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Pharmaceutical Patents' Scope of Protection and WTO Waiver Discussion

Balancing the Pharmaceutical Innovation Ecosystem
With the Global Right to Health

Foreword by Gianni Profita

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Foreword

by Gianni Profita^{*}

The relationship between intellectual property rights and public health has long been a focal point of global debate, one that has only intensified with the Covid-19 pandemic. As a legal scholar who has spent decades navigating the complex intersection of pharmaceutical patent law and global health, I have witnessed firsthand how this debate continues to evolve. At its core is a profound tension: the need to incentivize the development of life-saving drugs and technologies, while ensuring that these innovations reach all those who need them, regardless of their economic circumstances.

The article that follows is both timely and necessary. It examines the balance between

patent protection – designed to fuel innovation in the pharmaceutical sector – and the urgent need to ensure global access to medicines, especially in low- and middle-income countries. In doing so, it delves into the very heart of current legal and ethical discussions surrounding the World Trade Organization's TRIPS Agreement and the ongoing TRIPS waiver debates in the context of Covid-19. The global health crisis has underscored the inadequacies of our current IP frameworks in responding to public health emergencies, while also highlighting the potential of legal mechanisms like compulsory licensing and humanitarian licensing to bridge these gaps.

This article provides a thorough analysis of the historical,

legal, and ethical dimensions of pharmaceutical patent protection. By presenting key case studies – such as the HIV/AIDS treatment access fight and the Covid-19 vaccine distribution inequalities – it offers readers a comprehensive understanding of the practical impacts of intellectual property law on global health. Furthermore, the policy recommendations outlined here offer a clear, actionable path forward for ensuring that innovation and equitable access to essential medicines are not mutually exclusive but mutually reinforcing.

In an increasingly interconnected world, where health crises transcend borders and economic divisions, it is vital that we rethink how legal frameworks can be adapted to

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meet the needs of all humanity. This article provides invaluable insights into the future of intellectual property law and its role in global health, urging	governments, legal practitioners, pharmaceutical companies, and civil society to collaborate in creating a more just and responsive system. It is a	must-read for anyone invested in the future of global health and the protection of human rights through innovative legal reform.
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Abstract

This article examines the intricate balance between pharmaceutical patent protection and the global right to health, focusing on the role of the WTO's (World Trade Organization) TRIPS (Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights) Agreement and the ongoing discussions around the proposed TRIPS waiver for Covid-19 vaccines and treatments. Pharmaceutical patents are crucial for incentivizing innovation, allowing companies to recover the high costs of research and development. However, these protections can also limit access to life-saving medicines, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), where the high cost of patented drugs is often unaffordable.

The article explores this tension through key case studies, including the HIV/AIDS crisis, the Covid-19 pandemic, and the biologic drug market, highlighting both the successes and limitations of existing IP frameworks like compulsory licensing and voluntary licensing agreements. It further delves into the ethical responsibilities of pharmaceutical companies, the role of governments and international organizations in ensuring access to medicines, and the importance of public-private partnerships and incentive-based innovation.

To address these challenges, the article proposes several reforms to the global IP system, including the introduction of an emergency waiver mechanism for pandemics, expansion of compulsory licensing frameworks, and promotion of humanitarian licensing and patent pooling. By embracing more flexible and collaborative approaches, the global community can better balance the need for pharmaceutical innovation with the right to health, ensuring that essential medicines are accessible to all, regardless of economic status.

This article contributes to the ongoing debate about how best to reconcile intellectual property protection with public health priorities, offering policy recommendations for a more equitable global health system.

Introduction

Context and Background

The pharmaceutical industry is one of the most research-intensive sectors in the global economy, investing billions of dollars annually in the development of new treatments and therapies that improve public health and extend human life. Central to this process is the system of intellectual property (IP) rights, particularly patents, which provide exclusive rights to inventors for a limited period, allowing them to recoup research and development (R&D) costs. Patents are crucial in incentivizing innovation, as they offer pharmaceutical companies a temporary monopoly, enabling them to price drugs at levels that reflect the significant investment required to bring new products to market. However, this system also creates a tension between protecting

the interests of innovators and ensuring equitable access to life-saving medicines, particularly in LMICs.

The TRIPS Agreement, adopted by the WTO in 1995, established global minimum standards for IP protection, including pharmaceutical patents. Under TRIPS, member states are required to provide patent protection for new pharmaceutical products for at least 20 years, which has sparked widespread debate about the balance between innovation and public health. While patents are essential for fostering pharmaceutical innovation, they can also lead to high drug prices, restricting access to essential medicines in many parts of the world. The global Covid-19 pandemic reignited these concerns, leading to calls for a temporary waiver of certain TRIPS provisions to facilitate the production and distribution of vaccines and

treatments, particularly in developing countries.

Research Question

At the heart of this article is the question of how to balance the protection of pharmaceutical patents with the global right to health, especially in times of public health emergencies. Can the patent system, designed to incentivize innovation, coexist with the moral and legal obligation to provide access to life-saving medicines for all? Furthermore, the debate surrounding the WTO TRIPS waiver proposal for Covid-19 vaccines highlights the ongoing struggle to reconcile the need for IP protection with global health imperatives. This article aims to explore whether a more flexible and responsive framework is needed to address the challenges posed by pandemics and other global

health crises, while still fostering innovation in the pharmaceutical industry.

Scope and Purpose

This article will examine the role of pharmaceutical patents in the innovation ecosystem and the impact of IP protection on access to medicines. It will explore how the WTO TRIPS Agreement and its related flexibilities have been utilized in past public health emergencies, such as the HIV/AIDS crisis, and assess the implications of the proposed TRIPS waiver for Covid-19 vaccines. By analyzing key case studies and legal frameworks, this article will explore whether the current IP system adequately balances innovation with public health needs, and whether alternative models, such as compulsory licensing or patent pooling, could better address global health challenges.

Ultimately, this article seeks to answer the following critical questions:

- How can the patent system be structured to support

both innovation and global health equity?

- What lessons can be learned from previous public health crises in balancing patent protection with access to medicines?
- Is the WTO TRIPS waiver proposal a viable solution for addressing inequities in vaccine distribution, or does it risk undermining the pharmaceutical innovation ecosystem?

Structure of the Article

This article is organized into seven chapters, each addressing a different facet of the relationship between pharmaceutical patent protection and global access to health. Chapter 1 explores the pharmaceutical innovation ecosystem and the critical role of patents in promoting research and development. Chapter 2 examines the global right to health and the barriers posed by patents to accessing essential medicines, particularly in LMICs. Chapter 3 delves into the WTO TRIPS Agreement and the ongoing waiver discussions, analyzing

the key arguments for and against the waiver.

Chapter 4 presents detailed case studies, including the role of compulsory licensing during the HIV/AIDS crisis and the implications of the TRIPS waiver for Covid-19 vaccines. Chapter 5 engages with the ethical and legal perspectives on balancing innovation with health rights, discussing alternative models for pharmaceutical IP protection. Chapter 6 covers issues of translational medicine, its complex research structures and IP rights. Finally, Chapter 7 proposes potential solutions and policy recommendations for creating a more balanced system that fosters innovation while ensuring global access to essential medicines.

Through this comprehensive analysis, the article will contribute to the ongoing debate on how best to balance the pharmaceutical innovation ecosystem with the global right to health, offering insights into the future of intellectual property in the face of emerging global health challenges.

Chapter 1

The Pharmaceutical Innovation Ecosystem and Patent Protection

1.1. The Role of Patents in the Pharmaceutical Industry

Pharmaceutical patents are a cornerstone of the innovation ecosystem, providing essential incentives for companies to invest in the costly and time-consuming process of drug development. The average pharmaceutical product takes over a decade and an estimated \$2.6 billion to bring to market, from initial discovery to regulatory approval. Without the protection of patents, it would be difficult for companies to recover these investments, as competitors could easily produce and sell generic versions of a newly developed drug at a fraction of the cost.

Patents grant a temporary monopoly, usually lasting 20 years from the filing date, during which the patent holder has the exclusive right to

produce, market, and sell the drug. This exclusivity allows the company to set prices that reflect both the R&D expenses and the risk of failure (given that most drug candidates do not make it through clinical trials). The resulting profits fund future innovation and compensate for the high attrition rate in pharmaceutical research.

The patent system, while essential to pharmaceutical companies, is not without its critics. Critics argue that patents can lead to inflated drug prices, making essential medicines inaccessible to many, particularly in LMICs. High drug prices, such as those seen with HIV/AIDS treatments in the 1990s or more recently with cancer therapies and biologic drugs, underscore the tension between protecting innovation and ensuring public health.

1.2. Copyright vs. Patents: Understanding Intellectual Property Rights in Pharma

While both copyright and patents are forms of intellectual property (IP) protection, they serve distinct purposes, especially in the pharmaceutical industry. Copyright primarily protects creative works, such as books, films, and software, by granting the creator exclusive rights to reproduce, distribute, and display the work. In contrast, patents protect inventions, including new drugs, manufacturing processes, and medical devices.

For pharmaceutical companies, patents are far more critical than copyrights. A new drug is typically the result of years of experimentation, testing, and development, making patent protection crucial for recouping the costs of innovation. Patents cover the com-

position of a drug, its method of use, and the manufacturing process. In some cases, secondary patents can be filed to extend market exclusivity, for example, by patenting a new formulation or delivery method for an existing drug.

The differences between patents and copyrights reflect the nature of pharmaceutical innovation, which is more about scientific discovery and less about creative expression. While copyrights may apply to clinical study reports, research publications, or marketing materials, patents protect the core innovation in drug development, safeguarding the molecule or treatment that holds therapeutic value.

1.3. The Role of Pharmaceutical Companies

The pharmaceutical industry is a highly complex and competitive environment, dominated by two major types of companies: large multinational corporations, often referred to as “Big Pharma,” and smaller biotechnology firms. Both rely heavily on patents to survive and thrive, although their approaches to innovation and IP protection can differ significantly.

- **Big Pharma and Patent Strategies:** Large pharmaceutical companies typically maintain vast patent portfolios to protect their discoveries and control market share. They invest heavily in R&D, with revenues often exceeding billions of dollars annually, and rely on patent protection to generate returns on this investment. Companies like Pfizer, Merck, and Johnson & Johnson are prime examples of Big Pharma firms that utilize patent protection to safeguard blockbuster drugs.
- **Products that generate annual sales of more than \$1 billion.** Big Pharma often uses patent thickets, which involve filing numerous patents around a single drug, to extend market exclusivity and block generic competition.
- **Biotech Startups and Venture Capital:** Smaller biotechnology companies also depend on patents, but for different reasons. For many startups, patents are essential for attracting venture capital funding. These companies often focus on early-stage research, such as developing novel drug targets or delivery systems, and

then rely on partnerships or acquisitions by larger firms to bring their products to market. Without strong patent protection, biotech startups would struggle to secure the investment needed to develop new therapies, as potential investors would be concerned about the risk of imitation by competitors.

