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From maturity to value-added innovation: lessons from the pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology industries

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1 **Abstract:**

2 The pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology industries have been confronted both by
3 dwindling product pipelines and rapid developments in life sciences, thus demanding a
4 strategic rethink of conventional R&D. Despite offering both industries a solution to the
5 pipeline problem, the life sciences have also brought complex regulatory challenges for
6 firms. In this paper, we comment on these industries' response to the life science
7 trajectory in the context of maturing conventional small-molecule product pipelines and
8 routes to market. The challenges of managing transition from maturity to new high-value
9 added innovation models are addressed. Further, we argue that regulation plays a critical
10 role in shaping the innovation systems of both industries and, as such, we suggest
11 potentially useful changes to the current regulatory system.

12 **Introduction to the new life science industries**

13 The new molecular life sciences have transformed a range of R&D-driven industries over
14 the past two decades, particularly in pharmaceuticals and agriculture. Both industries are
15 susceptible to “technological shocks” as new scientific knowledge and path-breaking
16 technologies broaden the spectrum of options for R&D and strategic management. The
17 complexity of the life sciences, and the different implications of biotechnology and
18 genomics for various parts of the R&D process, have created distributed innovation
19 systems and company networks in both sectors [1-3]. Firm strategy is shaped by robust,
20 though ever-changing, multi-layered and sometimes cumbersome regulatory systems that
21 are located outside the core innovation system, but which continue to influence
22 innovation at all times [4]. The success of multinational companies depends on a
23 continuous flow of new, innovative products with clear routes to market and established,
24 well-understood value systems. In pharmaceuticals, these have traditionally been small-
25 molecule blockbuster products in core therapeutic franchises. Similarly, until the early
26 1990s, the dominant innovation model in the agricultural sector was global commodity
27 crops. In both industries, new technologies, such as high-throughput screening and
28 combinatorial chemistry, were embraced enthusiastically and brought product and
29 process advances in the identification, validation and formulation of new chemicals.

30 Rapid developments in the life sciences in the late 1980s and early 1990s brought
31 new opportunities and challenges for both industries, and continue to do so today. Just as
32 conventional product pipelines began to reach maturity, the new life sciences offered
33 hope of developing radically different types of product and markets. For the
34 pharmaceutical industry, recombinant proteins in the 1980s, monoclonal antibodies in the

35 1990s, and more recently stem cells, emerged as potential alternatives to blockbuster
36 small molecule drugs. Similarly, in the late 1980s GM crops presented the agro-chemical
37 industry with a radically new product portfolio disruptive to its prevailing R&D strategy.
38 However, the life sciences also brought new competition for incumbent firms as smaller
39 biotechnology companies with unique knowledge and expertise emerged. The path-
40 breaking nature of the new technologies and products, many with unknown risk profiles
41 and without established routes to market, engender new regulatory hurdles that increase
42 the cost of R&D and generate uncertainty.

43 Our aim is to explore the evolution of the pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology
44 industries in the context of emerging life science innovation and new regulatory systems,
45 and suggest key lessons for future governance. We use the term agro-biotechnology in
46 this article to refer specifically to those agrochemical companies that linked with seed
47 companies to produce GM crops. We highlight the opportunities and challenges of
48 managing transition from maturity to a new high-value-added innovation model subject
49 to high regulatory hurdles and hope to spur a broader discussion about the systemic
50 aspects of R&D-driven industries and the role of regulation in shaping innovation.

51

52 **From maturity to value-added innovation: challenges and opportunities**

53 Developments in the life sciences have reshaped the pharmaceutical and agro-
54 biotechnological industries. During the 1980s and early 1990s, the largest multinational
55 chemical firms had relatively integrated and complementary R&D strategies. Indeed,
56 some had both health and agriculture divisions. This period of innovative activity was

57 characterised by a series of mergers and acquisitions as multinationals sought “buy-in” to
58 new technology platforms [5].

59 However, this “combination strategy” ended around the late 1990s. The two
60 sectors separated their capabilities and pursued autonomous strategies of innovation
61 through both merger and acquisition activities and strategic alliances. It became clear to
62 senior managers that synergy between agriculture and pharmaceuticals at the discovery-
63 level was profitable only when both sectors were primarily interested in the source of
64 chemical novelty, but not in the “gene” area [5,6]. Functional genomics could benefit
65 both sectors, but disparities in profit margins [7] and technological and economic
66 differences [8] did not make for long-term positive synergies.

