

Fruit fly as a model organism in the study of human diseases and drug discovery

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Drug discovery is a dynamic yet an ever-lasting topic in medicine that heavily relies on the application of model organisms. Through the use of suitable model organisms, pre-clinical testing of new drug candidates can be carried out extensively prior to further testing with humans. This has been proven, so far, as one of efficient ways to limit the emergence of new substances that are potentially harmful to individuals. Nevertheless, increasing public interest in the ethical issues raised by the use of live model organisms, such as mice and rats, pushes urgent needs for alternative model organisms. To this end, fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* might be an appropriate model organism to be accounted for. With its long-standing history of use, *Drosophila* is an insect behind the revelation of striking similarity to humans as to basic biological mechanisms and their tight controls to maintain homeostasis. Impairment of such events in *Drosophila* is linked to the emergence of metabolic-related diseases such as obesity and diabetes mellitus, the unsolved cases of neurodegenerative diseases, and the fall of host immune responses against various infectious agents. With a high genetic similarity, about 75%, to humans, ease of maintenance, and the availability of various disease models constructed through genetic manipulation and/or chemical induction, *Drosophila* has been a very promising model organism in the field of drug discovery. With this in mind, it would be not surprising if this tiny yet powerful model organism will soon substitute our current *in vivo* platform in the pre-clinical testing of new drug candidates.

INTRODUCTION

For the last decade, the emergence of sophisticated research tools, techniques, and model organisms in the field of medical and pharmaceutical sciences has extraordinarily advanced our understanding on the pathogenesis of diseases and their mechanisms at cellular and molecular levels that leads to the discovery of new effective drugs. In drug discovery research, the use of model organisms as an *in vivo* platform at a pre-clinical level for testing new drug compounds is still a commonly used method (Breyer *et al.* 2015; McGonigle & Ruggeri, 2014; Ruggeri *et al.* 2014). Through the use of various model organisms, careful investigations regarding the pathophysiology of diseases along with pharmacologic approaches that can be used to treat these diseases can be achieved in a proper manner (Breyer *et al.* 2015; McGonigle & Ruggeri, 2014).

In addition, model organisms are also very useful to provide a general description on the possible mechanism of action(s) of drug candidates along with their potential toxicities that may occur before they are clinically tested in humans (McGonigle & Ruggeri, 2014; Vogel & Vogel, 2013).

Some animals commonly used in the pre-clinical testing of new drug candidates are mice, rats, guinea pigs, rabbits, cats, and dogs (Vogel & Vogel, 2013; Zuberi & Lutz, 2016). Phylogenetically, these animals have a close kinship with humans and therefore can provide sufficient and accurate information about the pathogenesis of diseases at the cellular and molecular levels (Vogel & Vogel, 2013). However, increasing concern on the animal welfare and awareness of the concept of animal rights has begun to limit the use of these animals in a pre-clinical research (Giacomotto & Ségalat, 2010; Pandey & Nichols,

2011). This provides considerable pressure on researchers to immediately search for alternative model organisms that can be used in drug discovery research.

Several model organisms have been introduced as alternative *in vivo* platforms in the investigation of disease pathogenesis. One of the well-known model organisms is fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*. This organism has already been widely used to generate disease models for several types of human diseases and to test new drug candidates (Fernández-Hernández *et al.* 2016; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Strange, 2016; Ugur *et al.* 2016). *Drosophila* enables researchers to complete screening of drug candidates throughout by whole-animal experiments, a process difficult using traditional animal models such as mice, rats, and rabbits (Giacomotto & Ségalat, 2010; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Ugur *et al.* 2016).

In this article, we will discuss the use of *Drosophila* as a model organism in drug discovery research. The purpose of such discussion is to provide researchers with inspiration with which they think to start using *Drosophila* in their study on the pathogenesis of human diseases including neurodegenerative diseases, cancer, cardiovascular disorders, infectious diseases, and disorders of metabolic syndrome such as obesity and diabetes mellitus. In addition to the above, the promising application of *D. melanogaster* in the discovery of new drugs will be briefly discussed. Furthermore, based on one author's (F. N.) experience in pioneering research using *Drosophila* at the Faculty of Pharmacy, Hasanuddin University (Indonesia), this model organism has great potential to be used by researchers in Indonesia because *Drosophila* can be kept for years using low-budget maintenance facilities which would not burden researchers in developing countries such as Indonesia.

