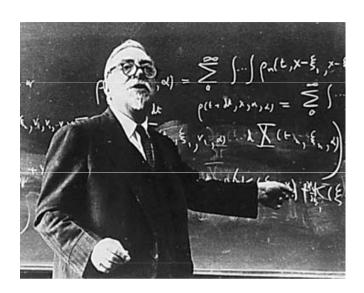
${\sf M}$ U ${\sf N}$ ${\sf I}$

Norbert Wiener 26.11.1894 - 18.03.1964



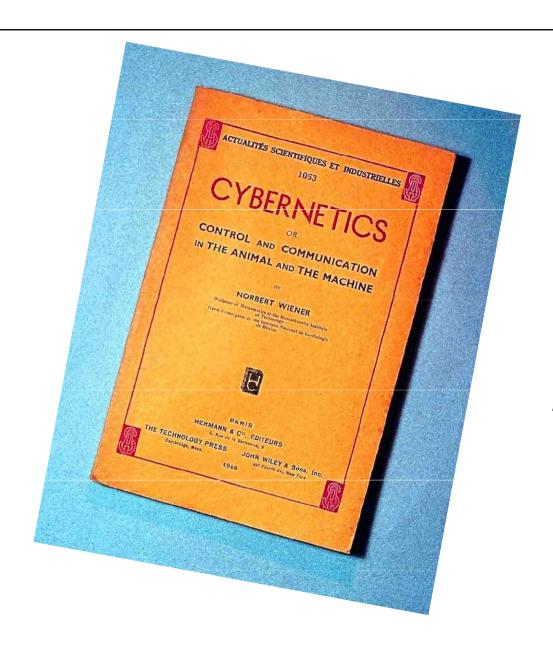
Lectures on Medical Biophysics

Biocybernetics

Lecture outline

- Cybernetics
- Cybernetic systems
- Feedback
- Principles of information theory
- Information system
- Information processes in living organism
- Control and regulation
- Principles of modelling





Norbert Wiener

N. Wiener: (1948)

Definitions

- Cybernetics is the science dealing with general features and laws regulating information flow, information processing and control processes in organised systems (technical, biological or social character).
- System a set of elements, between which certain relations exist
- Modelling the main method in cybernetics:
 - Simplified expression of objective reality.
 - It should be understood as a set of relations between elements
 - Choice of model must reflect the specific goal
 - For an accurate modelling of a system, it is necessary to know its structure and function
- Applied cybernetics involves the modelling of systems in specific regions of human activity, e.g. technical cybernetics, biocybernetics and social cybernetics. These models can be:
 - Mathematical mathematical modelling of systems
 - Experimental building actual miniature models or computer based models (simulation)



Cybernetics and informatics

The cybernetics can be assumed a broad theoretical background of informatics and some other branches of science or knowledge (economy, management, sociology etc.)



Biomedical Cybernetics

- Main goal: analysis and modelling of regulatory and control systems of living organisms under physiological and pathological conditions (pathological processes are seen as a distortion of the normal regulatory mechanisms present in the organism)
- Medical cybernetics also involves:
 - Support of medical decisions in diagnostics and therapy planning
 - Healthcare management = healthcare cybernetics



Living Systems Are Cybernetic Systems

- Fundamental property of living systems: multiple interaction with surroundings
- ambient variables which act on the system = input
- variables by which the system acts on surroundings = output
- Input variables for describing the system must be chosen to be *independent*.
- The output ones depend on the input variables and the inner parameters of the given system.
- Example: the ear



Analysis and synthesis of a system

- System analysis we know structure we have to determine its behaviour
- System synthesis the structure is to be determined behaviour is known
- Black box system of unknown structure and behaviour.
 Identification of the system is done on the basis of relations between input and output data.



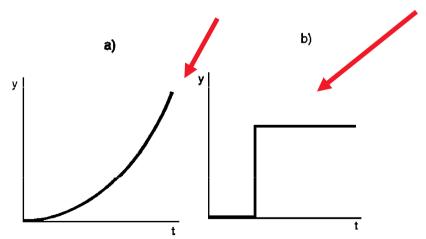
Transfer Function

TRANSFER function - Dependence of the values of an output parameter on values of an input parameter We can distinguish:

- linear systems (straight line, an ideal case)
- non-linear

linearization of a non-linear system - an approximation by a straight line

Time-course of the output parameter change determines the behaviour of the system - continuous or discontinuous

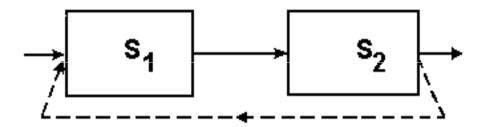


Transfer Function

- Basic forms of transfer:
 - Amplification or attenuation of the input parameters
 - Their time-delay
 - Performing simple logic operations
 - Selective permeability
 - Generation of specific time-courses etc. (also deformation of input parameters)
- All these forms are encountered in biological systems
- The transfer function need not to be constant. Dynamic systems are capable of adaptation and learning.



