

Causal Falsification of Digital Twins

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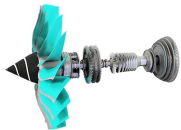
Department of Statistics, University of Oxford

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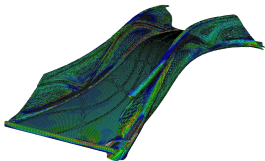
^{*}Equal contribution

Motivation

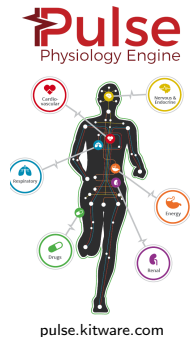
Simulators called **Digital Twins** are increasingly used to guide **safety-critical** decision-making



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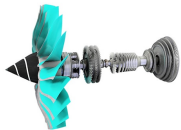


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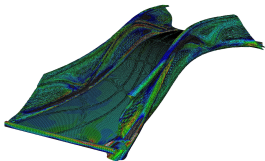


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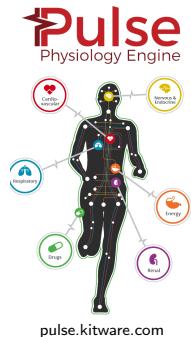
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In these environments, the **accuracy** of a twin is paramount

High-level goal

Our question: Often **large datasets** taken from the underlying phenomena are available

How can we use this data to **assess the accuracy** of a given twin?

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How can we use this data to **assess the accuracy** of a given twin?

Constraints: Assessment procedure itself must be reliable:

⇒ Prefer **soundness** over completeness

Want a procedure that can **realistically** scale to real twins

⇒ Want to make **minimal assumptions**

Key insight and challenge

An natural approach is to **compare directly** the output of the twin with observational data

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However, if **causal** conclusions are sought (e.g. for planning), then this is **unsound** for most datasets in practice

Motivating example

Toy scenario

Consider modelling effect of **drug** on **weight** for some population

Drug interacts with an **enzyme** $U \in \{0, 1\}$ present in a subpopulation:

- If $U = 1$, drug increases weight
- If $U = 0$, drug has no effect

Suppose drug is **only administered** when $U = 1$

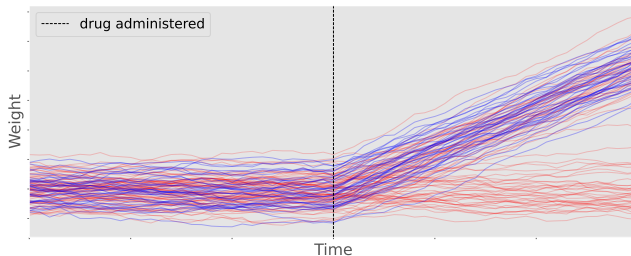
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Blue: outcomes that *were* observed for patients administered drug;

Red: outcomes that *would* be observed across whole population

Key point

This phenomenon occurs because the data are **confounded**

Confounding is well-studied in the causal inference literature

However, **implications for simulators** are less appreciated

Key point: in general **wrong** to compare the data with the output of twin under the corresponding actions

Motivated by this observation, our paper:

- Formulates twin assessment as a **causal inference** problem
- Argues for an approach based on **falsification** rather than **verification**
- Presents a **statistical methodology** valid under **minimal assumptions**
- Illustrates via a large-scale **case study**

Aside: Causal Inference

Causal inference provides a mathematical framework for reasoning about the causal effects of **interventions** based on **observational data**

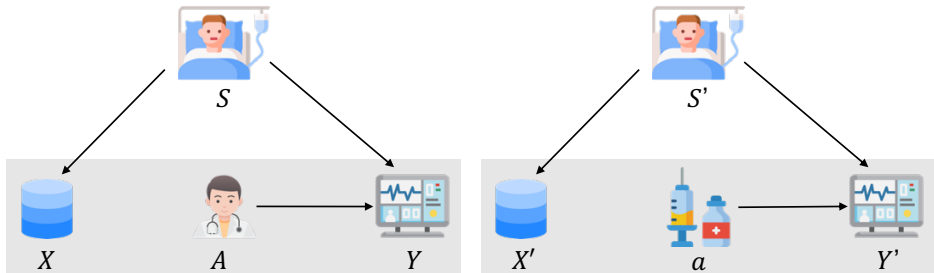
Many questions we care about in practice are of a **causal** nature

- “What should I do to make things a certain way?” vs. “How do things evolve on their own?”