67

68 *Responding to the “problem of maturity”*

69 In the early 1990s, both sectors struggled as conventional chemical-based products
70 reached maturity and R&D pipelines narrowed. By “maturity”, we mean molecules had
71 already been developed for easy targets and were now off-patent, so no longer generating
72 large profits, and industry was concerned about the long-term sustainability of
73 conventional blockbuster R&D models. Both sectors searched for new R&D options. In
74 agriculture, strategic planning focused on ‘a combination of chemical and biotechnology
75 developments with varying degrees of synergistic interaction’ [9,10]. Companies
76 embraced diversity in technological development [11]. As product pipelines matured,
77 three distinct company strategies emerged to exploit the new life science trajectory (Box
78 1).

79 Innovation strategies are cumulatively dependent on a company's past history
80 [12,13], and the resources and 'dynamic capabilities' of a firm influence its patterns of
81 innovation [13]. The innovation strategies of agro-biotechnology companies in the 1980s
82 and 1990s varied, depending on their existing strengths in product development and
83 technology trajectories along with their overall vision for the future. GM crops were a
84 disruptive technology for most multi-national agro-biotechnology companies still
85 benefiting from patented agro-chemical products, but were attractive to firms that had
86 reached the limits of small molecule chemical innovation.

87 In pharmaceuticals, the maturity problem and desire to move to high-value-added
88 biotechnology-based products was also a driver of organisational change and
89 restructuring. Traditionally, pharmaceutical R&D was a serendipitous activity in which
90 chemical compounds were randomly screened and tested on known disease targets. Lead
91 molecules were then optimised to produce lead candidates for further development. In the
92 1980s and 1990s, advances in molecular biology, synthetic chemistry and screening
93 technologies reshaped this R&D process [14] and created economies of scale and scope
94 [15]. The emergence of potentially transformative life science technologies led to major
95 industry restructuring, through internal reorganisation and merger, acquisition and
96 strategic alliance activity [2,16,17]. Firms now coordinate an increasingly diverse range
97 of R&D capabilities alongside the "normal" processes of organic growth [18]. However,
98 despite the promises and strategic visions presented by the life sciences, various factors
99 challenge large firms' dominance in therapeutic innovation (Box 2).

100 Together, these challenges, amongst others [24], continue to shape the evolution
101 of the pharmaceutical sector and strategic management of R&D within individual firms,

102 with new R&D models and product development strategies emerging. For example, GSK
103 developed Centers of Excellence for Drug Discovery in 2000, leading to its current
104 decentralised R&D Hub structure [25,14], and most multinationals exploit public-private
105 partnerships in both research and development. A good example is Pfizer's current
106 investment in Scotland's Translational Medicine Research Collaboration (TMRC);
107 focused on the identification and validation of novel biomarkers for drug development.

108 Both the pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology industries have been forced to
109 confront the challenges and opportunities of the molecular life science paradigm in the
110 context of maturity of conventional product pipelines. For pharma, life science
111 investment and attendant organisational restructuring has been primarily a response to the
112 challenges of therapeutic innovation, rather than a revolutionary, pro-active attempt to
113 fully embrace a life science-based innovation trajectory. Innovation spending in agro-
114 biotechnology has moved towards GM seed technology, with total agro-biotechnology
115 R&D expected to equal agrochemicals in 2009 [26].

116 Our research on both the agricultural and pharmaceutical industries has shown
117 that multinationals do not always share common objectives and strategies; rather, strategy
118 is an evolutionary process based on firms' unique histories, internal competencies and
119 routines, market position and future expectations [2,9,14]. The long-lead times in
120 pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology R&D mean that the precise benefits of any
121 restructuring initiative and implantation of new strategy take time to emerge.
122 Nevertheless, product innovation and company strategy is also determined by the
123 regulatory environment and it is to this important aspect that we now turn.

124

125 **Regulation and its impact on innovation strategy and product development**

126 Regulation has significant impact on R&D-driven industries, such as pharmaceuticals and
127 agro-biotechnology, and partly explains the long product lead times that distinguish these
128 industries from most others, although even without formal regulation firms would still
129 need to invest time and resource to establish product safety. Nevertheless, changes in
130 standards for safety and efficacy do have time/cost implications for industry [27]. A
131 significant effect of regulation in agro-biotechnology has been to increase costs, over
132 conventional non GM varieties, by approximately 0.5 to 13.5 million USD [28]. We
133 argue that regulation is the dominant shaper of both the innovation system and markets
134 for innovative products in pharmaceuticals and agro-biotechnology. Specifically, it can
135 constrain life science innovations through the complex, expensive and lengthy
136 requirements imposed on developers of new drugs or pesticides. It has been recently
137 suggested that clinical trials required by European regulators to compare biosimilar
138 products with corresponding biologic brands are unnecessary and may impede the
139 development of biosimilars of more complicated biologics [31]. Although this particular
140 example is focused on biosimilars rather than novel biologics, it does highlight how
141 regulation impacts on innovation. The nature of the regulatory system for any given
142 product can dictate the type of firms able to develop such products [4].

