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1 (Inter)nationalising the antibiotic research and development pipeline

2

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11

12

13 Abstract

14 This paper critically examines the wider context of international efforts to stimulate
15 commercial antibiotic research and development (R&D) via public-private initiatives.
16 Despite these efforts, antibiotics remain a global common without an international support
17 structure that is commensurate to the risks from antibiotic-resistant infections and the
18 long-term nature of required solutions. To protect this common, we propose a two-
19 pronged antibiotic R&D strategy based on: (1) a short-term strengthening of incentives,
20 such as market entry rewards, to maximise the delivery of existing opportunities in the
21 pipeline; and (2) a concurrent medium- to long-term establishment of a global, publicly-
22 funded antibiotic R&D Institute. Designed to sustainably deliver novel and first-in-class
23 antibiotics targeting key human health gaps, the Institute and its staff would become a
24 global resource that, unlike the private pharmaceutical sector, would be managed as an
25 open science platform. Our model of internationalised public R&D would maximise
26 scientific synergy and cross-fertilisation, minimise replication of effort, acquire and
27 preserve existing know-how, and ensure equitable and sustainable access to novel and
28 efficacious antibiotics. Its genuinely global focus would also help counteract tendencies to
29 equate donor with global health priorities. Our proposal is not radical. Historical precedent
30 and developments in other research areas show that sustained international funding of
31 publicly owned research can hasten the delivery of critically-needed drugs and lower
32 access barriers.

33

34 Introduction

35 For over three decades, the scale and trend of research and development (R&D) investment
36 into novel antibiotics has not been proportionate to the global risks and demand. This
37 discrepancy is acknowledged by academia¹⁻³, World Health Organisation (WHO) member

38 states^{4,5}, and by the recent Interagency Coordination Group on Antimicrobial Resistance
39 (IACG)⁶. Initiatives to ‘push-pull’ the pharmaceutical industry into antibiotic R&D have
40 focused on creating public-private development platforms, which use public money and funds
41 from major health donors to incentivise drug development. Despite significant investment
42 into R&D of promising compounds in pre-clinical stages of development, no new class of
43 antibiotics has been approved, and commercial developers continue to leave the field
44 voluntarily or due to economic necessity. This is in part due to the difficulty in finding
45 promising chemical start points and due to the rigour of stop / go decisions which are linked
46 to the current economic model based on return⁷. The ongoing market weakness and the real
47 risk of losing anti-infectives R&D expertise⁸ require a broad analysis of current modes of
48 antibiotic R&D and potential alternatives.

49

Panel 1

In this interdisciplinary paper, we propose a two-pronged short- and longer-term response to the crisis of antibiotic development: (1) a time-limited short-term expansion of push-pull incentives, e.g., ‘market entry rewards’ to secure existing public investment in promising compounds and to stem the loss of private sector antibiotic expertise and human capital; and (2) a medium- to long-term solution consisting in the establishment of a publicly owned international R&D Institute to guarantee sustainable and equitable global antimicrobial access. Ultimately, international public ownership of antibiotic research, drug trial capabilities, and licensing powers – an (inter)nationalisation of antibiotic R&D – is the most promising alternative, or Plan B, to the sputtering commercial pipeline.

50

51 Existing Responses: from private to public-private

52 Diagnoses of a broken antibiotic pipeline date back to the 1980s and have acquired ever-
53 increasing urgency due to increasing antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and a greater
54 international focus on (re)emerging infectious diseases^{9,10}. Despite high-level warnings¹¹,
55 difficulties in navigating regulatory pathways, low-profit margins, and the likelihood of

56 stringent stewardship requirements have deterred commercial investment in antimicrobial
57 R&D and led to companies leaving the field¹¹⁻¹³. Between 2016 and 2018, pharmaceutical
58 giant AstraZeneca abandoned antibiotic development¹⁴ and both Sanofi and Novartis exited
59 in 2018-19. In April 2019, biopharmaceutical developer Achaogen filed for bankruptcy
60 despite injections of public money to develop its antimicrobial candidate Zemdri
61 (plazomicin) and FDA approval of the drug for complicated urinary tract infections in June
62 2018¹⁵. Numerous organisations have proposed ways to respond to ongoing market failures
63 and reinvigorate antibiotic development (Table 1).