Both types of companies are critical to the pharmaceutical innovation ecosystem. Big Pharma has the resources to take drugs through the lengthy and costly regulatory approval process, while biotech firms often lead the way in early-stage research and development. Together, they form a symbiotic relationship that drives pharmaceutical innovation.

1.4. The Drug Development Process and Patent Timelines

The drug development process is notoriously lengthy, with several key stages that contribute to the overall cost and time required to bring a new drug to market. These stages include:

1. **Discovery and Preclinical Research:** Researchers identify potential drug targets

(such as proteins or genes involved in a disease) and conduct laboratory tests to evaluate their effects. This phase can take several years and is often the most uncertain, as many drug candidates fail to show promise in early testing.

2. Clinical Trials (Phases I-III):

Once a drug shows potential in preclinical research, it enters clinical trials, which involve testing the drug on humans. Clinical trials are divided into three phases:

- Phase I: Tests the drug's safety in a small group of healthy volunteers.
- Phase II: Evaluates the drug's efficacy in a larger group of patients with the target condition.
- Phase III: Conducts large-scale testing to confirm efficacy and monitor for side effects.

Each phase can last several years, and drugs may fail at any point.

3. Regulatory Review and Approval: After successful clinical trials, the drug is submitted to regulatory bodies (such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) or the European Medicines Agency (EMA)) for approval. This process

can take additional years as regulators review the data for safety, efficacy, and manufacturing quality.

4. Post-Approval and Marketing: Once approved, the drug enters the market, where it is typically protected by patents for the remainder of the 20-year period. However, due to the length of the development process, the patent clock starts ticking long before the drug reaches the market, leaving most drugs with only 7-12 years of effective market exclusivity.

During the post-approval period, companies often engage in marketing and may pursue secondary patents on different formulations, combinations, or uses of the drug to extend the period of exclusivity beyond the original patent's expiration.

1.5. Patents as a Double-Edged Sword: Encouraging Innovation vs. Limiting Access

While patents are essential to incentivizing pharmaceutical innovation, they also create challenges in terms of global access to medicines. Patent-protected drugs are often priced out of reach for many in devel-

oping countries, where public health systems are underfunded and patients lack the ability to pay high prices for treatments. This disparity became particularly apparent during the HIV/AIDS crisis of the late 20th century when antiretroviral drugs were available in high-income countries but inaccessible to millions of patients in LMICs.

To address this issue, international agreements, such as the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health (2001), have sought to provide some flexibility in patent enforcement, allowing countries to issue compulsory licenses in cases of public health emergencies. A compulsory license permits a government to authorize the production of a patented drug without the consent of the patent holder, usually in exchange for a fee. This mechanism has been used successfully to expand access to life-saving treatments in certain circumstances, but its application remains contentious, with many developed countries and pharmaceutical companies viewing it as an infringement on IP rights.

Moreover, the Covid-19 pandemic has brought renewed attention to the lim-

itations of the patent system, particularly in terms of vaccine access. While patent protection incentivized the rapid development of Covid-19 vaccines, it has also raised concerns about unequal distribution, with high-income countries securing the bulk of early vaccine supplies, leaving many LMICs behind.

Italy before 1978 – Without Patents for Pharmaceutical Inventions

In Italy patent protection for pharmaceutical products became available only in 1978. At that time the Constitutional Court (20/03/1978 no. 20) pronounced the unconstitutionality of art. 14 of the R.D. 29/06/1939, no. 1127 (the law on industrial inventions) which prohibited the granting of patents to pharmaceutical inventions, on the ground of some “moral” justifications. The Supreme Court ruled in favor of eighteen pharmaceutical companies, all foreign, request-

ing the enforcement of foreign patents on medical products in Italy. But surprisingly in spite of this complete lack of any patent protection, Italy had developed a strong pharmaceutical industry: by the end of the 1970s it was the fifth world producer of pharmaceuticals and the seventh exporter [1].

Spending on pharmaceutical R&D in Italy rose from 123 billion lire in 1978 to 1,632 billion lire in 1992, rising from 7.78% of turnover to 11.99% [2]. New pharmaceutical products of Italian origin marketed between 1975 and 1989 made up 9.2% of the world total of 775, while those defined as “of substantial therapeutic innovation” increased from 1.25% of the world total in 1975-79 to 2.78% during 1980-84 and to 3.9% during the period 1985-89.

But strong evidence that concentration and patent protection go hand in hand comes from the Italian experience before and after the 1978 watershed. Before 1978 the Italian pharmaceutical

industry was characterized by the presence of a large number of small and medium sized independent firms. After 1978, industry concentration proceeded rapidly: the total number of independent firms went from 464 in 1976 to 390 in 1980 and 335 in 1985. During the same period, no concentration of the productive activity took place in the pharmaceutical industry of the other large western countries. The Italian pharmaceutical industry, in the meanwhile, has lost market share at a constant pace both nationally and worldwide [3]. A conclusion may be drawn: patents in the health industry are likely to favour larger industrial structures. Concerning smaller markets than in the US it is much discussed whether the economic impact of patents in the life sciences and their role in stimulating innovation and attracting investment from the industry in medical R&D are susceptible to cause positive effects or not [4].

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Chapter 2

The Global Right to Health and Access to Medicines

2.1. The Right to Health as a Fundamental Human Right

The right to health is universally recognized as a fundamental human right, enshrined in various international legal frameworks, including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). According to Article 25 of the UDHR, “Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family,” including access to medical care. The World Health Organization (WHO) further underscores this principle, affirming that the “enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health is one of the fundamental rights of every human being.”

While these declarations provide a strong moral and legal foundation for the right to health, in practice, access to life-saving medicines remains deeply unequal across the globe. This inequality is particularly stark between high-income and LMICs. Pharmaceutical patents and the resulting high drug prices are often seen as one of the key barriers to achieving equitable access to medicines, creating a tension between IP protection and public health needs.

2.2. Access to Essential Medicines in LMICs

The issue of access to medicines is most acute in LMICs, where the majority of the global population resides, but where healthcare systems are often underfunded and fragmented. In these regions, essential medicines – those

that satisfy the priority health needs of the population – are often unavailable or unaffordable. According to WHO estimates, around two billion people globally lack access to essential medicines, resulting in preventable deaths from conditions such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, and, more recently, Covid-19.

High Prices of Patented Drugs

One of the primary barriers to access is the high price of patented drugs. Pharmaceutical companies, particularly in high-income countries, justify these prices by citing the need to recover the massive costs associated with research and development (R&D), clinical trials, and regulatory approval processes. However, for LMICs, where governments often struggle to provide basic healthcare services, paying the

high costs of patented medicines is often impossible. This has been the case with several life-saving treatments:

- HIV/AIDS Antiretrovirals: In the late 1990s, patented antiretroviral drugs to treat HIV/AIDS were priced at over \$10,000 per patient per year in high-income countries. This price was well beyond the reach of most LMICs, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, which bore the brunt of the HIV/AIDS epidemic. It wasn't until the introduction of generic versions, made possible through compulsory licensing and other TRIPS flexibilities, that the prices of antiretrovirals dropped dramatically, expanding access to millions of patients.
- Cancer Treatments: In the last decade, breakthrough cancer therapies, such as monoclonal antibodies and kinase inhibitors, have shown remarkable efficacy in treating cancers like leukemia and lung cancer. However, these drugs often carry exorbitant price tags, with treatments like Imatinib (Gleevec) initially priced at over \$100,000 per year, far beyond the reach of most

patients in LMICs. Even though compulsory licensing has been used in certain cases to produce cheaper generic versions, the complexity of patents on biologics makes this more difficult than for traditional small-molecule drugs.

- Covid-19 Vaccines: The Covid-19 pandemic highlighted global disparities in access to vaccines. Despite rapid vaccine development, LMICs faced significant barriers in obtaining doses, as high-income countries secured the majority of early supplies. The high prices set by manufacturers for patented vaccines, combined with complex distribution challenges, further exacerbated the inequity. Although mechanisms like COVAX aimed to facilitate global vaccine distribution, they were insufficient to meet demand in many LMICs.

Barriers Beyond Cost

In addition to high costs, other factors contribute to the lack of access to essential medicines in LMICs:

- Weak healthcare infrastructure: Even when generic drugs are available, weak

healthcare systems, lack of healthcare professionals, and poor distribution networks can limit their accessibility.

- Regulatory and intellectual property barriers: Some LMICs lack robust regulatory frameworks for approving new drugs, which delays their availability. Additionally, the complex patent landscapes created by secondary patents (patents filed on new formulations, combinations, or methods of use) can prevent the timely introduction of affordable generic alternatives.

2.3. The Public Health vs. IP Protection Debate

The conflict between public health and IP protection is at the heart of global discussions on access to medicines. On the one hand, pharmaceutical companies argue that patents are essential for fostering innovation, particularly in an industry where the development of a new drug can take over a decade and billions of dollars. Without the exclusive rights provided by patents, companies claim they would have little incentive to invest in the development of new treat-

ments, particularly for diseases that affect LMICs.

On the other hand, public health advocates argue that the patent system, as it currently operates, prioritizes profits over people, particularly in times of public health emergencies. They point to instances where patents have been used to restrict access to life-saving medicines, such as during the HIV/AIDS crisis or the Covid-19 pandemic. They argue that public health, particularly in LMICs, should take precedence over corporate profits, especially in the case of global health emergencies.

TRIPS and Public Health Flexibilities

Recognizing the tension between IP protection and public health, the WTO's TRIPS Agreement includes certain flexibilities that allow countries to take measures to protect public health while complying with international IP obligations. These flexibilities include:

- Compulsory Licensing: Article 31 of the TRIPS Agreement allows governments to issue compulsory licenses, enabling them to authorize the production of

a patented product without the consent of the patent holder, usually in exchange for a licensing fee. This measure has been used to expand access to essential medicines in LMICs, such as during the HIV/AIDS crisis.

- Parallel Importation: TRIPS allows countries to import patented drugs from other countries where they are sold at lower prices, thus enabling LMICs to purchase medicines more affordably.
- Bolar Provision: This allows generic manufacturers to begin producing a generic version of a patented drug before the patent expires, so they can enter the market immediately upon patent expiration.
- The most significant articulation of these flexibilities came in the form of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health (2001), which affirmed that TRIPS should not prevent countries from taking measures to protect public health and promoted the use of compulsory licensing for essential medicines.

