

# 1 **Determinants of Clinician Adoption of Regenerative Therapies in the UK and** 2 **Canada: An Ophthalmology Perspective**

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## 4 **1. Summary**

5

6 **The determinants of adoption of regenerative medicine therapies are currently poorly**  
7 **understood. This study aims to draw comparison between the UK and Canada in terms of factors**  
8 **likely to affect healthcare adoption of future regenerative therapies in ophthalmology. Conducting**  
9 **semi-structured interviews with senior ophthalmologists in the UK and Canada, their perceptions**  
10 **of factors either enabling or limiting adoption were recorded and analysed. A number of key**  
11 **concepts were extracted from the interview data which were perceived by stakeholders to**  
12 **contribute to adoption. The core factors developed in this work will be of use to those looking to**  
13 **understand the opportunities and risks involved in securing clinician adoption in both the UK and**  
14 **Canada.**

## 15 **2. Keywords**

16 **Adoption, Reimbursement, UK, NHS, Canada, Ophthalmology, Translation**

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## 19 **3. Article**

### 20 **3.1 Introduction**

21 **Adoption of regenerative medicine (RM) therapies is relatively uncharted territory, with**  
22 **few approved demonstrators having secured reimbursement. In ophthalmology there are a**  
23 **variety of indications in which RM and more specifically cell therapy would offer very real**  
24 **benefit [1,2]. However, for these benefits to be realised, therapy developers must**

25 understand the drivers and potential determinants of uptake into healthcare. This will be  
26 critical to the development of the industry sector and core both to affording widespread  
27 patient access to these therapies, and in realising national economic benefit from attracting  
28 industry investment [3].

29 Healthcare markets around the world vary significantly in the way that healthcare is  
30 financed and delivered. Both the UK's National Health Service (NHS) and Canada's Medicare  
31 are well appreciated examples of "single-payer" healthcare systems in which healthcare is  
32 funded through taxation, and delivered through publicly governed providers [4]. The NHS  
33 has been characterised as a slow adopter of medical technologies, described to be behind  
34 many other countries in terms of the therapies it provides [5–7].

35 To understand if the market characteristics of the NHS are a consequence of its operation as  
36 a single-payer system, this work has attempted to draw comparisons with Canada. Canada  
37 has received more attention in recent years for its long waiting lists for elective surgeries  
38 and high prices paid for patented pharmaceuticals [8,9]. Both the UK and Canada are world  
39 leaders in the basic research of RM, with both countries' governments keen to gain  
40 economic benefit from commercially exploiting this exciting area of technology [10,11]

41 Ophthalmology has been a target area of particular interest to therapy developers for  
42 several reasons. The eye is a small, enclosed, largely immune-privileged organ, which allows  
43 relatively easy surgical access [12,13]. Transplant sites can be easily visualized on account of  
44 the organs transparency and functional responses to interventions in many cases can be  
45 measured non-invasively with confidence [14]. In addition, effective therapeutic doses of  
46 cells in ocular clinical indications are likely to be significantly lower than in other disease  
47 areas such as cardiac applications or diabetes [15]. The market opportunities for some

48 clinical indications in this space are also significant and for commercial developers could  
49 offer a “blockbuster” target [16]. For these reasons it is unsurprising that some of the first  
50 clinical trials involving the use of cells derived from embryonic stem cells [17] and induced  
51 pluripotent stem cells [18] have been in this clinical area.

52 This work aims to qualitatively compare the factors affecting or likely to affect the  
53 translation, early use and system-wide adoption of RM therapies in both the UK and  
54 Canada. The term *regenerative medicine* has been used throughout to describe advanced  
55 medicinal therapies based on gene therapy, cellular therapeutics and tissue engineering  
56 [10].

## 57 3.2 Methods

58 This study used a qualitative design based on “problem-centered interviews” (PCI) [19]. The  
59 data collection phase ran from Jan 2013 to Sept 2013. 22 consultant ophthalmologists with  
60 links to RM research programmes were contacted in both the UK and Canada. Respondents  
61 were interviewed face-to-face and in cases when this was not possible by telephone. 34  
62 candidates were invited for interview in the UK. 44 candidates were invited in Canada to  
63 reach an equal number of participants in both territories (11 participants).

### 64 3.2.1 Data Collection

65 An interview framework was developed using results from an unpublished literature review  
66 conducted at the start of this work. The interview framework was trialled on a small number  
67 of ophthalmologist volunteers, to ensure no areas of questioning were ambiguous or  
68 misleading. The 22 PCI lasted on 40 minutes on average and were recorded using an audio  
69 recorder.

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### 70 3.2.2 Data Processing

71 PCI recordings were transcribed verbatim from voice recordings producing 22 transcripts.  
72 Transcripts were interpreted by using the method of qualitative content analysis as  
73 described by Mayring [20]. In brief, interview transcripts were analysed together with the  
74 audio recording. A first pass of transcripts showed that participants' responses in PCI could  
75 be grounded in one of three potential phases relating to the use RM therapies in healthcare.  
76 These were *Translation; Early Use* and *System-wide Adoption*. Controlled interpretation was  
77 then applied to the categorized passages, paraphrasing and classifying with a code  
78 corresponding to a sub-theme. Interview transcripts were then compared with one another  
79 to further group sub-themes into descriptive factors, deemed important at a particular  
80 stage of the development process. A final controlling phase was performed to ensure that  
81 thematic categorization was justified and consistent between entire samples for both UK  
82 and Canadian participants. A semi-quantitative analysis of coded data was then carried out  
83 allowing a comparison of responses from UK and Canadian participants. This involved  
84 recording the frequency at which sub-theme codes were presented in each of the interviews  
85 referred to as the *grounded value* [21]. In addition, the most recurrent codes with the  
86 highest grounded values were broken down as either being a "barrier" or an "enabler" to  
87 RM adoption, in accordance to the context in which the respondent gave evidence.

