1 **TITLE:** From the European Medicines Agency to Project Orbis: New activities and 2 challenges to facilitate UK Oncology Drug Approval following Brexit

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47 Summary

48 The departure of the UK from the European Union (EU) and affiliated European 49 regulatory bodies on the 31st December 2020, including the European Medicines 50 Agency, (EMA), has resulted in the Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory 51 Agency (MHRA) becoming an independent national regulator. This has required a 52 fundamental transformation of the UK drug regulatory landscape, creating both 53 opportunities and challenges for future oncology drug development. New UK 54 pharmaceutical policy has sought to establish the UK as an attractive market for drug 55 development and regulatory review, by offering expedited review pathways coupled to 56 strong collaborative relations with other leading international medicines regulators, 57 outside of Europe. Oncology is a key global therapy area for both drug development 58 and regulatory approval, and the UK government has been keen to demonstrate 59 regulatory innovation and international collaboration in the approval of new cancer 60 medicines. In this review, we examine the new UK regulatory frameworks, policies, 61 and global collaborations affecting new oncology drug approvals following departure from the EU. We explore some of the challenges which may lie ahead as the UK forges 62 63 ahead with new and independent regulatory review and approval processes for the 64 next generation of cancer medicines.

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67 **MANUSCRIPT:**

69 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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71 The United Kingdom (UK) formally left the European Union (EU) on 31st January 2020 72 (Brexit). Following a short transition period, ending on 31st December 2020, the UK 73 withdrew from participating EU institutions, including the European Medicines Agency 74 (EMA), leaving the Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA) as 75 the UK's standalone medicine and medical device regulator. The departure from the EU 76 has necessitated significant healthcare reform in the UK. New government policy has 77 consistently focused on transforming the UK into a 'life sciences superpower', capitalising 78 on the UK's strong science base and previous track record in delivering timely innovations 79 (e.g. COVID-19 vaccines)^{1,2}. A central tenet of these new policies is establishing the UK 80 as an attractive market for new drug development by forging greater international 81 collaboration, beyond the EU, and offering expedited regulatory review³. Effective and 82 efficient medicine regulation by the MHRA is fundamental for realising this ambition, and 83 new oncology drug approvals are at the forefront of this.

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85 All medicine regulation in the UK had been subject to European Law since 1973. 86 However, following the outcome of the EU membership referendum in 2016, the UK has 87 become a designated 'third country' (outside EU and European Economic Community) 88 with EU pharmaceutical law ceasing to apply, except for Northern Ireland (NI) which under 89 the Ireland/Northern Ireland protocol continues under EU jurisdiction ⁴. To replace EU 90 pharmaceutical law, the UK has enacted the Medicines and Medical Device (MMD) Act 91 to regulate human medicines, veterinary medicines and medical devices⁵. MMD has 92 provided a crucial step towards forging an independent regulatory landscape and new pharmaceutical policies following Brexit ⁶. 93

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95 Decoupling of the MHRA from the EMA infrastructure has presented both significant 96 opportunities and challenges for medicines review in the UK. A key focus of new UK 97 pharmaceutical policy is accelerating regulatory review and drug approval. To enable this, 98 the MHRA has launched multiple new marketing authorization application (MAA)

99 assessment routes (outlined in **table 1**), and is fostering greater collaboration (see **table** 100 **2**) with other international regulators (e.g. Project Orbis) outside the EU to accelerate the 101 regulatory review of new medicines, whilst retaining full independence in all approval 102 decisions⁷. Expedited approval of the next generation of new cancer medicines is viewed 103 as a key pillar of this new policy^{8,9}. However, despite the rhetoric around the potential 104 benefits this may afford for cancer patients, significant challenges in terms of ensuring 105 appropriate access and reimbursement remain.

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107 This policy review focuses on new UK medicines regulatory frameworks, global 108 collaborations and policies affecting new oncology drug approvals in place following 109 the departure from the EU. We explore the potential opportunities and challenges of 110 these new frameworks for cancer medicines, as the UK forges ahead with new 111 independent regulatory review and approval processes.

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2. Forging Greater International Collaboration

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115 One of the first steps taken by the MHRA following the end of the UK-EU transition period 116 was joining Project Orbis and commencing work-sharing with the ACCESS Consortium 117 (AC)^{8,10}. Both collaborations (**table 2**) bring together the most powerful and influential 118 global medicine regulators (e.g., FDA, Health Canada), with the goal of evaluating new 119 drugs concurrently to expedite multi-geographic approval. Project Orbis has a remit 120 limited to oncology therapies, but the AC review can assess marketing authorization 121 applications in any therapeutic area(s), although oncology has been the previously 122 dominant area.