The Ethical Dimension: Public Health as a Priority

Beyond the legal frameworks, there is a broader ethical argument that suggests that access to essential medicines should not be restricted by the exclusivity rights granted by patents. Human rights frameworks affirm that health is a basic right that governments have a duty to uphold. This perspective emphasizes that the global community should prioritize the health and well-being of individuals over intellectual property rights, particularly in times of health crises. Proponents of this view argue that the current IP system is failing to live up to its responsibilities to the most vulnerable populations, especially in LMICs, and that reforms are needed to ensure that public health takes precedence over profits.

2.4. Global Initiatives to Address Access to Medicines

To address the growing concerns about access to essential medicines, several international initiatives have been established:

- The Medicines Patent Pool (MPP): Founded in 2010, the MPP works to increase access to HIV, hepatitis C, and tuberculosis treatments by negotiating voluntary licensing agreements with pharmaceutical companies. These agreements allow for the production of generic versions of patented medicines, making them more affordable and accessible in LMICs. During the Covid-19 pandemic, the MPP extended its mandate to include Covid-19 treatments and technologies, though participation from large pharmaceutical companies has been limited.
- COVAX and Vaccine Equi-

ty: COVAX, co-led by Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance, the WHO, and the Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations (CEPI), aims to provide equitable access to Covid-19 vaccines. However, COVAX has faced significant challenges, including supply shortages and funding gaps, highlighting the difficulties in ensuring global vaccine equity.

- The WHO's Prequalification Program: This program helps ensure that medicines, vaccines, and diagnostics meet global standards of quality, safety, and efficacy, particularly for diseases prevalent in LMICs. By facilitating

access to high-quality, affordable health products, the program helps to bridge the gap between patented medicines and the needs of LMICs.

This chapter has highlighted the critical challenges associated with access to essential medicines, particularly in LMICs, and the tensions between IP protection and public health. The next chapter will explore the legal frameworks that govern pharmaceutical patents, focusing on the WTO's TRIPS Agreement and the ongoing discussions around the proposed TRIPS waiver for Covid-19 vaccines and treatments.

Chapter 3

WTO Waiver Discussions and the TRIPS Agreement

3.1. Overview of the WTO TRIPS Agreement

The WTO's Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights is a cornerstone of the global intellectual property (IP) regime. Signed in 1994 and effective since 1995, TRIPS sets minimum standards for the protection and enforcement of intellectual property rights (IPRs) among all WTO members. The agreement covers a broad spectrum of IP areas, including copyright, trademarks, geographical indications, and patents, with significant implications for the pharmaceutical sector.

In the context of pharmaceutical patents, TRIPS requires member states to provide patent protection for inventions, including medicines, for a minimum of 20 years from the filing date. This

protection allows the patent holder exclusive rights to manufacture, use, sell, and import the patented drug, creating a temporary monopoly. The aim is to incentivize innovation by allowing companies to recoup the substantial costs associated with research and development (R&D) and regulatory approval of new drugs. Without such protection, pharmaceutical companies would face the risk of competitors quickly replicating their innovations and eroding potential profits.

However, TRIPS also acknowledges that this system can create barriers to accessing essential medicines, particularly in LMICs. In recognition of this, the agreement includes several flexibilities designed to allow countries to prioritize public health over patent rights under certain circumstances. These flexibilities were formalized in the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agree-

ment and Public Health (2001), which affirms that TRIPS should not prevent member states from taking measures to protect public health, particularly in the context of access to medicines.

3.2. The Proposed WTO Waiver for Covid-19 Vaccines and Treatments

The Covid-19 pandemic exposed significant inequalities in the global health system, particularly in the distribution and availability of vaccines and treatments. While pharmaceutical companies were able to develop vaccines in record time, largely due to pre-existing research on coronaviruses and unprecedented public funding, the initial distribution of these vaccines was highly unequal. High-income countries secured large shares of the vaccine supply

through advance purchase agreements, while LMICs struggled to access the necessary doses.

In response to this inequity, several developing countries, led by India and South Africa, proposed a temporary waiver of certain provisions of the TRIPS Agreement in October 2020. This proposal, commonly referred to as the TRIPS waiver, sought to allow WTO members to waive patent protections and other IPRs for Covid-19 vaccines, treatments, and diagnostics for the duration of the pandemic. The goal was to remove legal and economic barriers to the local manufacturing of vaccines and treatments, thus increasing global supply and access, particularly in LMICs.

Key provisions of the proposed waiver included:

- Waiving patents for Covid-19-related medical products, including vaccines, treatments, and diagnostics.
- Temporarily allowing countries to produce these products without facing the threat of legal action from patent holders.
- Facilitating technology transfer and the sharing of

know-how to enable local production in LMICs.

The waiver was envisioned as a temporary emergency measure, intended to last only for the duration of the pandemic or until herd immunity was achieved globally.

3.3. Arguments For and Against the WTO Waiver

The TRIPS waiver proposal has sparked intense debate among WTO members, pharmaceutical companies, public health experts, and civil society organizations. The arguments for and against the waiver reflect the broader tension between protecting intellectual property to encourage innovation and ensuring global access to life-saving medicines.

Arguments For the Waiver

- Addressing Global Inequities in Vaccine Distribution: Proponents of the waiver argue that the existing IP system has failed to ensure equitable access to Covid-19 vaccines and treatments, particularly for LMICs. By waiving patent protections, they argue, LMICs would be

able to produce their own vaccines, reducing their reliance on supplies from high-income countries and pharmaceutical companies. This, in turn, would help address the stark disparities in vaccine access that have characterized the pandemic response.

- Expanding Global Manufacturing Capacity: The waiver would allow manufacturers in countries with sufficient production capacity, such as India, South Africa, and Brazil, to produce Covid-19 vaccines and treatments without the risk of patent infringement lawsuits. This would increase global supply and reduce reliance on a small number of companies and countries for vaccine production, potentially accelerating the end of the pandemic.
- Humanitarian Considerations: Advocates for the waiver argue that the Covid-19 pandemic represents a global humanitarian crisis, and public health should take precedence over corporate profits. They emphasize that the extraordinary nature of the pandemic requires extraordinary measures, and waiving patent

rights is a necessary step to save lives. Additionally, they argue that many of the vaccines were developed with significant public funding, meaning that the public should have a greater say in how they are distributed.

Arguments Against the Waiver

- **Undermining Incentives for Innovation:** Opponents, particularly from the pharmaceutical industry, argue that the TRIPS waiver would undermine the incentives that drive pharmaceutical innovation. Patents, they argue, are essential for ensuring that companies can recoup their investments in R&D. Without the promise of patent protection, companies may be less willing to invest in developing new treatments or vaccines in the future. This could have long-term negative effects on innovation, particularly for diseases that primarily affect LMICs.
- **Alternative Mechanisms Already Exist:** Critics of the waiver point out that TRIPS already includes flexibilities, such as compulsory licensing, that allow countries to bypass patent protections

in cases of public health emergencies. These mechanisms, they argue, should be used more effectively rather than waiving IP protections entirely. In addition, opponents highlight that issues related to the pandemic, such as vaccine distribution and manufacturing bottlenecks, are often due to logistical challenges rather than IP barriers.

- **Concerns Over Safety and Quality:** Some critics also express concerns about the safety and quality of vaccines and treatments produced without the involvement of the original patent holders. They argue that simply waiving patents does not guarantee the transfer of the complex technology and know-how required to manufacture vaccines like the mRNA-based Covid-19 vaccines. Without proper oversight, there could be issues related to quality control, safety, and efficacy in vaccines produced under the waiver.

3.4. Precedents and Current Implementation of the TRIPS Flexibilities

The TRIPS waiver proposal is not without precedent.

Over the past two decades, several global health crises have prompted countries to utilize TRIPS flexibilities, particularly compulsory licensing, to address public health emergencies.

HIV/AIDS Crisis and the Doha Declaration

The HIV/AIDS pandemic in the late 1990s and early 2000s marked a turning point in the global debate over access to medicines. At the height of the crisis, patented antiretroviral drugs were prohibitively expensive for most LMICs, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where the epidemic was most severe. The price of life-saving treatments put them out of reach for millions of people.

In response, the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health was adopted in 2001. This declaration affirmed that TRIPS “can and should be interpreted and implemented in a manner supportive of WTO members’ right to protect public health.” It emphasized the use of compulsory licensing as a tool to expand access to essential medicines during health emergencies.

Following the Doha Declaration, several countries,

including Thailand and Brazil, issued compulsory licenses to produce generic versions of antiretroviral drugs, which significantly lowered prices and increased access to HIV/AIDS treatments. This experience demonstrated that TRIPS flexibilities could be successfully used to address global health challenges.

Compulsory Licensing for Cancer and Hepatitis C Treatments

Beyond HIV/AIDS, compulsory licensing has been used in other health emergencies. For example, India issued a compulsory license in 2012 for Nexavar (sorafenib), a cancer drug, allowing a local company to produce a generic version at a fraction of the original cost. Similarly, several countries have considered or implemented compulsory licensing for expensive treatments for hepatitis C and other non-communicable diseases.

Challenges and Limitations of TRIPS Flexibilities

While the TRIPS flexibilities have been used to address

some public health emergencies, they are not without limitations. Compulsory licensing, in particular, can be a lengthy and bureaucratic process, and it often faces political pressure from high-income countries and pharmaceutical companies. Moreover, compulsory licenses are typically issued on a case-by-case basis, limiting their usefulness in addressing widespread global health emergencies like Covid-19.

Additionally, many of the newer biologic drugs, including vaccines, are more complex to produce than small-molecule drugs. Even with a compulsory license, manufacturers may lack the technical expertise or access to the necessary raw materials to produce these drugs effectively.

3.5. The Path Forward: The Status of the TRIPS Waiver Discussions

As of 2024, the TRIPS waiver discussions remain ongoing, with no consensus yet reached among WTO members. While there is broad support for the waiver from LMICs and several international organizations, many high-income countries and pharmaceutical companies

remain opposed. The ongoing negotiations reflect the broader global debate about how best to balance IP protection with public health needs in times of crisis.

The outcome of these discussions will have far-reaching implications for the future of global health and the pharmaceutical industry. If the waiver is adopted, it could set a precedent for future pandemics and global health emergencies, potentially leading to more flexible interpretations of IP protections in the context of public health. However, if the waiver is rejected, the current IP system may remain largely unchanged, with public health advocates continuing to push for reforms through other means.

This chapter has explored the origins, implications, and ongoing debates surrounding the WTO TRIPS Agreement and the proposed waiver for Covid-19 vaccines and treatments. In the next chapter, we will delve into specific case studies that illustrate the practical impact of IP protection on global access to medicines and examine potential solutions for balancing innovation with the right to health.