Year	Initiative
2008	<p>As part of the EU-funded Innovative Medicines Initiative (IMI) (2008-2020),¹⁶ the ‘New Drugs for Bad Bugs’ (ND4BB) initiative represents an investment of \$780 million in antibiotic R&D¹⁷.</p> <p>Within ND4BB, the EU- and industry-funded COMBACTE-MAGNET project is developing new compounds including a new beta-lactam antibiotic (AIC499, developed by AiCuris) with activity against a broad range of multidrug-resistant Gram-negative bacteria and a monoclonal antibody (MEDI3902, developed by AstraZeneca), with activity against <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> (in clinical trial)¹⁸.</p> <p>ENABLE (est. 2014) is another ND4BB programme to advance the development of antibiotics against Gram-negative bacteria^{19,20}. Universities and small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) have been supported by ENABLE to progress potential antibiotics through early stages of drug development. Candidates include: apramycin, dabocillin, and thiophene^{19,21}.</p>
2015/2018	<p>The second and sixth calls of the EU’s Joint Programming Initiative on Antimicrobial Resistance (JPIAMR) sponsored academic-industry initiatives for the repurposing of neglected antimicrobials with €4.5 million and novel antimicrobial therapy development with €14.4 million²².</p>
2016	<p>Established by the WHO and the Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative, the Global Antibiotic Research and Development Partnership (GARDP) is a not-for-profit R&D organization that develops and delivers new and improved antibiotic treatments while endeavouring to ensure their sustainable access. So far, GARDP has attracted ca. \$70 million and is fundraising for more than \$200 million²³.</p> <p>GARDP’s Antimicrobial Memory Recovery & Exploratory Programme (AMREP) aims to recover the knowledge, data, and assets of forgotten, abandoned, or withdrawn antibiotics as well as seeking new drugs via an online platform called REVIVE^{24,25}.</p>

	<p>GARDP’s “5 by 25” initiative calls upon the global community to work with it to develop five new treatments by 2025 to address the most urgent public health needs²⁶. Within the same timescale, GARDP also aims to have recovered two new antibacterial entities in pre-clinical or clinical development.</p> <p>In 2017, GARDP signed a license agreement with commercial manufacturer Entasis to support the development of a new gonorrhoea drug (zoliflodacin)²⁷.</p>
2016	<p>Combatting Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria-X (CARB-X) is the largest non-profit public-private R&D initiative. It has attracted over \$550 million (US) of investment capital and has supported more than 40 developers in 7 countries – including, until April 2019, Achaogen²⁸.</p> <p>CARB-X is funded by the US government’s Biomedical Advanced Research and Development Authority (BARDA) and the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), the Wellcome Trust, the UK government’s Department for Health and Social Care, Germany’s Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung (BMBF), as well as the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation²⁹. BARDA, in particular, supports antibiotic R&D for biodefense, including more than \$1B invested in supporting Phase 2 and Phase 3 clinical development, purchases for the US Strategic National Stockpile as well as funding, technical assistance, and access to the Centers for Innovation in Advanced Development and Manufacturing²⁹.</p> <p>CARB-X sponsorship is tied to significant commercial investment (cost-share), acceptance of stewardship requirements for new drugs, and support for equitable access to new medicines throughout the world.</p>
2018	<p>Funded and commissioned by the Danish Novo Nordisk Foundation, the REPAIR (Replenishing and Enabling the Pipeline for Anti-Infective Resistance) Impact Fund is a for-profit venture capital effort aimed at discovering and promoting early-stage development of therapies targeting resistant microorganisms with a budget of \$165 million³⁰. An additional \$20-40 million over 3–5 years is planned for investment in ca. 20 projects in Europe and the U.S., to deliver one new therapy to market³⁰.</p>
2018	<p>Between 2018 and 2028, the German government will invest €500 million in coordinating global AMR research efforts – including support for GARDP and CARB-X. Germany has also facilitated the launch of the Berlin-based Global AMR R&D Hub, which aims to improve the coordination of international efforts to tackle AMR while further increasing investments into R&D for AMR.³¹</p>
2019	<p>Britain’s National Health Service (NHS) will incentivise drug development with the help of a pioneering subscription model, which pays private companies upfront for access to new drugs depending on their usefulness³².</p>
<p>*Many initiatives have received funds from national governments as well as from AMR-focused programs by the Wellcome Trust (2016-2021), Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2018-2022), and US National Institutes of Health (2016-2018); and UKAID (2018-2021).</p>	

