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**A myopic view of “necessity and sufficiency:” a case of conjunctivitis?**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 **A recent perspective has argued that the phrase “Necessary and Sufficient,” long a staple of**  
17 **the genetics literature, has been misapplied in the context of neuroscience, and should be**  
18 **abandoned (Yoshihara and Yoshihara, 2018). Here we rebut this proposal on both logical**  
19 **and semantic grounds. We argue that the claim that “Necessary and Sufficient” is**  
20 **“misapplied” in genetics and neuroscience rests on its narrow meaning in formal logic, in**  
21 **which the phrase is used to define the properties of classes of objects. In genetics, however,**  
22 **this term is used as shorthand to summarize the results of different kinds of experiments.**  
23 **This logical conflict, moreover, applies only to the conjunctive phrase “Necessary *and***  
24 **Sufficient;” the unlinked use of those words to describe genetic results is simply a matter of**  
25 **semantics.**

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28 **Introduction**

29 For the last 70 years or so, geneticists have used the terms “necessary” and “sufficient” to refer to  
30 the results of experiments in which the function of specific genes is either removed, or added.  
31 The use of this terminology to describe loss-of-function (LOF) and gain-of-function (GOF)  
32 manipulations has been central to genetic formal logic and scientific rigor. This language has also  
33 been adopted, more recently, by systems neuroscientists to describe the results of experiments in  
34 which neuronal function, rather than gene function, is either inhibited or increased, for example  
35 using optogenetics (Zhang *et al.*, 2010).

36 Recently, it has been argued that the phrase “necessary and sufficient” is routinely  
37 misapplied by biologists, i.e., is used in a manner inconsistent with its meaning in formal logic,

38 and therefore should be abandoned (Yoshihara and Yoshihara, 2018). The claim is that this is not  
39 merely a matter of semantics, but rather one of logical rigor, and that the misapplication of this  
40 term is misleading and dangerous. Here the authors (one a geneticist, the other a molecular  
41 neuroscientist) respond to this criticism.

#### 42 **A conjunctive confound**

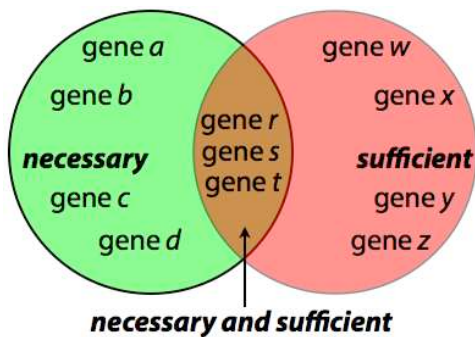
43 Yoshihara and Yoshihara (2018) have argued against the use of the phrase “necessary and  
44 sufficient” on both logical and semantic grounds. The logical argument is that in the conjunction  
45 “necessary *and* sufficient,” the word “and” implies logical equivalence, and that this is not the  
46 case in its biological usage. In the illustrative example they provide ((Yoshihara and Yoshihara,  
47 2018); Fig. 1A), the properties of being a polygon with four equal sides and equal angles are  
48 necessary *and* sufficient to describe a square. This equivalence implies full interconvertibility of  
49 universal affirmatives describing squares: “all squares are polygons with four equal angles and  
50 sides” implies that “all polygons with four equal angles and sides are squares.” In other words,  
51 any set of characteristics that are *sufficient* to exclusively define a class of objects are also  
52 *necessary*. In this definitional usage, sufficiency always implies necessity.

53 In biology, however, this is not always the case. Some genes can be sufficient for a process, but  
54 not necessary (if, for example, there are redundant genes controlling the same process; see Fig. 1).  
55 If there are cases of sufficiency without necessity, the Yoshiharas argue, it means that “sufficient”  
56 does not always imply “necessary,” and therefore that the phrase “necessary *and* sufficient” no  
57 longer retains its formal logical meaning in biology, and should be abandoned.

58 The problem with this argument is that the conjunctive phrase “necessary *and* sufficient”  
59 is being applied in a *definitional* context (from Set Theory), in which the phrase refers to the  
60 properties or characteristics of a defined object or category of objects. In contrast, in genetics the

61 term is used as a shorthand to describe *the results of experiments* designed to perturb a biological  
 62 process: a gene is “necessary” for a biological process *if a loss-of-function (LOF) mutation in the*  
 63 *gene prevents the process from occurring*; it is “sufficient” for the process *if a gain-of-function*  
 64 *(GOF) mutation causes the process to occur in excess*, or at a time or place when or where it  
 65 normally does not occur.