Chapter 4

Case Studies and Practical Implications

In this chapter, we will explore several real-world case studies that highlight the tension between intellectual property (IP) protection and access to life-saving medicines. These case studies offer a nuanced perspective on how patent laws, international agreements like the WTO's TRIPS Agreement, and other intellectual property rights impact global health outcomes.

The cases include the HIV/AIDS crisis, the development and distribution of Covid-19 vaccines, and the complexities surrounding biologic drugs. These examples illustrate both the successes and limitations of the current system, providing a foundation for discussing potential reforms in later chapters.

4.1. Case Study 1: HIV/AIDS Medication and the Doha Declaration

The HIV/AIDS crisis of the late 20th century was a turning point in the global discussion about access to medicines, especially in LMICs. At the height of the crisis, antiretroviral (ARV) treatments, which could significantly extend the lives of people living with HIV/AIDS, were priced at around \$10,000 per patient per year. This cost was prohibitively high for the majority of patients in LMICs, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where the epidemic was most severe. This case study illustrates how the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health enabled the use of compulsory licensing to expand access to life-saving medicines.

The Role of Patents in the HIV/AIDS Crisis

At the onset of the crisis, multinational pharmaceutical companies held patents on the most effective ARV therapies. As the crisis worsened, public health advocates criticized the high prices of these drugs, arguing that patent protections were preventing millions from accessing life-saving treatments. In response to growing pressure from civil society, governments, and international organizations, the WTO convened a meeting in 2001 that led to the adoption of the Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health.

The Doha Declaration clarified that WTO members have the right to use the TRIPS Agreement's flexibilities, including compulsory licensing, to protect public health. It

emphasized that TRIPS should not prevent countries from taking measures to ensure access to medicines in public health emergencies. The Declaration marked a significant victory for public health advocates and LMICs seeking to produce or import cheaper generic versions of patented ARVs.

Compulsory Licensing in Practice

Following the Doha Declaration, several countries, including Brazil and Thailand, issued compulsory licenses to produce or import generic ARVs. This significantly lowered the cost of treatment and expanded access to millions of people living with HIV/AIDS. For instance, Brazil's compulsory licensing policy allowed the government to negotiate significantly lower prices for ARVs, which contributed to the country's successful HIV/AIDS treatment program.

Moreover, pharmaceutical companies began to respond to the pressure by offering discounts on patented ARVs or entering into voluntary licensing agreements with generic manufacturers. The price of ARVs dropped from \$10,000

per patient per year in the late 1990s to less than \$100 per patient per year by the mid-2000s, dramatically increasing access to treatment.

Lessons Learned

The HIV/AIDS crisis demonstrated the power of TRIPS flexibilities, such as compulsory licensing, to expand access to essential medicines in public health emergencies. However, it also highlighted the limitations of this approach. The process of issuing compulsory licenses can be slow and bureaucratic, often requiring negotiations with patent holders, which can delay access to urgently needed treatments. Moreover, pharmaceutical companies and high-income countries, such as the United States and members of the European Union, have sometimes exerted political pressure on countries attempting to use compulsory licensing, further complicating the process.

4.2. Case Study 2: Covid-19 Vaccines and the TRIPS Waiver Proposal

The Covid-19 pandemic presented unprecedented challenges to global public

health and exposed significant inequities in the distribution of vaccines and treatments. While vaccines were developed in record time, thanks in part to innovative technologies like mRNA, access to these vaccines was highly unequal. High-income countries were able to secure the bulk of early vaccine supplies through advance purchase agreements, leaving many LMICs without sufficient doses. This case study examines the impact of intellectual property protection on Covid-19 vaccine distribution and the ongoing debate over the proposed TRIPS waiver.

The Development of Covid-19 Vaccines

The rapid development of Covid-19 vaccines was a remarkable scientific achievement, driven by public and private sector investment. However, the initial distribution of these vaccines was marked by stark inequities. By mid-2021, high-income countries had administered the majority of available doses, while many LMICs struggled to vaccinate even a small portion of their populations. This disparity was partly due to the patent protections on Covid-19

vaccines, which limited the ability of LMICs to produce their own doses or source them from alternative suppliers.

The TRIPS Waiver Proposal

In response to the inequitable distribution of vaccines, India and South Africa proposed a temporary waiver of certain provisions of the TRIPS Agreement in October 2020. The waiver aimed to allow WTO member states to suspend IP protections for Covid-19 vaccines, treatments, and diagnostics for the duration of the pandemic. Proponents of the waiver argued that it would remove legal barriers to the local manufacturing of vaccines and treatments, particularly in LMICs, thereby increasing global supply and accelerating the end of the pandemic.

However, the waiver proposal faced strong opposition from several high-income countries, including the United States (initially), the European Union, and the United Kingdom, as well as major pharmaceutical companies. Opponents argued that the waiver would undermine incentives for innovation and that the real barriers to vac-

cine distribution were related to supply chain issues and manufacturing capacity, not intellectual property.

COVAX and the Challenges of Equitable Distribution

The COVAX initiative, co-led by Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance, the WHO, and the Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations (CEPI), was designed to ensure equitable access to Covid-19 vaccines, particularly for LMICs. While COVAX was successful in delivering vaccines to many countries, it faced significant challenges, including insufficient funding and supply shortages, which hindered its ability to meet global demand.

Lessons from the Covid-19 Vaccine Rollout

The Covid-19 vaccine case highlights the complex relationship between intellectual property, global health, and manufacturing capacity. While patent protection did not create the sole barrier to vaccine access, it contributed to the inequities by limiting the ability of LMICs to produce their own vaccines. Moreover,

the debate over the TRIPS waiver exposed the limitations of the existing IP system in responding to global health emergencies. The waiver proposal remains a contentious issue, with ongoing negotiations within the WTO, and its outcome will have significant implications for future pandemics.

4.3. Case Study 3: Biologic Drugs and Patent Thickets

Biologic drugs, which are derived from living organisms, represent some of the most advanced and expensive treatments available today. These drugs are used to treat conditions such as cancer, autoimmune diseases, and genetic disorders. However, the patent landscape for biologics is far more complex than for traditional small-molecule drugs, creating additional barriers to the production of affordable biosimilars (generic versions of biologics). This case study explores how patent thickets have been used to extend the market exclusivity of biologic drugs, preventing competition and driving up costs.

The Rise of Biologic Drugs

Biologic drugs have revolutionized the treatment of many serious diseases, offering targeted therapies that can be more effective than traditional treatments. However, biologics are significantly more expensive to develop and produce, and this is reflected in their market prices. For example, Humira (adalimumab), a biologic used to treat autoimmune conditions like rheumatoid arthritis, has been one of the best-selling drugs globally, but its cost can exceed \$50,000 per patient per year in the United States.

Patent Thickets and Evergreening

To protect their market exclusivity, pharmaceutical companies often file multiple patents on various aspects of a biologic drug, a practice known as evergreening. These secondary patents can cover new formulations, dosing regimens, delivery mechanisms, or even slight modifications in the manufacturing process. The result is a patent thicket, a dense web of overlapping patents that can extend exclusivity beyond the original 20-year patent term.

For instance, AbbVie, the manufacturer of Humira, has filed over 100 patents on the drug in the United States, effectively delaying the entry of biosimilar competitors until at least 2023, even though the original patent expired in 2016. This extended exclusivity has allowed AbbVie to continue charging high prices, limiting access to the drug for patients in LMICs and driving up healthcare costs in high-income countries.

Barriers to Biosimilar Entry

Even when biosimilar manufacturers manage to navigate patent thickets, the development and regulatory approval process for biosimilars is far more complex than for small-molecule generics. Biologic drugs are large, complex molecules that are more difficult to replicate, and biosimilars must undergo rigorous testing to demonstrate that they are sufficiently similar to the original biologic. This complexity, combined with the legal challenges posed by patent thickets, has delayed the introduction of biosimilars and kept prices high.

Lessons from Biologics

The case of biologic drugs and patent thickets demonstrates how the current IP system can be manipulated to extend market exclusivity, creating significant barriers to competition and access to affordable treatments. It highlights the need for reform in the way patents are granted and enforced, particularly for biologics, where the public health implications of delayed access are profound.

4.4. Summary of Practical Implications

The case studies presented in this chapter illustrate the practical impact of patent protection on global health. While patents play a crucial role in incentivizing innovation, they can also create significant barriers to access, particularly in LMICs. The HIV/AIDS crisis showed the potential for TRIPS flexibilities, like compulsory licensing, to expand access to life-saving medicines, but also revealed the limitations of these mechanisms in practice. The Covid-19 pandemic exposed the limitations of the global IP system in responding to urgent health crises and

highlighted the need for more flexible, equitable solutions. Finally, the case of biologic drugs and patent thickets demonstrates how the strategic use of patents can extend

market exclusivity, delaying access to affordable treatments.

In the next chapter, we will explore legal and ethical perspectives on balancing

pharmaceutical innovation with the global right to health, and propose potential reforms to the existing system to better address global health challenges.

Chapter 5

Legal and Ethical Perspectives on Balancing Innovation and Health Rights

This chapter delves into the legal and ethical perspectives surrounding the complex relationship between pharmaceutical innovation, intellectual property (IP) rights, and the global right to health. While patents and other forms of IP protection are critical for fostering innovation in the pharmaceutical industry, they often create barriers to accessing life-saving medicines, particularly in LMICs. Striking a balance between the need to incentivize innovation and ensuring global access to essential medicines is one of the most pressing challenges in contemporary global health policy. This chapter will explore the ethical responsibilities of pharmaceutical companies, the role of governments and international organizations, and alternative IP models aimed at balancing these competing interests.

5.1. The Ethical Responsibility of Pharmaceutical Companies

Pharmaceutical companies play a pivotal role in the global health ecosystem. They are responsible for developing new treatments and cures that save millions of lives each year. However, these companies are also profit-driven entities, and their primary obligation is often seen as maximizing shareholder value. This tension between corporate profit motives and broader public health needs raises important ethical questions about the role of pharmaceutical companies in society.

Profit vs. Public Good

Pharmaceutical companies argue that the high costs of drug development, particularly for innovative therapies,

necessitate strong patent protections and premium pricing models. Without the prospect of significant financial returns, companies would be reluctant to invest the billions of dollars required to bring new drugs to market, especially given the high risks of failure in drug development. This argument, often referred to as the “innovation incentive”, is the foundation of the pharmaceutical patent system.