65 Existing push incentives like grants provided by CARB-X and GARDP or pull incentives like
 66 market entry rewards, subscription models like those recently announced by the NHS, or new
 67 antibiotic reimbursement models by Medicare in the US may well lead to a new antibiotic
 68 class and improved diagnostics. In the short-term, public investment in well-established
 69 pharmaceutical knowledge and production infrastructures will also help slow the loss of
 70 commercial R&D expertise. However, in the medium- to long-term, it remains doubtful
 71 whether existing public-private initiatives will be able to retain this expertise and refill the
 72 antibiotic pipeline.

73 The comparatively low level of international public and private investment is one reason for
 74 this. Delivering antibiotic R&D within the commercial framework of drug development is
 75 expensive, and although there is room for substantial efficiency improvements,³³ the overall
 76 cost of clinical trials remains a significant financial barrier (Table 2).

Table 2: Estimated costs of clinical trials	
Clinical Trial Phase	Median cost (\$million) from 2017 study ³³
I	3.4
II	8.6
III	21.4
I-III	33.4
Total cost of bringing a new drug to market	
Dates	Cost
1983-2009	\$0.802 to 2.2 billion ³⁴

2013 ³⁴	\$2.6 billion
--------------------	---------------

77 Some public-private initiatives are already trying to overcome this barrier. In the US, CARB-
78 X funds compounds up to the completion of Phase I. It can then ‘hand-off’ promising
79 compounds to BARDA for evaluation of possible funding of Phase 2 and 3 clinical trials
80 (Kevin Outterson, personal communication). However, even if a compound makes it past
81 Phase I, it remains uncertain whether further commercial investment in it will pay off.
82 According to the PEW Trust, fewer than one in five infectious disease products entering
83 human testing at Phase One will be approved for patients³⁵. This means that only ca. 13
84 antibiotics currently in Phase 1 will likely gain FDA approval– where their sales will
85 probably be subject to strict stewardship requirements³⁶. Despite the new public-private
86 partnerships, commercial investment in antibiotic R&D remains a high-cost, low-reward
87 endeavour.

88 Combined with declining industry investment, the high costs and financial risks of antibiotic
89 R&D make it extremely ambitious to expect the ca. \$0.62 billion invested by high-income
90 governments and donors in GARDP and CARB-X between 2016 and 2019 to generate one
91 new antibiotic class. Expecting this scale of investment to sustainably regenerate the
92 commercial antibiotic pipeline in the medium- to long-term is over-ambitious and unlikely to
93 pull-in significant industry reinvolvement. In the case of the EU’s ENABLE initiative, €100
94 million of public funds over six years failed to generate sufficient private involvement by
95 industry partners leading to an end of the initiative in 2020 (personal Communication Kevin
96 Outterson).

97 While it is difficult to disaggregate pure R&D investment from market-shaping purchasing
98 and rollout pledges, other examples of public-private research efforts indicate relative
99 international underinvestment in new antibiotic development (Table 3).

Table 3: Major R&D funding for vaccines, HIV, tuberculosis, and malaria

The Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations (CEPI) (est. 2016) focuses primarily on vaccine development. So far, CEPI has established partnership agreements reflecting a potential investment of over \$350 million in private vaccine development³⁷.

