commonly assume that there must be a specific cause, preferably the one favoured by each of us individually. Factors to be considered, when assessing the efficacy of *any* product, include: specific effects of the treatment, placebo effect, bias in observers' assessment of patients' response to treatment, the natural course of the disease, and effects of concurrent management of the illness, as discussed below.

Specific effect of the treatment

If the treatment *is* actually effective, which efficacy may be underpinned by many pre-clinical studies and manifest in controlled clinical trials, that is called a specific effect. It is the active constituent(s) of the drug-based product or, for a homeopathic product, the unknown mechanism, which provides the claimed benefit. For a drug-based product, efficacy is achieved if a sufficient number of molecules reach and persist at the site of action (the biophase) for a sufficient period of time to act upon a biochemical/physiological pathway. Alternatively, a drug may act on some factor involved in a disease process; this would include a direct or indirect action on a parasite or microorganism present in or on the body. Beyond 'working' (or not), the degree of efficacy, i.e. magnitude of response and the establishment of dose-effect relationships, is pivotal to the demonstration of efficacy for drug-based but not for homeopathic products.

Placebo effect

Placebo effects are the principal reason advanced by critics to explain 63 apparent homeopathic effects, and are part of the 'baseline' to which the 64 efficacy of any medication - conventional or homeopathic - is compared in 65 randomised controlled trials (e.g., Hektoen 2005, Shang and others 2005, 66 Kayne 2006 pp146-149, Teixeira and others 2010, Brien and others 2011, 67 Mathie and others 2012, Smith 2012, Vijayakumar 2012, Campbell 2013, 68 Mathie and Clausen 2014). A placebo is a medical intervention that has a 69 non-specific psychological or psychophysiological therapeutic effect and is 70 thus lacking any known specific effect for the condition treated (McMillan 71 1999), but products with specific efficacy can also produce placebo effects. 72 Placebo effects impact patients' perception of their symptoms far more than 73 they do the physiological and pathological processes of disease; any placebo 74 effects on these more objective aspects of disease are typically small in 75 magnitude and clinically irrelevant (Hróbjartsson and Gøtzsche 2010, 76 Wechsler and others 2011). The basis of the placebo effect in humans is 77 experiencing a beneficial effect, arising from belief in the treatment, and 78 based partly on confidence derived from consultations, leading 79 expectations on the part of the patient. In addition, there may be 80 behavioural conditioning (Enck and others 2013). Mechanisms underlying 81 the placebo effect are still poorly understood; they might be multiple and 82 indeed might differ from circumstance to circumstance. A veterinary 83 example is the display of separation-related behaviour in dogs, for which a 84 conditioned placebo effect, suppressing signs of distress, was demonstrated 85 (Sümegi and others 2014). It is clear that the placebo effect can and 86 sometimes does operate for both homeopathic and drug therapies. Even if 87 the mechanism(s) are obscure, the accepted view is that (in human 88 medicine) a half to one-hour chat with a sympathetic and convincing 89 homeopath can yield positive outcomes; all the collateral benefits of old-90 91 fashioned, reassuring, paternalistic medicine. This will be especially true where mind-over-matter considerations are pre-eminent to outcome. In 92 Bavaria, it was reported that 88% of GPs sent human patients home with 93 prescriptions for placebo drugs, the corresponding figure for the whole of 94 Germany being 50% (Jutte and others 2011; Kupferschmidt 2011). 95

In veterinary medicine, it is less easy to conceive if and how an animal can distinguish mentally between a homeopathic and drug-based product, if both are identical in presentation and similarly administered. For the huge majority of medical conditions, a placebo effect seems to be unlikely and counterintuitive, insofar as an animal cannot normally be expected to have such cognitive capacities as expectations regarding recovery or healing. The placebo component of the effect of a homeopathic veterinary product is presumably limited normally to the judgement of outcome, based on the subjective evaluation of the caregiver (veterinarian or animal owner) (Conzemius and Evans 2012; Talbot and others 2013). As in human medicine, a sympathetic veterinarian might provide the basis for placeboinduced benefit in the owner, for both drug-based and homeopathic products. The problem then is that the veterinarian and/or animal owner believes (wholly sincerely) that a beneficial response has occurred, but the animal may continue to suffer. Nevertheless, the potential beneficial effect of human contact on the health and physiological state of animals can be real (Mills and Cracknell 2013). In daily practice, this non-specific treatment effect may be especially important whereas, in a randomised controlled clinical trial, it will be randomly distributed between the treatment and control groups and of lesser importance in animal than in human studies.

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

Insofar as placebo effects occur in animals, for both drug-based and homeopathic products, explanatory theories have been based on: classical conditioning [as recognised by Pavlov in his dogs responding to a saline injection as if it were morphine (Pavlov 1927); cognitive expectancy; and release of endogenous opioids (McMillan 1999; Mills and Cracknell 2013). For further discussion on each of these aspects see Hektoen (2005). For in depth discussion on the placebo effect, see also Meissner and others (2011). In many instances, the placebo effect has been shown to work through recognised physiological/biochemical pathways and encompassing both central and peripheral nervous systems. Enck and others (2013) discuss physiological pathways in placebo analgesia, involving the descending pain

modulatory network, and conditioned corticosteroid effects in patients with psoriasis.

Bias in observers' assessment of patients' response to treatment

Doctors or veterinarians sometimes judge that a treatment has had an effect on a patient when, in fact, it has not. There are many examples in medical history of treatments that were thought to be beneficial, but were later proven to be ineffective or even harmful; well-known examples include blood-letting, use of anti-arrhythmics after ischaemic heart disease, hormone replacement therapy to prevent ischaemic heart disease in postmenopausal women, and radical mastectomy rather than more limited surgery for breast cancer (Prasad and Cifu 2015). Medical professionals are naturally inclined to believe that, if a patient improves after a treatment has been given, the improvement must have been a result of that treatment (post hoc ergo propter hoc bias). This is one example of many cognitive biases that can result in incorrect interpretation of the patient's response to treatment (Rudolf, 1938, Croskerry 2003, Gay 2006, Kahneman 2012, McKenzie 2014, Matute and others 2015, Canfield and others 2016).