88

### 89 3.3 Results and Discussion

90

91 Participants were approached both in Canada and the UK. Response rates were higher in the  
92 UK relative to Canada (Table 1). The UK sample covered clinicians working in a variety of

93 regions. The Canadian sample importantly covered clinicians from Alberta and British  
94 Columbia (BC); and Ontario. Higher response rates in the UK may have been on account of  
95 the familiarity of the UK participants with the authors' research group and institutions. The  
96 final 22 respondent convenience sample of ophthalmologists was drawn from those who  
97 had links to RM research programmes and naturally came from a number of institutions and  
98 regions. As might be expected there were differences in the responses given across the  
99 sample which appeared to be predicated on the types of institutions within which these  
100 ophthalmologists practiced. In general, respondents working for high profile research  
101 centres appeared to look favourably on the systems and processes which supported the  
102 adoption of new therapies. On the other hand, clinicians coming from smaller centres gave  
103 evidence that they were frustrated with the pace of change, the bureaucracy and the  
104 amount of justification required to adopt a therapy, which had been used effectively  
105 elsewhere.

106

### 107 **3.3.1 Stages of Adoption of Regenerative Medicine in Ophthalmology**

108 An area of common discussion throughout the interview process was where in the therapy  
109 development pathway participants responses were focussed. The transition of a therapy  
110 through research and development, clinical trials and into mainstream clinical use of course  
111 is not linear. Clinicians in both countries had significantly different understandings of how  
112 their institutions supported clinical research and managed the processes of clinical adoption  
113 (Figure 1).

114 The respondent sample described three potential phases in which they could engage with  
115 an RM therapy. The first, prior to market authorisation involves the clinical *translation* of a

116 therapy in which a clinician decides to engage in use under the constraints research  
117 protocols. The sample described a second potential phase of *early use* after a therapy had  
118 gained market approval, or after being verified under hospital exemption or a “specials”  
119 licence in the UK [22]. During this phase, therapies with low levels of evidence supporting  
120 their effectiveness could be used by clinicians but were not supported as the first-line  
121 treatment and often not formally reimbursed. In general respondents saw this as a means  
122 to offer these therapies on a named-patient basis or to small patient numbers. *System-wide*  
123 *adoption* of new therapies could occur only after suitable assessments of the therapies  
124 value to the health system have been carried out. This would normally require some level of  
125 formal health technology assessment (HTA).

126

### 127 3.3.2 Translational Adoption of Regenerative Medicines

128 Participants’ responses relating to the translation of RM therapies in ophthalmology could  
129 be classified into 5 core recurrent themes of importance. These were: trial funding; design  
130 and execution of RM trials; trial support and infrastructure; the trial approval process and  
131 clinicians’ positions and attitude to translation (Figure 2). Factors relating to manufacturing  
132 challenges and national research priorities were also mentioned multiple times although  
133 with significantly lower frequency (Figure 2A).

134 Themes of *clinician position and attitudes* and *trial funding* were viewed as important by a  
135 number of respondents although there were mixed opinions as to whether these were likely  
136 to be barriers or enablers to translation of RM therapies. Key differences between the  
137 responses of UK and Canadian participants were seen in the areas of *trial support and*  
138 *infrastructure* and most starkly in the *trial approval process*. In Canada the research ethics

139 board (REB) review process was a recurrent point of discontent for participants. Seven  
140 respondents detailed an extremely slow, highly bureaucratic process which had been a  
141 cause of concern for many years.

142 *“I mean in Canada these things [REB] are very very very very slow.”<sup>CAR5</sup>*

143 Seven Canadian respondents in total gave accounts of a process that slowed processes  
144 significantly and absorbed applicant’s time. Three thought that this may act as a deterrent  
145 for clinicians to engage in clinical trials, with one detailing specific issues in a multi-national  
146 study that they were part of, commenting *“by the time our centre got ethics approval for the  
147 trial, the study was nearly two thirds complete”<sup>CAR9</sup>*

148 It was suggested by two participants that the slow ethics review process in Canada was due  
149 to an overtly bureaucratic system, tied down by a requirement for perfect submissions, but  
150 also more recently in an expanding scope of the ethics boards. It appeared to many that  
151 these processes do not have statutory timescales in place for review; neither do they have  
152 the capacity for obtaining a single approval for a multi centred trial.

153 In contrast only one UK participant detailed issues with the clinical trial application and the  
154 associated review process; although for this particular respondent it was a cause of  
155 frustration detailing several examples of situations where this has been *“rate-limiting”<sup>UKR4</sup>* in  
156 translating RM therapies. In the UK, the process for ethics approval for clinical trials has  
157 changed in recent years [23]. Through a positive collaboration between the ethics review  
158 boards across four different approval regulators, health services research in the UK is now  
159 upheld with a single UK-wide ethical opinion. Whilst these changes were only explicitly

160 noted by one participant, it is possible that such changes have made trial approval in the UK  
161 more favourable for research-minded clinicians.

162

163 *Trial support and infrastructure* was another area in which multiple stakeholders disagreed  
164 with one another. Although more UK respondents than Canadian perceived it to be an  
165 important factor in late stage translation of RM therapies, the responses were more evenly  
166 split with nearly as many positive accounts of the UK's clinical trial infrastructure as there  
167 were negative (Figure 2B). Many comments and anecdotes revolved around the impact of  
168 the investment of the UK's National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) into infrastructure  
169 and clinical trial partnerships.

170 *"When I look around me, in the last five years there has been a massive increase in*  
171 *what the NIHR has funded, and the amount the NIHR is contributing to translation*  
172 *and applied clinical research"<sup>UKR5</sup>*

173 A weakness in translational science has long been a problem for those working in the area of  
174 health sciences and technology in the UK. Highlighted as a priority area in the Cooksey  
175 report 2006 [24], two gaps were identified in health services research, the first in the  
176 translation of basic and clinical research into ideas and products; and the second relating to  
177 translating those ideas and products into clinical practice. Over the last 7 years the UK  
178 government has increased funding and made organisational installations in an attempt to  
179 bridge these gaps in translation [25,26]. The authors hypothesise that UK investment into  
180 clinical trial research infrastructure in the form of the NIHR Office for Clinical Research  
181 Infrastructure (NOCRI) may have some part to play in the more positive reception to *trial*



182 *support and infrastructure* from UK clinicians. This support has aimed to reduce the risk of  
183 running clinical trials in the UK, with various shared funding streams to help industry and  
184 academics operate expensive, complex and resource hungry trials [26].