The public-private Global Alliance for Vaccination and Innovation (GAVI) (est. 2000) attracted ca. \$9 billion between 2016 and 2020 for vaccine development and rollout efforts in GAVI-eligible low-income countries³⁸. GAVI is financed by direct public and donor contributions as well as by innovative bond financing, which respectively accounts for 77% and 23% of its funding portfolio³⁹.

The Global Fund (est. 2002) invests almost \$4 billion per year in research, drug procurement, treatment, and prevention of tuberculosis, HIV, and malaria⁴⁰. In the case of malaria, the Global Fund invested over \$11.4 billion in control programs in more than 100 countries between 2002 and 2018 (60% of international funding) and aspires to raise a further \$14 billion over the next three years to halve the mortality rate from HIV, TB and malaria⁴¹.

As a major sponsor of GAVI, the Gates Foundation spent about \$282 million on vaccine R&D in 2017 alone (Personal Communication Gates Foundation).

100 Since 2000, GAVI and the Global Fund, purchase guarantees, and co-financing mechanisms
101 have played a major role in reinvigorating international R&D for vaccines, drugs, and other
102 technologies for disease prevention, control, and treatment. This is in addition to further
103 substantial private R&D investment by commercial actors, who remain active in the vaccine
104 and antiretroviral fields. International investment in antibiotic R&D remains comparatively
105 weak.

106 In addition to high costs and relative underinvestment, the fragmentation of publicly funded
107 antibiotic R&D initiatives poses another problem. Although a plurality of initiatives can help
108 avoid monopsony and false negatives (i.e., the elimination of potentially fruitful drugs), the
109 growing number of small- to medium-sized efforts risks fragmenting public funds and
110 limiting individual public-private initiatives' scope of investment. Despite actors' best
111 intentions, a fragmented R&D scene also risks the unnecessary duplication of bureaucracies,
112 creating competing public research portfolios, and incentivising free-riding by actors, who
113 may not support R&D but will still profit once new drugs emerge.

114 It is moreover questionable whether proprietary developers are the most effective vessel for
115 public R&D money. Although they can incentivise early stage antimicrobial research and
116 facilitate knowledge sharing, the new public-private initiatives continue to rely on pre-
117 existing proprietary infrastructures to conduct trials, upscale production, and rollout drugs.

118 This management approach to publicly sponsored drug development has several downsides.

119 While organisations like CARB-X or major funders like the EU and Wellcome Trust can
120 mandate that 'knowledge' be made public beyond the mandatory patent disclosure, the
121 expertise required for bringing a new drug to market remains within the private enterprises.

122 This means that antibiotic pricing and market incentives will still have to satisfy private
123 companies' need to generate profit and shareholder value. It also entails that publicly funded
124 knowledge will remain vulnerable to commercial failure and bankruptcy.

125 Finally, any public-private, commercial, or public initiative will face a problem of regional
126 bias if it mostly targets high-income countries (HICs) and markets. In developmental aid,
127 there is a history of equating donor with international health priorities and occasionally using
128 aid to indirectly subsidise the domestic companies and sectors tasked with providing it⁴²⁻⁴⁴. In
129 the case of antibiotics, one of the key challenges is to tackle the dearth of effective and
130 affordable drugs in low- and medium-income countries (LMIC)^{45,46}. While Britain's new

131 subscription model may well kick-start a new form of delinked drug marketing, it is
132 reasonable to assume that the NHS will define a drug's usefulness with respect to needs
133 identified within the United Kingdom and only secondarily in relation to LMICs and the
134 WHO's global list of priority pathogens⁴⁷. Push incentives primarily targeting companies in
135 HIC markets can lead to similar R&D biases. Achaogen's publicly subsidised drug
136 plazomicin was effective against extensively-drug resistant Gram-negative bacilli, which are
137 commonly recognized as a prime area of need for new antimicrobials^{48,49}. However,
138 Achaogen was forced to declare bankruptcy because there was a mismatch between identified
139 global health needs and actual sales in the US market. In the US, gram-negative infections
140 represent only a relatively small market (£115 million, in 2018) as compared to gram-positive
141 pathogens (£215 million, in 2018)⁵⁰. Profit outlooks for plazomicin were further
142 compromised by short treatment durations and its use as an antibiotic of last resort.
143 Plazomicin's ultimate failure was thus not because it did not meet global health priorities, but
144 because it did not sufficiently satisfy the for-profit logic of one HIC market. Only initiatives
145 that are truly global in their ambition and sponsoring will solve the global AMR crisis.