Other factors impacting on assessment of treatment efficacy

Non-specific healing effects

In addition to placebo effects and observers' bias, other non-specific healing effects, regression to the mean (RTM) and the natural course of disease may all impact on efficacy, perceived or real. As discussed by Hektoen (2005), Mills and Cracknell (2013) and Talbot and others (2013), the elements potentially involved in the total effect of any treatment are: specific treatment effects statistically demonstrated in clinical trials; non-specific effects of treatment (such as the placebo effect); natural resolution of the signs of disease or deranged condition, including self-healing; RTM; concomitant support for treatments e.g. nursing, reduced body weight etc. and combinations of these factors. RTM was first identified by (Galton 1886) and has been discussed more recently by Morton and Torgerson (2003;

2005). In a well-designed randomised controlled trial (vide infra), all the factors listed, except the specific treatment effect, should be evenly distributed between treatment groups. Thus, the improvement in the placebo group is the sum of factors such as non-specific treatment effects, natural history of the disease, RTM, effects of concurrent nursing etc. These clearly must be non-specific effects, because no treatment with a specific effect was given to the placebo group. In the case of a veterinarian treating an individual patient, in many cases it is not possible to differentiate between non-specific effects and any specific effect of the treatment. For the individual clinical veterinarian treating the individual animal, all of these mechanisms may be operative, often resulting in treatments appearing to be effective when, in fact, they are not.

Concurrent management of patients

Many medical treatments are associated with additional changes in management of the patient, e.g. nursing, rest, change of diet and treatment with other drugs. Many of these factors can lead to improvements in the disease that may be mis-attributed to the treatment being evaluated. For example, an obese dog given a medical treatment for osteoarthritis and also put on a weight-loss diet may have reduced clinical signs, because of weight loss rather than the medical treatment.

The natural history of disease

Many diseases have a natural history, leading to mortality or morbidity or, more hopefully, partial or complete restoration of health. As Voltaire said, "the art of medicine consists in amusing the patient while nature cures the disease". RTM comprises the natural fluctuation of variables around a mean, and its impact can be considered by way of example. A dog with osteoarthritis shows signs of reduced movement, joint stiffness, pain etc. The owner seeks veterinary advice, a medication is prescribed and the dog shows improvement. If, even in the absence of treatment the signs wax and wane (as may well occur in the osteoarthritic dog) owner and veterinarian understandably, but in part or in whole wrongly, may attribute the benefit

to the administered product. Talbot and others (2013) discussed this problem in relation to a feed supplement used in head shaking horses, a condition well known for its intermittency. RTM may occur in an individual animal (as in the example cited above) or group phenomenon and in both cases the observed increase or decrease may be mistakenly attributed to a specific treatment effect (Morton and Torgerson 2005).

The body's natural healing mechanisms (and their interaction with efficacious medicines)

The natural defence mechanisms of the body in microbial and other diseases can prove highly effective in providing a clinical cure or, better still, a microbiological cure (the gold standard). In microbial disease, the administered drug acts in concert with many immune-based mechanisms, notably the scavenging action of white blood cells, working to defeat the invading pathogen. Drusano and others (2010) calculated that, if antimicrobial therapy drives the bacterial (*Staphylococcus aureus*) population down to between 10² and 10³ colony forming units/g, it is highly likely that the residual population will be eradicated by the immune system and, moreover, achieved with minimal amplification of resistant mutants.

In veterinary medicine, the use of antimicrobial drugs in prophylaxis (now under challenge within the EU) is deemed to give the immune-based pathways invaluable support. In metaphylactic use (sometimes referred to as mass medication) drugs are administered collectively to animals, in which the bacterial population exceeds the capacity of the natural defences to work without support. In therapy, especially in the presence of immune deficiencies and heavy bacterial loads, the prudent use of antimicrobial drugs in animals is essential to welfare through restoration of health. Their actions may be attributable to: direct killing; reduced pathogen pathogenicity; enhancement of host immune pathways.

With other deviations from normal ranges, the body has the ability, through biochemical, physiological and endocrinological pathways, to restore systems to the normal; this is the homeostasis of the body. These

systems are finely balanced and usually integrated, so that for example there is a tonic influence of sympathetic nerves to arterioles to keep them in a state of partial constriction. The same arterioles are under an opposing tonic vasodilator effect of the nitric oxide system. The system can fail, arterial blood pressure may rise and the resulting hypertension may require the attention of a suitable drug. Thus, the homeostatic pathways may be sub-optimal in a hypertensive cat, but they are most likely to be still operational and the pharmacological agent may play only a minor but essential role in assisting the body to restore homeostatic balance.

Likewise, there are innumerable integrated systems, keeping within normal ranges blood glucose, blood cell counts etc. Drugs which act on neural, physiological and endocrinological pathways are generally working in concert with the body's enzymes, neurotransmitters, hormones etc. and, even in the presence of a drug or homeopathically energised water, it may be that it is the homeostasis which plays the dominant and even the sole role. There will be many other circumstances, when the drug is required not to work in concert with but to combat a deranged physiological system; if sympathetic vasoconstrictor drive to arterioles is increased, the drug is needed to correct that. Many other drugs are used to counter natural physiological processes, for example anaesthetics, whilst others suppress a natural and useful but unwelcome process, such as inflammation.

In summary, placebo effects are those beneficial effects arising from use of a treatment that are not due to the properties of the treatment itself, and therefore must arise from cognitive processes such as belief and expectation.

However, placebo effects are only one of many non-specific factors that can give rise to an improvement from treatment. As discussed above, other non-specific effects, that do not arise from the treatment at all, include RTM, other coincidental improvement, effects of concurrent nursing or change of diet, etc. Additional factors can cause perceived but not real improvement, e.g., observer bias and selection bias. All these non-specific effects may occur together, and between them give rise to the improvement seen in the

placebo-control group in a randomised controlled trial, i.e. to the improvement that is not due to the specific effect of the treatment. Because all these non-specific effects occur in the placebo-control group, they are sometimes referred to as 'placebo effects' although strictly, this is an error of terminology because true placebo effects are only one contributor to the totality of non-specific effects. In animals, with far less ability to experience beliefs and expectations about the healing effects of treatments, true placebo effects will contribute much less to the non-specific effects than in humans.