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124 2.1 Project Orbis

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126 This global collaborative program launched by the US Food and Drug Administration 127 (FDA) Oncology Centre of Excellence in May 2019 aims to speed up patient access to 128 new cancer medicines, both in the USA and internationally, through a framework of 129 parallel regulatory submission and review^{11,12}. Previously, the FDA would typically

130 receive new oncology drug applications first, with other national regulators waiting months (or years) before MAAs are submitted^{13–16}. To facilitate faster international access, the 131 132 FDA works alongside other selected regulators in the evaluation of new oncology 133 therapies, permitting a collaborative review. The FDA is the principal partner for all 134 reviews, with evidence that it typically reaches a regulatory decision before other partners, 135 however a central credo remains that each regulator retains full independence regarding 136 regulatory decision-making and is not obliged, in principle, to follow decisions made by 137 other partners^{11,17}.

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139 Currently there are seven global regulatory Project Orbis partners from the UK, Australia, 140 Canada, Singapore, Switzerland, Brazil and Israel^{8,11,12}. Participation of the FDA and at 141 least one other regulatory partner is necessary for review via this pathway. Selection of 142 medicines is determined by the FDA, however, other partners may propose drugs for 143 inclusion. The submission type determines the degree of potential collaboration between 144 the FDA and Project Orbis Partner(s) (table 2). Type A (regular Orbis), concurrent or 145 near-concurrent (within 30-days) MAA submission to regulators, and Type B (modified 146 Orbis), delay between 30-days to 3 months of MAA submission between FDA and partner 147 agency, both permit concurrent review, though Type A permits maximal collaboration and 148 the possibility of concurrent regulatory action. Type C (Written report only Orbis) 149 submissions, occurring only after the FDA has taken definitive regulatory action, is 150 restricted to the sharing of completed regulatory documents from the FDA only. New 151 oncology medicines must meet eligibility for the FDA expedited approval program, Priority 152 Review, to be considered for Project Orbis¹². This framework shortens FDA review time 153 to 6 months from the standard 10 months and is designed for drugs which treat serious 154 conditions and/or offer significant improvement, although not explicitly defined, in 155 effectiveness or safety over existing care¹⁸. The MHRA specifies that for inclusion in 156 Project Orbis, MAAs must meet the qualifying criteria for the Innovative Licensing and 157 Access Pathway⁸.

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In the first year of activity (preceding MHRA participation) Project Orbis supported 60 new
 oncology MAAs, resulting in 38 new oncology therapy approvals across partner

161 countries¹¹. In the first year of MHRA participation, 6 new oncology drugs/indications 162 have been approved in the UK via this pathway, with a similar trend for 2022¹⁷. The most 163 frequent submission category has been Type B (8 submissions) followed by Type A (7 164 submissions) and Type C (6 submissions). The first MAA to be approved was the 165 supplementary indication for osimertinib (May 2021) as adjuvant treatment for epidermal growth factor receptor mutated non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) ^{19,20}. The first new 166 167 drug (initial indication) approved was sotorasib (September 2021) for 2nd line treatment of KRAS G12C-mutated metastatic NSCLC ²¹. Both approvals preceded EMA market 168 169 authorization, and each manufacturer reached agreements with National Health Service 170 (NHS) England to permit patients access prior to formal National Institute for Health and 171 Care Excellence (NICE) review ^{22,23}. The next UK approval was for sacituzumab govitican 172 in breast cancer, however despite UK regulatory approval, a reimbursement agreement 173 was not initially reached²⁴. All new cancer drugs reviewed by Project Orbis were approved 174 by the UK before the EU, by a median of 3 months, but after the FDA had approved them 175 (median 5 month delay).

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177 2.2 ACCESS Consortium

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The ACCESS Consortium (AC) predates Project Orbis by 12 years and is a coalition of medium-sized 'like-minded' regulatory authorities working together to '*provide faster access to safe, effective and high-quality medicines*' ²⁵.The original consortium was formed in 2007 and has expanded to include regulators from Australia, Canada, Singapore, Switzerland and the UK, now representing a collective population of 150 million people ²⁵.

The AC is committed to maximising collaboration by aligning regulatory approaches and facilitating simultaneous review to provide more timely access to new medicines, across all therapeutic areas. Echoing Project Orbis, each regulator makes its own decisions and is not bound to those of others¹⁰. New MAAs must be submitted simultaneously to at least two AC members²⁶. Work-sharing concludes at the end of the MAA evaluation phase, as each regulator will progress independently towards making a final determination^{10,26}. This

model of work-sharing is being reviewed by other national regulators to see if it is anexemplar for sharing resources across regions.