185 Another area of key importance was that of trial funding, and funding streams for  
186 translational science. Five Canadian participants described favourable translational funding  
187 programmes. Canadian clinicians have in certain cases been allowed to indirectly access US  
188 NIH funding as well as Canadian Institute for Health Research (CIHR) funding which has  
189 offered a larger funding pool for this translational research.

190 The *complexity of RM trial design* and execution was recognised by 12 participants in both  
191 the UK and Canada. Issues such as poorly understood patient heterogeneity and unsuitable  
192 clinical endpoint measures being described.

193 *“...you need to make sure that whatever you try you will be able to measure the*  
194 *response, and it sounds like a trivial detail, but the FDA accepted outcome measure is*  
195 *visual acuity better than 3 lines on the vision chart. That is not reasonable in the*  
196 *types of diseases that we are looking at. I think each condition and each stage should*  
197 *have their own outcome measures”*.<sup>CAR6</sup>

198

199 Whilst *trial support and infrastructure* and *trial funding* for clinical translation of RM was  
200 viewed by many as a barrier, it is important to note that participants from Moorfields Eye  
201 Hospital (UK) considered many of these systems to be adequate to support the current need  
202 for clinical development of these complex therapies. These participants in general, gave

203 more positive responses to questioning concerning translation of RM therapies than those  
204 in other centres.

205

206 Moorfields eye hospital was designated as one of 12 NIHR biomedical research centres in  
207 2011, with a government investment of over £25 million to drive translational research [33].

208 The hospital itself is known worldwide, and is undoubtedly the most widely recognised  
209 centre for ophthalmology in the UK. Moorfields Eye Hospital was considered by two  
210 Canadian participants to give the UK a competitive advantage, in terms of its appeal to  
211 industry and the national research output in ophthalmology. However there was a shared  
212 viewpoint from three UK participants that it can sometimes be difficult to compete for both  
213 private and public grant funding opportunities in ophthalmology given the presence of  
214 Moorfields, hinting at the concentration of research taking place there. There was a more  
215 even spread of investment in Canada with multiple centres of excellence although each  
216 province was perceived to have some centres which excelled in biomedical research and  
217 translation.

218

219 Throughout the PCI two key cell-therapies were mentioned time and time again. These were  
220 limbal epithelial stem cell transplantation (LESCT) for limbal epithelial stem cell deficiency  
221 (LESCD) [23], and retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) transplantation for macular degeneration  
222 and Stargardt's [17]. 5 examples of RM trials involving these therapies were accounted for in  
223 the UK and Canada collectively in the PCI, importantly four of these in the UK (Table 2).

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### 224 3.3.3 Early Use of Regenerative Medicines

225

226 The term *early use* has been used to refer to the phase of clinical engagement in which the  
227 decision to adopt is likely to be based on lower quality clinical evidence. Typically low  
228 numbers of patients will be involved, and the therapy will not have reached a suitable point  
229 in its development to be scrutinised through a formal health technology assessment. The  
230 core themes emerging from discussion around the early use of RM therapies were:  
231 *regulatory challenges*; the influence of private healthcare; institutional management;  
232 bureaucracy involved in delivering novel therapies; and the changes to infrastructure or  
233 systems to allow therapies such as RM to be used (Figure 3). Ideas likely to be product  
234 specific such as cost, patient volume and risk versus benefit decisions were also raised  
235 throughout the interviews (Figure 3A).

236

237 It is important to note that throughout this study the assumption has been made that the  
238 regulatory stakeholders had been satisfied by product developers. While individual clinicians  
239 may have links with the regulators, there is likely to be limited interaction between the  
240 broader clinical stakeholder group and regulatory stakeholders. Consequently regulation has  
241 not been discussed in detail here although some of the important points captured on this  
242 area from the interview process have been presented.

243 In general, respondents in both the UK and Canada appeared to have similar perspectives  
244 on their regulatory environment for RM. Most comments on the pace of the regulatory  
245 process in Canada were largely tied to experiences outside of RM. However one participant  
246 drew reference to the recent approval of the mesenchymal stem cell product Prochymal®.

247 Health Canada were the first regulator in the world to approve the therapy, albeit through a  
248 conditional approval (notice of compliance) based on further trials. Important in this process  
249 was that the Canadian regulators allowed a subset of patients to be reviewed individually.  
250 This example of facilitative regulation of an important RM therapy although not in  
251 ophthalmology, represents a critical component of the Canadian RM adoption landscape,  
252 and is likely to be attractive to other industry stakeholders looking to enter single-payer  
253 markets.

254

255 Giving patients early access to therapies can be possible outside of the research setting  
256 assuming that the therapy has been approved by the relevant authorities and that  
257 authorisation can be secured from clinical management. The authors see early access  
258 mechanisms such as “hospital exemption” and “specials” schemes in the UK to offer  
259 accelerated routes to the patient and facilitate RM therapies availability in the UK [22]. In  
260 addition, the experience gained through their use can often be used in formal development.

261

262 Factors relating to local organisation, like attitudes of institutional management,  
263 bureaucracy and flexibility of infrastructure and services to accommodate the early use of  
264 new therapies were all mentioned more frequently by UK participants than those from  
265 Canada. Several accounts from UK participants detailed complex and often unclear  
266 processes involving numerous departments each with individual processes

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267            *“The application form is very long and tedious – they [local management] require a*  
268            *lot of information and it is a deterrent for many clinicians. Clinicians really don’t have*  
269            *the time normally.”<sup>UKR1</sup>*

270

271    Related to this, more UK responses described difficulties in installing infrastructure to  
272    accommodate the early or low level use of RM. Issues included the need for clean rooms,  
273    skilled basic scientists, immunology support and intensive patient monitoring. In certain  
274    cases these requirements were seen by UK participants as being prohibitive and unlikely to  
275    be cost effective for the small patient numbers.