WHY FRUIT FLY *Drosophila melanogaster*?

Fruit fly, also commonly known as vinegar fly, is an insect species in the Diptera order and the Drosophilidae family. This fly became the center of attention after Thomas Hunt Morgan introduced its use as a model organism in genetic research early 1900s (Markow, 2015). Until now *Drosophila* has been widely applied to explain various important biological phenomena that are also seen in humans, ranging from the role of apoptosis in development and immunity (Meier *et al.* 2000; Nainu *et al.* 2015; 2017; Nonaka *et al.* 2017), the effect of nutrition in

regulating biological functions and individual age (Rajan & Perrimon, 2013), to the meaning of genetic defects against phenotypic disorders in organisms (Mackay, 2010; Nakanishi *et al.* 2011; Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

Drosophila is an invertebrate animal with a body size of about 3 mm (Panchal & Tiwari, 2017). The genome of the Drosophilidae family of insects is about 180 MB (megabases) that is divided into four chromosomes (Adams *et al.* 2000). With a small number of chromosomes, *Drosophila* becomes a preferred organism for the study on the mechanism of gene arrangement in a chromosome, regulation of gene activities and functions, and the pattern of mutations in eukaryotic organisms (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Ugur *et al.* 2016; Wangler *et al.* 2015). Despite its simplicity, *Drosophila* genome is about 75% similar to human genome (Chien *et al.* 2002; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter *et al.* 2001). These are the bases for the potential use of *Drosophila* as a model organism suitable for research on disease mechanisms and drug discoveries.

Experimentally, fruit fly has several advantages. First, fruit fly is very easy to maintain requiring relatively low costs compared to other model organisms including zebrafish, mice, and rats (Giacomotto & Ségalat, 2010; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Strange, 2016). This point is very beneficial to researchers having a limited size of research funds. Second, a female fly can produce 30-50 eggs every day, and each egg develops into an adult fly within 10 days. This is very different from mice that only produce a small number of offspring in 3-4 months (Panchal & Tiwari, 2017). Thus, the use of *Drosophila* facilitates reliable experimental results using large testing populations in a short period of time. Third, *Drosophila* has a short lifespan, 2-3 months. This is great advantage for studies of several biological processes such as the mechanism of aging (Brandt & Vilcinskas, 2013; He & Jasper, 2014; Sun *et al.* 2013). Finally, *Drosophila* can be used in research without the requirement of ethical clearance (Panchal & Tiwari, 2017; Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

With a short lifespan of a few months, *Drosophila* lives shorter than mice, rats, rabbits, or humans. However, *Drosophila* experiences various phases of life as commonly found in other animals such as the embryonic phase, the juvenile phase (larvae), and the adult phase through a process called metamorphosis (Markow, 2015; Reaume & Sokolowski, 2006). Obviously, each develop-

mental phase lasts only a short period of time: embryos develop into first-instar larvae only in one day, and second-instar and third-instar larvae emerge in one and two days, respectively. And in the next 5 days, third-instar larvae develop into pupae, and adult flies eclose from pupal case (Reaume & Sokolowski, 2006).

Drosophila is a pioneer model organism in the identification of genes related to biological functions whose counterparts are also important in eukaryotic organisms, including humans. Examples of such genes include homeobox genes that play a crucial role in the control of entire developmental processes (Carroll, 1995; Pearson *et al.* 2005), a gene called *dnc* that was the first to be found important in learning processes (Dubnau & Tully, 1998), *period* whose identification has led to the understanding of circadian rhythm (Konopka & Benzer, 1971), and *Tl* has brought us the mechanisms of innate immunity (Lemaitre *et al.* 1996; Medzhitov *et al.* 1997). To date, eight Nobel Prizes in Physiology or Medicine were given to researchers who work with this tiny insect (Patel & Prokop, 2017).