143 To highlight the role and influence of regulation on both sectors, we look briefly
144 at two “disruptive technologies”; GM crops in the agro-biotechnology sector; and stem
145 cells/regenerative medicine in the pharmaceutical sector. The systemic interactions of
146 regulation and innovation for these two sectors and technology platforms are highlighted.
147 A background to life science regulation is provided in Box 3.

148

149 *Path-breaking Versus Path-Dependent Products and Regulation*

150 Scientific knowledge and technological advances in biotechnology have led to radically
151 new path-breaking products in health and agriculture, including GM crops and stem-cell-
152 based therapies. In both cases, regulation has been considered crucial, but with no
153 precedent for establishing a robust governance framework. In cases of new technologies,
154 one can either look for existing regulatory regimes within which to place new product
155 ranges, or design new path-breaking regulatory frameworks to meet the specific
156 properties of the new technology. Based on our research [28-30], we consider it important
157 to question the relationship between the emergence of path-breaking innovations and the
158 putative need for path-breaking regulatory systems.

159 Path-breaking innovations do not always require novel regulatory mechanisms.
160 GM crops were a path-breaking technology - the agro-biotechnology industry expected
161 that they would be disruptive and move the sector onto a new high value-added
162 innovation model - but it was unclear for quite some time after heavy investment what the
163 nature of the regulatory regime would be. While companies can cope with radical
164 changes to their innovation systems, when these challenges are coupled with uncertainty
165 in markets and regulatory systems that are outwith their control, disruption to the entire
166 sector can be magnified [4].

167 Innovation that is “path-breaking” for one company or sector may of course be
168 “path-dependent” for another. For example, it was not inevitable that GM crops would be
169 developed and marketed only by what were then agro-chemical firms, for which they
170 were clearly path-breaking; GM crops disrupted the prevailing innovation model,

171 simultaneously impacting company R&D strategy (i.e. requiring a shift from chemistry-
172 to biology-based development and production systems), markets (i.e. seed markets are
173 very different from pesticide markets), and regulatory systems. In the 1980s and early
174 1990s, it was equally likely that food and seed companies would develop the technology.
175 For these companies, the technology was path-dependent [4,30].

176 A complex set of interactions between policymakers at European, U.S. and
177 international levels, as well as among the agro-biotechnology, food production and
178 distribution, and seed industry sectors, contributed to the overall framing of GM. It would
179 have been beneficial to guide policymakers to adopt the regulatory system that applied to
180 the industry sector for which the technology was path-dependent; in this case the seed
181 companies. The regulation of GM crop varieties would have been easier (perhaps
182 regulated under plant breeders' rights) if the initial developers had been seed firms. This
183 path-dependent regulatory approach may have made a difference to the direction of
184 innovation in GM crops today and also to European public perception of the technology.

185 This analysis also applies to the pharmaceutical sector in the case of stem cells
186 and regenerative medicine. Stem cells, like GM crops, are potentially highly disruptive of
187 prevailing pharmaceutical R&D systems, markets and regulatory systems. They require
188 modification of company R&D strategies, moving from small-molecule innovation to
189 complex biologics, and markets, which are very different to conventional blockbuster
190 drug markets (smaller patient populations and delivery mechanisms for the product are
191 far more complex, expensive and uncertain). The nature of the regulatory requirements
192 also determines whether such products are developed by conventional multinational drug
193 companies or smaller tissue engineering firms. In parallel with the GM crop example,