However, critics argue that this focus on profit can sometimes come at the expense of the public good, particularly when it comes to access to life-saving medicines. The high prices of patented drugs often make them inaccessible to patients in LMICs, where health-care systems are underfunded and out-of-pocket payments for medicines are common. This raises ethical questions about whether pharmaceutical companies have a moral

obligation to prioritize access to medicines over maximizing profits, particularly in cases of global health emergencies.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Access to Medicines

In recent years, the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has gained traction within the pharmaceutical industry. CSR refers to the idea that companies should act ethically and contribute to the welfare of society beyond their financial and legal obligations. For pharmaceutical companies, CSR often involves initiatives to improve access to medicines, particularly in LMICs. These initiatives can include:

- Voluntary Licensing Agreements: Some pharmaceutical companies have entered into voluntary licensing agreements with generic manufacturers, allowing them to produce cheaper versions of patented drugs for distribution in LMICs. These agreements have been particularly important in expanding access to HIV/AIDS treatments and, more recently, some Covid-19 treatments.

- Differential Pricing: Differential pricing is a strategy where pharmaceutical companies charge lower prices for patented drugs in LMICs than in high-income countries. While this approach can improve access to medicines in poorer countries, it is not without controversy, as pricing structures can still leave many essential medicines unaffordable for the poorest populations.
- Philanthropic Programs: Some pharmaceutical companies have established philanthropic programs to donate or subsidize medicines for populations in need. While these programs can have a positive impact, critics argue that they are often limited in scope and do not address the underlying structural issues related to patent protection and access to medicines.

While CSR initiatives are a step in the right direction, many public health advocates argue that they are not sufficient to address the deeper ethical challenges posed by the patent system. They contend that pharmaceutical companies, given their central role in

global health, have a broader ethical responsibility to ensure that life-saving medicines are available to all, regardless of ability to pay.

5.2. The Role of Governments and International Organizations

Governments and international organizations also play a crucial role in balancing pharmaceutical innovation with access to medicines. While pharmaceutical companies develop and market new drugs, governments are responsible for regulating these companies and ensuring that public health needs are met. At the international level, organizations such as the WHO, the WTO, and the United Nations (UN) shape the global frameworks that govern pharmaceutical patents and access to medicines.

Government Regulation and the Public Health Imperative

Governments have several tools at their disposal to regulate the pharmaceutical industry and ensure access to medicines. These tools include:

- Price Controls: Some governments, particularly in

Europe, regulate the prices of medicines to ensure that they are affordable for their populations. However, price controls can be controversial, as pharmaceutical companies argue that they reduce the incentives for innovation by limiting the potential returns on investment.

- **Compulsory Licensing:** As discussed in previous chapters, compulsory licensing allows governments to authorize the production of generic versions of patented drugs without the consent of the patent holder, usually in exchange for a licensing fee. While compulsory licensing is an important tool for expanding access to medicines in public health emergencies, it is often resisted by pharmaceutical companies and high-income countries, which argue that it undermines the global patent system.
- **Public Funding for Research and Development (R&D):** Governments can also play a proactive role in funding pharmaceutical R&D, particularly for diseases that primarily affect LMICs and are often neglected by the private sector. Publicly funded R&D

can help ensure that new treatments are developed in response to public health needs rather than market demand, and can lead to more affordable medicines.

International Organizations and Global Health Governance

At the international level, organizations such as the WHO and the WTO play a critical role in shaping the frameworks that govern pharmaceutical patents and access to medicines. The WTO's TRIPS Agreement sets the global rules for IP protection, while the WHO works to ensure that public health remains a priority in global governance.

- **The WHO's Role in Promoting Access to Medicines:** The WHO has long advocated for policies that prioritize access to essential medicines, particularly in LMICs. The Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health, adopted in 2001, was a significant victory for public health advocates, as it affirmed that countries should be able to use TRIPS flexibilities to en-

sure access to medicines in public health emergencies. More recently, the WHO has played a key role in advocating for global vaccine equity during the Covid-19 pandemic, through initiatives such as COVAX.

- **The Role of the WTO in Balancing IP Protection and Public Health:** The WTO's TRIPS Agreement is one of the most important international agreements governing pharmaceutical patents. While the TRIPS Agreement was designed to promote innovation by providing strong IP protections, it has been criticized for creating barriers to access to medicines in LMICs. The ongoing discussions around the proposed TRIPS waiver for Covid-19 vaccines highlight the challenges of balancing IP protection with the global right to health.

Governments and international organizations must work together to ensure that the global IP system is flexible enough to respond to public health emergencies while still incentivizing innovation. This requires a delicate balance, as overly rigid IP protections can exacerbate global health

inequities, while overly broad exceptions to IP protections can undermine the incentives for future innovation.

5.3. Humanitarian Licensing and Open-Source Approaches to Pharmaceuticals

In light of the challenges posed by the current IP system, alternative models for incentivizing pharmaceutical innovation and expanding access to medicines have gained increasing attention. Two of the most promising models are humanitarian licensing and open-source pharmaceutical research.

Humanitarian Licensing

Humanitarian licensing refers to the practice of granting licenses for the production of patented medicines in a way that prioritizes access for underserved populations. Under this model, patent holders can allow generic manufacturers to produce and distribute their medicines in LMICs, often at reduced prices or royalty-free. This approach allows pharmaceutical companies to retain their patent rights in high-income countries, where they can still charge higher prices to recoup R&D costs,

while ensuring that essential medicines are affordable and accessible in LMICs.

Humanitarian licensing has been used successfully in several cases:

- The Medicines Patent Pool (MPP): The MPP, established in 2010, works to increase access to HIV, tuberculosis (TB), and hepatitis C treatments by negotiating voluntary licenses with pharmaceutical companies. These licenses allow generic manufacturers to produce and distribute affordable versions of patented medicines in LMICs. The MPP has played a key role in expanding access to HIV treatments in many countries, and during the Covid-19 pandemic, it extended its mandate to include Covid-19 treatments and technologies.

While humanitarian licensing has proven effective in expanding access to some essential medicines, it relies on the willingness of patent holders to participate. Critics argue that a more formalized and mandatory system of licensing may be needed to ensure that life-saving medicines are available to

all, particularly in the case of future pandemics.

Open-Source Pharmaceutical Research

The open-source model of pharmaceutical research aims to address the limitations of the current IP system by promoting collaboration and transparency in drug development. Under this model, researchers, universities, and pharmaceutical companies share data, research findings, and technologies openly, allowing for faster and more efficient drug development. The open-source approach removes the barriers created by patents, ensuring that new treatments are widely accessible and affordable.

One example of this approach is the Open Source Malaria project, which brings together scientists from around the world to collaborate on the development of new treatments for malaria. By sharing their research and findings openly, participants in the project hope to accelerate the discovery of new malaria treatments without the need for patent protection.

The open-source model holds great promise for addressing global health

challenges, particularly for diseases that are often neglected by the traditional pharmaceutical market. However, this model also raises questions about how to fund R&D without the financial incentives provided by patent protection. Some proponents of open-source research argue that public funding, prizes, and other non-patent incentives can be used to encourage innovation without creating barriers to access.

5.4. The Future of Intellectual Property and Global Health

The global IP system is at a crossroads. As the world

faces new and evolving health challenges, including pandemics, climate change, and antimicrobial resistance, there is a growing need for more flexible and equitable approaches to pharmaceutical innovation and access to medicines. This chapter has highlighted several potential paths forward, including humanitarian licensing, open-source pharmaceutical research, and increased public funding for R&D.

The challenge is to create a system that incentivizes innovation while ensuring that all people, regardless of where they live or how much they earn, have access to the

medicines they need to live healthy lives. Achieving this balance will require cooperation among pharmaceutical companies, governments, international organizations, and civil society. As the Covid-19 pandemic has shown, global health is a collective responsibility, and the future of the IP system must reflect this reality.

In the next chapter, we will explore specific policy recommendations for reforming the current system and consider how the lessons learned from the Covid-19 pandemic can be applied to future global health challenges.

Chapter 6

Translational Medicine and the Role of Patent Protection

6.1. Definition of Translational Medicine

Translational medicine aims at bringing together different disciplines, resources, expertise and technical know-how. In this way it facilitates the development and improvement of health promotion, prevention, diagnosis, therapy and rehabilitation. Essential elements of translational medicine are the combination of basic research with the practical application of research results in patient care. A much used definition of translational medicine explains its purpose as “an interdisciplinary branch of the biomedical field supported by three main pillars: benchside, bedside, and community” [1].

6.2. Establishing a Close Integration of Stakeholders from Industries, Clinics, and Academia as well as the Involvement of Relevant Legal Bodies and Normative Authorities

Moving new drug candidates from preclinical research into human studies and the approved drug is only approximately 0.1% [2], and major causes are the lack of effectiveness and poor safety profiles unpredicted in preclinical and animal studies. Translating a basic discovery into a potential drug candidate or biomarker that is ready to be tested in humans is a complicated, time-consuming process that requires collaboration between the academic scientists who make discoveries and clinicians. Translational research thus aims to apply fundamental knowledge gained from

basic research activities to the human condition. However, translational research is more challenging and costlier to conduct than basic research since with animals and humans it involves complex organisms [3].

Yet this collaboration can make it difficult for universities to engage in translational projects, taking into account that such projects can often be significantly harder to plan than more traditional research projects. Transformative research may require more flexible timeframes and resources. Budgeting and timetabling may be done robustly when there is substantial existing knowledge about the chosen methods and fields of application, but in the absence of such knowledge, parameters are harder to set [4]. It appears that an efficient collaboration between the different stakeholders in a research project of translational medicine is essential.

6.3. The WHO's Best Practices in Clinical Trial Transparency and the Dichotomy of Traditional Practice: Publish and Patent an Invention or Exploit it Under the Regime of Secrecy

States grant patents and the exclusivity in the exploitation in the patented invention in return for the publication of the invention. The inventor, in turn, has the possibility to apply for a patent or – if he prefers to keep his invention secret – to exploit the invention under the regime of secrecy. The latter does not give him exclusivity. This means that, for example, if another person makes an identical invention, he cannot prevent that person from exploiting the invention. However, the public interest in medical research seems to limit the inventor's possibility to keep his research, which may lead to the invention, in another important manner.

The WHO found that a significant proportion of operators of clinical trials never make their results public. The WHO found that the non-publication results to a waste of research, leading to a duplication of research [5]. Thus European medical research

funders should require grantees to register and report clinical trials in line with WHO best practices. It was found that the prospective registration and publication of outcomes of all clinical trials constitute a global ethics requirement set out by the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki [6]. Accordingly, it would become necessary to design laws and regulations to ensure the existence of public health programs and the need to train data scientists and the need to access both data and new knowledge [7].

Yet the publication of the outcome of clinical trials has not only positive effects. I will make everybody aware of the subjects of research and testing which is done at research institutions – at least at those receiving support from research funders applying WHO best practices which oblige research institutions in their programs and agreements to apply these practices.