***Drosophila* DATABASES AND STOCK CENTERS**

In many studies, especially those related to the discovery and mechanisms of action of new drugs, the use of model organisms having mutation and transgenic genotypes is critically important (Bolon, 2004; Brad & Elizabeth, 2002; Snaith & Törnell, 2002). ‘Mutant’ is a term to describe the altered status of genetic materials in test animals while the term ‘transgenic’ means the process of increasing or decreasing the expression level of the existing genetic information. In the case of *Drosophila*, various types of mutants and transgenic flies can be generated easily owing to the availability of entire genetic manipulations (Adams *et al.* 2000; Hales *et al.* 2015; Li & Garza, 2004; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Venken & Bellen, 2007). Until now, *Drosophila* lines having alterations on almost all individual genes have been produced and are widely used in research (Venken & Bellen, 2007; Yamamoto *et al.* 2014).

Drosophila is a model organism that has been successfully used for years in the screening of genes interested using either forward or reverse genetic methods (Hales *et al.* 2015). Forward genetics is a method to identify genes that are responsible for the emergence of certain

phenotypes of researcher’s interest (Gibson & Muse, 2009). For example, researchers may identify a gene responsible for converting the color of *Drosophila*’s eyes from red (mutant) to white (normal) using forward genetics. Conversely, reverse genetics is used to analyze phenotypes that emerge in model animals after altering genes of researcher’s interest (Gibson & Muse, 2009). For example, researchers may find the roles of certain genes by looking at emerging phenotypes after introducing mutations on them.

The most important point in using *Drosophila* is to select appropriate lines with distinct genotypes. This is made possible through the use of organizations that distribute various types of *Drosophila* lines at low costs (Wangler & Bellen, 2017). For example, there are several wild-type strains from which researchers in the field of drug discovery may choose a strain most suitable for their contexts. Researchers can directly contact relevant stock centers by telephone or emails. In addition to such stock centers, there are researcher-based organizations, such as Drososhare in Europe, where dedicated researchers are in charge of distributing *Drosophila* lines to other researchers all over the world. The delivery of *Drosophila* can be done using ordinary postal packages, registered postal packages, or special postal packages with a customized delivery period.

***Drosophila* AS A SUITABLE ORGANISM FOR HUMAN DISEASE MODEL**

To facilitate research on disease pathophysiology and drug discovery, the availability of human disease models is of a great help. Although the size and appearance of *Drosophila* are quite different from those of humans, this insect has been frequently used in various types of research to study the pathogenesis of human diseases (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter, 2005; Ugur *et al.* 2016). The use of *Drosophila* has provided important knowledge regarding the pathogenesis of various human diseases at cellular and molecular levels (Wangler & Bellen, 2017; Wangler *et al.* 2015). Accumulating information from such research is certainly very valuable in finding and tracing the working mechanism of new drug candidates.

1. *Drosophila* as a model organism to study cancer

Drosophila has made great contribution to studies on

the mechanism of the emergence of cancer and ways that can be used to overcome it (Gonzalez, 2013; Sonoshita & Cagan, 2017). A large number of genes and signaling pathways are involved in the creation and maintenance of our body. Any mistakes in gene expression and signal pathways could cause abnormal growth of cells called cancer, an event that was first discovered and characterized in *Drosophila* (Gonzalez, 2013; Sonoshita & Cagan, 2017). Examples of this kind are signaling pathways called Hedgehog and Hippo. Tumor develops in *Drosophila* when these pathways are impaired. Studies with *Drosophila* cancer models until now have shown that the process of cancer development in *Drosophila* and humans bear a striking resemblance to each other (Brumby & Richardson, 2005; Gonzalez, 2013; Rieder & Larschan, 2014; Wangler *et al.* 2015). In general, cancer in humans results from the uncontrolled growth of epithelial cells (Christofori & Semb, 1999). Using *Drosophila*, researchers have studied epithelial cell-derived cancer (Brumby & Richardson, 2005; Pandey & Nichols, 2011). There are four main hallmarks of cancer: uncontrolled cell division, resistance to cell growth-inhibiting signals, resistance to apoptosis-inducing signals, and migration and colonization at various places, referred as metastasis. All these hallmarks can be studied using *Drosophila* (Brumby & Richardson, 2005; Christofi & Apidianakis, 2013; Gonzalez, 2013). Most oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes responsible for the control of cancer in humans possess counterparts in *Drosophila*. The signaling pathway involving the oncogene product Ras was found for the first time in the visual system of *Drosophila* (Olivier *et al.* 1993; Simon *et al.* 1991), and this pathway plays an important role in the development of cancer in humans (Bier, 2005; Shaw & Cantley, 2006). Mutations in tumor suppressor genes *scribble*, *disc large 1*, and *lethal (2) giant larvae* in *Drosophila* induce cancer with all markers seen in humans, including metastatic processes metastasis (Brumby & Richardson, 2005).