194 stem cells would be path-breaking for pharmaceutical multinationals, but path-dependent
195 for smaller tissue engineering companies. Comparison with GM crops would suggest that
196 if regulation of stem cells could be framed to be path-dependent for the smaller
197 companies, we might see faster and more innovative development and uptake of novel
198 therapies. However, if regulation continues to align more closely with the sector to which
199 the technology is path-breaking (multinational pharmaceutical firms), which appears to
200 be the case with the Advanced Therapies Regulation in Europe
201 [\http://eurlex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2007:324:0121:0137:en:P
202 [DF](#)], we could see delays in the development of therapies and few small, innovative
203 companies independently developing stem cell products. Whilst it is of course essential
204 that stem cells and regenerative medicine products meet the key requirements of safety
205 and efficacy, the question is whether the conventional regulations that apply to small
206 molecule blockbuster products, and more conventional biologics, are appropriate for stem
207 cells; especially when they may be a barrier to innovation. Whilst there are myths and
208 uncertainties about the regulatory gaps and barriers to regenerative medicine [32], there is
209 as yet no clear route to market for many small companies developing the technology and
210 regulatory guidelines can be vague and ambiguous. Lessons from the regulation of GM
211 crops may help us to develop regulatory processes for stem cells that encourage, rather
212 than impede, those companies best placed to innovate in this area.

213

214 **Conclusion: key lessons for new “smart” approaches to regulation**

215 Regulatory systems tend to evolve incrementally over long time periods, which make
216 them susceptible to becoming inflexible and out-of-step with the latest innovations and

217 technologies. Furthermore, regulation can become so complex that modifications to one
218 set of regulations have unforeseen consequences for other parts of the regulatory system
219 and for the innovation community. However, *de novo* creation of path-breaking
220 regulation for path-breaking technology also poses difficulties and challenges and could
221 just as easily discourage innovation as encourage it.

222 From our extensive research exploring innovation and regulation interactions in the
223 pharmaceutical and agro-biotechnology sectors [2-6; 9, 10, 14, 30] we consider there to
224 be a number of key lessons for better governance of innovative life science technologies,
225 such as GM crops and stem cells [Box 4].

226 The life sciences continue to be of high strategic importance to both developed
227 and emerging economies and shape many innovative industries. But life science
228 innovation is largely dominated by a relatively small number of multinational companies,
229 and regulatory systems often serve to maintain the status quo. Regulation is an
230 insurmountable barrier to many small start-up companies with innovative ideas that
231 challenge prevailing orthodoxy. Whilst it would of course be inappropriate to lower
232 safety and efficacy standards for life science-based products, the development of a
233 smarter approach to regulation, which we have outlined, could bring about a more
234 favourable climate for innovation.

235

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241

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350 **Box 1. Agro-biotechnology company strategies**

351 Distinct strategies were employed by leading agro-biotechnology companies. These
352 strategies were conceived in response to external pressures, including low farm
353 commodity prices and income; erosion of profit margins; more aggressive competition as
354 a result of agribusiness restructuring; and the emergence of new technologies, such as
355 genetic modification and molecular marker technologies, which challenged conventional
356 farming practice. The narrowing of chemical pipelines also crucially drove this need for a
357 new strategic vision. Companies employed these different strategies to respond to
358 maturity and pressures in the innovation environment.

359

360 *“Buying the route to market”*

361 Monsanto (from the 1980s) and Dupont both invested heavily in building the GM
362 technology base for the world’s major commodity markets: corn, soya and cotton.
363 Moving from selling agrochemicals to selling seeds required a new marketing strategy,
364 and both companies invested large sums in acquiring seed companies. Monsanto invested
365 \$8bn alone between 1996 and 1999 and DuPont purchased Pioneer in 1999 for \$7bn [9].

366

367 *“Collaboration along the route to market”*

368 AgrEvo, Zeneca, Novartis, Rhone Poulenc and Dow also invested significantly in
369 building a GM technology base throughout the 1980s, but they focused more on
370 collaboration with seed companies rather than on outright purchases. This was a more
371 incremental strategy which gathered momentum in the mid 1990s.

372

373 *“Jumping on the bandwagon”*

374 BASF and Bayer were intentionally several years behind other agro-biotechnology
375 companies in investing in GM technology, preferring to wait and to benefit from the
376 experience of other companies. BASF began investment in the mid-1990s and Bayer in
377 the early 2000s.

378

379 **Box 2. Key challenges facing the pharmaceutical industry (1990s – present day)**

380 **1. Decline in productivity** despite increases in R&D investment. The problem of product
381 maturity coupled with low productivity led to perception of “innovation deficit” that
382 continues today [19]. Since 1996, the number of small molecules approved by regulators
383 has been in decline and the number of new active compounds discovered has remained
384 constant. Companies are not generating enough new compounds in-house for sustainable
385 growth [20].

386

387 **2. High attrition rate of compounds**, particularly during Phase II clinical trials. Lack of
388 demonstrable safety and efficacy has been the principal cause of attrition, which partly
389 explains why companies experiment with new “translational sciences” [21,22],
390 particularly those centred on identifying and validating novel biomarkers.