History

Homeopathy

The history of homeopathy has been covered elsewhere (e.g., Bellavite and others 2005, Kayne 2006 pp39-58, Loudon 2006, Cook 2008, Campbell 2013). Briefly, the fundamental principle of homeopathy, that "like cures like", was proposed, in 1796, by Samuel Hahnemann (1755-1843), as an alternative to other therapies then in use; primarily herbalism, bleeding, purging, emesis, blistering, sweating (Porter 1997, Wootton 2006). By 1814, Hahnemann was using highly-diluted homeopathic remedies similar to those used by homeopaths today (Hahnemann 1814). Prior to inventing homeopathy, Hahnemann qualified as a doctor, worked as a conventional physician, then as a translator of scientific articles and as a writer. He also studied chemistry. He translated a conventional *Materia Medica* (by William Cullen, 1710-1790) into his native German and found it to be lacking. In its place, he devised and advocated the principles of homeopathy.

Homeopathic remedies are based on three central tenets, The Law of Similars (similia similibus curantur), The Law of Infinitesimals and The Law of Succussion, each arising from the writings of Hahnemann, in particular his 'Organon of Medicine' (Hahnemann 2002). According to The Law of Similars, signs and symptoms can be cured by substances that can cause those signs and symptoms in healthy individuals (Hahneman 2002, Kayne 2006, Owen

2015a,b,c). The naming of homeopathic products is usually in Latin, where applicable. Remedies are listed in homeopathic Materia Medica (e.g., Hahnemann 1814, Boericke 2008, several others available at various Internet sites, e.g., International Academy of Classical Homeopathy 2016), together with the signs and symptoms the remedy is thought to be effective for (Lilley 2008). Homeopaths also use repertories, which list signs and symptoms, and for each give the remedies thought to be effective for that sign or symptom (e.g., Boericke 2008). For example, insomnia can be treated by the coffee bean remedy, Coffea cruda (Boericke 2008) - coffee contains the CNS stimulants caffeine and theophylline - or a common cold can be treated by the onion remedy Allium cepa (Boericke 2008) - onions make the eyes water. For Hahnemann, as for conventional medical doctors in the late 18th century, working before the advent of science and modern medicine, the human body was a black box; a medicine goes in and the effects (any change in symptoms) come out, there being no knowledge of or much interest in "the in between". How the products of either category worked was unknown and inconsequential.

Various forms of like-cures-like concept were present in medical writings long predating Hahnemann, e.g., Hippocrates in the 4th century BC and Paracelsus in the 16th century (Kayne 2006 p47) and the general concept was present among medics in the late 18th century. The Rev. Edward Stone of Chipping Norton described in 1795 (one year ahead of Hahnemann) the treatment of agues by the willow (bark and leaves) noting, "as this tree delights in a moist or wet soil, where agues (fever) chiefly abounds the general maxim that many natural remedies carry their cures along with them or that remedies lie not far from their causes was so very apposite to this particular case that I could not help applying it" (Wood 2015). We now know that, in this case, there is a conventional pharmacological explanation; the willow contains the glycoside salicin which has anti-inflammatory and antipyretic effects. With advances in chemistry, this led in 1865 to the first synthetic analgesic drug of the non-steroidal anti-inflammatory (NSAID) class, salicylate; this then led in 1895 to acetylated salicylate, aspirin, followed by

a plethora of drugs of the NSAID category. However, as a general principle, the like-cures-like concept is arbitrary and has no general credibility, notwithstanding its apparent but superficial symmetry. The general concept of 'like cures like' is a textbook example of sympathetic magic, as practiced by many cultures over the millennia (Fraser 1922).

Stone's 'like cures like' is of a qualitatively different type to that of homeopathy. In the Stone example the property of the substance used to treat a disease that is "like" the disease is some observable physical attribute of the substance - in the case of the willow, it grows in damp places, and - in the thinking of the time - diseases tend to occur in damp places. This is a different 'like cures like' concept to homeopathy, in which the property of the substance used to treat a disease that is "like" the disease is the 'symptom picture' induced in healthy volunteers by ingestion of the substance (in the early years of homeopathy) or by ingestion of a remedy made from the substance (for much of the history of homeopathy).

Thus, the fundamental principle of homeopathy is that something that induces specific signs and symptoms will also cure the same signs and symptoms. For veterinary medicine, we should note that animals do not have symptoms; symptoms are what humans report (headache, bellyache, disorientation) whilst signs are what we can observe and sometimes measure (rise in body temperature, tachycardia). Therefore, humans can have both symptoms and signs and non-human animals show only signs; the symptoms are known only to the individual animals.

Hahnemann's second law, the Law of Infinitesimals challenges the scientifically based principles of biochemistry, physiology, endocrinology and pharmacology, of more molecules producing greater responses; the classical concentration/dose-response relationships (see part 2 of this review; Lees and others 2017). In complete contrast, Hahnemann's second Law states that greater responses are achieved with less, over a huge range of dilutions. With repeated dilutions in (usually) water or alcohol, potency increases. A starting solution (called the "mother tincture") of the 'active' is diluted either

1:10 (decimal) or 1:100 (centesimal), then that diluted solution is again diluted by the same degree, and the process continued (Kayne 2006 pp92-100, Kayne 2008). The degree of dilution of a remedy is referred to as its 'potency' – a 6c potency remedy has been diluted 1:100 six times (therefore, 10-12 dilution) and an 8x potency remedy has been diluted 1:10 eight times (10-8 dilution). Homeopathic products are provided over a wide range of 'potencies'; in the UK 6c, 12c, 30c and 200c seem to be the most commonly used, but homeopaths' preference varies, apparently arbitrarily, from country to country (Kayne 2006 p126). Most over-the-counter homeopathic remedies are 30c.

The number of molecules of the 'active' decreases rapidly with dilution and, as implied by Avogadro's number, $6x10^{23}$, beyond 12c (a dilution of $1x10^{-24}$) there is unlikely to be even one molecule of the starting substance present in the remedy (Vickers and Zollman 1999). At 12c dilution of a mole of starting substance, there is a 60.2% chance of one molecule remaining. At 30c (10^{-60} dilution), to have one molecule of 'active' remaining would require a mass of water molecules of $2.99x10^{34}$ kg, more than 15,000 times the mass of the Sun of $1.99x10^{30}$ kg (Grimes 2012). It is estimated that there are approximately 10^{80} particles in our universe – 10^{80} corresponds to 40c dilution.