193 The AC has been active in supporting the regulatory approval of new cancer medicines,

194 however all pre-date MHRA participation^{7,27}. Currently, only one new non-oncology

195 medicine (faricimab) has been approved in the UK via this route. This compares to 11

196 new cancer drugs/indications approved by Project Orbis, suggesting this latter pathway

197 will be the dominant collaborative route for new cancer drug approvals in the UK¹⁷.

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3. Faster Drug Approval Routes

3.1 'Reliance' Procedures

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201 Project Orbis and the ACCESS consortium, reflect new UK policy, accelerated by Brexit, 202 to establish itself as a priority country for new medicine approval for drug developers by 203 offering accelerated routes for regulatory review and market authorization³. Initially the 204 MHRA has maintained pre-Brexit levels of regulatory support in key areas, by echoing 205 EMA regulatory practices and putting 'reliance' procedures in place²³. However, greater 206 focus is now being placed on new regulatory pathways (**Table 1**), such as the Innovative 207 Licensing and Access Pathway, accelerated assessment and rolling reviews, with the goal of achieving faster regulatory review ^{28–30}. The UK now has a complex, interlocking 208 209 set of procedures and pathways germane to oncology (reviewed below).

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213 Post-Brexit, the MHRA has developed 'reliance routes' permitting a shortened 214 assessment procedure for new medicines appraised by EU centralised, decentralised, and mutual recognition procedures³¹. In these situations, the MHRA relies on analysis 215 216 and decisions by the EMA to approve new medicines. Regulatory reliance, a principle 217 supported by the World Health Organisation (WHO) to improve the availability globally of 218 new medicines, between the MHRA and the EMA could significantly mitigate the potential 219 impact of Brexit in the approval of new cancer medicines and beyond. Therefore, the 220 MHRA has put two independent reliance pathways (table 1) in place, the EC Decision 221 Reliance Procedure (ECDRP) for drugs approved by central EU review and the 222 Decentralised and Mutual Recognition Reliance Procedure (MRDCRP) for drugs 223 approved in EU member states through decentralised and mutual recognition 224 procedures^{31,32}.

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- **3.2 Conditional Marketing Authorizations**
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The MHRA has also introduced a Conditional Marketing Authorisation (CMA) pathway for new drugs³³. This framework maintains continuity with the EMA framework (**table 1**) of

230 the same name and is intended for new therapies which address significant 'unmet 231 medical needs', such as serious or life-threatening diseases where no satisfactory 232 treatments exist ³⁴. Drugs must demonstrate preliminary evidence judged to be 'highly 233 significant', with comprehensive clinical data permitting full regulatory approval not yet 234 available but likely to be soon³³. CMAs are valid for one-year and renewable annually or 235 when clinical benefit is determined. Parallels have been drawn between CMA and FDA 236 Accelerated Approval (AA) pathways, as both permit earlier regulatory approval on 237 preliminary results and require further confirmatory clinical evidence to be converted to 238 standard approval at a later timepoint³⁵. However, there are some notable differences. 239 AA is granted on the basis of effect on a "surrogate end point that is reasonably likely to 240 predict clinical benefit', most typically Overall Response Rate (ORR), whilst CMAs rely on a 'benefit/risk assessment' based on less comprehensive clinical data than normally 241 242 required, where the benefit of immediate availability outweighs the risk inherent in the fact 243 that additional data is required. CMAs have a narrower focus, being restricted to initial 244 MAAs only, unlike AA which can be used for both initial and supplementary MAAs. 245 partially accounts for higher usage of FDA AA compared to EMA and MHRA CMAs³⁵. 246 The first CMA to be granted in the UK was for tepotinib in NSCLC, notably this was also 247 approved by Project Orbis demonstrating the overlapping functionality of different new 248 regulatory pathways.¹⁷.

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In parallel the MHRA has maintained the existing EMA scheme for market authorization under 'exceptional circumstances', for a small number of medicines where comprehensive data cannot be provided, because the condition is rare, or collection of information is not possible or unethical³³. This scheme will maintain the same eligibility criteria as the EMA, considering other regulators decisions, but with the MHRA making the final determination.