66 Not only are there cases where a gene can be *sufficient* but not necessary for a process to  
 67 occur (due to redundancy, as mentioned above), but there are also cases where a gene may be  
 68 *necessary* but not sufficient (e.g., because it is one of several genes that are all required *in*  
 69 *combination* for the process to occur). A Venn diagram describing the results of genetic



**Figure 1. Necessity and sufficiency in genetics.** The Venn diagram illustrates three categories of results obtained by manipulating genes involved in a biological process “X” (where X is, e.g., cell division, gastrulation, synaptic transmission), based on LOF or GOF mutations in those genes (see text for LOF/GOF definition). Genes *a-d* are necessary for process X (LOF manipulation blocks X), but not sufficient (GOF manipulation has no effect). Genes *w-z* are sufficient (GOF manipulation causes X), but not necessary (LOF manipulation has no effect). Genes *r-t* are necessary and also sufficient: both LOF and GOF manipulations have effects on X.

70 experiments of these types is illustrated in Figure 1. Here, the overlap between the circles  
 71 describes those cases in which a gene is both *necessary* for a process and also *sufficient* for the  
 72 process to occur. But these two conditions are met in two different experimental conditions.  
 73 Therefore, they do not describe the characteristic properties of a gene (e.g., made of DNA,  
 74 double-stranded, specific nucleotide sequence, etc.); rather the results of experimental  
 75 manipulations.

76

77 As pointed out correctly by the Yoshiharas, fully interconvertible universal affirmatives are not  
 78 implied by cases of genes that behave as “necessary and sufficient:” the fact that gene *a* is

79 sufficient for biological process X does not imply that all genes sufficient for process X are gene  
80 *a*; nor does it imply that wherever gene *a* is expressed, process X must occur. Conversely, the  
81 fact gene *a* is necessary for process X does not mean that no other genes are necessary for  
82 process X other than gene *a*; nor does it imply that process X cannot occur without gene *a* under  
83 some other experimental conditions. But the Yoshiharas argue that since fully interconvertible  
84 universal affirmatives *are* implied by “necessary and sufficient” (in its definitional sense), the  
85 phrase should not be used in biology because it is practically impossible to prove negatives (e.g.,  
86 one cannot prove that there are no genes other than *a* that are necessary for process X).

87 In a nutshell, therefore, the Yoshiharas are arguing that when geneticists use the phrase  
88 “necessary *and* sufficient” to describe a gene, they are defining the properties of an *object(s)*: the  
89 genes are *defined* as “necessary and sufficient” for a given biological process. If that were correct,  
90 then their criticism would be valid. However, as mentioned above geneticists do *not* use the  
91 phrase in a definitional sense; rather they use it as shorthand to summarize the results of  
92 experimental manipulations. Realizing that, the Yoshiharas fall back on the argument that even  
93 though geneticists know and agree on what “necessary and sufficient” means in their field, since  
94 the phrase might be confusing or misleading to someone from a different field (e.g., formal logic  
95 or philosophy), it follows that biologists should stop using that phrase in their talks and  
96 publications.

97 We respectfully disagree. There is no law that states that philosophers or logicians have a  
98 monopoly on the usage of natural language that dominates over all fields of science. In our  
99 experience, non-biologists either understand the language usage or ask for clarification. While we  
100 share with the Yoshiharas an appreciation for precise language, we do not consider the phrase  
101 ‘necessary and sufficient’ imprecise or ambiguous when used in its biological sense. That

102 students' use of the phrase is found annoying to the Yoshiharas more likely reflects other aspects  
103 of their scholarship, than logical inconsistency.

#### 104 **“Necessary and sufficient” in neuroscience: population vs. unit manipulations**

105 An important issue raised by the Yoshiharas concerns the validity of adopting “necessary and  
106 sufficient” terminology in circuit neuroscience. When this phrase is used by geneticists to  
107 summarize LOF and GOF data, it refers to experiments performed on the *same unit* of  
108 manipulation – i.e., the same gene. That is, to say that a given gene is “necessary and also  
109 sufficient” for process X implies that the tests of necessity and sufficiency refer to the *same*  
110 biological unit or element. The situation is different when the manipulations are performed on  
111 populations of elements (e.g. populations of neurons). There, the use of the conjunctive phrase,  
112 even as a description of results, is arguably more ambiguous because the GOF and LOF results  
113 may reflect the same or different units within the population.