146

147 Solutions: from public-private to public

148 Developing a more robust, equitable, and international antibiotic pipeline entails the dual
149 recognition of the short-term advantages and mid- to long-term disadvantages of public-
150 private initiatives. It would be counterproductive to abruptly stop financing public-private
151 antimicrobial R&D and jeopardize existing investments in promising compounds,
152 infrastructures, and expertise. However, in the mid-to-long-term, a more sustainable,
153 integrated, cost-effective, and equitable use of public money will most likely be achieved by
154 a targeted (inter-)nationalisation of publicly financed antibiotic R&D.

155

156 Short-term: protecting public investment by shoring up the market

157 In the short-term, push-pull incentivisation is a necessary response to the pharmaceutical

158 industry's failure to adequately react to the global antibiotic crisis. Despite decades of

159 underinvestment, the pharmaceutical industry continues to represent the most equipped

160 'body' to undertake antibiotic innovation. Companies possess the infrastructure for R&D and

161 physical manufacturing of drugs and decades of proprietary knowledge about promising

162 avenues of research within their laboratories, databases, and staff that can be leveraged to

163 immediate effect. Short-term support of push-pull incentives, thus maximises society's multi-

164 decadal investment in industrial research and protects existing proprietary antibiotic R&D

165 knowledge before it is lost by the discontinuation of commercial research efforts^{14,51-53}.

Panel 2

According to the IMI's DRIVE-AB (Driving reinvestment in research and development for antibiotics and advocating their responsible use) initiative, public-private programs should be multi-faceted and comprise:

(1) push-incentives like grants (i.e., non-repayable funds for R&D given to academic institutions, companies, etc.);

(2) pipeline coordinators (i.e., non-profit/government bodies that track gaps in the pipeline and support R&D to fill them);

(3) pull incentives, like market entry rewards (payments to antibiotic developer for meeting a defined public health need); and

(4) long-term supply continuity models (i.e., delinked payment to ensure a supply of generic antibiotics).

166 Several examples of 'push-pull' incentives are already being supported by BARDA, the EC,

167 the IMI, and – most recently – Britain's NHS (see Table 1), and have been endorsed in expert

168 reports from Chatham House⁵⁴, the AMR Review,⁴⁵ the Margolis Centre for Health Policy⁵⁵.

169 According to the EU's DRIVE-AB initiative (Panel 2), pull-incentives, like market entry

170 rewards, could be made available to manufacturers of antibiotics that fill a public health gap

171 and could amount to approximately €170 million per antibiotic over five years after

172 regulatory approval⁵⁶. Short-term push incentives could also include grants for non-BARDA
173 eligible Phase 2 and Phase 3 clinical trials outside the US.

174 These efforts offer the possibility of using public money to secure a short-term ‘win’ by
175 leveraging the existing pharmaceutical pipeline for compounds and protecting valuable
176 commercial R&D expertise from being lost. However, it is questionable whether public-
177 private initiatives offer a viable long-term solution. Although a limited number of new
178 compounds will likely be marketed in the near future, public-private efforts have so far failed
179 to rejuvenate the antibiotic pipeline.

180

181 Medium- Long-term: ensuring sustainability via public ownership

182 Antibiotic effectiveness is a global commons resource⁵⁷, hence, the global common must
183 ensure this resource is produced efficiently, maintained sustainably, and distributed equitably.
184 Rather than indefinitely subsidising a dry commercial pipeline, these goals can best be
185 achieved through core public funding and a wider transformation of the pharmaceutical R&D
186 pipeline.

