



Bioethics after Brexit: Brexit an opportunity to rationalize bioethics governance in the United Kingdom

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For Peer Review

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8 *interplay between the institutions and laws of the Union and those of the Council of Europe.*
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10 *provides an opportunity to address. It notes the ambiguous relationship of UK bioethicists*
11 *with European institutions and discusses the importance of soft power. It explores what the*
12 *UK should do to maintain its influence. It advocates, first, improved co-ordination of*
13 *governance organisations within the UK. Second, a more strategic approach to 'soft power'*
14 *and UK involvement with international organisations, both within the European region and*
15 *more widely. Finally, it proposes that the UK become a signatory to the Oviedo Convention*
16 *in order to consolidate its connections with European values. These steps are suggested as*
17 *mitigation for the loss of influence that Brexit might otherwise bring.*
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Introduction

In her letter to President Tusk notifying the Union that the UK was triggering Article 50, the Prime Minister wrote of

... shared European values. Perhaps now more than ever, the world needs the liberal, democratic values of Europe. We want to play our part to ensure that Europe remains strong and prosperous and able to lead in the world, projecting its values and defending itself from security threats.¹

This paper considers what form that commitment might take in the governance of bioethical issues. By bioethics governance, I mean the practices through which societies mediate controversies, reach policy conclusions, and regulate behaviour to implement and incentivise adherence to such policies.² These practices have emerged despite continuing controversy about what constitutes a bioethical issue. Over time, the original use of the term in relation to what is more now commonly considered environmental ethics,³ and also the sense of continuity between medical, business and military ethics,⁴ has been supplanted by a dominant usage in relation to health technologies.⁵

The Council of Europe set out to draw up a convention on 'bioethics', but described it formally as concerning 'Human Rights and 'Biomedicine' and was driven (according to the preamble) by concern about the risks of 'misuse of biology and medicine'. This instrument, known as the Oviedo Convention, is discussed further below. The main point for this stage in the argument is that it proceeds from the assumption that the defining normative structure