276    A supportive management structure was also perceived as a crucial for *early use* of such  
277    novel therapies by both Canadian and UK participants. Three Canadian participants were  
278    extremely pleased with their institutional management processes and accounted for two  
279    examples of well designed, helpful programs to drive innovation in surgery. One participant  
280    from Sick Kids hospital in Toronto described in-house processes to try to drive innovation.  
281    One offering was that of a small grant competition where regular prizes of \$10,000 are  
282    granted for proposals relating to testing novel unconventional hypotheses with new  
283    medicines. Such a programme undoubtedly shows the intent of management to foster  
284    innovation and adoption within their organisation.

285    The effect of the Canadian private market that exists in Canada was perceived to play a far  
286    more important role relative to that in the UK. Many Canadian ophthalmologists appeared  
287    to think that approved therapies that were yet to receive codes for reimbursement could be  
288    delivered and charged directly to the patient, as an alternative route to offering patients

289 access to novel treatments. The potential patient pool is of course limited to those patients  
290 who can afford such therapies, but may be an important market access mechanism for a  
291 limited number of therapies nonetheless. Private insurance companies were perceived to  
292 have a similar outlook in both the UK and Canada employing a high evidence threshold for  
293 reimbursement. As a consequence it was unclear to many participants as to whether there  
294 would be early reimbursement mechanisms with private insurers for RM Therapies.

295

### 296 3.3.4 System-wide Adoption of Regenerative Medicines

297

298 After building conclusive evidence of a therapy's safety, efficacy and cost-effectiveness,  
299 therapies such as RMs must overcome the hurdle of securing reimbursement, and gaining  
300 *system-wide adoption*. Ophthalmologists understood this phase of adoption to be the  
301 ultimate barrier to a therapy's success. The extent to which diffusion or system adoption  
302 can occur is predicated on the patient volume, clinical need and the delivery models in place  
303 for the therapy. Multiple clinicians perceived that it was likely that RMs in ophthalmology  
304 would be confined to specialist centres with suitable infrastructure and resources to deal  
305 with delivery. The reported themes relevant to system-wide adoption included

- 306 • *Local Management*, such as management attitudes, local budget constraints, overall  
307 health of the local institutions finances and its freedom to reallocate resource
- 308 • *Regional Management*, such as policy setting and links to political agenda and  
309 government priorities
- 310 • *Health Technology Appraisal*, covering issues with the UK's National Institute for  
311 Clinical Excellence (NICE) review process and clinical guidance as well as the less  
312 centralised Canadian economic evaluation procedures

- 
- 313       • *Reimbursement systems* including coding and fee tariffs where appropriate and
- 314       • *Commissioning processes*

315       There are distinct differences in the way that that decision makers were organized at the  
316       local regional and national level in the UK and Canada (Figure 4A). In the UK pricing and  
317       reimbursement (P & R) and health technology assessments (HTA) are carried out at a  
318       national level. Regional bodies in the UK, namely clinical commissioning groups (CCGs)  
319       would then be concerned with regional budgets and access to medicines. At the local level  
320       issues such as service design, local budget management and infrastructure requirements are  
321       dealt with. In Canada, each of the 10 provinces has its own governmental control over the  
322       management and allocation healthcare resources. Whilst ultimately the provinces are still  
323       funded from National government transfers derived from taxation, each provincial  
324       healthcare system is autonomous and sets its own healthcare priorities. As a consequence,  
325       system-level reimbursement and even technology appraisals will largely be done at a sub-  
326       national level in Canada.

327       Large variations in the way healthcare adoption was managed and implemented appeared  
328       to be a theme on which both UK and Canadian participants agreed. Whilst such  
329       fragmentation may be expected from the Canadian system, made up of independent  
330       provincial ministries governing healthcare, the fragmentation and regional and local  
331       differences in operations in the NHS was perhaps less expected.

332       The *regional management* variations in healthcare were identified by 7 UK participants,  
333       underlining the complex and heterogeneous system of healthcare in the NHS. Currently, the  
334       allocation of 70% of the healthcare budget allocated to 211 CCG's, each responsible for a  
335       geographic region [27]. Each CCG purchases products and services for long-term conditions

336 and common diseases. Therapies targeting rarer diseases involving fewer patients, and  
337 often higher costs are likely to be supported by specialist services commissioning. If  
338 successful for some therapies this may potentially offer a single market-access gatekeeper  
339 albeit in the first instance for low volume therapies.

340 Organizational inertia was a source of frustration for many respondents working in the NHS  
341 with culture and fragmentation given as potential causes. Four UK participants felt that the  
342 NHS was particularly unresponsive, and slow to progress in many aspects of care including  
343 the uptake of new healthcare technologies.

344 *“There is a traditional way of working [in the NHS] and anything that is going to*  
345 *change the way the system is working can be quite difficult to implement. Even the*  
346 *smallest change to practice can take a long time to come through even when it’s*  
347 *clearly beneficial to the patient.”<sup>JKR8</sup>*

348 No participants in any of the three Canadian provinces sampled, suggested that  
349 responsiveness of their provincial health organisations had been an issue.

350 The biggest differences in responses between the UK and Canada were seen in themes  
351 relating to *HTA processes, reimbursement systems* and local management issues. 10 out of  
352 11 UK participants recognised the importance of NICE’s role in the adoption of new  
353 therapies. However more were of the opinion that NICE’s current capacity, methodologies  
354 and practices may not favour RM therapies. Even outside the area of RM, several clinicians  
355 recalled instances where slow NICE review had delayed the adoption of approved therapies.