Succussion is the basis of the third Law. It is a specific type of vigorous shaking or tapping at each dilutional stage (Kayne 2006 pp92-100, Kayne 2008); this agitation is believed to "potentise" or "dynamise" the remedy, and is what causes the claimed healing power to not only pass from the less diluted stage to the more diluted stage, but to become more potent as it does so. Hahnemann believed that he had made a breakthrough discovery, whilst transporting his products in a horse drawn carriage. On the basis of uncontrolled observations, he judged that the vigorous shaking this involved increased the potency of his remedies even further beyond the dilution effect. Another equine contribution to homeopathy came in the form of his bespoke striking board used for succussion, constructed by a saddlemaker, with leather on one side and stuffed with horsehair.

The preparation of homeopathic products today, as historically, involves 376 shaking or tapping at each dilutional stage. A usual procedure is to strike or 377 whack the container between 10 and 50 times against an elastic object. 378 According to Peter Fisher's (homeopath and Clinical Director and Director of 379 Research at the Royal London Hospital for Integrative Medicine) evidence to 380 the UK House of Commons Science and Technology Committee (2010) "you 381 have to shake it vigorously... if you just stir it gently, it does not work"; 382 Repeated dilution and succussion achieves shaken not stirred. 383 "potentisation" such that the healing power - the unidentified curative 384 property - imparted to the remedy by the starting substance is retained 385 (indeed increased with each shaking) by the water molecules. As 386 Hahnemann wrote, the whacking procedure releases "dynamic forces from 387 the diluents which were preserved and intensified with subsequent dilutions". 388 The nature of these "dynamic forces" is not known; like Hahnemann (2002) 389 himself, many contemporary homeopaths refer to them using terms such as 390 'vital force' or 'life energy', as used in homeopathy texts (e.g., Kayne 2006 391 p149-153, Nicolai 2008, Owen 2015d), and apparent from internet searches 392 for these terms with 'homeopathy'. These terms emphasise the mystical, 393 vitalist nature of the belief system underlying homeopathic practice. The 394 mechanisms by which homeopathic remedies effect improvements in signs 395 or symptoms is not known, but homeopaths often refer to their remedies 396 'balancing' unspecified 'energies' in the body, or correcting a disturbance of 397 the body's 'vital force' (e.g., Bell and others 2004, Kayne 2006 pp149-162). 398 However, the nature of these energies is likewise not known and their 399 existence is unproven. They appear not to be detectable grossly, e.g. by sight 400 or touch, or by radiography, scintigraphy, ultrasound or CT or MRI scans. 401 All three Laws of homeopathy - Similars, Infinitesimals and Succussion -402 are arbitrary, having been invented by Hahnemann, but never demonstrated 403 404 to have a physical basis. Homeopaths often speculate that modern scientific concepts such as electromagnetism or quantum effects (see Kayne 2006 405 pp300-306) might underlie the claimed efficacy of their remedies, and 406 frequently refer to the 'vital force' and the action of their remedies in terms 407

- of 'vibrations' and 'resonances' (e.g., Kayne 2006 pp149-153). Thus,
- 409 homeopathy is pseudoscientific.

Pharmacology

410

423

- 411 The history of pharmacology spans less than 200 years. It derived from
- Materia Medica, which was practised for at least two millennia up to the late
- 413 19th/early 20th centuries. Early practitioners were Hippocrates and Galen. In
- 414 the first known pharmacopoeia, the physician Pedanius Dioscorides wrote,
- in the first century BC, "the leaves of the willow being beaten small and
- 416 drank with a little pepper and wine do help such as are troubled with the Iliaco
- 417 Passio (colic). The decoction of the leaves and bark is an excellent fomentation
- 418 for the gout". His De Materia Medica, was in continual used for more than
- 419 1,500 years.
- Writing around the time of Hahnemann (mid 18th century) Voltaire
- described pharmacology as "the pouring of drugs of which one knows nothing
- into a patient of whom one knows less".

EVOLUTION OF THINKING 1796-2016

- In 1796, the year of revelation to Hahnemann, there was, for both human
- and to a lesser degree for veterinary medicine, Materia Medica (the use of
- 426 plant parts or their extracts), blistering, bleeding, purging, sweating and
- 427 emesis as the main bases for treatment, together with surgery, which in
- many cases was savage butchery. The skilled surgeon's greatest asset was
- 429 speed rather than quality. Medical treatment was largely based on the
- 430 concept of balancing the four humours, and bloodletting was the primary
- treatment (Porter 1997, Wootton 2006).
- Human doctors not only practised but prided themselves in these
- 433 procedures. 1780 to 1850 has been described as the period of "heroic
- 434 medicine". A popular ditty of the day was penned by John Coakley Lettsome
- 435 (1744-1815) founder and President of the Medical Society of London (and a
- 436 leading campaigner for abolition of the slave trade) "I, John Lettsome,
- 437 blisters, bleeds and sweats 'em; if, after that, they please to die; I John

438 Lettsome" (Scott and Scott 2008). Perhaps the initial success of homeopathy 439 was due to the fact that it obeyed Hippocrates' first principle of treatment: 440 above all do no harm, giving it, over of the conventional medicine of the time, 441 a better risk:benefit ratio.

If the reaction of Hahnemann to these medical practices was derision or despair, one can only, with the benefit of hindsight, sympathise. Now, these barbaric procedures have been swept away, in a tsunami of curiosity, observation, trial and error, experiment and serendipity (the bases of the scientific method), facilitated by the advances in knowledge first of chemistry, then biochemistry/physiology, then cell and molecular biology, all dependent on increasingly sophisticated measuring and analytical techniques. It is true that throughout the 19th century quacks continued to peddle quack medicines, but the ascendency of the scientific method had largely put paid to the practice of quackery by doctors by the first quarter of the 20th century, as opposed to the practice of quackery by non-medical persons, which continues apace.

On the veterinary scene, James White (1816) of Exeter, was way ahead of his time when he wrote; "within these few years only, has the Veterinary Art acquired a distinct appellation, and a solid foundation in this country. Receipts handed down by traditionary skill, in which ingredients were accumulated without judgment or discrimination, constituted the principles and practice of what was termed Farriery... It is only since the institution of the [London] Veterinary College, that the anatomy and physiology of the horse have been properly investigated, and the effects of medicines on his body correctly ascertained, by numerous and appropriate experiments, both in health and disease; so that a secure foundation is now laid; and, as long as scientific men continue to study and practise the veterinary art, it must necessarily be in a progressive state of improvement".