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3 derives from human rights rather than a separate discipline of bioethics. Thus, it was not, and
4 is not, necessary to provide a precise definition but merely to indicate the scope of the
5 enterprise that is being governed.⁶ The term bioethics is used deliberately loosely in global
6 governance to encompass, in the terms of the Universal Declaration on Bioethics and Human
7 Rights, 'ethical issues related to medicine, life sciences and associated technologies as
8 applied to human beings, taking into account their social, legal and environmental
9 dimensions'.⁷ Following the usage of the drafters of the Universal Declaration, this paper will
10 refer generically to 'bioethics issues' because that term 'facilitates reference to the questions
11 relevant within the scope of the declaration',⁸ avoids the distractions of debates about the best
12 meaning of the term bioethics in academic discourse,⁹ and enables the focus of the paper to
13 remain on governance matters.
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29 The practice of bioethics is a complex ecology, but it has taken some shape in the form of
30 governance institutions. Article 19 of the Universal Declaration sets out an expectation that
31 states establish committees to address research approvals, clinical ethics, develop policy, and
32 foster public debate. Marcus Duwell has offered a tripartite classification of institutional
33 functions. First, there are institutions concerned with ethical reflection (including, but not
34 limited to national ethics committees). Second, there are bodies providing assurance that
35 ethical standards are met, including 'gatekeeping' committees, such as research ethics
36 committees without whose permission studies cannot proceed (and in the UK statutory
37 licensing bodies such as the Human Fertilisation and Embryology Authority (HFEA) and the
38 Human Tissue Authority). Third, decision support for those grappling with challenging
39 ethical problems to provide a sounding board or source of expert advice.¹⁰ The United
40 Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) engages in capacity
41 building,¹¹ an exercise which has demonstrated the diversity of roles that national bioethics
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3 committees play,¹² as well as establishing international standards.¹³ There is this no simple
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5 blueprint for bioethics governance but it is a well- established area of activity.
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9 The UK has disparate arrangements in place for these governance activities, and it will be
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11 argued that Brexit provides an opportunity and also an incentive to review their coherence.
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13 However, it would be too strong a claim that reform is required by Brexit as in many ways,
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15 the practice of bioethics in the UK has maintained a position that is on the ‘edge’ of Europe.
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17 In terms of substantive concerns, UK bioethics sits somewhere between European value-
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19 based bioethics (promoting autonomy, dignity, integrity, and vulnerability)¹⁴ and North
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21 American principlism (organised around autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and
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23 justice).¹⁵ While it shares the European commitment to solidarity in contrast to the
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25 individualism of the dominant US model, as Schotsmans has shown, UK bioethics remains
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27 resistant to the conceptualisation of human dignity that he characterises as ‘one of the most
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29 foundational European concepts’ in favour of a principle of autonomy that draws strongly
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31 from the version developed in North American principlism.¹⁶ This idea of autonomy does
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33 not, however, trump the enduring importance in the UK of trustworthy institutions.¹⁷ Nor has
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35 it displaced the historical pattern in which those disciplines and institutions that in the USA
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37 found themselves in conflict (medicine, law, theology),¹⁸ have acted collaboratively in
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39 Britain.¹⁹ So, while some British bioethicists think they have escaped ‘American capture’,²⁰
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41 other commentators think that Britain is aligned with the USA against the European
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43 approach.²¹
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50 In terms of the institutionalisation of bioethics governance, it can also be said that the
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52 relationship with European practices is ambiguous. The UK has established regulatory
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54 structures that have adapted to EU expectations but they were not driven by them. Thus, the
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3 Human Fertilisation and Embryology Acts of 1990 and 2008 emerged from domestic
4 reflection on the acceptability of advances in human reproduction and only subsequently
5 incorporated European law on quality and safety. A similar point can be made about
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7 European human rights law; that it influences but does not determine the course of UK
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9 bioethics. The UK Supreme Court has established that the fact that bioethical issues are
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11 within the margin of appreciation from the perspective of the European Court of Human
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13 Rights does not preclude the domestic courts employing human rights arguments drawn from
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15 the Convention in order to explore the authority of Parliament on bioethics matters.²² This
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17 suggests that litigation may be increasing in importance as a mechanism for progressing
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19 bioethical governance,²³ something that has largely been denied and hidden until recently.²⁴
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21 The UK has thus retained a distinct and essentially pragmatic approach. While the Nuffield
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23 Council on Bioethics is widely respected in the international bioethics community, the
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25 European pattern of overarching national ethics committees has been resisted in favour of a
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27 combination of non-governmental bodies and sector-specific regulators.
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35 This distributed regulatory approach could be considered a strength in its development of
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37 sector expertise, but it also exposes weaknesses that arise from the lack of a coherent
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39 foundation. The Government has stressed how important science is to the post-Brexit
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41 economy, and draws attention to the role of regulation in its hospitability. The Life Sciences
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43 Industrial Strategy pitches the UK's 'offer' to the wider world partly in terms of 'a more
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45 science friendly regulatory regime than that which is applied in other European countries'.²⁵
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47 Science Minister, Sam Gyimah has proclaimed 'Britain's new unique selling point (USP): the
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49 go-to place for science and innovation' and explained that, amongst other features, the UK
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51 has the advantage of having
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3 'a long track record of setting world-class regulations, standards and ethical norms. If
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5 we can be take the lead on setting these standards, regulation and ethics, we have the
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7 chance to take a global lead - and to realise our vision of being a global platform.'²⁶
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11 When it comes to explaining what the UK stands for in the area of bioethics, however, the ad
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13 hoc nature of its bioethics governance makes it hard to show how it intends to position itself
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15 as a world leader. If the promotion of science is not to constitute a 'race to the bottom' in
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17 terms of bioethics, such that friendliness to science means lowering ethical standards, then
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19 the robustness of regulation needs to be demonstrated.
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24 Thus, while Brexit does not formally require change in the area of bioethics governance, it
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26 does give rise to a need for greater clarity. It provides an opportunity to revisit its institutional
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28 architecture in order to promote better governance. This paper proposes that steps are taken to
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30 make the UK's solidarity with the European tradition of bioethics more explicit, that a more
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32 strategic approach is taken to ensure the continuation of UK influence on the institutions that
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34 shape bioethical norms globally, and that there should be a more co-ordinated approach to the
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36 governance of bioethics within the UK itself.
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43 Bioethics and Europe