356 *“....it [Eyelea®] was licensed throughout Europe for diabetic macular oedema and*  
357 *retinal vein occlusion. I can’t remember when it was available, I think about 2 years*



358            *ago. Now it's only actually this year [2013] that NICE has approved its use for those*  
359            *indications.*<sup>UKR8</sup>

360    Only 3 participants could detail processes of HTA or economic evaluation in Canada. One  
361    HTA agency that had dealt with RM therapies in the past was the Ontario Health Technology  
362    Assessment Centre (OHTAC), a provincially owned HTA agency. A structured literature  
363    search for HTA of RM in both the UK and Canada identified 4 published HTAs both either  
364    reviewed by NICE or by OHTAC (Table 3). Interestingly the two HTA bodies have disagreed  
365    on two interventions' cases for adoption. In the use of allogeneic LESCT, both NICE and  
366    OHTAC appeared to disagree as to whether this treatment should be funded. NICE's  
367    assessment reported that there was not enough evidence with respect to the safety and  
368    effectiveness of LESCT for the treatment to be offered routinely, but that in cases of a  
369    medical necessity special arrangements could be made to offer the treatment [28]. In  
370    contrast, OHTAC recommended the treatment for use stating that whilst the evidence to  
371    support LESCT is weak, it was considered unlikely given the rarity of the condition, that  
372    more robust evidence will be available [29]. The authors hypothesise that this more  
373    permissive assessment of LESCT by OHTAC, represents an acknowledgement of the difficulty  
374    in running trials with RM therapies in rare diseases, and demonstrates a greater flexibility in  
375    terms of HTA. Differences in assessment criteria were also apparent in the two agencies  
376    assessments of Islet cell transplantation for type 1 diabetes. It appeared that the  
377    approaches taken by the two agencies in determining whether each RM therapy  
378    represented value-for-money were very different, perhaps due to varied interpretations of  
379    clinical evidence, and different thresholds for acceptable effectiveness.

380

381

*Table 3 Published HTA decisions of cell therapies in the UK and Canada*

Therapy	NICE Decision	OHTAC Decision
Autologous limbal cell transplant for limbal cell deficiency	---	Positive [29]
Autologous limbal cell transplant for limbal pterygium	---	Negative [29]
Allogeneic limbal cell transplant for limbal cell deficiency	Negative [28]	Positive [29]
Islet cell transplantation for type I diabetes	Positive [30,31]	Negative [32]

382

383 Canadian participant's viewed the centralised and highly developed economic evaluations of  
 384 NICE as more effective at rationing healthcare, and potentially having a well-defined role in  
 385 the process. Interestingly only three participants could detail processes of health technology  
 386 appraisal or economic evaluation in Canada. In discussions with UK participants the role of  
 387 NICE was ultimately central to most responses on *system-wide adoption*. Whilst for many it  
 388 was unclear whether RMs targeting some of the rarer conditions would warrant NICE  
 389 review, its role in adoption was seen as critical. Within scarce NHS resources, it was  
 390 appreciated that payers need new therapies such as RM to provide value for money. Two  
 391 UK participants recognised that RM therapies are likely to have very high initial prices but  
 392 these could drop as expertise and tools for manufacturing and distribution are developed.  
 393 The initial costs of RM therapies are likely to be a critical factor in their adoption. A report  
 394 from the UK government recently stated that NICE's assessments should include  
 395 consideration that early investment in this area could help bring further treatments to the  
 396 market which may have impact in providing savings in healthcare and in increased  
 397 investment in the UK [33].  
 398 One UK ophthalmologist recognised that RM therapies for rarer diseases may be unsuitable  
 399 for NICE appraisal and may well be better serviced by specialised services commissioning.

400 “I think specialist services commissioning is potentially a route to allowing some level  
401 of adoption or some level of evaluation, all be it in a constrained fashion. But during  
402 that time you’ve got the opportunity to actually feed the product into the NHS, start  
403 to test it, put it through some real world evaluation and see how it works in  
404 practice.”<sup>UKR1</sup>

405 NHS Specialised services were also recognised as an important component of adoption in  
406 the 2013 UK government response to the recommendations made in the recent House of  
407 Lords Science and Technology Select Committee report on RM. Herein it was noted that a  
408 new approach to commissioning services that are currently lacking in evidence would be  
409 adopted. The process termed commissioning through evaluation (CtE) would look at  
410 services deficient of both clinical and/or cost effectiveness evidence which are thus  
411 unsuitable for routine commissioning [33].

412 When respondents in both the UK and Canada were asked to describe the local and regional  
413 decision making processes involved in adopting a new therapy a wide range of responses  
414 were recorded. Local and regional processes for uptake of a particular therapy appeared to  
415 be varied between different regions. Issues relating to *local management* in the UK were a  
416 cause of concern to several respondents in the UK. Factors including management attitude,  
417 patient volume, infrastructure and precedence for the use of similar therapies were all seen  
418 to affect the institutional uptake of new therapies.

419 Whilst the NHS and Canadian health systems share their first principles and some aspects of  
420 healthcare organisation (Table 4), the systems have developed significantly different  
421 processes for dealing with the uptake of RM therapies (Table 5). Whilst both offer some  
422 form of evidence-based healthcare, the two are still guided by value for money, and

423 differences in the way that value for money is assessed between the two nations (Table 3)

424 will be an important area for future exploration.

### 425 3.3.5 Ophthalmology as a Target Clinical Area

426

427 An important feature of this work was the characteristics of the specific clinical group that was  
428 interviewed. A key question to ask was “are there any specific characteristics of ophthalmologists or  
429 ophthalmology in general that may impact on any of the three areas investigated. Ophthalmologists  
430 perceived themselves to be *quieter, less aggressive* and on *the whole easier to manage* than other  
431 surgical specialisms (i.e. cardiac surgeons). In addition one participant thought that ophthalmology  
432 departments had historically been *inward looking located* in isolated centres away from other  
433 clinical departments.