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3.3 Innovative Licensing and Access Pathway

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A new regulatory pathway, called the Innovative Licensing and Access Pathway (ILAP) was launched in January 2021 with the aim of accelerating the time-to-market for

261 innovative medicines, facilitating earlier patient access²⁸. Core design elements were 262 inspired by the success of the Research to Access Pathway for Investigational Drugs for 263 COVID-19 (RAPID C-19), which provided prompt access to life-saving treatments (e.g. 264 tocilizumab) during the pandemic ³⁶. The ILAP is open to both commercial and non-265 commercial (e.g. academic) sponsors, and aims to streamline patient access to safe, 266 financially sustainable and innovative medicines, allowing drug developers end-to-end 267 integrated regulatory support, from preclinical development to market authorization 268 (figure 1). ILAP designation is uniquely applied to a specific molecule or therapy, rather 269 than an indication, allowing developers an opportunity to glean early regulatory insight 270 into clinical positioning and probable approval success. Criteria (table 3) include 271 demonstrating the medicinal product has the 'potential to offer benefits to patients, 272 including proposed improved efficacy and safety, and contribution to patient care or 273 quality of life'. Therefore the ILAP pathway may afford an opportunity to incorporate 274 patient reported outcomes (PROs) and value-based frameworks, such as the European 275 Society for Medical Oncology Magnitude of Clinical Benefit Scale (ESMO-MCBS) to help 276 discriminate new medicinal products associated with clinically relevant benefits from 277 those which offer only marginal improvements over existing treatments^{37,38}. Furthermore, 278 this pathway features early access to key stakeholders beyond the regulator, including 279 patient advocacy organisation, allowing the 'patient voice' to be embedded in the regulatory process, and health technology assessment (HTA) bodies^{28,39}. 280 Earlier 281 engagement of NICE, or other HTA organisation, aims to 'smooth the journey' through clinical trials to the NHS²⁸. 282

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The first step in the ILAP is developing an 'Innovation Passport' (IP) ²⁸. Sponsors, particularly at an early stage of drug development, will explore with the MHRA to determine if their Investigational Medicinal Product (IMP) qualifies for ILAP/IP designation. If granted, the developer and MHRA will create a 'Targeted Development Profile (TPD), similar to the WHO 'Target Product Profiles', this will provide a 'productspecific roadmap' with the goal of achieving early regulatory approval and patient access^{40,41}. The TDP offers access to specialist toolkits which can be utilised to ensure

development is efficient and 'regulation and access ready'. ILAP designation is also a
 mandatory stipulation for oncology drugs to be reviewed via Project Orbis⁸.

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294 The first ILAP/IP designation was granted to belzutifan in February 2021 for the treatment 295 of Von Hippel-Lindau disease-associated tumours⁴². This received UK market 296 authorization only 15-months later (May 2022), demonstrating how this pathway can 297 expedite approval. Furthermore, belzutifan was also approved via Project Orbis, 298 demonstrating the compatibility, and acceptance, of this pathway by other global 299 regulators⁴³. The MHRA does not currently publish information on therapies granted 300 ILAP/IP review status, however reports receiving 5-6 IP applications monthly, with 41 301 ILAP/IP designations granted out of 71 applications received during 2021⁴⁴. The highest 302 proportion of applications are for new oncology drugs, therefore this pathway is likely to 303 be highly significant for new cancer medicines.

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3.4 Other Key Regulatory Review Pathways

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Accelerated Assessment; In January 2021, the MHRA developed a new accelerated assessment route offering a 150-day assessment timeline focused on accelerating regulatory approval of new medicines³⁰. This program shares similarities with the EMA Accelerated Assessment and FDA Priority Review pathways which also offers a reduced review timeframe^{18,45}. However, compared to the EMA pathway, this regulatory route is broader in scope, with less restrictive eligibility, being considered for 'all high-quality new MAAs'³⁰.

Rolling Review (RR); A new pathway, set up in January 2021, which permits quality, non-clinical or clinical data to be submitted and reviewed in increments as it becomes available. This route is intended to streamline the development of novel medicines by offering periodic regulatory interactions, minimising risk of failure during regulatory assessments. It can be used for any therapy area and can operate independently or synergistically with other regulatory frameworks (e.g. ILAP). Other regulators offer similar

processes, but typically with limited focus. For example, the FDA offers 'Real-Time
 Oncology Reviews (RTOR)' which facilitates review of new cancer medicines⁴⁶.

322 Early Access to Medicines Scheme (EAMS); This scheme, initially launched in 2014, 323 permits early patient access to IMPs nearing the end of clinical development in areas of 324 high unmet medical need when a major advantage over existing therapies is demonstrated ^{28,47}. EAMS bridges the gap between an IMP completing positive clinical 325 326 trials and becoming a UK authorised medicine and differs from the ILAP, which is focused 327 on development (table 1) rather than access. EAMS has provided early access to 328 numerous oncology drugs, for example, facilitating access to pembrolizumab for >500 329 patients with advanced melanoma before regulatory approval. The MHRA has expressed 330 a desire to develop this pathway further, increasing the scope of activity.