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45 Europe has a long history of activity in bioethics governance. France was the first European
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47 state to establish as national bioethics committee in 1983, but this has now become the norm.
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49 European institutions have played a significant role in shaping and facilitating such
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51 initiatives.²⁷ For the European Union, the Commission established its first advisory group in
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53 1991, currently constituted as the European Group on Ethics in Science and New
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55 Technologies.²⁸ Brexit does not necessarily threaten UK influence here as members are
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3 appointed on a personal basis and can come from outside the EU. However, the basis for the
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5 work is the treaties of the European Union.²⁹ Brexit thus threatens to divorce UK Bioethics
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7 from this activity even if individual bioethicists might remain involved. The European
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9 Commission also supports a European National Ethics Committee Forum,³⁰ which brings
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11 together the Committees from the EU member states, with others sometimes attending. There
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13 is also a broader 'International Dialogue on Bioethics' that goes beyond the EU.³¹ Brexit will
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15 shift UK involvement from that of a European member to an international partner. Finally, it
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17 should be noted that the Council of Europe has also established machinery for bioethical
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19 reflection, with continuing interest from the Parliamentary Assembly, particularly through the
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21 standing Committee on Bioethics (DH-BIO).³² Brexit will not affect *membership* of this body
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23 as it does not entail withdrawal from the Council of Europe, only the European Union.
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25 However, an express task of DH-BIO is to 'co-operate with the European Union and relevant
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27 intergovernmental bodies, in particular with a view to promoting consistency between the
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29 normative texts.'³³
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35 In terms of such normative instruments, the continent has developed its own codification of
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37 bioethics principles in the *Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Dignity of the*
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39 *Human Being with regard to the Application of Biology and Medicine: Convention on*
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41 *Human Rights and Biomedicine* (the Oviedo Convention) and its associated protocols. While
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43 not all states are signatories of this Convention (Germany and the United Kingdom are not) it
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45 provides a benchmark around which European bioethics can be explored and is the only
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47 internationally legally binding bioethics instrument. The European Court of Human Rights
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49 has become increasingly engaged with bioethics. It has referred to the Oviedo Convention or
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51 the work of the Steering Committee on Bioethics of the Council of Europe in at least twenty
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53 one cases.³⁴ Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights has proved very
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3 significant in this jurisprudence, including high profile UK cases that have helped establish
4 its relevance and scope in relation to bioethics issues, such as *Pretty*,³⁵ *Glass*,³⁶ *Nicklinson*³⁷
5 and *Gard*.³⁸ In contrast, attempts to use Article 2 to cement either pro-life or pro-autonomy
6 positions have largely been evaded by the ECtHR judges.³⁹
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13 At the time of writing, the Court of Justice of the European Communities has made only
14 limited reference to the Oviedo Convention, partly because the European Union is not a
15 signatory. It has acknowledged the Convention's requirement of consent before removal of
16 tissue in the context of medicine, but concluded that this did not limit the patentability of
17 biotechnological inventions.⁴⁰ The Oviedo Convention's ban on germ-line interventions was
18 noted in discussions of the patentability of stem cell lines, but was not found to be material to
19 the decision.⁴¹ The exclusion of the use of the human body and its parts for financial gain
20 under the Convention has also been considered, but it was held that this did not preclude the
21 application of taxation rules to the transportation of human organs and samples.⁴²
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35 European Union health law is concerned primarily with the smooth running of the internal
36 market not more substantive questions of bioethics,⁴³ which are generally left to member
37 states and subject to human rights law not that of the EU. The authors of the leading
38 academic text conclude that EU health law is concerned with consumerism, human rights, the
39 internal market (regulating competition, solidarity, and risk) not independently with
40 bioethics. Thus, there is no convergence in European internal market law on issues such as
41 abortion and euthanasia, as one would expect if bioethics was a core interest. Of course, EU
42 legislation embodies ethical principles, but it is driven by more social solidarity than
43 bioethics.⁴⁴ The dominant framing in the EU regulation of technologies is neither ethics, nor
44 rights, but markets.⁴⁵
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5 There is, here, an established European tradition of social bioethics in which the UK has
6 played a significant role. The guardian is the Council of Europe rather than the European
7 Union, reducing the risks that Brexit separates the UK from this tradition. A number of
8 individual UK bioethicists are well regarded by colleagues and regularly called upon to
9 contribute to debates. However, the express intention of travel, as indicated by the tasks
10 allocation to DH-BIO, is to convergence on European bioethics principles, albeit that this
11 does not necessarily imply harmonisation.
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22 The UK's de facto national ethics committee,⁴⁶ the Nuffield Council on Bioethics, is
23 generally regarded as one of the most experienced and effective examples. Amy Guttman,
24 then chair of the US Presidential Commission for the Study of Bioethical Issues has
25 commented on the desirability of learning from international bodies 'particularly, from the
26 most successful ones, of which Nuffield Council is certainly up there.'⁴⁷ its work is usually
27 considered as a model in international reflections.⁴⁸ However, a brief review of the way in
28 which bioethics governance is organised in the UK will demonstrate how precarious this
29 position is and suggests that proactive steps would be advisable to avoid risking a loss of
30 influence and authority after Brexit.
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45 Bioethics Governance in the UK

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49 The British infrastructure for bioethics governance is fundamentally an ad hoc set of
50 arrangements that are more the result of accidents of history than design. It has grown
51 organically out of 'club regulation,'⁴⁹ and has rarely been systematically reviewed. The
52 picture is complex. The UNESCO Global Ethics Observatory database identifies 41 'ethics
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3 institutions' in the UK, but is incomplete.⁵⁰ It does not, for example, include the statutory
4 regulators that exist in relation to particular areas of bioethics; the Human Fertilisation and
5 Embryology Authority, the Human Tissue Authority, and (for England) the Health Research
6 Authority. These bodies play a key role in the assurance function that the institutions of
7 Bioethics Governance are expected to play, but also contribute to the establishment of norms
8 and sometimes take direct responsibility for specific bioethics decisions (such as licensing the
9 use of mitochondrial replacement therapies on a case specific basis.⁵¹
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20 The situation is both confused and confusing. Some UK bodies have legal status and powers
21 (such as those just mentioned, which have a statutory basis). However, there are many
22 examples of bodies that have been established informally by government; such as the Human
23 Genetics Commission, the short-lived Emerging Science and Bioethics Advisory Committee,
24 the Committee on the Ethics of Pandemic Influenza, and the Organ Donation Taskforce.
25 Some are Non-Government Organisations that assert themselves as significant, with varying
26 degrees of recognition and respect, such as the Nuffield Council on Bioethics, The Scottish
27 Council on Bioethics, The Anscombe Centre, and the Falconer Commission on Assisted
28 Dying. Health professional regulators deal with some bioethics issues. Thus, the General
29 Medical Council has issued important guidance on consent, confidentiality, end of life care,
30 each of which has been in some way considered by and endorsed by the courts.⁵² Various
31 bodies that are not specifically set up to examine bioethical matters, nevertheless issue reports
32 into specific bioethical questions; these include the Royal Society,⁵³ Academy of Medical
33 Sciences,⁵⁴ Wellcome Trust,⁵⁵ Medical Research Council,⁵⁶ and even the Royal Academy of
34 Engineering.⁵⁷
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3 There is no apparent consistent pattern, nor rationality, to the way in which bodies are
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5 matched with the tasks. Some important areas of bioethics are overseen by administrative
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7 appointments, such as the National Data Guardian. Others are left to civil society. There is
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9 some democratic oversight, and important inquiries have been held by Parliamentary select
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11 committees; topics include reproductive technologies,⁵⁸ abortion,⁵⁹ genomic medicine,⁶⁰ gene
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13 editing,⁶¹ genetically modified insects,⁶² clinical trials,⁶³ mitochondrial donation,⁶⁴ physician
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15 assisted suicide.⁶⁵ In general, however, these remain discrete inquiries and bioethical matters
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17 are generally regarded in the UK Parliament as matters of individual conscience.⁶⁶ It is thus
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19 rare for UK Governments to take the lead on issues such as abortion or euthanasia.
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27 The Timeliness of a Fundamental Review