The quack medicines of earlier centuries were largely based on spurious or unsubstantiated *Materia Medica* products. Now, almost nothing remains in 21st century therapeutics, except for some fine examples of the active

constituents of *Materia Medica* remedies; we have quinidine, quinine, morphine, atropine, digitalis glycosides, d-tubocurarine and, derived from the willow, salicylate and its successors. We still have major therapeutic uses for the extracted chemicals of plants, but as drugs in 99% plus purity form. Now, therefore, we have better control of the dose, lesser likelihood of overdose and less opportunity for unwanted effects from the other constituents/adulterants of the plants or their extracts. And, of course, we have over the last 75 years, the example of the magic bullets (penicillin, streptomycin, tetracycline and their derivatives and successors) isolated from soil dwelling microorganisms or produced semi-synthetically or synthetically in the laboratory.

The steady development of conventional therapeutics has been an ongoing, often unplanned process, proceeding by an incremental, bottom up evolution. It began with the ideas of the Enlightenment. Charles Darwin, Claude Bernard (an early advocate of evidence based medicine [Morabia 2006]), Louis Pasteur and Robert Koch were children of The Enlightenment and we are its great, great grandchildren. Johnson (2010) has written that both biological and technological developments comprise a "gradual but relentless probing of the adjacent possible, each new innovation opening up new paths to explore". As scientific method was refined, and new technologies developed, more was learned about chemistry, biology, physiology, biochemistry, microbiology and pathology, allowing the rational development of treatments. Moreover, in the 20th century medical science developed the randomised controlled clinical trial, allowing the objective testing of novel treatments.

In contrast, homeopathy was invented by one man, living at a time of minimal scientific understanding of biology and pathology. It has remained essentially unchanged. Whilst there may now be many more homeopathic remedies, the underlying concepts and philosophy, and the methods of preparation (huge dilutions, succussion etc.), are essentially the same; the Laws are inviolate. Thus, an assumption underlying homeopathy is that disease signs are an expression of a disturbed vital force, affecting the whole

organism and the treatment is intended to restore the 'energetic balance' of the individual (Bell and others 2004, Kayne 2006, Nicolai 2008, Owen 2015d). The actual mechanisms remain obscure, implausible for most people and incompatible with scientific knowledge accumulated over the last two centuries.

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

The belief system of homeopaths is vitalist in that it posits that the phenomena of life are dependent on a force or principle distinct from purely chemical or physical forces - there is something "special" about living tissue, above and beyond its content of atoms and molecules. Vitalism is a discredited scientific hypothesis that Ridley (2015) describes as a superstition in headlong retreat. Vitalism underlies most traditional healing practices, and the Hippocratic 'four humours' tradition that dominated Western medicine until disproven by modern science. The superstition of vitalism was dealt its death blows by the advances in pharmacological, biochemical, cellular and molecular biologies, not least by the discovery that "the secret of life" turned out to be an infinitely combinatorial message, written in digital form in three-letter words in a four-letter alphabet. This beautiful discovery is inconsistent with the concept of a 'vital force'. From psychology, superstitious adults tend to explain biological processes in terms of vitalist causality and energy transmission, and such conceptual confusions are associated with belief in alternative medicine (Lindeman & Saher 2007), which is itself associated with intuitive rather than rational thinking styles (Saher and Lindeman 2005) and belief in other supernatural and paranormal phenomena (Grimmer and White 1990, Saher and Lindeman 2005).

In the words of Hahnemann, diseases "are solely spirit-like (dynamic) derangements of the spirit-like power (the vital principle) that animates the human body". We put the question, does a spirit-like power animate animal bodies too? Contemporary homeopaths still refer to spiritual aspects along with 'life energy' or 'vital force' when discussing the actions of their remedies (e.g., Kayne 2006 pp151). It is clear that the gulf between homeopaths and the great majority of human and animal doctors is not simply one of how-to-

compare using common standards (McKenzie 2012). It is a gulf of mind-set, between the give-me-proof-positive and a proven or plausible mechanism of action of the latter, and the mystical, superstitious beliefs of the former.

Whilst homeopaths are vitalists, their belief system spreads more widely. Homeopathic practice implies the belief that there is some property - an 'essence' - in each of the substances or objects they make their remedies from; it is that essence which gives rise, via potentisation (dilution, succussion, etc.), to the specific curative properties of the remedy. are thousands of remedies, each with specific properties, i.e., they treat only certain signs or symptoms or patients and not others, and seemingly no limit to what substances or objects remedies can be made from (vide infra) Hence, presumably every substance or object contains an essence. The belief that inanimate substances and objects as well as animate objects such as plants and animals have an essence (especially if that is construed as a 'vital force') places homeopathy in the mystical tradition of animism the belief in a supernatural power that pervades, and can influence, the material universe. Moreover, the essence is beneficial for humans – indeed, potentising remedies for the treatment of ill humans and animals seems to be the only identified function or use for the essence. Hence, homeopathic beliefs are also "anthropocentric" - believing that the universe, with this essence existing in every substance or object, exists as it does for the benefit of humans. These vitalistic, animistic, anthropocentric beliefs are part of the mystical and magical belief systems universal to human cultures thoughout history.

557

558

559

560

561

562

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

CONSTITUENTS

Homeopathic products

Contemporary homeopaths follow Hahnemann's example of listing, in *Materia Medica*, their remedies together with the 'symptom picture' for each and dosage information (Lilley 2008). The symptom picture is established

primarily by means of "provings" or "pathogenetic trials" (vide infra) and partly by observations of clinical responses to a remedy, and indicates which signs or symptoms the remedy can be used to treat in a patient (Belon 1995, Kayne 2006 pp51-53, Campbell 2013, Sherr 2015). For homeopathic products in humans, the proving involves a group of several volunteers or just one person. Each imbibes a number of doses of the remedy being 'proved', with contemporary provings typically using remedies diluted beyond the Avogardro limit. Each volunteer keeps a diary of the physical and emotional sensations experienced. On completion of the proving, the 'master prover' collates information from the diaries and this becomes the 'symptom picture' for that remedy and is recorded for homeopaths to reference in practice (Kayne 2006, Riley 2008, Campbell 2013, Sherr 2015). scientific basis of homeopathic provings is not established. Furthermore, for veterinary products obvious practicalities dictate that these procedures cannot be followed when the recipient is an animal.