But the high costs of the financing of research in the medical fields may have a disciplinary effect: New innovation models for drug discovery are emerging in response to high costs, duplication of efforts, and diminishing lev-

els of product development. Many of these new models emphasize collaboration between academia, government, industry, nongovernmental organizations, and patient organizations on the basis of the principle that no one entity can itself do most of the R&D needed to develop a new drug or therapy [8].

6.4. An Open Innovative Model for Translational Medicine

Since 2000 there are successful types of cooperation developed in the field of translational medicine as so-called PPP (public private partnerships), funded largely by government, philanthropic foundations, and large multinational companies [9]. For example, the Sitem-Insel, set up in 2019 in the Swiss capital Bern as a national competence centre for translational medicine may qualify as an exemplary PPP. Its task is to bring research to patients quickly and at the highest quality. Doctors, engineers and regulatory experts for medical devices work closely together. From 2019 to 2022 projects supported by the Sitem-Insel led to 28 patent applications, more than 980 scientific articles and the

award of some 190 educational diplomas. The Sitem-Insel has some 450 employees [10]. With its research at the interface of medicine, economics and law, the professorship for regulatory issues in healthcare, located at sitem-insel, builds important competencies and contributes to the creation of effective and lean structures for translation.

6.5. Importance of Patents in Translational Research

The relevance of the patent system attaches at different stages of the process of translational research and the development of innovations for clinical use. At the research stage it may be useful to undertake a patent search in order to identify inventions which are patented and therefore excluded from an exploiting use. Additionally, a global patent search can be useful to identify the state of the art in the field the researcher aims to work in. If the field is already covered by patents it is unlikely that the researcher can find sufficient finance for his research. In fact, this approach does not differ much from research in other fields which may have an

outcome of patentable inventions. Thus the patent search will provide information on published inventions already in use and on inventions actually protected by patents. From the fields to which publications relate it may also be inferred the level which level of research which competitors achieved.

Patented inventions may create difficulties for translational researchers. It is difficult to decide when it is appropriate and necessary to investigate intellectual property issues and to establish which patents apply and with whom to negotiate licenses, given that this requires a significant investment. Although it may not be necessary to actually negotiate licenses with patent holders until innovative research reaches clinical use, it may then be too late for the investigation of the existing patents impinging on the provision of a clinical service or the commercialization of an invention. Significant effort will have been invested in the research and it is inappropriate, if at this point, it is discovered that appropriate license arrangements cannot be negotiated, or if there is significant delay. Also, a researcher who has not obtained a patent license at this stage will not be in a strong bargaining position

to negotiate a competitive license fee [11].

Translational research projects may therefore familiarize researchers with patent law. European research programs may envisage services covering different aspects such as regulation, commercialisation, drug development, intellectual property, patenting and industrial collaborations. Funded projects may include the development of decision making regarding strategic aspects of projects' organizational tasks such as patenting and the protection by intellectual property [12].

Health related partnerships may have difficulties, even when successful, in accessing resources to further advance innovations. These hurdles consist also in searching a way to market through patenting and licensing spin-offs in collaboration with firms [13]. Therefore a close collaboration between researchers and those familiar with legal issues relating to IP and patenting as well as licensing is important. This could establish a fundamental contribution of translational research for the implementation of public policies and institutional models that produce fertile conditions for

the generation and diffusion of innovations in health [14]. Thus safeguarding intellectual property and licensing terms of patent rights are critical for the success of an open innovation model which may involve different players such as public institutions, foundations, universities and pharmaceutical companies [15].

6.6. Avoiding the Infringement of Existing Patents During the Research Stage

At the research stage patents become relevant when the invention created by translational research enters the stage of commercialization and when diagnostic testing is done at clinics [16]. Researchers should be aware that the use of technologies can lead to infringements of existing patents and the risk of patent litigation. Researchers and their employers risk not only the payment of damages for patent infringement, additionally, media reports may cause damage to the career of researchers.

Yet at the research stage this risk is relatively low due to the fact that national patent laws generally provide for the so-called experimental use exception from the exclusivity

of the patent right. For example, Article 68 of the Italian Code of Industrial Property provides that the exclusive right granted by a patent does not extend to acts carried out in an experimental manner; to studies and experiments aimed at obtaining, also in foreign countries, an authorization for the placing on the market of a drug; or to the consequent practical fulfillments thereof, including the preparation and use of pharmacologically active raw materials strictly necessary for such purpose.

According to this experimental use exemption, it is allowed to use patented inventions to the extent that the research work is finalized. The mere application of a patented product is instead not permitted, but research and its use for improving the invention is permissible [17]. The difference between improving and applying a patented product is determined by observing objectively the type of experiments actually performed by the unauthorized patent user. With this regard the purpose which the researcher aims at with the use, remains irrelevant. Thus clear definitions and awareness of when, and how, the research exemptions apply, are necessary.

If the intended use of the patented invention does not fall within the research exemption, patent licenses may have to be negotiated. Still the risk for researchers to be pursued for patent infringement remains relatively low. This is because patentees may fear a bad press and a bad publicity if they act against researchers. But another factor may be more relevant: even if a patentee may be able to obtain an injunction to stop the use of the patented invention against the researcher, it is unlikely that he will obtain a substantial amount of damages. The infringing use is limited to the research stage and therefore the use of the patented invention will not have caused profits or gains affecting the patent holder's property.

6.7. Patenting Inventions and Exploitation Strategies as Creative Strategies

Concerning their own inventions researchers in translational medicine should be aware of the commercial value which the patenting of their inventions may assume. This issue is not particularly typical of translational research. Since

there are different academic fields involved, it may be necessary to institutionalise joint discussions. Within this context a creative management of patent rights facilitates the development of malleable structures responsive to the pace of change in industry, including the downsizing of research and development in large pharmaceutical companies and increasing translational activity in academia [18]. What is required is a recalibration of how intellectual property rights are used, supported by evidence based on measures that capture the complexity of a networked research and development environment.

6.8. Some Italian Projects Concerning Translational Medicine

There are numerous projects in Italy which promote translational medicine and which foster the use of intellectual property.

CITT (Milan)

In October 2023 the foundation Human Technopole's Centre for Innovation and Technology Transfer (CITT), Milan, and Nature Italy

hosted a conference on Future Trends in Translational Medicine [19]. Flight Science Communications reported on the conference [20]: Efficient collaboration among researchers, clinicians, and industry partners is crucial to rapidly translate discoveries into clinical applications. "We are very good at doing research and publishing papers, but we need to motivate and raise awareness in young researchers of the importance of transferring scientific results from laboratories to market and society," said Fabio Terragni, member of the management committee delegate for technology transfer at Human Technopole.

Set up by the Italian government in 2018, Human Technopole is a research foundation located in Milan, Italy. Its mission is to conduct basic research in the life sciences, promoting people's health and well-being. The Human Technopole's Centre for Innovation and Technology Transfer, set up in 2020, is providing entrepreneurial training to Italian scientists and hosting national and international networking events involving academic organizations, public bodies and industry, to capture the value of Italian research.

The massive data collections applied by AI supports projects of translational medicine in particular concerning the identification of the state of available technologies, whether patented or not, but also with regard to extract useful information from complex multidimensional data.

DiMET (Novara)

The Dipartimento di Medicina Traslazionale (DiMET) at Novara was set up in 2012. Its research activities relate to "translate" new knowledge from basic sciences to biomedical science, in order to generate advanced diagnostic or therapeutic applications, also offering new investigative tools. Technology transfer belongs to its missions [21].

DISMET (Napoli)

The DISMET (Department of Translational Medical Science) was founded by professors from the Departments of Internal Medicine, Pediatrics and Pediatric Surgery and Clinical Pathology of the University "Federico II". The Department aims at promoting the transfer of knowledge from basic science to clinical

practice for patients of all ages. The Department provides answers to the new requests from the scientific community interested in the translational research and in the technology transfer and applications in the biomedical field. The main feature of the research is a multidisciplinary approach to the study of the molecular basis of hereditary, metabolic, endocrine, cardiovascular, gastroenterological, rheumatologic, pneumological, neurological, oncologic, infectious and immunologic diseases [22].

The Department coordinates the PhD course in Clinical and Experimental Medicine. The training activities promote the application of biotechnology and molecular technologies in medicine. Within the Department operate the Interdepartmental Centre for Research in Basic and Clinical Immunological Sciences (CISI) and the Inter-University Center “European Laboratory for the Investigation of Food Induced Diseases” (ELFID).

IFT (Rome)

The Italian National Research Council’s (CNR)

Institute of Translational Pharmacology aims at accelerating the translation of basic research discoveries in biology and medicine into novel therapeutics and diagnostics tools [23]. It is the mission of scientists working at the IFT to contribute to the process of accelerating the translation of basic research discoveries in biology and medicine into novel therapeutics and diagnostics tools.

The IFT serves as a territorial strategic resource for the development of advanced biomedical research and particularly for the development of the pharmaceuticals sector on the regional and national territory. This propensity is documented by a high number of active patents in which researchers of IFT act as inventors. Thus 44 international patents in different countries were active in the 2011-2014 period. Most of them refer to new drug candidates, but some refer to innovative methods for differentiation/maturation of progenitor cells, to new uses of already approved drugs or to the use of new biologically active therapeutics. Activities of tech-

nology transfer has been also achieved by past and present participation of IFT to spin-off companies.

INF-ACT(Pavia)

The INF-ACT consortium is composed of 25 research Institutions from the public and the private sector from all over Italy: One Health Basic and Translational Actions Addressing Unmet Needs on Emerging Infectious Diseases (INF-ACT). The INF-ACT research program addresses pressing unmet needs of human emerging infectious diseases in both fundamental as well as in translational aspects [24].

6.9. Education and Translational Medicine

Many universities offer courses in translational medicine, for example, the Sant’Anna School of Advanced Studies in Pisa [25], the University of Insubria [26], the University of Milan, the University of Pavia [27], the University of Bologna [28], the University of Padova [29], the University of Verona [30], or the University Sapienza of Rome [31].

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Chapter 7

Potential Solutions and Policy Recommendations

In the preceding chapters, we examined the tensions between pharmaceutical patent protection and global access to essential medicines, the role of the WTO and its TRIPS Agreement, and the ethical challenges surrounding intellectual property (IP) in the context of global health. While the current IP framework has incentivized innovation, it has also created significant barriers to access, particularly for LMICs. This final chapter proposes solutions to reform the global IP system and suggests specific policy recommendations that could better balance the need for pharmaceutical innovation with the global right to health.

7.1. Rethinking the Global IP Framework for Health Emergencies

The Covid-19 pandemic demonstrated that the exist-

ing IP framework is not fully equipped to address the rapid, global response required during a public health emergency. The slow distribution of vaccines and treatments to LMICs underscored the need for a more flexible IP system that can prioritize global health over exclusive rights when necessary.