187 Rather than using limited funds to manage fragmented research efforts, which would still be
188 subject to commercial profit incentives and proprietary knowledge retention, participating
189 nations would form a ring-fenced, pool-funded infectious disease R&D Institute that would
190 fund permanent staff to take on the role previously assigned to pharmaceutical companies in
191 the production of novel antimicrobials. The formation of such an Institute would create a
192 permanent, integrated, open, and transparent ‘home’ for the two key resources produced
193 during pharmaceutical R&D: knowledge and skill. Protecting human capital within drug
194 discovery and development is essential if we are to avoid having to relearn the trade and
195 repeat mistakes at the exact time when we cannot afford to do so⁴⁹. Novel antibiotics would

196 be a public commodity that could be developed according to a prioritisation process of
197 greatest need rather than greatest profit and disseminated according to a principle of "shared
198 burden." Nations would only need to cover the costs of manufacture, as the cost of R&D
199 would already be covered by long-term core funding. Differentiated financing with higher
200 HIC contributions would also lead to 'at cost' provision of generic antimicrobials in LMICs,
201 where access to safe and affordable medicines remains unsatisfactory.

202 The proposed (inter)nationalised antibiotic R&D pipeline would be open and transparent in
203 its methods, data, and expertise. The Bermuda Principles offer a model for how shared
204 financial burdens can be converted into a shared knowledge resource^{58,59}. Competing with
205 Craig Venter's commercial sequencing project, the Bermuda Principles stipulated that large-
206 scale publicly-funded human genome sequencing would be "freely available and in the public
207 domain in order to encourage research and development and to maximise its benefit to
208 society"⁶⁰. Such transparency and openness hastened knowledge of much more than just the
209 human genome (e.g., mouse and *C. elegans*), while also protecting against the patenting of
210 every sequencing effort⁵⁸.

211 Just like the Human Genome Project, the proposed Institute can offer a networking role for
212 academic and non-academic antimicrobials' research. The Institute can be a nucleating point
213 for antibiotic R&D researchers to declare their research intentions, thereby minimising
214 replication of effort, leveraging existing knowledge, and sparking collaboration. It would also
215 greatly facilitate the efficient horizontal integration of drug development efforts with equally
216 important R&D on improved bacterial diagnostics and antibiotic alternatives, including
217 vaccines. This effort would be open-ended to ensure sustainable and equitable development
218 of a steady stream of new drugs for generations and not just as a stopgap to ensure antibiotic
219 availability for the immediate future.

220 Implementation of an ‘Open Source Pharma’ system (Panel 3), could be greatly hastened by
221 the wholesale public purchase of existing commercial antibiotic pipelines, thereby
222 (inter)nationalising efforts, removing ineffective forms of proprietary development, and
223 publicly pooling decades of knowledge about promising compounds⁶¹. At an estimated cost
224 of less than \$5 billion (K. Outtersson, personal communication), existing antibiotic pipelines
225 would also cost considerably less than what would be required to finance current pull
226 incentives⁶².

Panel 3

In accordance with the principles of the Open Source Pharma (OSP) movement and the April 2019 UN IACG call for governmental production and supply of strategic antimicrobials^{6,75}, two interconnected solutions emerge to reinvent the antibiotic pipeline: (1) pooling national resources to create a ring-fenced (protected/guaranteed) long-term international R&D Institute to manage, actively develop, and roll out new antibiotics as well as secure existing human capital and expertise (see Singer, Kirchhelle & Roberts 2019)⁷⁶; (2) using public money to acquire existing on-patent and prospective antibiotics, antibiotic development infrastructures, compound libraries, and research platforms⁷⁷.

227

228 Viability

229 There is clear evidence that not-for-profit public drug development and production can be
230 effective and equitable. State financing, management, and – in several cases – ownership of
231 the infrastructures used to discover, trial, and rollout promising compounds underpinned
232 important phases of antimalarial and antibiotic development on both sides of the Iron Curtain.
233 In the case of penicillin, the Allies pooled national resources to develop, upscale, and rollout
234 a promising novel and unpatented compound. Within half a decade of basic research starting

235 in Oxford, UK, the Allies were producing enough penicillin to supply the entire D-Day
236 landing force. A large part of modern vaccine development was also driven not by private,
237 but by state institutes or institutes funded by public subscription. In the case of antimalarials,
238 state-funded military research produced important current compounds⁶³⁻⁶⁷.