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

The components of homeopathic products are water (in some cases alcohol also), dissolved gases, impurities (a variety of inorganic and organic molecules of unknown amounts), and variable amounts of the 'active', dependent on the degree of dilution, but less than one molecule at the high dilutions commonly used in practice and supplied as over-the-counter remedies (Kayne 2006 pp81-120). 'Nanoparticles' of the starting material have been demonstrated in some commercially-available 30c and 200c remedies made from metals in India (Chikramane and others 2010), presumably due to imperfect dilution, or contamination after dilution, during preparation. There are thousands of remedies in published homeopathic Materia Medica (e.g., Boericke 2008) and available via the Internet, with frequent new remedies being homeopathically 'proved' and used in practice (Kayne 2006 pp51-53, Riley 2008, Sherr 2015). There appears to be no restriction on what can be used as an 'active' to create a remedy; 'actives' include viruses, bacteria, animals, plants, minerals, chemicals, conventional drugs, man-made objects, and physical radiations and energy fields (the last two referred to as 'imponderables' by Hahnemann

and modern homeopaths). Examples include; honey bee (Apis mel), emperor 595 dragonfly (Anax imperator), duck offal (Oscillococcinum), green iguana (Iguana 596 iguana), human placenta (Placenta humanum [Welsh]), Kentucky bluegrass 597 (Poa pratensis), lava (Hekla lava), gunpowder (Carbon-sulphur-kali-nitricum), 598 permethrin, condom (Latex vulcani), the Berlin Wall (Murus Berlinensis), 599 Hadrian's Wall (Vallum Aelium), car exhaust fumes, electricity (Electricitas), 600 magnetic field (Magnetis poli ambo), emanations from televisions, X-rays (X-601 ray), and light from the planet Venus (Venus stella errans) – all of which can 602 be found listed in homeopathic Material Medica or as homeopathic provings 603 on the Internet, and can be purchased from homeopathic pharmacies (e.g., 604 www.helios.co.uk). Some homeopathic products contain sugar, but this is 605 not claimed to be essential to efficacy (except in the homeopathic remedy 606 Saccharum officinale, prepared from pure cane sugar as the 'active'). Each 607 remedy is claimed to possess specific healing properties, i.e., can be used to 608 treat only certain signs or symptoms, but not others, or only patients with 609 certain characteristics, but not others; yet homeopaths appear to believe 610 that all remedies exert their effects via a single (unknown) process (Kayne 611 612 2006, Nicolai 2008).

Remedies my be dispensed in the liquid form, but can also be mixed with or dropped or sprayed on to other pharmaceutical preparations to create homeopathic creams, ointments, pills and powders, etc. (Kayne 2006 pp100-106, Kayne 2008). Once formulated, there are minimal costs to marketing, only extremely limited regulatory requirements to be negotiated, with no comparisons with other products, homeopathic or otherwise, required. Regulatory authorities recognise that the products are lacking in ingredients with specific actions and it is assumed that no toxicity will arise in the absence of actives. Therefore, it is further assumed that there can be no residues in edible tissues of food producing species and hence no meat/milk withholding periods are required.

Drug-based products

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

For each drug-based product, there must, by definition, be one or more actives. However, it is rare for drugs to be marketed as the drug substance alone. Almost invariably they are formulated, for oral, parenteral or local administration, as solutions, suspensions, tablets, capsules etc., which contain other compounds, the excipients. Generally, no therapeutic activity is claimed for the excipients, but they are essential to ensure such properties as sterility and syringability and as bulking or flavouring agents. Whilst themselves not active on biological systems, excipients can markedly influence pharmacological and therapeutic outcomes. This occurs principally by affecting the rate and extent of absorption of the active constituents.

Each active in conventional drugs is perceived to have a specific chemical, biochemical or physiological mechanism of action by which it brings about its clinical effects, and sometimes other mechanisms of action by which adverse effects arise. For many drugs the mechanism of action is proven, and for most drugs without proven mechanisms of action, scientifically plausible mechanisms exist. For discussion of the bases of efficacy of constituents of homeopathic and drug-based products, and the evidence regarding their clinical efficacy, see Part 2 of this review (Lees and others 2017).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None of the authors of this article has a financial or personal relationship with other people or organisations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper.

REFERENCES

651

- BELL, I.R., LEWIS II, D.A., LEWIS, S.E., BROOKS, A.J., SCHWARTZ, G.E.,
- 653 BALDWIN, C.M. (2004) Strength of vital force in classical homeopathy: Bio-
- 654 psycho-social-spiritual correlates within a complex systems context. Journal
- of Alternative and Complementary Medicine **10**:123-131
- 656 BELLAVITE, P., CONFORTI, A., PIASERE, V. & ORTOLANI, R. (2005)
- 657 Immunology and homeopathy. 1. Historical background. Evidence Based
- 658 Complementary and Alternative Medicine **2**, 441-452
- 659 BELON, P. (1995) Provings: Concept and methodology. British Homeopathic
- 660 Journal **84**, 213-217
- BOERICKE, W. (2008) Boericke's new manual of homeopathic materia
- medica with repertory, 3rd ed. B Jain Publishers Pvt Ltd, Noida, Uttar
- 663 Pradesh
- BRIEN, S., LACHANCE, L., PRESCOTT, P., McDERMOTT, C. & LEWITH, G.
- 665 (2011) Homeopathy has clinical benefits in rheumatoid arthritis patients
- 666 that are attributable to the consultation process but not the homeopathic
- remedy: a randomized controlled clinical trial. *Rheumatology* **50**, 1070-1082
- 668 CAMPBELL, A. (2013) Homeopathy in perspective: a critical appraisal.
- 669 Anthony Campbell (self-published)
- 670 CANFIELD, P.J., WHITEHEAD, M.L., JOHNSON, R., O'BRIEN, C. & MALIK,
- R. (20160 Case-based clinical reasoning in feline medicine 2: Managing
- 672 cognitive error. Journal of Feline Medicine and Surgery 18, 240-247
- 673 CHIKRAMANE, P.S., SURESH, A.K., BELLARE, J.R. & KANE, S.G. (2010)
- 674 Extreme homeopathic dilutions retain starting materials: A nanoparticulate
- 675 perspective. *Homeopathy* **99**, 231-242
- 676 CONZEMIUS, M. G. & EVANS, R. B. (2012) Caregiver placebo effect for dogs
- 677 with lameness from osteoarthritis. Journal of the American Veterinary
- 678 *Medical Association* **241**, 1314-1319
- 679 COOK, T.M.(2008) Samuel Hahnemann: His life and times. B. Jain
- 680 Publishers Pvt Ltd, Nodia, Uttar Pradesh
- 681 CROSKERRY, P. (2003) The importance of cognitive errors in diagnosis and
- strategies to minimise them. Academic Medicine 78, 775-780.