Emergency Waiver Mechanisms for Future Pandemics

One potential solution is the creation of a formalized emergency IP waiver mechanism within the TRIPS Agreement. Such a mechanism would allow for automatic waivers of patent protection on life-saving medicines, vaccines, and diagnostics during global health emergencies. Unlike the ad hoc proposal for a Covid-19 TRIPS waiver, which faced prolonged negotiations

and opposition from some high-income countries, this mechanism would be pre-established and activated by the WTO in the event of a pandemic or similar crisis.

Key elements of the emergency waiver mechanism could include:

- Automatic activation: The waiver would be triggered by a declaration from the WHO or another recognized global authority, allowing countries to immediately bypass patent protections to produce or import life-saving medicines and technologies.
- Technology transfer and know-how sharing: The waiver should not only apply to patents but also include provisions for the sharing of manufacturing knowledge, processes, and raw materials to ensure that LMICs can effectively

produce the medicines or vaccines themselves.

- Limited duration: The waiver would apply for a set period, such as the duration of the declared global health emergency, after which regular patent protections would be restored.

This approach would prevent the delays that occurred during the Covid-19 pandemic and ensure that all countries have access to the tools they need to combat future pandemics in a timely manner.

Global Preparedness Fund

A related proposal is the establishment of a Global Preparedness Fund, which would provide financial incentives to pharmaceutical companies to share their technology and know-how during global health emergencies. This fund could be supported by governments, international organizations, and philanthropic donors. In exchange for access to these funds, companies would agree to participate in global efforts to produce affordable medicines and vaccines for all, particularly in LMICs.

7.2. Expanding Compulsory Licensing Mechanisms

While the TRIPS Agreement already allows for compulsory licensing in public health emergencies, the process remains bureaucratic and is often subject to political pressure from high-income countries and pharmaceutical companies. Expanding and streamlining compulsory licensing mechanisms could make it easier for LMICs to access life-saving medicines in times of need.

Global Compulsory Licensing Framework

One potential reform is the creation of a global compulsory licensing framework that standardizes and simplifies the process for issuing compulsory licenses across WTO member states. This framework would ensure that countries do not face undue pressure or delays when attempting to issue compulsory licenses for essential medicines.

Features of the global compulsory licensing framework could include:

- Clear guidelines for issuing licenses: The framework

would establish clear, transparent criteria for when and how compulsory licenses can be issued, reducing the potential for political interference.

- Harmonized licensing fees: To ensure fairness to patent holders, the framework could standardize the fees that countries must pay when issuing a compulsory license, based on a percentage of the medicine's sales in the licensed market.
- Expedited approval process: In the case of public health emergencies, the framework could include provisions for fast-tracked approval of compulsory licenses, allowing LMICs to begin producing or importing generic medicines without significant delays.

This would build on the successes of compulsory licensing during the HIV/AIDS crisis but address the limitations and obstacles that currently exist.

7.3. Public-Private Partnerships and Incentives for Innovation

In addition to reforming the IP system, governments and international organiza-

tions can play a proactive role in incentivizing innovation while ensuring access to essential medicines. One effective approach is through public-private partnerships (PPPs), which bring together the resources of the private sector with the public sector's commitment to public health.

Incentive-Based Innovation

Governments and international organizations can create financial incentives for pharmaceutical companies to develop new treatments for diseases that primarily affect LMICs or are neglected by the market. These incentives could take several forms:

- Advanced Market Commitments (AMCs): AMCs are agreements in which governments or international organizations commit to purchasing a certain amount of a newly developed drug or vaccine, ensuring that companies will recoup their investment. AMCs played a critical role in the rapid development of Covid-19 vaccines by de-risking the investment for pharmaceutical companies.
- Prizes for innovation:

Another option is the establishment of innovation prizes for the development of treatments for neglected diseases. Unlike patents, which grant exclusive rights to an invention, prizes provide a financial reward for the first company or research institution to develop a solution to a particular health challenge, encouraging competition and reducing barriers to access.

Public Funding for R&D

Governments can also increase public funding for research and development (R&D), particularly for diseases that are often neglected by the private sector due to limited profitability. By investing in R&D through national institutes of health or international collaborations, governments can ensure that new treatments are developed in response to public health needs rather than market demand. Publicly funded research also opens the door to greater affordability, as the products developed through such initiatives can be licensed to generic manufacturers without the same profit-driven constraints faced by private sector companies.

7.4. Humanitarian Licensing and Patent Pooling

Another way to expand access to essential medicines is through the promotion of humanitarian licensing and patent pooling, which allow pharmaceutical companies to share their IP in a way that prioritizes access for underserved populations while still maintaining some commercial control.

Humanitarian Licensing Models

Humanitarian licensing encourages patent holders to grant licenses to generic manufacturers or local producers in LMICs, often on favorable terms such as reduced royalties or royalty-free arrangements. These licenses can allow for the production of affordable versions of patented medicines, ensuring that patients in LMICs can access life-saving treatments without infringing on the patent holder's rights in high-income markets.

This model has already seen some success through initiatives like the Medicines Patent Pool (MPP), which negotiates voluntary licensing agreements for HIV, hepatitis C, and tuber-

culosis treatments. Expanding the MPP's mandate to include a wider range of diseases, as well as treatments for future pandemics, could further improve global access to medicines.

Patent Pools for Collaborative Innovation

Patent pools are another way to address the challenges of IP protection while encouraging collaboration and innovation. Under a patent pool model, multiple patent holders agree to pool their IP and make it available to others, typically for a set royalty fee or under open licensing terms. This allows manufacturers in LMICs to access the technologies they need to produce affordable medicines.

Benefits of patent pools include:

- Faster access to technology: Patent pools can streamline the process of negotiating licenses, allowing manufacturers to quickly access the technologies they need to produce generic versions of medicines.
- Encouraging collaboration: By bringing together multiple patent holders, patent pools encourage collaboration and the sharing of

knowledge, which can lead to faster innovation and more affordable treatments.

Patent pooling has been successfully used in other industries, such as electronics, and holds great potential for expanding access to life-saving medicines.

7.5. Strengthening the Global Right to Health through International Collaboration

Ensuring that access to medicines is recognized as a global right will require stronger international collaboration and a renewed commitment to global health equity. The Covid-19 pandemic has shown that global health challenges are interconnected, and the health of one country can have profound effects on the rest of the world. Moving forward, the international community must work together to ensure that the right to health is prioritized in global governance frameworks.

Strengthening the WHO's Role in Global Health Governance

The WHO plays a critical role in ensuring that public health remains a priority in

global policy discussions. However, the WHO's authority is often limited by a lack of enforcement mechanisms and funding. Strengthening the WHO's role in global health governance – both in terms of resources and enforcement powers – could help ensure that all countries, including high-income nations and pharmaceutical companies, meet their global health obligations.

Reinforcing the WHO's mandate could include:

- Greater authority in coordinating global health responses: Ensuring that the WHO has the power to coordinate global health initiatives, particularly in times of pandemics, and set binding standards for vaccine and treatment distribution.
- Increased funding for global health programs: Increasing funding to WHO programs that focus on expanding access to medicines in LMICs, particularly for diseases that are often neglected by pharmaceutical companies.

Conclusion: A Balanced Approach to IP and Global Health

The current global IP system is at a crossroads. While

it has been successful in incentivizing pharmaceutical innovation, it has also created significant barriers to accessing life-saving medicines, particularly in LMICs. As the world faces evolving global health challenges, from pandemics to antimicrobial resistance, it is essential to develop a more flexible and equitable IP framework that balances innovation with the right to health.

The solutions and policy recommendations outlined in

this chapter provide a road-map for reforming the global IP system to better address these challenges. By rethinking the use of patent protections during health emergencies, expanding compulsory licensing mechanisms, fostering public-private partnerships, and promoting humanitarian licensing and patent pools, the global community can ensure that innovation continues while making essential medicines accessible to all.

Achieving this balance will require cooperation between governments, international organizations, pharmaceutical companies, and civil society. Global health is a collective responsibility, and the future of intellectual property must reflect this shared commitment to ensuring that everyone, regardless of where they live, has access to the medicines they need to live healthy, productive lives.

Conclusions: Balancing Innovation and the Global Right to Health

The relationship between pharmaceutical innovation and access to medicines remains one of the most complex and pressing challenges in global health today. Intellectual property (IP) rights, particularly patents, play a crucial role in incentivizing research and development (R&D) within the pharmaceutical industry, fostering innovation that has led to life-saving breakthroughs for a variety of diseases. Yet, the same system that promotes innovation also creates significant barriers to accessing essential medicines, particularly for populations in LMICs, where healthcare resources are often limited and the high costs of patented drugs are unsustainable.

Throughout this article, we have explored how the existing global IP framework, embodied in the WTO's TRIPS Agreement, operates and the

tensions it creates between protecting the rights of innovators and ensuring the right to health for all. By examining key case studies – such as the HIV/AIDS crisis, the Covid-19 vaccine rollout, and biologic drugs – we have seen how this tension manifests in real-world situations. While the system has been able to adapt in some cases, such as through compulsory licensing and voluntary licensing initiatives, it is clear that these mechanisms alone are insufficient to address the global health challenges of today and the future.

The Need for Reform

The ongoing debate surrounding the TRIPS waiver proposal for Covid-19 vaccines highlighted the urgency of reforming the global IP system to better respond to public health emergencies. As the world faces an increasing

number of global health crises – from pandemics to antimicrobial resistance and climate change-related health challenges – it is clear that the current framework needs to be more responsive and equitable.

The IP system must be reformed to ensure that it not only promotes innovation but also prioritizes global public health, particularly in times of crisis. This includes developing more flexible and timely mechanisms for waiving patent protections during emergencies, expanding the use of compulsory licensing, and incentivizing pharmaceutical companies to share their technologies and know-how when public health demands it.

A Collaborative Path Forward

No single solution can address the multifaceted challenges of balancing phar-

maceutical innovation with access to medicines. Instead, a combination of approaches will be necessary to create a more balanced and equitable system. These approaches include:

- *A formalized emergency waiver mechanism* within the TRIPS Agreement that can be automatically triggered in times of global health emergencies, ensuring that countries can bypass patent protections to manufacture and distribute essential medicines quickly.
- *Expanding and streamlining compulsory licensing mechanisms* to reduce bureaucratic delays and political pressure, enabling LMICs to access generic versions of patented drugs in a timely manner.
- *Promoting public-private partnerships and incentive-based models* such as advance market commitments and innovation prizes, which can drive the development of treatments for diseases that are often neglected by the market.
- *Supporting humanitarian licensing and patent pooling initiatives*, which allow pharmaceutical companies

to share their IP in a way that prioritizes access for underserved populations while maintaining profitability in high-income markets.