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32 The last systematic government review of bioethics governance machinery was undertaken in
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34 1999, leading to the establishment of the Human Genetics Commission (since disbanded).⁶⁷ It
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36 identified a series of main concerns that remain relevant to the current position; that the
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38 complexity of arrangements made it difficult for the public to understand, that the
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40 architecture did not properly reflect the broader ethical and environmental questions nor the
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42 views of potential stakeholders, and finally that they were insufficiently forward looking. The
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44 review also established some useful questions and implicit criteria via its consultation
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46 exercise. First, the importance of mapping gaps and weaknesses in the regulatory
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48 frameworks. Second, the need for enhanced and more consistent transparency; including
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50 more public consultations and open meetings. Third, the need for clarity on what is expected
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52 in terms of ethics contributions; with views including both the reliance on expert-ethicists and
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54 also on representativeness. Fourth, stakeholder views needed to be incorporated; although
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3 there was no consensus on how and some concerns about building delay or creating
4 mechanisms that lacked ‘tightly defined objectives’ (para 33). Fifth, flexibility was required
5 and there was perceived to be a need for ‘greater foresight and greater capacity to change
6 quickly’ (para 34). Finally, it was vital to ensure public confidence and ‘several respondents
7 saw... the establishment of higher-level bodies as a key step in improving public confidence’
8 (para 35).
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18 Subsequent formal reviews of official bodies have been driven by either the more general
19 desire to rationalize,⁶⁸ or an ideological commitment to abolish non-government
20 organisations.⁶⁹ There are regular performance assessments of individual government arm’s
21 length bodies in the form of triennial reviews. These consider whether they are still needed,
22 but do not look at the wider context of bioethics governance. The future of the HFEA and
23 HTA as independent bodies, and the possible merger of the two has been closely examined
24 and proposed on two separate occasions.⁷⁰ In both cases the focus was on regulatory overlap
25 and efficiency rather than their effectiveness as means for facilitating public deliberation on
26 challenging bioethical issues. Indeed, their role in supporting bioethics policy was ignored in
27 the consultations.
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42 Commentators have long made a case for a more systematic review, especially in the form of
43 a national ethics committee,⁷¹ They have presented their arguments to Parliamentary Select
44 Committees when they have considered individual bodies or legislative areas.⁷² Thus, the
45 Select Committee on Science and Technology reviewed a range of suggestions when
46 examining the operation of the Human Fertilisation and Embryology Act 1990.⁷³ The
47 Committee noted both the variety of options and also concerns, such as those from Professor
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3 Margaret Brazier, that such a body might be little more than a talking shop, hugely expensive,
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5 and extremely politicised.
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9 These arguments were aired in the debates around the Human Fertilisation and Embryology
10 Act 2008. Those discussions probably constitute the most comprehensive publicly available
11 recent consideration of what Baroness Helena Kennedy, former chair of the Human Genetics
12 Commission, described as ‘the ecology of the advice given to the Government on ethics,’
13 suggesting that ‘while the ground is rather divided in this country, it is covered.’⁷⁴ Given the
14 abolition of the HGC since that debate, she might now have a different view. A wide range of
15 views was raised. Concern was expressed about the lack of statutory authority for existing
16 bodies,⁷⁵ although it was also suggested that it would be hard for a new body to establish the
17 public trust and confidence that had been achieved by the Nuffield Council and that formal
18 authority was not the key issue.⁷⁶ Some supported the use of ad hoc committees because the
19 wide range of the field precluded a single body of 6 to 8 members being able to fulfil the
20 task.⁷⁷ This was the view expressed on the part of the Government by Baroness Royall, while
21 recognising the challenges:⁷⁸
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The current system means that there is a collective responsibility for bioethical
debate, which ensures that ethical discussion is embedded in decisions across all
committees. This distributed system of bioethical advice works well. It remains our
view that a national human bioethics commission would not bring sufficient benefits
in comparison. Indeed, it could lead to ethical issues being marginalised and ignored
by committees that are responsible for guidance or policy on any number of aspects of
medicine or the life sciences.