- 683 DRUSANO, G. L., FREGEAU, C., LIU, W., BROWN, D. L. & LOUIE, A. (2010)
- 684 Impact of burden on granulocyte clearance of bacteria in a mouse thigh
- infection model. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **54**, 4368-4372
- 686 ENCK, P., BINGEL, U., SCHEDLOWSKI, M. & RIEF, W. (2013) The placebo
- response in medicine: minimize, maximize or personalize? Nature Reviews
- 688 Drug Discovery **12**, 191-204
- 689 EUROPEAN COUNCIL FOR CLASSICAL HOMEOPATHY (2007) The
- 690 Homeopathic Treatment of Animals in Europe. pp pp.1-20.
- 691 FRASER, J. G. (1922) Chapter 3. Sympathetic Magic. In The Golden Bough:
- 692 A Study in Magic and Religion. Ed MACMILLAN. New York, MacMillan
- 693 GALTON, F. (1886) Regression towards mediocrity in hereditary stature.
- *Journal of the Anthropological Institute* **15**, 246-263
- 695 GAY, J.M. (2006) Deterimining cause and effect in herds. Veterinary Clinics
- 696 of North America: Food Animal Practice **22**, 125-147
- 697 GRIMES, D. R. (2012) Proposed mechanisms for homeopathy are physically
- 698 impossible. Focus on Alternative and Complementary Therapies 17, 149-155
- 699 GRIMMER, M.R. & WHITE, K.D. (1990) The structure of paranormal beliefs
- among Australian psychology students. The Journal of Psychology 124,
- 701 357-370
- 702 HAHNEMANN, S. (1814) Materia Medica Pura. Arnold, Dresden.
- 703 HAHNEMANN, S. (2002) Organon of Medicine, 6th ed. W. Boericke
- translation. B. Jain Publishers Pvt Ltd, Nodia, Uttar Pradesh
- 705 HEKTOEN, L. (2005) Review of the current involvement of homeopathy in
- veterinary practice and research. *Veterinary Record* **157**, 224-229
- 707 HOUSE OF COMMONS SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY COMMITTEE (2010)
- 708 Evidence check 2: homoeopathy.
- 709 www.publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200910/cmselect/cmsctech/45/45
- 710 04.htm
- 711 HRÓBJARTSSON, A. & GØTZSCHE, P.C. (2010) Placebo interventions for all
- 712 clinical conditions. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2010 Jan
- 713 20;(1):CD003974. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD003974.pub3

- 714 INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF CLASSICAL HOMEOPATHY (2016) Online
- 715 Materia Medica. http://www.vithoulkas.com/learning-tools/online-materia-
- medica. Accessed March 12, 2017
- JOHNSON, S. (2010) Where Good Ideas Come From: The Natural History of
- 718 Innovation, Riverhead Books
- JUTTE, R., HOPPE, J.-D. & SCRIBA, P. C. (2011) Placebos in Medicine
- 720 [report in German],
- www.bundesaerztekammer.de/downloads/Placebo_LF_1_17012011.pdf.
- 722 KAHNEMAN, D. (2012) THINKING, FAST AND SLOW. Penguin, London
- 723 KAYNE, L. (2008) Roles of the UK homeopathic pharmacist. In: Kayne, S.
- Ed. Homeopathic Practice. Pharmaceutical Press, London pp 179-209
- 725 KAYNE, S.B. (2006) Homeopathic pharmacy theory and practice, 2nd Ed.
- 726 Elsevier, Philadelphia.
- 727 KUPFERSCHMIDT, K. (2011) More placebo use promoted in Germany.
- 728 Canadian Medical Association Journal **183**, E633-634
- 729 LEES, P., CHAMBERS, D., PELLIGAND, L., TOUTAIN, P.-L., WHITING, M. &
- 730 WHITEHEAD, M.L. (2017) Comparison of veterinary drugs and veterinary
- 731 homeopathy: Part 2 Veterinary Record. In submission.
- 732 LILLEY, D. (2008) The homeopathic material medica. In: Kayne, S. Ed.
- Homeopathic Practice. Pharmaceutical Press, London pp 75-97
- 1734 LINDEMAN, M. & SAHER, M. (2007) Vitalism, purpose and superstition.
- 735 British Journal of Psychology **98**, 33-44
- 736 LOUDON (2006) A brief history of homeopathy. Journal of the Royal Society
- 737 *of Medicine* **22(12)**, 607-610
- 738 MATHIE, R. T. & CLAUSEN, J. (2014) Veterinary homeopathy: systematic
- 739 review of medical conditions studied by randomised placebo-controlled
- 740 trials. *Veterinary Record* **175**, 373-381
- 741 MATHIE, R. T., HACKE, D. & CLAUSEN, J. (2012) Randomised controlled
- 742 trials of veterinary homeopathy: characterising the peer-reviewed research
- 743 literature for systematic review. *Homeopathy* **101**, 196-203
- 744 MATUTE, H., BLANCO, F., YARRITU, I., DIAZ-LAGO, M., VADILLO, M.A., &
- 745 BARBERIA, I. (2015) Illusions of causality: how they bias our everyday
- thinking and how they could be reduced. Frontiers in Psychology **6**, 888

