

improved the quality of research published in *Nature* (15% disagreed); 37% thought the checklist had improved quality in their field overall (20% disagreed).

Respondents overwhelmingly thought that poor reproducibility is a problem: 86% acknowledged it as a crisis in their field, a rate similar to that found in an earlier survey (*Nature* 533, 452–454; 2016). Two-thirds of respondents cited selective reporting of results as a contributing factor.

Nature's checklist was designed, in part, to make selective reporting more transparent. Authors are asked to state whether experimental findings have been replicated in the laboratory, whether and how they calculated appropriate sample size, when animals or samples were excluded from studies and whether these were randomized into experimental groups and assessed by 'blinded' researchers (that is, researchers who did not know which experimental group they were assessing). Of those survey respondents who thought the checklist had improved the quality of research at *Nature* journals, 83% put this down to better reporting of statistics as a result of the checklist.

Is the checklist addressing the core problems that can lead to poor reproducibility? Only partly. Taken as a whole, the responses indicate that we need more nuanced discussions, and more attention on the interconnected issues that result in irreproducibility: training, transparency, publishing pressures and what the report *Fostering Integrity in Research* by the US National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine deems "detrimental research practices".

Journals cannot solve this alone. Indeed, 58% of survey respondents felt that researchers have the greatest capacity to improve the reproducibility of published work, followed by laboratory heads (24%), funders (9%) and publishers (7%).

What role, then, should publishers take? Reproducibility cannot be assessed without transparency, and this is what journals must demand. Readers and reviewers must know how experiments were designed and how measurements were taken and deemed acceptable for analysis; they need to be told about all of the statistical tests and replications.

As such, the checklist (or 'reporting summary') provides a convenient tool for revealing the key variables that underlie irreproducibility in an accessible manner for authors, reviewers, editors and readers.

Two studies have compared the quality of reporting in *Nature* journals before and after the checklist was implemented, and with journals that had not implemented checklists. Authors of papers in *Nature* journals are now several times more likely to state explicitly whether they have carried out blinding, randomization and sample-size calculations (S. Han *et al.* *PLoS ONE* 12, e0183591; 2017 and M. R. Macleod *et al.* Preprint at *BioRxiv* <https://doi.org/10.1101/187245>; 2017). Journals without checklists showed no or minimal improvement over the same time period. Even after implementation of the checklist, however, only 16% of papers reported the status of all of the crucial 'Landis 4' criteria (blinding, randomization, sample-size calculation and exclusion) for *in vivo* studies — although reporting on individual criteria was significantly higher. Preliminary data suggest that publishing the reporting summaries, as we have done since last year, has resulted in further improvements.

Fortunately, the trend indicated by the survey is positive. Most respondents had submitted more than one paper using the checklist. Nearly half of respondents said they had not considered the checklist until after they had written their first submission; that fell to 31% for subsequent papers, with authors more likely to consider the checklist while planning or performing experiments. Encouragingly, 78% said that they had continued to implement the checklist to some extent, irrespective of their plans to submit to a *Nature* journal in the future.

Progress is slow, but a commitment to enforcement is crucial. That is why we make the checklist and the reporting of specific items mandatory, and monitor compliance. The road to full reproducibility is long and will require perseverance, but we hope that the checklist approach will gain wider uptake in the community. ■

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Aid from Africa

Africa's genomics research will benefit from a new set of ethics principles.

Helicopter science. Sample safaris. Parachute research. These are all pejorative terms used to describe the practice of collecting biological samples, artefacts or data from developing countries and analysing them elsewhere, with little input from — or credit given to — local scientists. Such practices are almost universally denounced by research funders and institutions in the global north. Yet the language still crops up, especially in disciplines such as genomics, for which the technology required to decode DNA at high volumes remains concentrated in wealthy countries.

In human genomics, there has been a push to ensure that research on samples collected in developing countries — particularly in Africa — is anchored in local science and community engagement. One example of this is the Human Heredity and Health in Africa (H3Africa) initiative, which is funded by the US National Institutes of Health and the London-based Wellcome Trust. Since 2012, it has funded genomics projects whose principal investigators are African, with several of the projects being managed locally from Kenya's capital, Nairobi.

As we report this week, the H3Africa group has now published a guide for the ethical handling of genomic research and biobanking in Africa (see <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-018-04685-1>). It sets out to empower African researchers and communities, and to educate them on their rights in asking for greater control over how samples are collected, stored and used. It also contains rules of engagement for non-African institutions that are partnering with, or funding research

in, Africa. It's a useful guide, and draws on existing ethics policy documents. Many of its recommendations — such as avoiding tokenistic participation by African researchers, and ensuring that research results are fed back to the communities that donated the samples — have been regarded as good practice in the field for some time. But, in reality, such practices are all too often still lacking.

The fact that the document is derived from in-depth conversations with African researchers and ethics review boards gives it added legitimacy. Perceptions can vary about whether partnerships are equitable or not, and it is not uncommon for northern partners to hold up projects as exemplary in terms of their equitability, with African participants in the same projects complaining of limited input. This framework should help, by allowing negotiating partners to sing from the same hymn sheet.

Because it is voluntary, the framework's impact will depend on its use by its target audiences. African research-ethics committees that preside over applications to carry out genetic research can use it to ensure that their decisions have the interests of Africans at heart. African researchers can draw on it to negotiate more-advantageous terms in partnerships. Research funders can encourage applicants to consider the framework when submitting proposals. African governments can use it to inform their rules guiding genomics research. And, perhaps most importantly, African communities can look to the framework for information about what to expect, or even demand, from their participation in research.

Ultimately, the foremost priority of researchers, funders, regulators and ethicists should be to respect the rights and interests of the populations studied. In the scramble for African genomes, such rights can easily be overlooked — especially in countries with weak governance, where research-ethics rules are outdated or where patient-rights groups are lacking. There is therefore a need for greater involvement by African governments and civil society, to ensure that genomic research is in the public's interest, not just in the interests of the participating scientists — regardless of where they come from. ■