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3.5 Northern Ireland MHRA Authorised Route

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333 The protocol on Ireland/Northern Ireland forms part of the Brexit agreement that 334 established the UK's withdrawal terms from the EU^{48,49}. EU pharmaceutical law now only 335 applies to the UK in respect of NI. This ties NI to EMA regulatory determinations, with the 336 rest of the UK following MHRA decisions. In March 2020, the divergence in regulatory 337 framework became a significant flashpoint in the impact of Brexit on NI, when the MHRA 338 approved osimertinib as adjuvant therapy in NSCLC before the EMA⁵⁰. Highlighting how 339 every time a new drug is approved in the UK, it will not automatically mean it is approved 340 and available for use in NI.

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342 Following discussions between the EU and UK regarding the NI protocol, the European 343 Commission has put forward proposals to stop drug access disparity, particularly around 344 'innovative life-saving medicines'⁵¹. It advises adopting a 'bridging solution' that '*will allow* 345 any new medicine authorized in the UK to be supplied to Northern Ireland, until the 346 relevant authorisation is also given in the EU⁵². The recently introduced 'Northern Ireland 347 MHRA Authorised Route' (NIMAR) should ensure that patients in NI, have access to new 348 medicines at the same time as patients in the rest of the UK, even if not approved by the 349 EMA, in the future⁵³.

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4. Post-Brexit UK Healthcare Policy

New UK government policy is committed to establishing the UK as a 'life sciences superpower' ^{1,2}. Beyond greater international regulatory collaboration and faster routes for drug approval, new policy seeks to place greater emphasis on the role of patients in

355 for drug approval, new policy seeks to place greater emphasis on the role of patients in 356 UK drug development and regulatory approval, highlighted in the first post-brexit MHRA 357 delivery plan. Furthermore, following the deleterious impact of the COVID-19 pandemic 358 on clinical research, the UK government has enacted new policy to re-ignite this arena, 359 with a focus on driving innovation and collaboration, whilst removing potential red-tape 360 and barriers to research. These new policies will have significant direct and indirect 361 effects on new oncology research and therapy development and are important to 362 consider.

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4.1 MHRA Delivery Plan 2021-23

366 In July 2021, the MHRA published its first post-Brexit delivery plan 'Putting Patients first: 367 a New Era for our Agency (PPF)'⁵⁴. Following the departure from the EU, PPF outlines 368 the agency's goal to 'seize the opportunities to evolve the existing regulatory framework 369 and keep pace with fast-moving life science developments'³. PPF draws on the findings 370 of Baroness Cumberlege's Independent Medicines and Medical Devices safety review, 371 which chronicled the failure of regulators, alongside those of healthcare professionals, to 372 tackle years of patient harm from medical treatments⁵⁵. This report proposed the MHRA 373 "invite representatives of those who report adverse events (both patients and healthcare 374 professionals) to be involved in evaluating and making decisions on specific safety 375 concerns". In response, PPF proposes including patients in all key decision-making 376 committees via new regulatory frameworks, and including PROs as a key aspect of 377 clinical trial governance^{3,56}. We propose that the MHRA should also build stronger 378 alliances with healthcare professionals directly involved in clinical trial safety reporting, 379 collecting the experiences of patients participating in clinical trials. In oncology this could 380 be achieved easily by building upon partnerships with healthcare professionals within the

Experimental Cancer Medicine Centre (ECMC) network, a Cancer Research UK/National
 Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) funded consortium of academic drug
 development units.

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385 PPF complements the aims of the UK Government to transform the nation into a 'life
 386 sciences superpower' by establishing closer engagement with life science partners,

387 academic and commercial, to develop innovative healthcare products, especially in the 388 early developmental stages (e.g. ILAP). Fulfilling the objectives of PPF could have wide-389 reaching implications for new oncology therapy development, including overhauling 390 clinical trial design to welcome novel trial designs that support more rapid and efficient 391 patient recruitment. Currently more than one in four cancer trials fail to enrol sufficient 392 participants, with 18% of trials closing with less than half the target number of patients 393 recruited, therefore new strategies are welcome ⁵⁷. Additional objectives include use of 394 international partnerships (e.g. Project Orbis) to provide faster access to next generation 395 cancer medicines and incorporating real-world evidence (RWE) to support regulatory applications (e.g. EAMS) ^{3,10,25,47}. However, to date RWE has failed to deliver on its 396 397 promise of high quality clinical data reflecting the need to revitalise the whole RWE 398 ecosystem for cancer ⁵⁸. PPF is focused on 'prioritising activities that add real value for 399 patients', and for cancer medicines this may include an opportunity to incorporate PROs 400 and value-based frameworks (e.g. ESMO-MCBS) to ensure that newly approved cancer 401 medicines deliver meaningful benefits for patients in terms of overall survival and quality 402 of life⁵⁴. This may also provide a stronger emphasis on embedded socio-economic 403 studies to support pricing, reimbursement and Health Technology Assessment (HTA) 404 determinations, downstream.