- *Increasing public funding for pharmaceutical R&D*, particularly for diseases that disproportionately affect LMICs, ensuring that innovation is driven by public health needs rather than purely market demand.

Global Health as a Shared Responsibility

At the heart of this debate is the recognition that global health is a shared responsibility. The Covid-19 pandemic has shown that health crises do not respect national borders and that the health of one population is intrinsically linked to the health of others. This reality underscores the need for greater international cooperation in addressing global health challenges, including the reform of the IP system.

Governments, international organizations, pharmaceutical companies, and civil society must work together to ensure that the global IP framework supports both innovation and the right to health. Strength-

ening the role of international organizations like the World Health Organization (WHO) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) in global health governance, and ensuring that public health considerations are central to IP policy decisions, will be critical in achieving this balance.

Looking to the Future

The future of intellectual property in the pharmaceutical sector must reflect the lessons learned from past and ongoing health crises. By rethinking the role of IP in global health and embracing a more flexible, collaborative approach, we can create a system that encourages innovation while ensuring that life-saving medicines are accessible to all.

This balanced approach is not only an ethical imperative but also a practical necessity. In an interconnected world, the health of any population has ripple effects that extend far beyond national borders. Ensuring equitable access to medicines is not just a matter of justice – it is essential to protecting global health and fostering a more resilient, sustainable future for all.

As we move forward, it is clear that the global IP system

must evolve to better meet the needs of the 21st century. This evolution requires a collective commitment to balancing innovation with the funda-

mental right to health, ensuring that no one is left behind in the pursuit of scientific progress and medical breakthroughs.

By embracing reform, collaboration, and equity, we can create a global health ecosystem that works for everyone.

Glossary

COVAX (Covid-19 Vaccines Global Access): Co-led by Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance, the WHO, and the Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations (CEPI), COVAX aims to provide equitable access to Covid-19 vaccines.

CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility): A concept where companies, including pharmaceutical firms, take responsibility for their impact on society and contribute to public health, particularly in underserved regions.

Doha Declaration (2001): A declaration by the WTO emphasizing the right of countries to safeguard public health and use flexibilities within the TRIPS Agreement to improve access to essential medicines during health emergencies.

FDA (Food and Drug Administration): A U.S. federal agency responsible for regulating and approving drugs, including vaccines, for public use.

GAVI, the Vaccine Alliance: An international organization focused on improving access to immunization in low-income countries, notably through the COVAX initiative.

HIV/AIDS: A viral disease that targets the immune system, often treated with antiretroviral therapies. The issue of access to these treatments is central in discussions about global health and intellectual property.

IP (Intellectual Property): Legal rights granted to the creators of original works, inventions, or innovations, enabling them to control

the use and distribution of their creations.

LMICs (Low- and Middle-Income Countries): Nations with a gross national income (GNI) per capita between low and middle-income thresholds, often facing challenges in accessing affordable healthcare.

Medicines Patent Pool (MPP): An initiative by UNITAID to license essential medicines to generic manufacturers to improve access to affordable treatments, particularly for HIV, hepatitis C, and tuberculosis.

Pharmaceutical Industry: Large multinational companies responsible for the research, development, and distribution of medicines, and central to the ongoing debate around pricing and access to medicines.

Patent Thickets: A strategy used by pharmaceutical companies to create dense webs of overlapping patents, extending market exclusivity and preventing competition from generics and biosimilars.

Public-Private Partnerships (PPP): Collaborative arrangements between government bodies and private enterprises, typically used to fund research and

development, such as in the field of translational medicine.

TRIPS (Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights): An international legal framework that governs intellectual property rights and their impact on global trade, including access to medicines.

WTO (World Trade Organization): An international

body overseeing the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) and global IP policy, particularly in relation to medicines.

WHO (World Health Organization): The global public health agency responsible for international health coordination, setting health standards, and advising governments on health policies.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Key Provisions of the TRIPS Agreement Related to Pharmaceuticals

The TRIPS Agreement (Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights) is the most comprehensive multilateral agreement on intellectual property (IP). Several provisions of the TRIPS Agreement have particular relevance to the pharmaceutical industry:

- **Article 27:** Defines patentable subject matter. TRIPS requires WTO member states to make patents available for any invention, including pharmaceutical products and processes, provided they are new, involve an inventive step, and are capable of industrial application. It prohibits discrimination as to the field of technology, meaning pharmaceuticals must be treated like any other invention.
- **Article 31:** Addresses **compulsory licensing**, allowing governments to grant licenses to use a patented product without the consent of the patent holder under certain conditions, such as in cases of national emergency or for public, non-commercial use.
- **Article 33:** Sets the term of patent protection at a minimum of 20 years from the filing date, ensuring that patent holders have a guaranteed period of market exclusivity.
- **Article 39:** Requires protection of undisclosed information, such as data submitted for regulatory approval of pharmaceuticals, which prevents competitors from using this data to market generics for a specified period (data exclusivity).
- **Article 8:** Allows member states to take necessary steps

to protect public health and nutrition, providing flexibility to bypass certain IP protections in public interest scenarios.

Appendix B: Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health (2001)

The Doha Declaration on the TRIPS Agreement and Public Health was adopted by the WTO Ministerial Conference in 2001 in response to growing concerns about the impact of patent protections on access to medicines, particularly in LMICs during the HIV/AIDS crisis.

Key highlights of the Doha Declaration:

- **Public Health Emphasis:** The declaration explicitly recognizes the importance of public health and affirms that the TRIPS Agreement should not prevent member

states from taking measures to protect public health.

- **Use of TRIPS Flexibilities:** It affirms the right of WTO members to use TRIPS flexibilities, such as compulsory licensing and parallel importation, to ensure access to essential medicines.
- **Clarification of Rights:** It clarifies that each member has the right to determine what constitutes a national emergency or other circumstances of extreme urgency, including public health crises like HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria.
- **Waiver for Exporting Medicines:** The declaration led to the creation of a mechanism (the 2003 waiver under Article 31bis) that allows countries with insufficient manufacturing capacity to import medicines produced under compulsory licensing from other countries.

Appendix C: Covid-19 TRIPS Waiver Proposal (2020)

In October 2020, India and South Africa proposed a temporary waiver of certain provisions of the TRIPS Agreement to facilitate global access to Covid-19 vaccines, treatments, and diagnostics. This proposal

was designed to address the inequities in vaccine distribution and production, particularly in LMICs.

Key elements of the proposed waiver:

- **Scope:** The waiver would suspend IP protections under TRIPS for all Covid-19-related medical products, including vaccines, treatments, and diagnostics, for the duration of the pandemic.
- **Objective:** The aim was to remove legal barriers that prevent LMICs from producing or importing generic versions of Covid-19 vaccines and treatments, particularly in cases where high-income countries had monopolized early vaccine supplies.
- **Opposition and Debate:** The waiver faced opposition from several high-income countries, including the European Union and initially the United States. Opponents argued that the main bottleneck to vaccine production was not IP, but manufacturing capacity and supply chain constraints.
- **Current Status:** As of early 2024, negotiations on the TRIPS waiver proposal con-

tinue, reflecting the broader debate on the role of IP in global health emergencies.

Appendix D: Medicines Patent Pool (MPP) – Expanding Access to Essential Medicines

The Medicines Patent Pool (MPP), established in 2010 by UNITAID, is a public health organization that negotiates with patent holders to license essential medicines, particularly for HIV, hepatitis C, and tuberculosis, to generic manufacturers. This allows for the production and distribution of low-cost versions of these drugs in LMICs.

Key features of the MPP:

- **Voluntary Licensing:** MPP negotiates voluntary licenses with pharmaceutical companies, allowing generic manufacturers to produce patented medicines at reduced prices for distribution in LMICs.
- **Therapeutic Areas:** Initially focused on HIV medicines, the MPP expanded its mandate in 2015 to include treatments for hepatitis C and tuberculosis. In 2021, the MPP was further expanded to include Covid-19 treatments and technologies.

- **Success Stories:** The MPP has successfully negotiated licenses for major HIV drugs, including **dolutegravir**, which has dramatically increased access to affordable treatment in LMICs.
- **Expanding Impact:** By promoting public health through voluntary licensing, the MPP has demonstrated how collaboration between the public and private sectors can improve global access to medicines.

Appendix E: Biologics and the Patent Thicket Phenomenon

Biologic drugs, which are derived from living organisms, represent some of the most cutting-edge treatments for diseases such as cancer, autoimmune conditions, and genetic disorders. However, biologic drugs have also become notorious for their **patent thickets**, a practice where pharmaceutical companies file multiple overlapping patents on various aspects of a drug to extend its market exclusivity.

Understanding Patent Thickets:

- **Definition:** A patent thicket refers to a dense web of overlapping patents that protect different aspects of

a single product, making it difficult for generic or biosimilar manufacturers to enter the market.

- **Example – Humira (adalimumab):** One of the most famous examples of a patent thicket is **Humira**, a biologic used to treat autoimmune diseases. AbbVie, the manufacturer of Humira, has filed over 100 patents related to the drug, allowing the company to extend market exclusivity well beyond the original patent's expiration date.
- **Impact on Biosimilars:** Patent thickets create significant legal and financial hurdles for biosimilar manufacturers, delaying the entry of more affordable versions of biologic drugs and driving up healthcare costs.
- **Policy Implications:** Addressing the issue of patent thickets will require reforming patent systems to prevent excessive evergreening and ensuring that competition in the biologic drug market is not unduly delayed.

Appendix F: Global Health Governance – Key Actors and Their Roles

Global health governance

involves the coordination of various international organizations, governments, and non-state actors in promoting public health. The most influential actors in global health governance include:

- **World Health Organization (WHO):** The primary international public health agency, responsible for coordinating responses to global health crises, setting global health standards, and advising governments on health policies.
- **World Trade Organization (WTO):** Oversees the TRIPS Agreement and plays a key role in shaping global IP policy, particularly in relation to access to medicines.
- **United Nations Development Programme (UNDP):** Focuses on broader development goals, including access to healthcare and medicines in the context of sustainable development.
- **UNITAID:** A global health initiative that works to expand access to treatments for diseases such as HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, and malaria, often through market-shaping strategies like the MPP.

<p>– Pharmaceutical Industry: Large multinational companies that play a critical role in the development and distribution of medicines, but are often at the</p>	<p>center of debates over pricing, access, and IP rights.</p> <p>These actors work together, often in tension, to address the complex challenges of</p>	<p>global health governance, balancing the need for innovation with equitable access to healthcare.</p>
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