For this reason, highly suitable for **Twins**, for which decision-making and acting in the world are primary concerns

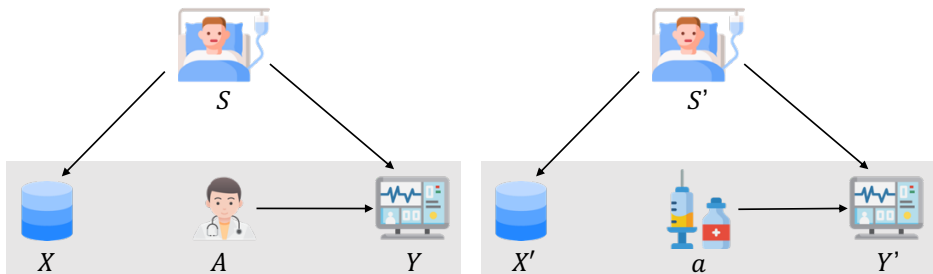
A Typical Problem

Straightforward problem: Given distribution of (X, A, Y) from the left-hand system, what is distribution of (X', Y') in the right-hand system?



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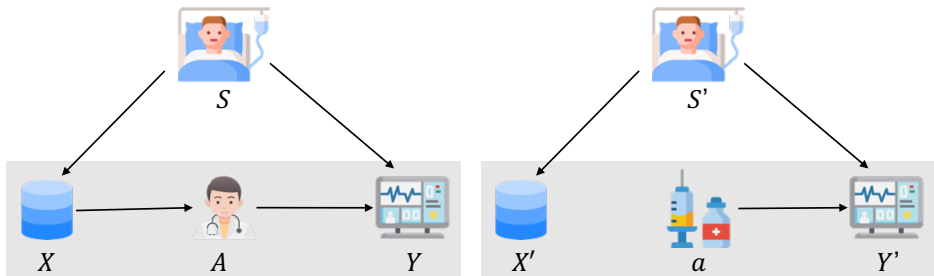
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Answer: $P(X' = x, Y' = y)$ on right is $P(X = x, Y = y \mid A = a)$ on left

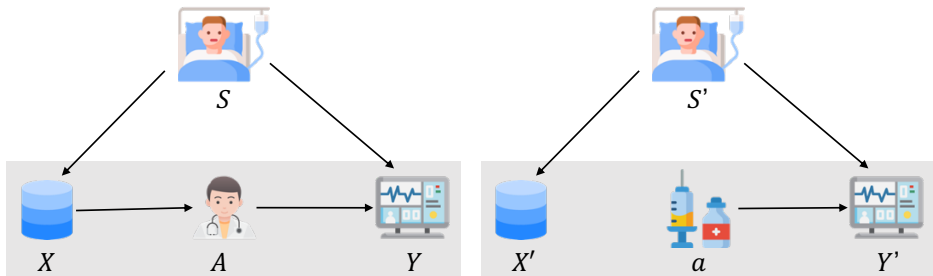
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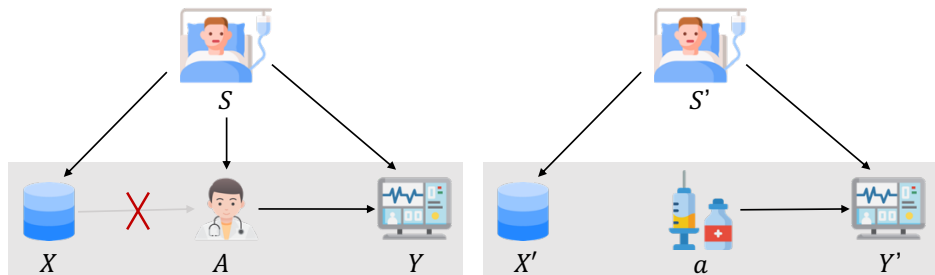