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4.2 UK Clinical Research Delivery

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In March 2021, the UK government published a new policy, 'Saving and Improving
Lives: The Future of UK Clinical Research Delivery', describing the vision for clinical
research delivery (2022-25) ⁵⁹. This aims to provide a 'research reset' after the COVID19 pandemic. Core themes echo other post-Brexit policies, with a focus on driving

412 clinical research innovation and collaboration between key stakeholders (patients, 413 healthcare professionals and regulators). This seeks to build on innovations gleaned 414 during the pandemic, such as delivering platform trials (e.g. RECOVERY trial) and, 415 again, focusing on faster clinical trial authorisation. This will also potentially have 416 significant implications for oncology research over the next decade, with a focus on 417 wider participation and engagement, combined with further innovations to reduce the 418 set-up time for new research.

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420 New cancer clinical trials should benefit from a combined application process for both 421 Clinical Trial Authorisation and Research Ethics Council, promising to significantly 422 shorten approval time⁶⁰. Specific focus has been placed on phase 1 oncology trials, 423 with the MHRA working with the ECMC to support faster set-up, targeting a delivery time within 80-days⁶⁰. Furthermore, building on the success of large precision medicine 424 425 studies, (e.g. National Lung Matrix trial), further emphasis will be placed on the 426 development of large technical complex innovatively designed cancer trials ^{61,62}. 427 Faster clinical trial set up and the ability to deliver technically challenging trials has the 428 potential to significantly enhance UK clinical cancer research, driving new cancer drug 429 development. However, such changes, in isolation, will not deliver a radical step 430 change without other major issues being addressed; the NHS capacity to conduct 431 cancer research in light of backlogs and human resource deficiencies, a wider cancer 432 research strategy to address the second translational gap (policy, services and 433 systems and implementation science), deliver clinical research in non-pharmaceutical 434 technologies, especially surgery and radiotherapy, and build in socio-economic studies 435 to inform delivery; and finally, a commitment to the principles of affordable, equitable 436 technologies that deliver clinically meaningful benefit.

437

438 **5.** Discussion

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Brexit has necessitated a fundamental transformation of the drug regulatory landscape
within the UK. As the sole decision-maker for the market authorization of new
medicines in the UK (except NI), the MHRA has focused on enhancing the double-

443 edged sword of innovation, committing to more drug discovery and development, and 444 faster regulatory review. Some existing EU regulatory frameworks have been retained 445 (e.g. CMA), signalling continued regulatory alignment with the EMA in some areas, 446 whilst in others new drug approval frameworks (e.g. ILAP) have been developed 447 focused on accelerating drug development innovation within the UK ^{28,33,34}. By joining 448 the AC and Project Orbis, the MHRA is reflecting a policy tilt toward greater global 449 regulatory cooperation beyond the EU. The most significant partnership for new cancer 450 drug development is Project Orbis which may signal closer alignment with US cancer 451 pharmaceutical policy¹⁷.

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453 Leaving the infrastructure of the EU and EMA has affected both drug development and 454 clinical trials in the UK. The MHRA has been able to rapidly re-join international 455 partnerships, such as the International Council on Harmonisation of Technical 456 Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use and the Medical Device 457 Innovation Consortium to resume its role in setting global standards for medicines and medical devices regulation and safety ⁶³. Following Brexit, the EU has implemented new 458 459 clinical trials regulations, synchronising conduct and reporting across all member countries with the aim of facilitating more pan-EU trials⁶⁴. This change, and the 460 461 implementation of new UK clinical research policies, will cause a significant divergence 462 in clinical trial harmonisation between the UK-EU, potentially making the conduct of 463 pan-European clinical trials more challenging. For example, the UK no longer has 464 access to the EU clinical trial registry (e.g., EudraCT, and the new EU Clinical Trial 465 Information System (CTIS), instead providing updates to the WHO registry (ISRCTN). which may limit the UK's ability to partner in pan-European trials⁶⁵. Reduced alignment 466 467 with the EU will disproportionately affect oncology, being the largest single therapy area 468 for clinical trials, both in Europe and the UK, accounting for over 1 in 4 of all clinical 469 trials⁶⁶. The UK is one of the leading European countries for early phase oncology 470 trials and has been highly successful in cell and gene therapy clinical trials (accounting 471 for 9% of all global advanced therapy medicinal products (ATMP) trials), emerging as a global leader^{65,67}. Policy divergence between the EU and UK may significantly disrupt 472 473 this status. Further, as greater emphasis is placed by global regulators (e.g. FDA), on