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3 A further problem, relating to Parliamentary sovereignty, was identified when an amendment
4 was debated in the House of Commons Public Bill Committee in June 2008. This proposed
5 the establishment of a Parliamentary Human Fertilisation and Embryology Committee, to
6 comprise fifteen MPs and fifteen members of the House of Lords.⁷⁹ Robert Key MP set out
7 what he saw as the key principle of Parliamentary sovereignty in the following terms and
8 argued that ‘Both Houses of Parliament are, de facto, the national bioethics committee of this
9 country. We should be jealous of that. It would not be possible to create another body,
10 independent of Parliament, that would have anything like the authority that we have.’⁸⁰ Not all
11 Parliamentarians saw Parliamentary sovereignty as incompatible with a national ethics
12 committee. The Bishop of St Albans did not regard such a public body as ‘outsourcing’
13 ethics, but as an institution at national level to ‘assist the ethical thinking that everyone in our
14 country should do.’⁸¹ Lord Brennan suggested a national bioethics commission could be used
15 to promote a ‘culture of democracy’ in which bioethical reflection would no longer be limited
16 to ‘regulators with ethical committees, an unaccountable private body [Nuffield] and the
17 Government’.⁸² On 28 January 2008, Baroness Williams of Crosby had moved, but did not
18 press to a vote, an amendment at the Report stage of the Bill that would have created National
19 Human Bioethics Commission.⁸³ She saw complementary roles for legislators and a national
20 commission, noting that the gaps between Parliamentary discussions were too great to
21 accommodate the speed of change.

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Going further, Baroness Williams specifically linked the need for a national bioethics committee with the opportunities to influence international thinking and raised concern about the lack of standing in European discussions, long before Brexit.⁸⁴ In summarising her observations on the internationalisation of bioethics, Baroness Williams pointed out that

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3 We are moving on to a time when it is not national legislation but European and to
4 some extent international legislation that will determine the limits and constraints that
5 are placed on bioethics and not least on the area of human fertilisation and
6 embryology. This is exactly the area in which, as many of our leading scientists know,
7 the pressures are on to weaken the principles laid down by the HFEA and others—
8 pressures that will grow, not decrease. A body such as a bioethics commission or, I
9 agree, a parliamentary Joint Committee, would be able to bring to the Government's
10 attention the position that it takes on the Council of Ministers of the European Union
11 or, more widely, on international treaty and other organisations. We are on the cusp of
12 moving away from a purely national basis and do not have the proper machinery to
13 deal with that.⁸⁵
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29 The general case for reviewing the UK's institutions for bioethics governance based on
30 fragmentation is thus enhanced by greater exposure that Brexit brings to this
31 internationalisation when the UK will lose the benefit of its influence on the regional voice.
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37 To this we should add two other specific concerns whose impact is likely to be increased as a
38 consequence of Brexit. First, the need to reconsider the nature of the democratisation of
39 bioethics in a country that has had a taste of rule by plebiscite. A number of jurisdictions have
40 seen direct democracy being deployed to determine issues through votes rather than
41 committee deliberation. These include assisted dying in Oregon,⁸⁶ stem cell research in
42 California,⁸⁷ and abortion in the Republic of Ireland.⁸⁸ Consideration should be given to
43 whether this is a tradition that might be attractive in the UK. Second, the constitutional
44 transition that Brexit necessarily brings, in which the UK courts take on a stronger role,⁸⁹
45 something they were already asserting in the area of health care ethics.⁹⁰ In the next section,
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3 the shape of the challenge is explored, setting the scene for some proposals for navigating the
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5 post-Brexit bioethics landscape.
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10 11 12 **Shaping the Case for Change** 13 14