114 For example, in a case where, e.g., optogenetic activation of a genetically identified  
115 population of neurons suffices to evoke a behavior, while optogenetic inhibition of the same  
116 population inhibits naturally occurring instances of the same behavior (Lee *et al.*, 2014), it is  
117 formally possible that different subsets of neurons are responsible for the LOF and GOF  
118 phenotypes (Yoshihara and Yoshihara, 2018). Therefore in this type of experiment, the phrase  
119 “necessary and sufficient” is understood to refer to the manipulated *population*, not to the  
120 individual units within the population (Lin *et al.*, 2011). Formally, this ambiguity cannot be  
121 resolved unless *a single neuron* is being manipulated in both the LOF and GOF experiments.  
122 With the exception of *C. elegans* and fly larvae, there are very few cases where this single-cell  
123 level of specificity is achieved – including the case of the single pair of interneurons that control  
124 feeding in *Drosophila* (Flood *et al.*, 2013): even in that case, one could argue that activation of

125 only one of the pair of neurons is “sufficient” to initiate feeding, while inhibition of both neurons  
126 is “necessary” to inhibit feeding. Therefore, the same unit (cell) is not certain to be both  
127 “necessary and sufficient.” While the Yoshiharas propose abandoning the term altogether in such  
128 cases (Yoshihara and Yoshihara, 2018), given that the phrase is being used to summarize  
129 experimental results, it seems simpler to just indicate that the neurons are “necessary and also  
130 sufficient, *as a population*,” for behavior X.

### 131 **“Necessity” and “sufficiency” without conjunctivity**

132 As described above, the logical aspect of the Yoshiharas’ criticism boils down to the use of the  
133 conjunctive term “necessary and sufficient,” because of the formal equivalence of necessity and  
134 sufficiency that “and” implies (in a definitional sense). One response to their criticism would be  
135 to simply use the words “necessary” and “sufficient” in a non-conjunctive form, i.e., in separate  
136 sentences, viz: “Gene *a* is necessary for process X. It is also sufficient for process X.” There is  
137 no “misapplication” of formal logic in this case. However, the Yoshiharas go a step further and  
138 argue that the words “necessary” and “sufficient” are misleading in and of themselves, and  
139 should be abandoned by biologists in favor of alternative words such as “indispensable” and  
140 “inducing,” respectively.

141 This is, however, a purely semantic argument, and as such it is a weak one. The objection to the  
142 word “sufficient” is that a literal interpretation of the word implies that *no other condition* is  
143 required in order to achieve the experimental result. Because these words are used by biologists  
144 to describe the results of experiments performed in living organisms, it is of course implicitly  
145 understood that the organism is required to observe the result. No biologist who states that “gene  
146 *a* is sufficient for process X” means that a piece of DNA containing gene *a* floating in a test tube  
147 full of water is sufficient for process X. Words and language are used in a *context*. If we restrict

148 the usage of words to contexts that are universal across fields of research, then we will greatly  
149 impoverish our rich language.

150 This is not, however, to argue for imprecise language usage. We are all in favor of clarifying or  
151 qualifying statements such as “gene *a* is *sufficient* when mis-expressed to cause precocious or  
152 ectopic occurrence of process X,” or “activation of cell type K is *sufficient* to trigger behavior Y  
153 in the absence of other deliberate manipulations or conditions.” Of course, it becomes  
154 cumbersome to include such extra verbiage in abstracts or short communications. But to argue  
155 that substituting “adequate,” “causal,” “inducing,” “activating,” “promoting” or any one of  
156 dozens of other words is preferable to “sufficient,” is not a question of formal logic, it is just to  
157 argue in favor of one type of verbal shorthand over another. The same goes for substituting  
158 “necessary” with words like “indispensable,” “essential,” “required,” “requisite” or other  
159 synonyms. It is a directive to send scientists to waste time poring over their dog-eared copies of  
160 Roget’s *Thesaurus*, scratching their heads.

### 161 **Necessity and permissivity**

162 The Yoshiharas go on to argue that the demonstration that a gene or cell is “necessary” for a  
163 biological process is not even particularly informative, because it could reflect a relatively trivial  
164 and indirect role for a gene in a process. For example, they cite a hypothetical case where the loss  
165 of neurons that control leg movements might indirectly lead to a loss of aggressive behavior, by  
166 “making the animal less energetic.”