474 the use of 'multi-regional' clinical trials to support oncology approvals, lack of 475 harmonisation with the EU may ultimately affect the UK's ability to participate in key 476 pivotal licensing trials, and steps are required by the UK government and MHRA to 477 maintain the current status to support cross EU-UK clinical trials^{68,69}. With the UK 478 poised to 'declare a war on cancer' through a new ambitious 10-year Cancer plan, akin 479 to the US Cancer Moonshot and the EU Mission on Cancer, synergy could be gained 480 by expanding, rather than reducing, regulatory and research engagement with the EU⁷⁰. 481

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483 The biggest area for global drug development is oncology. In 2021, more new oncology 484 therapies were approved in Europe and the US than the next four largest therapy areas disease, cardiovascular disease, 485 (infectious haematology, and psychiatry) 486 combined^{71,72}. The US and EU dominate the global pharmaceutical market, accounting 487 for 46% and 25% respectively of total medicine expenditure⁷³. In comparison, the UK 488 accounts for 2.4% of this market, meaning other higher revenue markets could be 489 prioritised by drug developers^{1,74}. To prevent this, the UK cannot afford to substantially 490 differentiate regulatory processes, a key point echoed by The Association of the British 491 Pharmaceutical Industry (ABPI)¹. Collaboration through regulatory partnerships (e.g. 492 Project Orbis), are critical to ensuring the UK remains at the forefront of access to the 493 next generation of cancer therapies. With the global oncology market expected to double 494 in size by 2030, with fastest growth predicted in Europe, the UK should look to forge 495 stronger collaborative links with the EMA, ensuring the UK does not become a 'late launch' or 'no launch market at all' for prospective cancer drug developers^{1,74}. 496

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Regulatory alignment through Project Orbis with the FDA, and other partners, is permitting the earlier UK approval of new oncology drugs, frequently before EU authorisation¹⁷. Despite the benefit of earlier approval, there are other important sequelae to consider. The FDA frequently uses expedited pathways (74% of 2021 approvals), including AA, to approve new cancer therapies, with higher usage compared to the EMA (e.g. CMA). ^{13,71}. AA has permitted the expedited regulatory authorisation of highly transformative medicines, such as imatinib in chronic myelogenous leukaemia. However,

505 over the past decade the number of new cancer medicines approved via AA has 506 increased sharply, leading to concerns about the lower potential therapeutic value of new 507 drugs approved by this pathway, and the significant delays in the completion of 508 confirmatory studies ^{76–78}. An important consequence of early drug approval is greater 509 uncertainty regarding clinical benefit and safety, also once drugs are approved by AA, 510 rescinding market authorization can be problematic and delayed^{79–81}. A recent study of 511 18 indications for 10 cancer drugs granted AA but failing to meet primary endpoints in 512 post-approval confirmatory trials, have not had regulatory approval rescinded by the 513 FDA⁸². AA is already impacting UK oncology approvals. Tepotinib was approved by the 514 FDA via AA in February 2021, which was followed by MHRA approval via CMA in Sept 515 2021. Regulatory review was coordinated by Project Orbis, demonstrating a willingness 516 from the MHRA to embrace closer alignment with FDA expedited approval pathways, and 517 potentially wider US pharmaceutical policy. However, unlike FDA AA, the CMA framework 518 has a fixed approval expiry of 1-year and requires annual renewal, which should offer a 519 potential safeguard for timely withdrawal should a drug fail to demonstrate meaningful clinical benefit in confirmatory trials³³. Notably a similar proposal is being considered to 520 521 reform the FDA AA pathway⁸¹.

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523 In the UK regulatory approval alone is insufficient to ensure patient access. In England, 524 NICE is responsible for appraising the cost-effectiveness of new medicines to allow 525 access through the NHS. It aims to complete a health technology appraisal (HTA) within 526 90-days of regulatory approval. Project Orbis is significantly accelerating the earlier 527 regulatory approval of new cancer medicines¹⁷. In the first-year of MHRA participation, 528 new cancer therapies approved by this pathway received market authorization, a median 529 of 99 days earlier than corresponding EU approval. The delay between regulatory 530 approval and NICE opinion was estimated at 262 days, significantly exceeding the 90-531 day target¹⁷. When appraising the clinical benefit of newly approved drugs using the 532 ESMO-MCBS, a reproducible validated tool assessing the magnitude of clinical benefit of 533 new cancer therapies, only 50% of drugs were rated as giving 'substantial benefit'. This 534 suggests new cancer drugs with more marginal value are being approved, likely 535 compounding efforts to perform a HTA within this defined time limit³⁸. However, it is