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17 A contemporary comprehensive review of the bioethics landscape in the UK would quickly
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19 identify issues of overlap and areas where responsibility is unclear. The details would be
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21 different, but the general picture would be essentially the same as was found in the 1999
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23 Review. There is considerable complexity. There is no obvious coherent principle or ethical
24
25 framework underpinning the system. Accountability is varied, limited, and inconsistent.
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27 Consequently, the legitimacy of bioethics positions is often obscure. If the UK plans to
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29 present a strong case to be a world leader in responsible scientific innovation once it leaves
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31 the EU, for whom this is already a claimed strength, then it needs to bring together its
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33 strengths into a more coherent 'offer'.
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39 A few examples can quickly illustrate these points, beginning with complexity. The UK is
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41 rightly proud of its introduction of the world's first legislative framework for the use of
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43 mitochondrial replacement therapies.⁹¹ This avoids the precipice effect of having to classify
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45 techniques as either licit or illicit, without the ability to control purposes or uses. It also
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47 counter-acts the 'slippery slope' risk by retaining a case by case oversight by the licensing
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49 authority. However, the history of the legislation indicates the complexity of the processes
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51 and lack of overall oversight.⁹² The final decision-maker was Parliament, but the
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53 responsibility for deliberating on the bioethical issues was shared between the Human
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55 Fertilisation and Embryology Authority and the Nuffield Council on Bioethics, both of whom
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3 held public consultations (of different types). Safety matters were reviewed under the
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5 auspices of the HFEA by an expert group established for the purpose. Draft regulations were
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7 consulted upon by the Department of Health. Two Parliamentary debates were called by
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9 backbenchers. A special meeting of the House of Commons Science and Technology
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11 Committee heard oral evidence on a single day. The net result of these activities seemed
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13 reasonably comprehensive, but it could hardly be described as a systematic approach and
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15 there was no obvious co-ordination, except perhaps through the strategic vision of the
16
17 Wellcome Trust (arguably the poacher turning gamekeeper).⁹³
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22 The continuing problem of gaps is illustrated by the limitation of the Nuffield Council of
23
24 Bioethics, which usually sits at international bioethics meetings in the UK chair, to ‘ethical
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26 questions raised by recent developments in biological and medical research that concern, or
27
28 are likely to concern, the public interest’.⁹⁴ This has precluded discussion of long-standing
29
30 bioethical challenges such as abortion and euthanasia and also health service rationing,⁹⁵
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32 issues that are staples for most national ethics committees. Duncan Wilson has shown how
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34 this limitation of scope originated from a demarcation of roles to ensure the newly created
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36 Council on Bioethics did not tread on the toes of established institutions dealing with research
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38 or clinical ethics, essentially self-regulating.⁹⁶ However, the legitimacy of this separation
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40 looks suspect in the contemporary context. When the Nuffield Council was established in
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42 1991, it might have been acceptable to leave research ethics in the hands of researchers at the
43
44 Medical Research Council and clinical ethics in those of doctors at the BMA. It would now
45
46 be expected that there was a more independent responsibility. The remit of the Health
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48 Research Authority is to take into account the ethical standards set elsewhere, not to create
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50 them: ‘A reference to research that is ethical is a reference to research that conforms to
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52 generally accepted ethical standards.’⁹⁷ There is a gap in the structures; no one is accountbale
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3 for developing those generally accepted standards. Similarly, there is a legal process for
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5 research ethics committees to be legally recognised by the Health Research Authority under
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7 the Care Act 2014. However, there remains no requirement for clinical ethics committees to
8
9 be established in NHS hospitals, despite Article 19 of the UNESCO Declaration on Bioethics
10
11 (2015) referring to the expectation of ‘independent, multidisciplinary and pluralist ethics
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13 committees... to ... provide advice on ethical issues in clinical settings’ and long-standing
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15 interest in their value.⁹⁸ Those clinical ethics committees that exist are supported by an
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17 informal network, based within Warwick Medical School.⁹⁹ The governance framework is
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19 thus far from comprehensive.
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24 There are other challenges of legitimacy too. The reliance on a non-government body to play
25
26 the role of a national ethics committee may be consistent with traditional British political
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28 pragmatism, but it is problematic when judged in relation to democratic accountability. There
29
30 are many different ways to integrate bioethics into constitutional government. National Ethics
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32 Committees can be part of the executive, constituted to provide advice to the Government (as
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34 with most of the recent US national Bioethics Commissions, although some were established
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36 by Congress).¹⁰⁰ They can be established within the legislative process in order to ensure
37
38 parliaments are properly informed of bioethical issues when they arise for consideration. The
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40 French Comite Consultatif National d’Ethique currently has this function.¹⁰¹ In other systems,
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42 bioethics deliberation may be established as a representative form of democracy (as in
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44 Belgium, where people from the main communities need to be appointed to the national
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46 Advisory Committee on Bioethics).¹⁰² The political authority of bodies in each of these
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48 approaches can be explained in terms of constitutional law. In the UK, however the position
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50 of the Nuffield Council is based on tacit acceptance and the absence of a formally recognised
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52 national ethics committee.¹⁰³ Its reputation has been established over time,¹⁰⁴ by its virtues
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3 and practices,¹⁰⁵ but these provide only limited democratic legitimacy.¹⁰⁶ Post-Brexit, the
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5 need for constitutional recognition is likely to become more important as the UK seeks to
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7 establish that it conforms to international expectations in relation to bioethics. The
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9 informality of bioethics oversight, consequent apparent lack of compliance with the
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11 expectations of the UNESCO Declaration and its failure to endorse the Oviedo convention
12
13 may undermine the UK's claim to be a strong regulator of ethically problematic scientific
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15 advance.
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20 The constitutional authority over bioethical issues is currently in a state of flux. The UK
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22 judiciary are testing the demarcation between issues of human rights, with which bioethics
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24 governance structures must comply and matters of judgments that fall to Parliament or the
25
26 institutions that it creates or tacitly recognises. We have moved a great distance from the
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28 view expressed by the House of Lords in the *Pretty* case that Article 8 ECHR rights were not
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30 engaged by limitations on assisted suicide, a view that was premised on bioethics issues
31
32 being outside of the scope of human rights law because they were more appropriate for
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34 democratic deliberation.¹⁰⁷ The European Court of Human Rights took a different view, and
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36 held that Article 8 was engaged, but that the limitations were justified by the need to protect
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38 the rights and freedoms of others under Article 8(2).¹⁰⁸ Thus, bioethical issues that engage
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40 human rights are suspect to judicial supervision, albeit with a significant margin of
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42 appreciation.¹⁰⁹
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48 The demarcation of responsibilities between judiciary, executive and legislature is an
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50 important aspect of the constitutional legitimacy of a more explicit governance framework for
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52 bioethics issues. In the *Nicklinson* case, the majority of the Supreme Court asserted the right
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54 to judge the proportionality of legislative interference with autonomy of those who are
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3 terminally ill.¹¹⁰ The analysis in *Nicklinson* also suggests that the buffer that has been created
4 in the jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights, under the concept of the margin
5 of appreciation, does not apply to the domestic context. Consequently, the assessment of
6 proportionality is asserted to lie with the courts rather than Parliament, applying the tests
7 from the *Aguilar Quila* case.¹¹¹ Some recent case law suggests that the judiciary may be wary
8 of pushing the logic of *Nicklinson* too far and the Court of Appeal in *Conway* has reiterated a
9 fairly traditional account of why judges should generally defer to Parliament on matters of
10 'moral value-judgment' as it is 'the conscience of the nation'.¹¹² However, the Supreme
11 Court was clear that abortion law in Northern Ireland was incompatible with the Convention,
12 even though it held that the NI Human Rights Commission lacked standing to bring the case
13 placed before it.¹¹³ The need for clarification on the proper scope of democratic deliberation
14 in bioethics is apparent.
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33 The challenge of explaining who has legitimate authority in UK bioethics deliberations is
34 exacerbated by the longstanding resistance to principle in this area of law, something that has
35 contributed to the ambiguities discussed earlier over how 'European' UK approaches have
36 been. This resistance to formalising bioethics can be seen in the courts persistent use of
37 professional standards to facilitate an arms-length approach to oversight.¹¹⁴ The UK has no
38 fundamental law on bioethics. It has not signed the Oviedo Convention. Its institutions tend
39 to avoid seeking consistency through the articulation and application of principles in favour
40 of a case by case approach. There are some exceptions, such as the Human Genetics
41 Commission's discussion of genetic solidarity and altruism in *Inside Information*, which were
42 then used as a reference point for its future work.¹¹⁵ More common, however, is the approach
43 of the Nuffield Council on Bioethics, which has avoided a principle-based approach in favour
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3 of a procedural sense of legitimacy based on the inclusiveness of its listening processes, and
4 the rigorous quality of the tests of rationality it applies to the arguments.¹¹⁶ It seeks, through
5 open calls to evidence, the publication of working papers, and consultative processes, to
6 ensure that no voices are excluded but that they are engaged with through a form of public
7 reason.¹¹⁷ It has articulated an approach based on the quality of public discourse.¹¹⁸ The long-
8 standing British approach, exemplified by the Warnock Committee's proposal of the 14 day
9 limit on embryo research, has tended to assume that public policy should be driven by
10 acceptability as much as principle.¹¹⁹