434 Many respondents were keen to describe how ophthalmology as a clinical area could offer many  
435 benefits as a target site for RM therapies. Such benefits included:

- 436 • **Measurable outcomes:** “...ophthalmology is much more amenable to clinical trials and the  
437 outcomes are directly measurable”<sup>CAR8</sup>. “We are spoilt in ophthalmology by being able to  
438 readily assess structure and function...”<sup>CAR6</sup>
- 439 • **Isolated organ for targeted therapeutics:** “We’re really interested in RM in the eye because  
440 you can affect the phenotype of cells in the eye locally without affecting it systemically. You  
441 could only do this in ophthalmology...”<sup>CAR4</sup>
- 442 • **Easy access to test neurological therapeutics:** “...for a neurological disease, I think the eye is  
443 the best test site in humans. It will be easy; surgery is very trivial compared to anywhere else  
444 in the brain. We know what kind of cell we need to fix. In the brain it is not always  
445 obvious.”<sup>CAR11</sup>

446

447 The idea that technology and therapies in ophthalmology may evolve quicker than other surgical  
448 based clinical areas was noted by four participants.

449 *"I think in general ophthalmologists adopt very quickly because the field changes very*  
450 *quickly. To at least stay at the standard of care, you have to."*<sup>CAR5</sup>

451 With the exception ocular cancers, the majority of indications treated by ophthalmologists are non-  
452 fatal, and thus are seen by policy makers as a lower priority, than for instance cardiovascular  
453 medicine or cancer care.

454

### 455 3.5 Conclusions

456 The aim of this work was to identify the factors likely to determine adoption of RM therapies in  
457 ophthalmology in the UK and Canada. Factors which appeared to be similar between the UK and the  
458 comparator, Canada included evidence-based decision making; bureaucracy, and regional  
459 management issues. However there were several differences that emerged from the samples that  
460 will no doubt impact on adoption of future RM therapies.

461 Favourable processes surrounding clinical research infrastructure, funding and ethics approval  
462 appear to have contributed to making the UK a more favourable setup than Canada for RM  
463 *translation* in ophthalmology in recent years. However when it comes to *early use* and *system-wide*  
464 *adoption* of RM therapies, the NHS was perceived to find uptake harder to manage, with local  
465 management and institutional infrastructure being perceived far more of a barrier than in Canada.

466 Examples of excellent management behaviours and setup in Canadian ophthalmology departments  
467 were an area which NHS management would do well to learn from. Several participants giving  
468 examples of forward thinking and innovative programmes to drive adoption and ensure Canadian  
469 clinicians bridged the gap between translation and adoption of such therapies.

470 Each healthcare system is associated with national assets which could be appealing to therapy  
471 developers working in this space. Health Canada has in recent years proven itself to be a forward  
472 thinking regulator willing to look at RM therapies as exceptional technologies. In addition local  
473 healthcare providers appeared more supportive of earlier use of therapies and isolated cases uptake  
474 of RM into clinical programs. Internally in the UK, the investment and growth of Moorfields Eye  
475 Hospital whilst seen by some UK insiders as a sink for UK funding in ophthalmology, has undoubtedly  
476 given the UK a competitive advantage in basic and clinical research in RM.

477 As markets, single-payer healthcare systems do have some similar characteristics (Box 1) and they  
478 could have the potential to offer a “one-stop shop” for therapy developers to tackle. Ideologically, a  
479 single value system, with a uniform willingness to pay, is a far simpler proposition than that of the  
480 numerous evaluation procedures in insurance based healthcare systems. Arguably the biggest  
481 challenge in building a sustainable RM industry sector in both the UK and Canada will be in  
482 persuading decision makers to adopt truly innovative therapies which in the short term may not be  
483 cost effective, but that could give rise to a range of therapeutics which change the way we deliver  
484 healthcare.

485

### 486 **3.6 Future Perspective**

487

488 At current there are few authorized RM products and even fewer which have secured adoption and  
489 reimbursement. However, the resources currently being invested in RM research and development  
490 will in the near future undoubtedly yield a number of therapies, some of which may offer long-term  
491 cost savings. Ensuring there are suitable evaluation pathways, well developed routes to  
492 reimbursement, and that healthcare providers are prepared will be critical in providing a suitable  
493 adoption environment for RM. If addressed early the UK and Canada could demonstrate themselves  
494 as extremely attractive early markets for RM, to the benefit of both healthcare and inward industry  
495 investment.

496

497 **4. Executive Summary**498 **Translation**

- 499 • The UK appears to offer a favourable environment for translation of RM therapies, providing  
500 a supportive environment through investment into infrastructure.
- 501 • The Canadian research ethics process is currently a rate limiting component of the clinical  
502 trial process

503 **Early Use**

- 504 • Canadian regulators Health Canada have demonstrated a desire to move RM forward, being  
505 first to approve a number of RM therapies.
- 506 • Healthcare provider management in Canada appears to be driving innovation and adoption  
507 of new ways of working.
- 508 • The NHS's specialist commissioning group are developing new routes for adoption of  
509 therapies targeting low patient numbers (CtE), likely to be relevant for RM therapies.

510

511 **System-Wide Adoption**

- 512 • The NHS is still recognised as unresponsive, and has been slow to uptake new medicines,  
513 especially struggling with disruptive innovations.
- 514 • Short term commissioning behaviours and silo budgets in the NHS could make it challenging  
515 to demonstrate to decision makers the real value of potentially “curative” treatments.
- 516 • NICE is internationally recognised as a leader in clinical guidance and technology  
517 assessment. Canada's multiple technology assessment processes are less coordinated and  
518 significantly more complex to navigate.

519

520 **5. Acknowledgements**

521

522 The authors would like to acknowledge the participant ophthalmologists for their valuable  
523 contributions in this study. In addition, the authors would like to thank K Payne, P Trueman,  
524 S Macneil, H Atkins, F, Ali, J Daniels, V Wallace, and P Archibald for useful discussions which  
525 helped shape this work.

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526 **6. Financial & competing interests disclosure**

527

528 This work was funded by the EPSRC through the EPSRC Doctoral Training Centre in  
529 Regenerative Medicine. The authors have no other relevant affiliations or financial  
530 involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict  
531 with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript apart from those disclosed.