Answer:

$P(X' = x, Y' = y)$ on right is $P(X = x) P(Y = y | X = x, A = a)$ on left
($\neq P(X = x, Y = y | A = a)$)

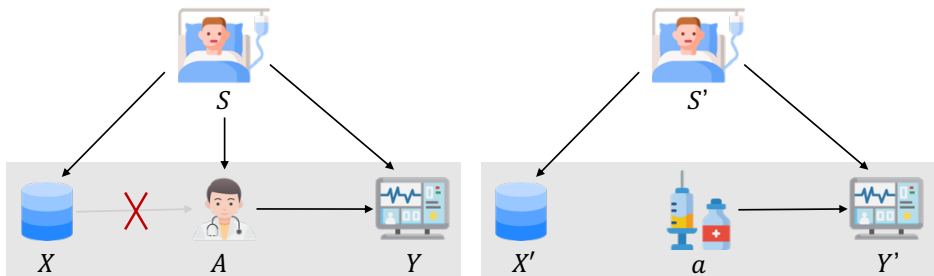
Unidentifiable example

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Answer: Don't know! (without further assumptions)

Unmeasured confounding

In last case, the data contains **unmeasured confounding** (cf. second case)

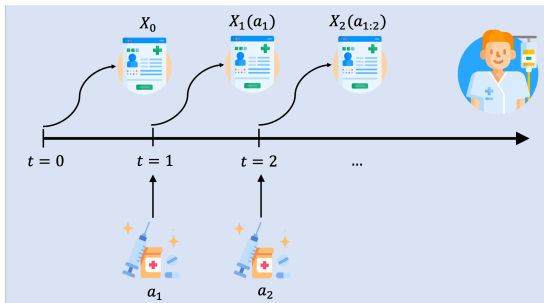
Unmeasured confounding is usually assumed away, but it is in fact **extremely common** (e.g. U as enzyme from earlier)

For no unmeasured confounding, **every factor** that affects both A and Y must be included explicitly in the data

- Often **tenuous**, especially for safety-critical applications

Our Problem Setup

Real World Process

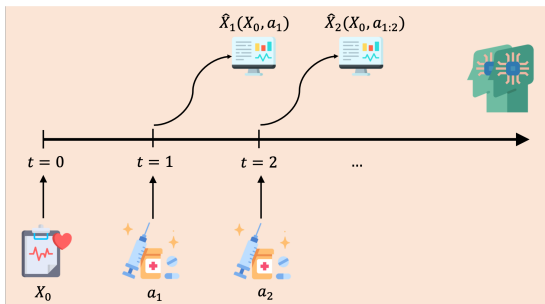


Model **real-world process** via potential outcomes:

$X_0, X_1(a_1), X_2(a_{1:2}), \dots, X_T(a_{1:T})$ for each sequence $a_{1:T}$ of **actions**.

Idea: $X_t(a_{1:t})$ represents what **would** be observed after actions $a_{1:t}$

Digital Twin Process

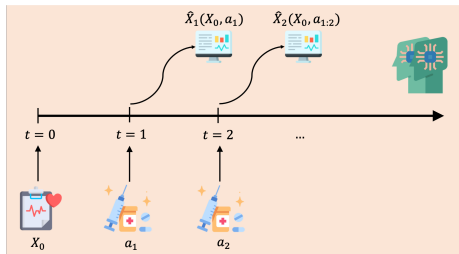
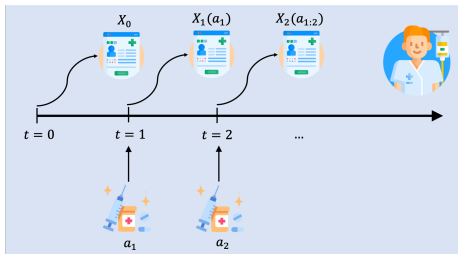