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13 On this approach, public bioethics proceeds as much by jurisdictional demarcation than
14 resolution. I have argued elsewhere, that the prohibition on embryo research after the
15 emergence of the primitive streak (deemed to appear not later than the end of the fourteenth
16 day) is better understood as a jurisdictional device aimed to ensure that any change was
17 reserved to Parliament than as a statement about the moral status of the biological entity.¹²⁰
18 This points again to the importance of understanding the constitutional structure of British
19 bioethics governance and the basis of its claims to legitimacy.

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22 The case for undertaking a review of the institutions of UK bioethics governance is thus
23 based on a number of strands that have been explored in this section. First, the need to
24 simplify the complexity of the ecology of oversight that has evolved rather than been
25 designed. Second, the importance of plugging gaps to ensure that the system is
26 comprehensive. Third, to clarify and resolve the constitutional issues that will demonstrate
27 the legitimacy of decision-making. A review should also result in more streamlined
28 procedures and provide substance to the claim that the UK can be a world leader in regulation

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3 and ethics that the Minister made in July 2018. In that sense, it would assist the UK in setting
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5 out its stall for promoting responsible scientific innovation post-Brexit
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9 The need for review must be put in perspective, however. Despite the issues just explored, the
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11 reputation of UK in the international bioethics community is currently very high; the concern
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13 is not to establish it but to retain it. In particular, whether Brexit might diminish it. The
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15 Nuffield Council on Bioethics plays a leading role in the international activities of national
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17 bioethics committees (even though it has no official status), with the Director frequently
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19 invited to be part of organising committees for the WHO Global Summit of National
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21 Bioethics Committees and of the European NEC Form. The UK has a number of leading
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23 bioethics centres and, largely thanks to the Wellcome Trust, there is significant investment in
24
25 bioethics research. The UK hosts two of the leading journals in the area, *Bioethics* and the
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27 *Journal of Medical Ethics*. The question is how to maintain this reputation. Brexit may be
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29 marginal to this matter, but it has raised questions about the UK's commitment to continuing
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31 engagement to regional institutions that it would be advisable to address.
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38 Next Steps