The compound eye of *Drosophila* is often used as tissues to induce cancer (Miles *et al.* 2011; Rudrapatna *et al.* 2012). *Drosophila* eyes are made up of about 800 hexagon ommatidia, called facets, with "smooth" surface structures (Kumar, 2012). When cancer is induced, the surface of eyes is not smooth anymore and called "rough" eyes. This easy-to-find phenotype is widely used in the study of cancer pathogenesis as well as to examine the

effectiveness of various treatments (Miles *et al.* 2011; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Rudrapatna *et al.* 2012). Also, a test for survival of larvae and pupae is often taken to monitor the severity of cancer (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Willoughby *et al.* 2013). In such studies, larvae bearing cancer, which is labeled with GFP, are placed in a 96-well plate, treated with drug candidates, and maintained for certain periods of time. The effectiveness of drug candidates is determined in two parameters: the number of survived larvae and the intensity of GFP fluorescence: GFP intensity is proportional to the rate of cancer growth (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter, 2005; Willoughby *et al.* 2013). Although *Drosophila* seems to be an ideal model organism for the study of cancer, there is a limitation: not all types of cancer found in humans can develop in *Drosophila* such as prostate cancer and breast cancer (Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

2. *Drosophila* as a model of neurodegenerative diseases

Since its introduction in the early 20th century by Thomas Hunt Morgan, *Drosophila* has been one of the favorite model organisms in a study on the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system in eukaryotes, including mammals (Bellen *et al.* 2010; Hales *et al.* 2015; Reiter, 2005). For example, mutations in a gene coding for Notch were identified in 1915 and reported a year later as a mutation that causes wing malformations in *Drosophila* (Bellen *et al.* 2010). This discovery paved the way for subsequent discoveries, including Delta as a Notch ligand. Eventually, the Notch signaling pathway in *Drosophila* and similar pathways in vertebrates, including humans, have been shown to play an important role in neural activities (Bellen *et al.* 2010).

An advantage in using fruit fly is that neurons can be completely removed without killing animals. In addition, any human genes in question can be expressed at certain time points and certain tissues (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter, 2005). Furthermore, the detection of gene products, i.e., proteins and mRNAs, in *Drosophila* is easier than in mice and rats. The expression patterns of gene interested can be determined by *in situ* detection of mRNA and monitoring tags fused to cognate proteins. Finally, *Drosophila* is a relatively short-living and thus suitable to monitor the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative diseases (Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

Using *Drosophila* researchers can conduct both gain-of-function and loss-of-function experiments more easily than using other model animals. Once *Drosophila* lines showing interesting phenotypes related neuronal actions, researchers carry out ‘rescue’ experiments by ectopically expressing candidate genes, even human genes, in a specific spatio-temporal manner. Also, researchers can screen a library of *Drosophila* lines that have lost candidate genes to find lines showing phenotypes of interest. However, it should be noted that not all *Drosophila* mutants survive until adulthood, and that phenotypes produced by mutating interesting genes in *Drosophila* might not those expected from human diseases (Reiter, 2005).

Drosophila has been used extensively to study biochemical and genetic processes that occur in eukaryotic nervous system (Bellen *et al.* 2010; Hales *et al.* 2015; Wangler *et al.* 2015). Particularly, *Drosophila* is now extensively used to investigate neurodegenerative diseases including Alzheimer’s disease, Parkinson’s disease, Huntington’s disease, epilepsy, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter, 2005; Wangler & Bellen, 2017; Yamamoto *et al.* 2014). From such research, we have so far learned that most neurodegenerative diseases caused by the progressive loss of specific neurons are closely related to the formation of toxic protein aggregates in intracellular environments (Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Reiter, 2005). Also, as known for humans, the emergence of neurodegenerative diseases in *Drosophila* becomes frequent as animals age (Bonner & Boulianne, 2011).