Feedback



Feedback: changes in a system output parameter leads to changes an input parameter of the same system

In positive feedback an increase / decrease of the output parameter from its normal value leads to an increase / decrease in the input parameter - the change of the input parameter in this way increases in an uncontrolled manner - positive feedback is therefore unsuitable for controlling dynamic systems.

In negative feedback an increase / decrease of the output parameter from its normal value leads to a decrease / increase (i.e., vice-versa) in the input parameter - the change of the input parameter is in this way minimised hence allowing regulation. Homeostasis in the body is based on negative feedback.

Principles of information theory

Stochastic (accidental) event

- Information: any statement about events and processes inside the system and in its surrounding. Information expresses a relation between systems and/or elements of a system.
- Stochastic (accidental) event: an event which can or need not occur under given conditions
- Frequency (rate) of the event occurrence F_A :

$$F_A = n/N$$

- n number of the events occurred
- N total number of "experiments"



Probability and information entropy

- Probability P(A) mean value of the event frequency
- Probability values can vary from 1 to 0 (1 > P(A) > 0)
- Impossible and regular (unavoidable) event
- Let's have an experiment which outcomes can reach values A₁...A_n of equal probability P(A):
- The degree of uncertainty (given by the number of individual uncertainties) grows with increasing n. It is denoted as information entropy.
- Let's have n mutually excluding events with $P(A_1)$, $P(A_2)...P(A_n)$. Uncertainty degree N_i of one possible outcome is:

$$N_i = -P(A_i)\log_2 P(A_i)$$

 Information entropy of the whole experiment = the sum of individual uncertainties:

$$H = \Sigma - P(A_i) \log_2 P(A_i)$$



Probability and information entropy

- Intuition: the uncertainty can be removed by the delivery of respective amount of information
- Therefore, the last term is also a quantitative expression of the amount (capacity) of information.
- Information increases the system ordering.
- -P(A) large = small amount of information
- An experiment gives two alternative outcomes of the same $P(A) = 0.5 \Rightarrow$
- $-H = -(0.5\log_2 0.5 + 0.5\log_2 0.5) = 1$
- 1 bit (binary digit)

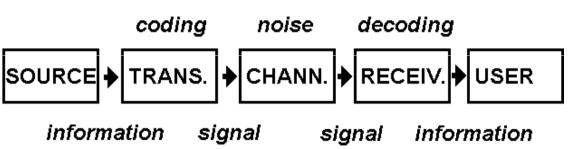


Information system

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Five parts:
information source
transmitter (coding)
information channel (noise)
receiver (decoding)
user
Signal = the substance or energy carrier of the information
Information channel = medium in which the signal propagates
Symbols = dimensionless parameters qualitatively representing the given
event
Position - spatial and temporal arrangement of symbols due to coding
process
The elementary signal carries 1 bit-information
Max. amount of information which can be delivered by the information
channel in unit time = capacity of the information channel
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Redundancy

<u>Transmission of information</u>



Noise = influences reducing original amount of information transmitted Excess information (redundant information) can be used to reduce the effects of noise

Redundancy R is given by the formula: $R = 1 - H/H_{MAX}$, where H is the really transmitted amount of information and H_{MAX} is capacity of the information channel.

Language redundancy is relatively high (about 70 %), in scientific writings - relatively low

Information processes in living organism

- The human organism is able to process an information flow of about 35 bit/s under optimal conditions in average.
- Transmission and processing of information in living organism: hormonal and nervous
- Three levels:
 - basic biochemical reactions (control of protein synthesis hormonal)
 - autonomous systems (e.g., regulation of the heart activity hormonal and nervous)
 - central nervous system