Model **twin** similarly as

$\hat{X}_1(x_0, a_1), \dots, \hat{X}_T(x_0, a_{1:T})$ where additionally x_0 is an **initialisation**

Idea: $\hat{X}_t(x_0, a_{1:t})$ represents output of twin after inputs x_0 and $a_{1:t}$

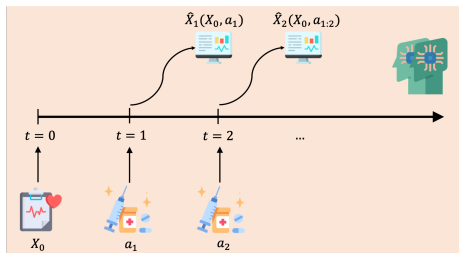
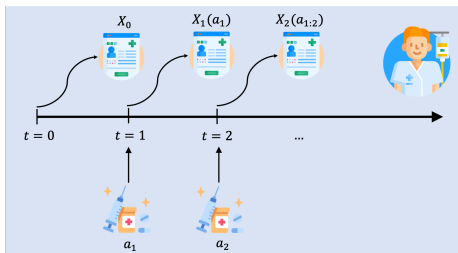
Interventional Correctness



Interventional correctness

Would like the distribution of each $\hat{X}_{1:t}(x_0, a_{1:t})$ to be equal to the conditional distribution of $X_{1:t}(a_{1:t})$ given $X_0 = x_0$

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⇒ Can recover real-world distribution via Monte Carlo (e.g. for **planning**)

Data-driven assessment problem

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Overall model is intentionally **very weak**, which seems appropriate for the assessment problem

- Do not assume $X_t(a_{1:t}) \perp\!\!\!\perp A_t \mid X_{0:t-1}(A_{1:t-1}), A_{1:t-1}$ (sequential randomisation assumption, i.e. no unmeasured confounding)

Verification and falsification

Verification approaches

Standard assessment approaches have the following logical structure:

Verification assessment

- 1 Choose a **hypothesis** \mathcal{H} such that, if \mathcal{H} is true, then the twin is correct
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\Rightarrow Does not exist \mathcal{H} with this property whose truth can be determined from the **data alone**

Our alternative: falsification

We consider the following **alternative structure**:

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- 1 Choose **hypotheses** \mathcal{H} such that, if the twin is correct, then \mathcal{H} is true
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However: lack of falsification does not imply the twin is correct

Hypotheses from causal bounds

Key result

Define real-valued **outcomes** $Y(a_{1:t}) := f(X_{0:t}(a_{1:t}))$ for some f

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$$N := \max\{0 \leq s \leq t \mid A_{1:s} = a_{1:s}\}$$

$$Y_{\text{lo}} := \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} = a_{1:t}) Y(A_{1:t}) + \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} \neq a_{1:t}) y_{\text{lo}}$$

$$Y_{\text{up}} := \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} = a_{1:t}) Y(A_{1:t}) + \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} \neq a_{1:t}) y_{\text{up}}.$$

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Theorem (Causal bounds)

If $\mathbb{P}(y_{\text{lo}} \leq Y(a_{1:t}) \leq y_{\text{up}} \mid X_{0:t}(a_{1:t}) \in B_{0:t}) = 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[Y_{\text{lo}} \mid X_{0:N}(A_{1:N}) \in B_{0:N}] &\leq \mathbb{E}[Y(a_{1:t}) \mid X_{0:t}(a_{1:t}) \in B_{0:t}] \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}[Y_{\text{up}} \mid X_{0:N}(A_{1:N}) \in B_{0:N}]. \end{aligned}$$

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Key point: left and right-hand sides are **identifiable** (in fact, **unbiasedly**) from observational data

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Take $B_{0:t}$ to be the whole space and recall

$$Y_{lo} := \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} = a_{1:t}) Y(A_{1:t}) + \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} \neq a_{1:t}) y_{lo}$$

Lower bound becomes:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y(a_{1:t})] \geq \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} = a_{1:t}) Y(A_{1:t}) + \mathbb{I}(A_{1:t} \neq a_{1:t}) y_{lo}]$$

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Essentially, choose **worst-case** for unseen subpopulation.