239 Examples of successful not-for-profit funding also encompass the present. Although it does
240 not develop new compounds, Civica Rx has emerged as a novel not-for-profit generic drug
241 company in response to medication shortages and high prices in the U.S.^{68,69}. Civica Rx is
242 made up of seven healthcare organizations, representing about 500 U.S. hospitals. It will
243 either directly manufacture generic drugs or sub-contract manufacturing to contract
244 manufacturing organizations, giving Civica Rx members reliable access to affordable generic
245 medication.

246 Our proposed model of ring-fenced international funding for drug development is already
247 working in other fields. International partnerships such as the Climate Investment Fund, the
248 Global Environment Facility, the Green Climate Fund, and the Multilateral Fund for the
249 Implementation of the Montreal Protocol have successfully harnessed multi-lateral resources
250 to protect global commons⁵⁴.

251 Recent large-scale international science projects also demonstrate the capacity of the global
252 community to generate significant long-term funding for basic and applied research as well as
253 the ability to coordinate work effectively across a wide range of countries (Table 4)⁵⁴. It is
254 not far-fetched to think that similar ring-fenced funding systems would work effectively for
255 international public antibiotic development and ownership.

256

257

Table 4. International funding of large-scale collaborative science projects	
Project	Cost (US\$)
Square Kilometre Array radio telescope	\$1.5-2 billion
Human Genome Project	\$3 billion
Large Hadron Collider	\$4.4 billion
International Thermonuclear Experimental Reactor	\$50 billion
International Space Station	\$150 billion

258

259 There are multiple ways of financing internationalised antibiotic R&D. The most traditional
260 way consists of fixed government contributions to finance internationalised R&D efforts. In
261 2012, the WHO’s Consultative Expert Working Group recommended a commitment of
262 0.01% of GDP from WHO member states, which would already raise \$4-5 billion per year if
263 only OECD countries participated⁵⁴. In recent years, other reports have proposed additional
264 models of co-financed antibiotic R&D. In 2015, a Chatham House Report suggested a range
265 of possible funding sources and mechanisms including an airline tax⁵⁴. UNITAID, for
266 example, raised \$1.408 billion through an airline tax for the treatment of HIV/AIDS, malaria,
267 and tuberculosis. An additional Chatham House proposal was to allocate 10-20% of national
268 antibiotic expenditures as a kind of ‘insurance’ towards the future of antibiotics. An
269 equivalent investment by the U.S. would be approx. \$6 per resident and yield \$2 billion;
270 when combined with EU investments, this insurance could amount to \$3 billion per year⁵⁴.
271 Other authors have proposed a fee on nonhuman antibiotic use to minimise global drug
272 consumption and subsidise antibiotic R&D efforts⁷⁰⁷¹.

273 In addition to taxation, antibiotic usage fees, and insurance payments, the 2016 AMR Review
274 proposed a ‘pay or play’ model. Since a large part of medical procedures and treatments rely
275 on antibiotic efficacy, the pharmaceutical sector as a whole should contribute to the
276 development of new antibiotics⁴⁹. The international community and individual governments

277 could mandate an ‘antibiotic charge’ for firms selling healthcare products and pool resulting
278 revenues to finance R&D and push-pull incentives like market entry rewards. Charges could
279 be reduced for companies already investing in antibiotic R&D. Ideally, ‘pay or play’ models
280 could simultaneously finance public R&D efforts and stimulate private re-investment without
281 burdening tax payers⁴⁹.

282 \$4-5 billion per year resulting from a 0.01% GDP contribution by OECD countries would not
283 only be sufficient to significantly boost R&D into new compounds but could also buy out
284 large parts of the stalled commercial antibiotic pipeline within two years. According to the
285 2016 O’Neill Report, \$1.6 – 3.7 billion per year for 10 years could already deliver a
286 comprehensive package of interventions to radically overhaul the antibiotics pipeline⁴⁹.