Examples of information processes in a living organism: eye

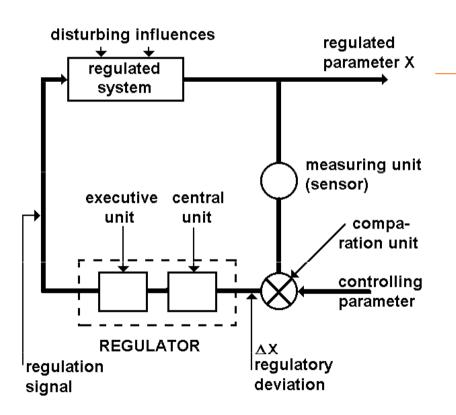
- Information processing in the vision analyser.
- In the yellow spot there are about 10⁷ receptors, each can resolve 120 levels of light intensity, i.e. 7 bits of information. The eye can distinguish 10 images/s so that the capacity of the vision analyser is about 7·10⁸ bit/s at the level of the yellow spot.
- The optical nerve consists of about 10⁶ fibres. Each can pass about 300 action potentials/s, so that the nerve capacity is about 3.10⁸ bit/s (compare with a standard TV-channel capacity 10⁷ bit/s)

Examples of information processes in living organism: DNA

- DNA: DNA contains 4 bases (A, G, C, T). Any nucleotide contains only one base. Therefore, the information carried by one nucleotide is 2 bits. The DNA of one human sperm contains 10⁹ nucleotides, i.e. information of 2·10⁹ bits.
- Protein: 20 different AA information carried by one of them is about 4 bits. Let the protein molecule contain ≈ 10^3 AA-units, so that its inf. capacity is ≈ $4 \cdot 10^3$ bits. The quotient of the total information content of DNA molecule, and the information carried by one protein molecule determines the number of protein molecules able of synthesis: $5 \cdot 10^5$.
- Condition: 1 protein = 1 enzyme, 1 enzyme is coded by 1 gene ⇒ the chromosomal DNA of human sperm contains about $5 \cdot 10^5$ genes*.



CONTROL AND REGULATION



Control: changes of the system behaviour are evoked by the information transmitted from the controlling part of the system.

According to the complexity of the control process: systems controlled - without feedback systems regulated - with feedback

Regulation - process minimising the differences between real values of regulated parameters, and the values required

Features of the automatic regulation:

- 1. Direct communication (inf. channel) between the controlling and controlled unit
- 2. Feedback (negative, short or long) between the controlling and controlled unit
- 3. Automatic transformation of the information received via the feedback channel into the control commands

Forms of control in living organisms:

- Direct control control commands are transmitted directly from the controlling to the controlled unit.
- 2) Control with autonomous response. The control commands are only a triggering mechanism for switching over the system states (humoral control e.g. by hormones).
- 3) Differentiated control it involves both the previous forms. It is performed by the controlling system with a complex feedback net (CNS)



Automata

- Technical devices utilising the control principles able to work independently in certain extent - automatic machines:
- Without feedback they perform only a program controlled action, they cannot modify or adapt their activity.
- II. With feedback they are able of autoregulation, they maintain their function in certain limits.
- III. Able of certain logical operations, automatic adaptation and learning. When communicating with surroundings and being able of manipulation, they are called robots.
- In medicine, the automatic machines are used in laboratory analysis of biochemical and haematological parameters or in monitoring and analysis basic vital functions.



Principles of modelling

- Theoretical cognitional process which goal is to recognise properties of certain original on the basis of its representation. The way of re-presentation is given by the purpose of the model.
- Each model is a simplification of reality.
- Main principle of modelling is the abstraction of identification. We take into
 account only identical properties of the objects. A model sufficiently representing
 the properties of the original object can be a source of information about that
 object and its interactions.
- Analogy structural or functional similarity of objects, processes and phenomena (events). Structural analogy is based on partial or total structural identity of two systems.
- Functional analogy (more important) identity in functional properties of two systems - the character of both systems can be quite different (e.g. functional analogy of natural and artificial kidney).
- Isomorphism is a special case of analogy the systems in question are of the same mathematical description



Types of models

- Formal: real (physical, chemical) and abstract (mathematical).
- According to the presence of accidental features, these can be divided into stochastic and deterministic.
- According to the way of origin: induction models (from empirically obtained information) and deductive ones (on the basis of supposed relations)
- According to the purpose: descriptive (serving for description of properties of the original) and explanatory (serving for verification of hypotheses)
- The choice of modelled hypotheses must be representative the non-modelled properties must not disable to draw general conclusions.



Process of model construction and utilisation

- Observation of certain phenomenon
- Its experimental verification and, if possible, its quantification
- Designing the model
- Its comparison with experimental results
- Simulation = specific kind of modelling. Principle: The original system is re-placed by the simulation model. Regressive verification of knowledge obtained by means of the simulation model in the original system is done. The simulation is often performed using computers.
- Mathematical modelling of biological and physiological processes (stimulated, e.g., by development of radionuclide methods - substance distribution and kinetics in organism is studied).



Author: Vojtěch Mornstein

Content collaboration and language revision: Ivo Hrazdira, Carmel J. Caruana

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