3. *Drosophila* as a model to study infectious diseases

Like most other insects, *Drosophila* is only equipped with the innate immune system (Hoffmann, 2003) of which structure is, unexpectedly, quite similar to humans’ (Buchon *et al.* 2014; Hoffmann, 2003). Therefore, *Drosophila* has been used to investigate the basic mechanisms of the innate immune system of humans. In addition, *Drosophila* has helped to solve the genetic control of immune system under infectious states (Buchon *et al.* 2014; Imler, 2014).

Drosophila immune system is divided, as is mammals’, into two parts; cellular and humoral responses (Elrod-Erickson *et al.* 2000; Royet *et al.* 2003). At the cellular level, *Drosophila* is protected by cellular immunity

through the actions of hemocytes, *Drosophila* blood cells, which exist in the form of plasmatocytes, lamellocytes, and crystal cells (Lemaitre & Hoffmann, 2007; Parsons & Foley, 2016). Plasmatocytes, spherical cells with a diameter of about 10 μm , function similarly to mammalian macrophages being responsible for the phagocytic elimination of invading bacteria (Chung & Kocks, 2011; Nonaka *et al.* 2013; Shiratsuchi *et al.* 2012) and viruses (Zhu & Zhang, 2013) as well as cells undergoing physiological (Franc *et al.* 1999; Nonaka *et al.* 2017; Nonaka *et al.* 2013) or virus-induced (Lamiable *et al.* 2016; Nainu *et al.* 2015) apoptosis. Extensive studies have clarified how *Drosophila* innate immune system involving plasmatocytes recognizes pathogens in a mechanism resembling humans’ (Buchon *et al.* 2014; Gold & Brückner, 2015; Lemaitre & Hoffmann, 2007; Nainu *et al.* 2017; Wang *et al.* 2013). Also, the analysis of lamellocytes and crystal cells has provided information regarding a defense against parasitic infections and melanization processes (Lemaitre & Hoffmann, 2007). To induce humoral immune responses, *Drosophila* activates signaling pathways known as the Toll and Imd pathways that are connected with the induction of transcription, apoptosis, autophagy, and RNA interference (Buchon *et al.* 2014; De Gregorio *et al.* 2002; Karlikow *et al.* 2014; McPhee & Baehrecke, 2009; Merklings & van Rij, 2013; Myllymäki *et al.* 2014; Usmar *et al.* 2017; Valanne *et al.* 2011; Xu & Cherry, 2014; Zeidler *et al.* 2000). All these events lead to the production of soluble proteins that counteract pathogenic attacks, such as bacteria, fungi, and viruses.

Researchers have infected *Drosophila* with bacteria that cause human diseases (Panayidou *et al.* 2014) to examine the effectiveness of antibiotic compounds such as tetracycline and amoxicillin (Apidianakis & Rahme, 2009; Ben-Ami *et al.* 2013; Needham *et al.* 2004). Adopting this strategy, *Drosophila* is now used to test the activity of natural compounds derived from plants as antibacterial (Nainu *et al.* 2018) or antiviral (Ekowati *et al.* 2017) agents. A variety of *Drosophila* mutants enable researchers to test candidate compounds in immune-compromised animals in a rapid, simple, and economical manner.

4. *Drosophila* as a model of metabolic syndrome disorders

Obesity and related metabolic disorders such as

diabetes mellitus are still one of the highest causes of death in the world (Arroyo-Johnson & Mincey, 2016; Zheng *et al.* 2017). Seeing this trend, the discovery of more effective drugs is urgently needed. The generation of a *Drosophila* model of diabetes mellitus should be of tremendous help (Alfa & Kim, 2016; Graham & Pick, 2017). It should be noted that *Drosophila* does not have pancreatic organs, and its physiology is quite different from humans'. However, at the level of individual cells, there exists a huge functional resemblance to humans (Alfa & Kim, 2016). For example, *Drosophila* contains a protein named *Drosophila* insulin-like protein (DILP) equivalent to insulin (Alfa & Kim, 2016; Nässel *et al.* 2013). Destruction of DILP-producing cells causes an increase in the levels of glucose and lipids in hemolymph, body fluids of *Drosophila*. This means that *Drosophila* experiences diabetes-like symptoms, suggesting *Drosophila* as a suitable model animal for studying the pathophysiology of diabetes and related diseases (Alfa & Kim, 2016; Palanker Musselman *et al.* 2011; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Rulifson *et al.* 2002). Reduced expression of DILP has negative effects on the growth of *Drosophila* making the size of larvae and adults smaller (Kannan & Fridell, 2013; Ruaud & Thummel, 2008; Rulifson *et al.* 2002). Therefore, body size is a potential phenotypic indicator in the screening of drug candidates against metabolic diseases (Pandey & Nichols, 2011). Furthermore, *Drosophila* possesses receptors homologous to sulfonylurea receptors in humans, which function to control a glucose balance. Thus, *Drosophila* can be used in high throughput screening of drug candidates anticipating a mechanism similar to glibenclamide or drugs in the sulfonylurea group (Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