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43 In summary, the challenge of Brexit to bioethics lies in establishing a more coherent 'brand'
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45 for the currently disparate governance institutions. We need to do this in order to demonstrate
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47 that the UK is a safe and attractive place to carry out responsible science even though we
48
49 have distanced ourselves from the European project to this effect.¹²¹ We also need to ensure
50
51 that we maintain our presence in what Pete Mills, Assistant Director of the Nuffield Council
52
53 of Bioethics has described as the 'debating chambers' in which global bioethics is pursued
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3 and from which we may become ‘distanced’ if we do not take proactive steps.¹²² To achieve
4 this we should address three challenges; those of co-ordination, influence, and principle.
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9 First, we need to reshape our ad hoc, distributed, network of bioethics bodies into a co-
10 ordinated network. It would be possible to introduce a new national bioethics commission, or
11 a standing Parliamentary Committee, as discussed above. However, this would fail to build
12 on the reputations of our current bioethics organisations. A more successful model could be
13 built from the experience of the Professional Standards Authority,¹²³ which was introduced
14 (initially as the Council for the Regulation of Health Care Professionals) to oversee the work
15 of the separate regulators for professional groups (e.g. medicine, nursing and midwifery,
16 dentists, pharmacists etc) following the Bristol Royal Infirmary Inquiry.¹²⁴ Under the NHS
17 Reform and Health Care Professions Act 2002, the new council was charged with promoting
18 good practice, formulating principles relating to good professional self-regulation and
19 promoting co-operation.¹²⁵
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35 Rather than supplanting established regulators, it sought to harness their expertise and
36 encourage a levelling up of performance. Something similar was suggested to the 1999
37 review of bioethics advisory machinery: that ‘better co-ordination could be achieved through
38 the establishment of a standing body comprising the Chairs of existing committees’.¹²⁶ There
39 was also a call for ‘an over-arching ethics committee (perhaps comprising representatives of
40 all the key advisory/regulatory committees)’.¹²⁷ The creation of a Council of Bioethics
41 Advisory Bodies would enable the UK to speak with a single voice when necessary, but
42 without compromising the different functions of the existing institutions. Devolution will, no
43 doubt, provide some significant challenges, as bioethics is an area where there are important
44 variations. However, it will be hard for the UK to explain why its bioethics is well-governed
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3 if it cannot co-ordinate oversight. If it cannot explain this, then its reputation for progressive
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5 but regulated science will be at risk.
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9 Linked with this, is the importance of a strategic approach to ‘soft power’ in bioethics. Pete
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11 Mills raised concerns that membership of key groups at European level, such as the NEC
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13 Forum and European Group on Ethics in Science and New Technologies, might be at risk
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15 (although at present both are open to non-EU members).¹²⁸ The UK does not currently have a
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17 member on the UNESCO International Bioethics Committee, but perhaps needs to seek to
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19 secure a place if it is to maintain influence. The last UK member of the IBC was Professor
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21 Sheila Maclean, whose term ended with the 2012-3 session. Brexit will mean loss of
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23 influence at the International Council for Harmonisation, which sets guidelines for
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25 pharmaceutical development, and which is dominated by the three key regulated markets of
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27 Europe, Japan and the USA. It is a non-profit association, but its decisions are crucial for
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29 successful drug development which is now a global enterprise and in which the UK will be
30
31 concerned not to lose ground.¹²⁹ After Brexit, the UK will not necessarily have a place at the
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33 table. Similar issues arise in relation to the work of the World Health Organisation. The UK
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35 does not host a WHO Collaborating Centre for Bioethics. A strategic approach to securing
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37 influence may prove essential if we want UK bioethics to thrive after Brexit.
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44 Finally, there is the issue of the UK’s resistance to principle. It might be that the judges will
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46 develop through the Human Rights Act an elaboration of bioethics that will serve to underpin
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48 the UK’s approach. It might also be the case that bringing together the bioethics bodies in the
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50 manner that has been suggested will lead to the articulation of common principles. However,
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52 the most symbolic act that the UK could take to show that it was part of the international
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54 bioethics community would be to sign the Oviedo Convention. This is not necessarily
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3 straightforward. The Convention is showing its age; some of the terminology is difficult to
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5 interpret in the light of current science, and the subtleties of the genealogy of articles has not
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7 always been kept in mind.¹³⁰ Following the 20th Anniversary Conference in 2017,¹³¹ there is
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9 to be a ‘Strategic Action Plan aimed at defining the main axes and objectives of the work of
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11 DH-BIO in the next few years, where appropriate in cooperation with other committee and/or
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13 intergovernmental organisations, to address key human rights challenges raised by
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15 developments in the biomedical field.’¹³² It would be an opportune time for the UK to show
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17 its commitment to the European tradition of bioethics by signing the Convention and for it to
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19 play a full part in the promised exploration of its implications. That would show that, despite
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21 Brexit, we have not rejected participation in the global common purpose in bioethics and that
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23 we remain committed to the liberal democratic values of Europe; exactly as Prime Minister
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25 May stated in her letter of 29 March 2017, triggering Article 50.
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¹³¹ *20th Anniversary of the Oviedo Convention: Relevance and Challenges: Rapporteur Report* available at <https://rm.coe.int/oviedo-conference-rapporteur-report-e/168078295c> (last accessed 13 July 2018).

¹³² DH-BIO/abr RAP 12, abridged report of the meeting on 24-27 October 2017, Para 19, available at <https://rm.coe.int/12th-abridged-rep-e/1680765d55> (last accessed 13 July 2018).