536 important to consider that value-based frameworks, including the ESMO-MCBS, have 537 only limited application and utility for regulatory authorities (e.g, EMA) when conducting 538 a formal 'benefit-risk' assessment for regulatory approval^{17,37,38}. Despite the disconnection 539 between regulatory approval and HTA recommendation, most drugs (83%) were 540 accessible by patients shortly after regulatory approval through agreements between 541 manufacturers and NHS England. However, this was not ubiquitous (e.g. sacituzumab 542 govitecan) demonstrating a need for formal processes to ensure that drugs, particularly 543 those prioritised for expedited regulatory review, are readily accessible to patients 544 following approval. The ILAP framework promises to integrate earlier HTA review, which 545 could potentially mitigate this situation. However, this will only be used for selected 546 qualifying drugs, and in the case of belzutifan, the only oncology drug approved thus far 547 by this pathway, NICE recommendation is not expected until May 2023, 365 days after 548 regulatory approval by Project Orbis.

549 550

6. Conclusion

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552 The EU and EMA have been integral partners in the development and approval of new 553 UK oncology drugs for over three decades. Following the decision to leave the EU, the 554 UK is now forging new independent medicines policies, focused on fostering greater 555 collaboration and driving innovation in new cancer medicines development. New 556 international collaborations (e.g. Project Orbis) and new regulatory pathways (e.g. ILAP) 557 have the potential to accelerate new cancer drug approval, permitting earlier patient 558 access to cancer medicines. However, as regulatory approval is only one-step towards 559 patient access, greater focus should be placed on reducing the time intervals between 560 MHRA and NICE (or other HTA body) review, as is planned in the ILAP pathway.

561

562 Enthusiasm for faster drug development and approval needs to be tempered with the 563 reality that fast-tracking cancer medicines may simply add more medicines into the 564 market which may not necessarily deliver clinically meaningful benefit or value, whilst 565 adding issues of societal affordability and equity. Despite the quest for faster regulatory 566 approval, the main priority of any medicine's regulator is not simply to lower the bar to

- market access but to conduct meticulous reviews and approve only medicines deemed
 safe and effective. This is essential for ensuring the health and safety of cancer patients
 now and in the future.

Table & Figure Titles:

Table 1: Regulatory Review Routes available from the MHRA from 1st January 2021
 Table 2: New Collaborative Pathways available from the MHRA from 1st January 2021
 Figure 1: Implications for utilising Innovation Licensing and Access Pathway (ILAP) ⁸³
 Table 3: Innovation Licensing and Access Pathway (ILAP) Domains and Eligibility Criteria

Search strategy and selection criteria

Medical and healthcare policy articles were indexed from MEDLINE, PubMed, Cochrane, google scholar, EMBASE databases from January 2018 until June 2022. The UK government website, Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA), European Medicines Agency (EMA), European Commission (EC), and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) websites were also searched. Used search terms included 'oncology drugs', 'oncology therapies', 'Medicines and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency', 'MHRA', 'European Medicines Agency', 'EMA', 'UK', 'Brexit', 'Project Orbis', 'Access Consortium', 'Innovation Licensing and Access Pathway', 'ILAP', 'osimertinib', 'sortasib', 'sacituzumab govitecan'. Retrieved publications were manually screened for additional relevant references. Only articles available in English were considered for this policy review. Identified articles which did not include any reference to the 'UK', 'MHRA', 'EMA', 'EC' or 'FDA' were excluded from analysis by co-author consensus.

The majority of references included in this policy review were UK national reports, national cancer policies, and MHRA policy reports, all of which are publicly available. Additional references came from internationally relevant articles, including EC, EMA and WHO policy reports and position statements, also publicly available. Related articles, identified by searches of cancer-related journals (e.g., The Lancet Oncology), and articles published from the regional professional societies, such as the European Society of Medical Oncology (ESMO) were also included. The final reference list was selected on the basis of relevancy for this policy review with agreement of all co-authors.

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Conflicts of Interest

MPL, RS, JK, RM and JM have no declarations. AA declares (unrelated) research funding from the National Institute of Health. MB declares honoraria for lectures (unrelated) from Merck, GlaxoSmithKline, Kite Gilead, EUSA pharma. SB declares research grants (unrelated) from Nucana Plc, Astex, Nurix, Tesaro, Redx, MSD, UCB, Sarah Cannon, consulting fees (unrelated) from Ellipses, Amphista, RApportss, Theolytics, honoraria for lectures (unrelated) from Science Museum London, Cheltenham Science Festival, advisory board fees (unrelated) from UCB, Theolytics, Immunocore, and leadership (unrelated) of the LARP society.

Contributions

Conceptualisation - MPL, JK, RS Literature Search - MPL, JK, RS, SB Policy Analysis - All authors Writing - MPL, SB, AA, RS, SB Critical Feedback - All authors (acknowledgement to Professor Aaron Kesslheim (Harvard University)

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