532 No writing assistance was utilized in the production of this manuscript.

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545 **5. References**

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612 **Figures**

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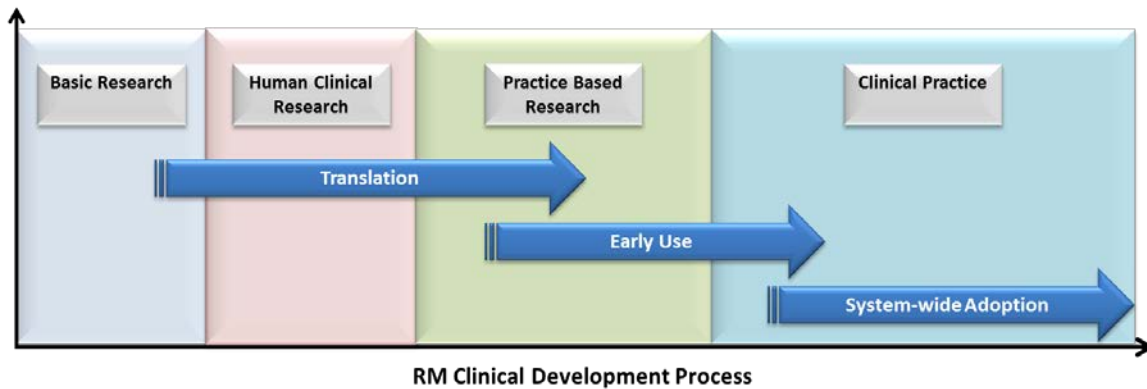
614 **Table 1 Sample size and response rates for the UK and Canadian sample**

	Invited	Responded	Response Rate
<b>UK</b>	34	11	32%
<b>Canada</b>	44	11	27%

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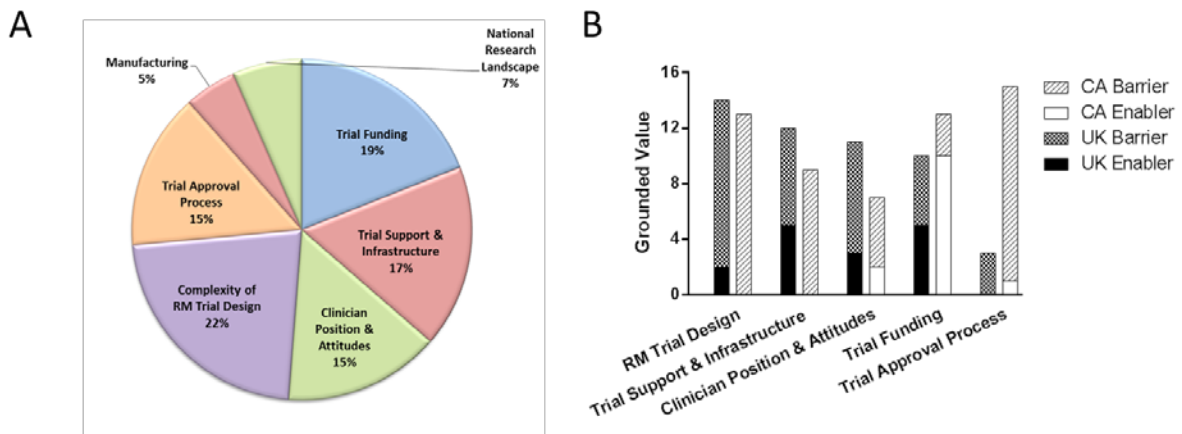
617 **Figure 1 Three phases of potential clinical adoption: Translation, Early use and System-wide adoption.**  
618



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620

621 **Figure 2 Recurrent themes derived from PCI, relating specifically to issues in the translation stage**  
622 **of clinical development. A) Pie chart representing relative contribution of themes as a percentage**  
623 **of total coded passages combining UK and Canadian responses. B) Bar chart representing**  
624 **grounded values for 5 key themes as enablers or barriers to adoption in the UK and**  
625 **Canada.**



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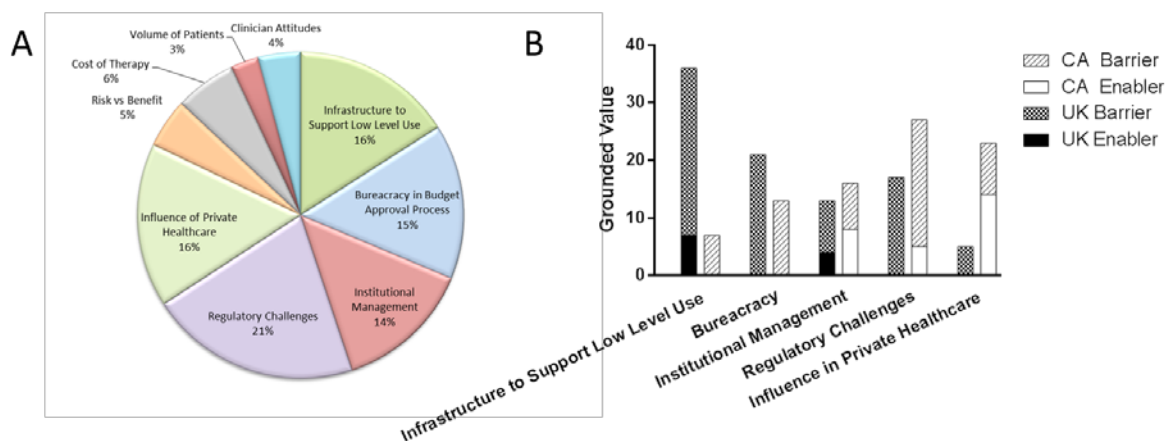
628 **Table 2 Cell therapy trials ongoing in ophthalmology in the UK and Canada**

Location	Sponsor	Trial	Indication	Start	Status
UK, Newcastle	Newcastle University	Autologous cultured human limbal epithelium for limbal stem cell deficiency (ophthalmology)	Limbal stem cell deficiency	2012	Phase II
UK, Edinburgh	Edinburgh University, Scottish National Blood Transfusion Service	Corneal stem cells (allogeneic limbal epithelial stem cells on amniotic membrane)	Limbal stem cell deficiency	2011	Phase I /II
UK, London Edinburgh	Advanced Cell Technologies	Retinal pigment epithelial cell replacement for Stargardt's disease	Stargardt's disease	2011	Phase I /II
UK, London	Pfizer	A Study Of Implantation Of Human Embryonic Stem Cell Derived Retinal Pigment Epithelium In Subjects With Acute Wet Age Related Macular Degeneration And Recent Rapid Vision Decline	Acute wet Age related Macular Degeneration	2014	Phase I
Canada, Quebec	CHU de Québec	Autologous Cultured Corneal Epithelium (CECA) for the Treatment of Limbal Stem Cell Deficiency	Limbal stem cell deficiency	2012	Phase I /II