287 The required investments in antibiotic R&D are remarkably small when compared to other
288 recent public interventions into failing market mechanisms. In 2008, the US government’s
289 Troubled Asset Relief Program (TARP) mobilised \$426.4 billion of taxpayers’ money to
290 ‘bail out the banks’⁷². More recently, Ofwat, the economic regulator of the water sector in
291 England and Wales, called for extra investment by the water industry of £6 million a day for
292 five years to improve the environment and provide services for a growing population⁷³. This
293 equates to £11 billion (\$13.73 billion US) over five years, all of which, ultimately, comes
294 from the relatively small English and Welsh publics. In comparison to the funds mobilised to
295 maintain banking and water services, the volume of public funding required to maintain basic
296 chemotherapeutic services during a time of antimicrobial crisis is relatively minor.

297 Public investment in publicly-owned antimicrobial commons would also yield measurable
298 financial and health returns. Recuperation of initial investments can be quantified through
299 shared ownership of the pipeline and the value associated with serendipitous discoveries that
300 would otherwise be patented by the private sector. The investment in skills and knowledge
301 are hard to quantify, but the capacity to sustainably deliver efficacious drugs into the future

302 will have societal value through higher quality of life, reduced hospital stays, and medical
303 bills. Perhaps most importantly, the not-for-profit nature of the Institute and the at-cost
304 provision of drugs to members would significantly reduce expenditure on antimicrobials in
305 high- and medium-income countries, create strong membership incentives, deter attempts to
306 free-ride, and enable affordable antibiotic access programs for the poorest parts of the world
307 – in perpetuity.

308 While the urgency of the AMR crisis and decades of failed commercial solutions underline
309 the need for an (inter)nationalisation of R&D, reinventing the international antibiotic pipeline
310 should, however, not lead to a research monoculture. There are advantages in maintaining a
311 diverse research portfolio, which can also comprise commercial components. Building on
312 existing entities like CARB-X, public funds could still be used to incentivise bottom-up
313 private antibiotic R&D via market entry rewards or patent buyouts. Limited competition
314 between non-profit organisations or public utilities over antibiotic development and
315 production might also be useful in maintaining pressure for efficient public R&D. We are
316 similarly not against private companies re-entering the antibiotic marketplace. Our proposed
317 publicly-funded R&D Institute is a response to lacking commercial interest and the use of
318 public money to subsidise for-profit development – not a condemnation of private innovation
319 *per se*. There are many opportunities in novel antibiotic development, particularly in HICs–
320 that preclude direct competition.

321 However, after three decades of stalled development, unequal drug access, and rising AMR,
322 it is time to rethink for-profit R&D as a default of antibiotic policy. Following Lord O’Neill’s
323 recent appeal to the G20,⁷⁴ the time for action is now. Our proposed R&D Institute might not
324 be the most expensive international call to action, but it can arguably make a critical
325 contribution to maintaining global control of infectious disease.

326

327 Conclusion

328 Our proposals here are focused on developing new broad and long-term approaches to
329 international antibiotic development. The cost of research efforts, the global scale of AMR,
330 and ongoing access issues necessitate an internationalised, integrated, and equitable approach
331 to drug research, ownership, and stewardship. While a short-term intensification of public-
332 private sponsorship is necessary to protect existing investments and prevent a global loss of
333 antibiotic R&D expertise, we believe that public ownership of antibiotic R&D is a more
334 attractive, sustainable and equitable medium- to long-term solution to refilling the stalling
335 antibiotic pipeline. Boosting public investment and (inter)nationalising antibiotic
336 development infrastructures will improve health outcomes and maximise the societal yield of
337 spending on antibiotic compounds and expertise. Antimicrobials remain essential workhorses
338 for the functioning of global health care and food production systems. Ensuring that humanity
339 retains access to a sustainable pipeline for new drugs requires us to think beyond
340 conventional models of proprietary development.

341

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