- McKENZIE, B. (2012) Is complementary and alternative medicine compatible
- 748 with evidence-based medicine. Journal of the American Veterinary Medical
- 749 Association **241**, 421-426
- 750 McKENZIE, B. (2014) Veterinary clinical decision-making: cognitive biases,
- 751 external constraints, and strategies for improvement. Journal of the
- 752 American Veterinary Medical Association **244**, 271-276
- 753 MCMILLAN, F. D. (1999) The placebo effect in animals. Journal of the
- American Veterinary Medical Association **215**, 992-999
- MEISSNER, K., BINGEL, U., COLLOCA, L., WAGER, T. D., WATSON, A. &
- 756 FLATEN, M. A. (2011) The placebo effect: advances from different
- methodological approaches. *Journal of Neuroscience* **31**, 16117-16124
- 758 MILLS, D. & CRACKNELL, N. (2013) Professionalism, public opinion and
- 759 placebos. Equine Veterinary Journal **45**, 267-268
- MOORE, C. (2010) TV doesn't give a true picture of the past. In Daily
- 761 Telegraph. 18 October edn
- MORABIA, A. (2006) Claude Bernard was a 19th century proponent of
- medicine based on evidence. Journal of Clinical Epidemiology **59**, 1150-1154
- MORTON, V. & TORGERSON, D. J. (2003) Effect of regression to the mean
- on decision making in health care. British Medical Journal 326, 1083-1084
- 766 MORTON, V. & TORGERSON, D. J. (2005) Regression to the mean:
- 767 treatment effect without the intervention. Journal of Evaluation in Clinical
- 768 *Practice* **11**, 59-65
- 769 NICOLAI, T. (2008) Important concepts and the approach to prescribing.
- 770 In: Kayne, S. Ed. Homeopathic Practice. Pharmaceutical Press, London pp
- 771 43-61
- OWEN, D. (2015a) Assessing the Homeopathic Case. In: D. Owen, ed.
- 773 Principles and Practice of Homeopathy: The therapeutic and healing
- process. Jessica Kingsley Publishers, London. pp39-49
- OWEN, D. (2015b) Introduction to Prescribing. In: D. Owen, ed. Principles
- and Practice of Homeopathy: The therapeutic and healing process. Jessica
- 777 Kingsley Publishers, London. pp51-63

- 778 OWEN, D. (2015c) The Homeopathic Consultation. In: D. Owen, ed.
- 779 Principles and Practice of Homeopathy: The therapeutic and healing
- process. Jessica Kingsley Publishers, London. pp29-38
- 781 OWEN, D. (2015d) What is health? In: D. Owen, ed. Principles and
- 782 Practice of Homeopathy: The therapeutic and healing process. Jessica
- 783 Kingsley Publishers, London. pp3-17
- PAVLOV, I. P. (1927) Conditioned reflexes. Ed H. MILFORD. London, Oxford
- 785 University Press. pp pp35-36
- 786 PINTO, R.C. (2001) Post hoc, ergo propter hoc. In Pinto, R.C. Argument,
- 787 Inference and Dialectic. Springer Science & Business Media, Dordrecht
- 788 PORTER, R. (1997) Greatest Benefit to Mankind; A Medical History of
- 789 Humanity from Antiquity to the Present. Harper Collins, London.
- 790 PRASAD, V.K. & CIFU, A.S. (2015) Ending medical reversal: Improving
- outcomes, saving lives. Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore.
- 792 RIDLEY, M. (2015) In The Evolution of Everything. London, Harper Collins
- Publishers. p pp 270
- 794 RILEY, D. (2008) Homeopathic drug provings. In: Kayne, S. Ed.
- 795 Homeopathic Practice. Pharmaceutical Press, London pp 63-73
- 796 RUDOLF, R.D. (1938) The post hoc ergo propter hoc fallacy in medicine.
- 797 Canadian Medical Association Journal 38, 281-284
- 798 SAHER, M. & LINDEMAN, M. (2005) Alternative medicine: A psychological
- 799 perspective. Personality and Individual Differences **39**, 1169-1178
- 800 SCOTT, N. & SCOTT, S. (2008) In The 2009-2011 cruising guide to the
- Virgin Islands. 14th edition edn. Dunedin, Cruising Guide Publications. p
- 802 pp 94
- 803 SHANG, A., HUWILER-MUNTENER, K., NARTEY, L., JUNI, P., DORIG, S.,
- STERNE, J. A., PEWSNER, D. & EGGER, M. (2005) Are the clinical effects
- of homoeopathy placebo effects? Comparative study of placebo-controlled
- trials of homoeopathy and allopathy. Lancet **366**, 726-732
- 807 SHERR, D. (2015) Provings. In: D. Owen, ed. Principles and Practice of
- 808 Homeopathy: The therapeutic and healing process. Jessica Kingsley
- 809 Publishers, London. pp19-27

- SKELLY, A. C., DETTORI, J. R. & BRODT, E. D. (2012) Assessing bias: the
- 811 importance of considering confounding. Evidence-Based Spine-Care Journal
- **3**, 9-12
- 813 S SMITH, K. (2012) Against homeopathy a utilitarian perspective.
- 814 Bioethics 26(8), 398-409
- 815 SÜMEGI, Z., GÁCSI, M. & TOPÁL, J. (2014) Conditioned placebo effect in
- 816 dogs decreases separation related behaviours. Applied Animal Behaviour
- 817 *Science* **159**, 90-98
- 818 TALBOT, W. A., PINCHBECK, G. L., KNOTTENBELT, D. C., GRAHAM, H. &
- MCKANE, S. A. (2013) A randomised, blinded, crossover study to assess the
- efficacy of a feed supplement in alleviating the clinical signs of headshaking
- in 32 horses. Equine Veterinary Journal **45**, 293-297
- TEIXEIRA, M.Z., GUEDES, C.H.F.F., BARRETO, P.V. & MARTINS, M.A.
- 823 (2010) The placebo effect and homeopathy. Homeopathy 99, 119-129
- 824 VICKERS, A. & ZOLLMAN, C. (1999) ABC of complementary medicine.
- Homoeopathy. British Medical Journal 319, 1115-1118
- 826 VIJAYAKUMAR, S. (2012) Alternative medicine: Homeopathy a review.
- International Journal of Pharmacology **2**, 57-69
- WESCHLER, M.E., KELLEY, J.M., BOYD, I.O.E., DUTILE, S., MARIGOWDA,
- 829 G., KIRSCH, I., ISRAEL, E. & KAPTCHUK, T.J. (2011) Active albuterol or
- placebo, sham acupuncture, or no intervention in asthma. New England
- 831 *Journal of Medicine* **365**, 119-126
- WHITE, J. (1816) A treatise of veterinary medicine. Volume II containing the
- 833 Materia Medica and Pharmacopoeia. Weybridge, Surrey, S. W. Hamilton
- WOOD, J. N. (2015) From plant extract to molecular panacea: a commentary
- on Stone (1763) 'An account of the success of the bark of the willow in the
- cure of the agues'. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.*
- 837 *Series B, Biological sciences* **370**: 20140317
- 838 WOOTTON, D. (2006) Bad Medicine: Doctors doing Harm Since
- 839 Hippocrates. Oxford University Press, Oxford