629

630 **Figure 3 Recurrent themes derived from PCI, relating specifically to issues in the early use of RM**  
 631 **therapies. A) Pie chart representing relative contribution of themes as a percentage of total coded**  
 632 **passages combining UK and Canadian responses. B) Bar chart representing grounded values for 5**  
 633 **key themes as enablers or barriers or barriers to adoption in the UK and Canada.**

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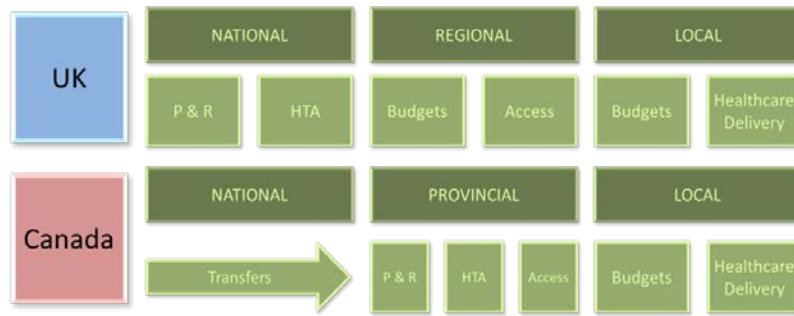


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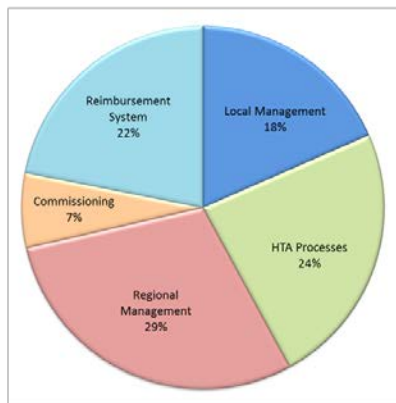
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637 **Figure 4 A) Schematic of differences in in health system organisation between Canada and UK -**  
 638 **P&R: Pricing and Reimbursement; HTA: Health Technology Assessment. B and C) Recurrent themes**  
 639 **derived from PCI, relating specifically to issues in the system-wide adoption of RM therapies. A) Pie**  
 640 **chart representing relative contribution of themes as a percentage of total coded passages**  
 641 **combining UK and Canadian responses. B) Bar chart representing grounded values for 5 key**  
 642 **themes as enablers or barriers to adoption in the UK and Canada.**

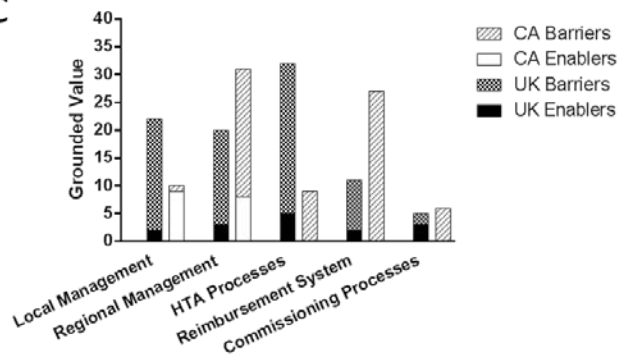
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652 **Table 4 Comparison of Healthcare in UK and Canada**

UK	Canada
Universal Health Care	Universal Health Care
Publically funded	Publically funded
Publically delivered	Privately delivered
212 CCGs, directly answerable to Dept. of Health	10 autonomous Provincial Ministries
Physicians salaried	Physicians paid “fee for service” - capped
Increasing level of patient choice but referral based on physician availability	Healthcare is Semi-competitive for high volume, well reimbursed procedures (cataracts etc.)
NICE commissions HTA	HTA carried out at national, provincial and local levels
Patented drug prices agreed through designated pricing groups (PPRS)	High prices for patented pharmaceuticals varying from province to province
9.6% GDP spent on healthcare annually	11.9% GDP spent on healthcare annually
£2170 spent on healthcare per capita	£3240 spent on healthcare per capita

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654

655 **Table 5: Overview of key comparative points emerging from interview data**

Phase	UK	Canada
<b>Translation</b>	↑ Single national ethics approval	↓ Prohibitively slow ethics review process
	↑ Significant investment into trial infrastructure through NIHR	↔ Limited support and funding for translational research
<b>Early Use</b>	↔ Regulated as ATMPs under EMA	↑ Forward looking regulator, willing to look at RMs as exceptional therapies
	↓ Management attitudes a barrier in some institutions	↑ Examples of outstanding leadership in institutional management
<b>System-Wide Adoption</b>	↑ Specialist commissioning routes being developed for RM.	↔ RM will fit into normal commissioning pathways
	↓ Unresponsive organisation slow to instil changes	↑ Several small responsive healthcare organisations with well-defined patient needs
	↓ At current short term commissioning behaviours, and “silo budgets”	↔ Signs of movement towards long term “continuity of care” models
	↑ Single national assessment of cost effectiveness -internationally referenced	↔ Provincial variations with highly variable HTA processes

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657

658 **Box 1 Common characteristics of single payer healthcare systems (derived from UK and Canadian**  
659 **interviews)**

**Characteristics of Single Payer HealthCare Markets**

- Driven by cost-effectiveness
- Decisions made on quantity and quality of evidence
- Systems are able to offer an economic threshold for life
- More rational, more consistent discussions over pricing
- Opaque budget approval processes, widely varied by region
- Less likely to give reimbursement for marginal improvements,
- Potential to offer continuity of care
- Clinical trials may benefit from access to entire patient populations

660