Drosophila has been used in a study on the relationship between nutrition and obesity (Musselman & Kühnlein, 2018). To generate an obesity model, *Drosophila* is fed with a diet of high triglyceride content. Under such a diet condition, *Drosophila* dramatically gains weight and reduces movement, and eventually its life span is shortened (J. Hoffmann *et al.* 2013). Also, feeding *Drosophila* with a high content of fatty acids (derived from coconut oil) creates a phenotype resembling metabolic syndromes. Interestingly, a glucose status is influenced by the duration of feeding with saturated fatty acids: feeding for a short period decreases glucose levels associated with increased levels of DILP. In contrast, prolonged feeding

induces an increase in the level of glucose and a decrease in insulin responses, as commonly found with patients suffering from type 2 diabetes mellitus (Birse *et al.* 2010). Certainly, the use of a *Drosophila* model in an effort to discover new drugs to treat metabolic syndromes is promising (Men *et al.* 2016; Pandey & Nichols, 2011; Smith *et al.* 2014).

PROSPECT OF *Drosophila* AS A MODEL ORGANISM IN DRUG DISCOVERY

At present, researchers have used *Drosophila* as an *in vivo* platform for screening drug candidates. An advantage of this insect is that we can obtain results in a short time at low cost (Pandey & Nichols, 2011). A research group led by Ross Cagan conducted a pre-clinical test of drug candidates with *Drosophila* without an *in vitro* test using cell cultures or other *in vitro* platforms (Vidal *et al.* 2005) and successfully identified Vandetanib (ZD6474) that was approved by US FDA for the treatment of medullary thyroid carcinoma in 2011.

When examining the pharmacological effects of new drug candidates, the route of administration needs to be chosen. There are several administration routes feasible with *Drosophila*, and a choice is dependent on at which developmental stages *Drosophila* is used. For example, embryos may be administered with drugs by a permeabilization method while larvae and adults are fed with food that contains drugs. Adult flies may also be administered with drugs in the form of vapor and by injection directly into the body cavity. In some cases, larvae and adults are given drugs that are dissolved in glucose-containing water and absorbed in a filter paper (Pandey & Nichols, 2011).

The fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* is an ideal model animal in research toward drug discovery because it resembles humans in genetic materials, physiology, pathology, and reactions to medications. Various biological processes seen in human bodies can be studied using *Drosophila*, such as gene expression, reproduction, body development, cell division and differentiation, cell death, energy metabolisms, and immunity. However, we had better be careful because none of model animals cannot be absolutely the same as humans. In fact, *Drosophila* and humans differ in the size and organization of body that sometimes become a limitation on the use of this model organism in research. For example, due to the absence of blood vessels in *Drosophila*, testing the effects of drugs

on hemostasis is rather difficult. Also, we are unable to discover drugs that function through study adaptive immunity that is absent in *Drosophila*.

CONCLUSION

Drosophila has been used as a model organism in genetic research for more than 100 years. Many researchers now consider *Drosophila* as a tool for generating human disease models and subsequent pharmacological testing of new drug candidates. Thanks to the availability of various genetic approaches and less time-consuming operations in generating mutants and transgenic genotypes, the use of *Drosophila* will be expanding and promising. We will identify and annotate many uncharacterized human genes using *Drosophila* as a surrogate creature. Also, we will rapidly complete the screening of candidate substances at a pre-clinical level and surely obtain novel drugs to cure intractable human diseases.

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Fruit fly as a model organism in the study of human diseases and drug discovery

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