391

392 **3. Rising overall costs of drug discovery** owing to the need for new, experimental
393 methodological approaches to R&D; increasing internationalisation of research and its
394 competitive environment, and increasing demands from regulators and healthcare
395 providers. In 2007, the cost for a firm to bring one product to market was estimated to be
396 \$800 million USD [23].

397

398 **4. Some early biotechnology firms were successful in transforming themselves into**
399 **large multinationals** (Amgen, Genzyme, Genentech and Geron); but later growth in
400 biotechnology has been slow. Today the chances of a small biotechnology firm becoming
401 a large, independent company appears bleak given the high barriers to entry.

402

403 5. There are now more **partnerships between public and private institutes** to pool
404 information and attempt delivery of niche products, including orphan drugs and products
405 vaccines for developing countries. Nevertheless, the dominant model continues to rely on
406 “blockbuster drugs” rather than targeted drugs for niche markets. Despite the promises of
407 the life sciences, multinational pharmaceutical firms did not seek to fully transform
408 themselves into biotechnology companies; in contrast to some of the agro-biotechnology
409 companies like Monsanto. Indeed, there has not yet been a pharmaceutical equivalent to
410 Monsanto.
411

412 **Box 3: The nature of regulation in the life sciences**

413 Whilst it is obvious that regulation impacts product development, we suggest that the
414 impact of regulation is much more far reaching than just ensuring goods are safe,
415 effective and high-quality – [28]. It determines overall company strategy, the types of
416 firm that will succeed in bringing products to market, and the structural dynamics of the
417 sector as a whole. For example, if we compare the lightly regulated Information and
418 Communication Technologies ICT sector with the heavily regulated life sciences, the
419 former has a much greater turnover of products and capabilities arising from
420 technological innovation. In ICT, small start-up companies can quickly become major
421 players by developing innovations that challenge the status quo. Most candidates for
422 product development in the health and agricultural sectors will fail (only one out of
423 approximately 200,000 molecules initially screened will make it to product launch);
424 therefore, innovation in life sciences appears far more linear than industries such as ICT
425 [29]. Life science innovation is dominated by a small group of multinationals, which we
426 argue is partly due to the fact that the regulatory system poses an insurmountable barrier
427 for many new entrants with innovations that threaten to disrupt the status quo.

428 The markets for life science products are also different from most other industries,
429 inasmuch as few are marketed directly to consumers. Pesticides and GM crops are sold to
430 farmers, and new medicinal products are mainly sold to health services [10]. The unique
431 combination of regulation and markets for life sciences has therefore had major impacts
432 on the structural dynamics and strategic management of both the pharmaceutical and
433 agro-biotechnology sectors.

434

435

436 **Box 4 : Key lessons for good governance of the life sciences**

437 (1) Regulatory initiatives can have significant, rapid and positive influences on the
438 innovation system. Such insights on successes should be used as exemplars when
439 designing regulatory systems for new innovations.

440 (2) Regulations appropriate for one area can have unexpected and/or negative impacts
441 when applied to other areas. Application of conventional clinical trial systems to
442 stem cells could be a major constraint, with adaptations to mechanisms such as
443 the 'hospital exemption route' for the development of therapies for named
444 patients perhaps a better way to facilitate innovation. This problem becomes more
445 likely and significant when regulators lack knowledge and understanding of the
446 new technologies.

447 (3) A regulatory policy that is *enabling* in that it encourages positive change in
448 industry strategies and appropriately *discriminates* among products on the basis of
449 socially and economically relevant criteria, will generally be more effective and
450 efficient than a policy that is *indiscriminate* and seeks to *constrain* what it
451 considers undesirable behaviour.

452 (4) The *enabling* criterion affects the rapidity with which a particular regulatory
453 policy can exert influence, while the range, scope and appropriateness of its
454 *discrimination* among products and processes will determine its effectiveness in
455 guiding desirable product development.

456 (5) Path-breaking regulation for path-breaking technology should not be the norm but
457 the last resort once all other options have been exhausted. Other options might

458 include a focus on 'substantial equivalence'. If the new technology or product is
459 substantially equivalent to an existing product, path-breaking regulation should
460 not be necessary.

461 (6) In considering which regulatory precedent is most appropriate for a new
462 technology, a useful approach would be to prioritise the regulatory system for the
463 industry sector for which the innovation is path-dependent rather than path-
464 breaking. This would ensure the sector better positioned to quickly take forward
465 the product to market is encouraged to do so.

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