167 This is of course a valid possibility, but it confuses two distinct concepts in biology: necessary vs.  
168 sufficient; and *permissive* vs. *instructive*. A gene is said to be “permissive,” when it is required  
169 for a process to occur, but when increasing its activity does not accelerate or enhance the process.  
170 By analogy, gasoline is permissive for automobile function: in its absence, a car will not move;



171 however a car with a full tank does not go any faster than one with half a tank. In contrast, the  
172 accelerator pedal is “instructive,” since pressing harder on it makes the car go faster. Similarly,  
173 shifting the transmission into a different gear changes power output, and is also instructive, but in  
174 a stepwise (discontinuous) rather than a continuous manner. Both the gas pedal and the  
175 transmission, like fuel, have similar LOF phenotypes – the car doesn’t run without them. GOF  
176 manipulations are necessary to distinguish “instructive” from “permissive” functions.  
177 Nevertheless, the fact that a gene may prove to be “permissive” does not mean that LOF  
178 experiments are uninformative. The real question is whether a requirement for a given component  
179 in a biological process reflects a direct, or indirect, role for that component. Further experiments  
180 – not abandonment of certain types of experiments -- are required to make that important  
181 distinction.

182 The Yoshiharas further argue that the inability to demonstrate necessity – i.e., a negative result in  
183 a LOF experiment – is not evidence that a gene or cell type is unimportant, because it could  
184 reflect redundancy or compensation by other genes. We couldn’t agree more. Negative results in  
185 genetic LOF experiments are difficult to interpret, because they could reflect biological or  
186 technical factors. We would argue the same for negative results in systems neuroscience  
187 experiments, such as lesions. In particular, the relatively long time necessary for an animal to  
188 recover from a surgical lesion or genetic ablation (days or weeks) can allow many compensating  
189 mechanisms to engage (Hong *et al.*, 2018). Several comparative studies have shown that rapidly  
190 reversible LOF manipulations (e.g, optogenetic inhibition) can yield phenotypes in cases where  
191 lesions of the same structure do not (Goshen *et al.*, 2011; Otchy *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, we  
192 would argue that it is dangerous to conclude that a lesion of a brain structure that has no effect on  
193 a function of interest implies that that structure does not contribute to that function, only that it

194 does not play an “essential” role (meaning one that is not redundant, or which cannot be  
195 compensated by other structures or circuits).

### 196 **Necessity, sufficiency and causality**

197 In genetics, experimental tests of necessity and sufficiency (N&S ) are essential to distinguish  
198 correlation from causation. The Yoshiharas seem to argue that these tests are not all that  
199 informative: “we have never seen a single case where the use of N&S has helped our  
200 understanding of biology” (Yoshihara and Yoshihara, 2018). Another recent perspective essay  
201 argued that demonstrations of necessity and sufficiency in neural circuit research (and by  
202 extension, other areas of biology such as genetics) produce little in the way of “understanding”  
203 (Krakauer *et al.*, 2017).

204 Here we run into the epistemological question of what constitutes “understanding” in  
205 neuroscience, and whether causality as established using genetic manipulations is an essential  
206 part of such understanding. It is beyond the scope of this essay to delve into this important  
207 question, about which reasonable people may disagree. Certainly there are fields of science where  
208 “understanding” is achieved without causal perturbations: the laws of planetary motion were  
209 established without experiments designed to add a planet, delete a planet, change the mass of a  
210 planet or alter its distance from the sun, because such experiments are not possible. The question  
211 at the center of the current epistemological debate in neuroscience is whether such perturbation  
212 experiments, when they are in principle enabled by technology, are potentially useful, or do more  
213 harm than good because they alter the system in unphysiological ways (Jazayeri and Afraz, 2017).  
214 Only time will tell.

215 In closing, we would like to point out that in contrast to most physical systems, biological  
216 systems such as those that control development, cancer or behavior are highly complex, and

217 involve many interacting components that can produce evidence of correlated activity when  
218 interrogated using sensitive methods. Such activity measurements (whether based on gene  
219 expression, spiking rates or phosphorylation) can produce a wealth of phenomenological,  
220 correlative data. However in the absence of causal data, it is extremely difficult to decide which  
221 of these phenomena to study further, and therefore the risk of unproductively chasing an  
222 observation that ultimately proves to be an epiphenomenon is high. Cancer researchers spent  
223 decades searching fruitlessly for the mechanisms of oncogenic transformation, in cellular-level  
224 phenomena such as changes in membrane fluidity or cytoskeletal organization, before genetic  
225 tests were developed to identify oncogenes functionally (Weinberg, 1984). Similarly, researchers  
226 in the circadian rhythm field spent years studying oscillating genes and proteins that were simply  
227 readouts of the biological clock, before Konopka and Benzer discovered the *per* genes that are  
228 central to the circadian oscillator (Konopka and Benzer, 1971). Experimental tests of necessity  
229 and sufficiency are a critical first step, not a solution. As Jim Watson once said about the famous  
230 Hershey-Chase experiment (Hershey and Chase, 1952), which showed that hereditary  
231 information in bacteriophage is carried by nucleic acids and not by proteins, such experiments  
232 may not tell you what the answer is, but they show you where to look.

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