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Corresponds to Manski [1990] (cf. Zhang and Bareinboim [2019])

Optimality of bounds

- Without further assumptions, these bounds **cannot be improved** upon for general $Y(a_{1:t})$ (or if $Y(a_{1:t}) = f(X_t(a_{1:t}))$)

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- Also, cannot bound $\mathbb{E}[Y(a_{1:t}) \mid X_{0:t}(a_{1:t})]$ nontrivially if $X_{1:t}(a_{1:t})$ is **continuous**

Derived hypotheses

The twin is **interventionally correct** iff $(X_0, \widehat{X}_{1:T}(X_0, a_{1:T})) \stackrel{d}{=} X_{0:T}(a_{1:T})$

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Let Q_{lo} and Q_{up} be causal bounds from earlier

\Rightarrow If the twin is interventionally correct, then \mathcal{H}_{lo} and \mathcal{H}_{up} hold, where

$$\mathcal{H}_{\text{lo}} : Q_{\text{lo}} \leq \widehat{Q} \qquad \mathcal{H}_{\text{up}} : \widehat{Q} \leq Q_{\text{up}}$$

(Note dependence on $(t, f, a_{1:t}, B_{0:t})$)

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Interpretation: (e.g.) if \mathcal{H}_{lo} is false, then when $(X_0, \widehat{X}_{1:t}(X_0, a_{1:t})) \in B_{0:t}$, the outputs $f(X_0, \widehat{X}_{1:t}(X_0, a_{1:t}))$ are on average **too small**

Statistical methodology

High-level overview

Consider testing a given $\mathcal{H}_{l_0} : Q_{l_0} \leq \hat{Q}$

Recall: we have an **observational dataset** of i.i.d. copies of

$$X_0, A_1, X_1(A_1), A_2, X_2(A_{1:2}), \dots, A_T, X_T(A_{1:T}).$$

For given $a_{1:t}$, **generate** dataset of i.i.d. copies of

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For given $a_{1:t}$, **generate** dataset of i.i.d. copies of

$$X_0, \hat{X}_1(X_0, a_1), \dots, \hat{X}_t(X_0, a_{1:t})$$

Use e.g. Hoeffding's inequality to obtain one-sided conf. intervals $R_{10}^\alpha, \hat{R}^\alpha$,

$$\mathbb{P}(Q_{10} \geq R_{10}^\alpha) \geq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \qquad \mathbb{P}(\hat{Q} \leq \hat{R}^\alpha) \geq 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}$$

and **reject** \mathcal{H}_{10} if $\hat{R}^\alpha < R_{10}^\alpha$, or return a **p-value**

Control for **multiple testing** via e.g. Holm-Bonferroni or Benjamini-Yekutieli

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Can choose parameters $(t, f, a_{1:t}, B_{0:t})$ for each \mathcal{H}_{lo} and \mathcal{H}_{up} in a data-dependent way, provided we use **sample splitting**

- Useful e.g. for y_{lo} and y_{up}

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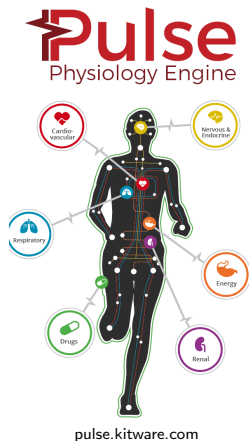
- Useful e.g. for y_{lo} and y_{up}

No additional assumptions required by construction

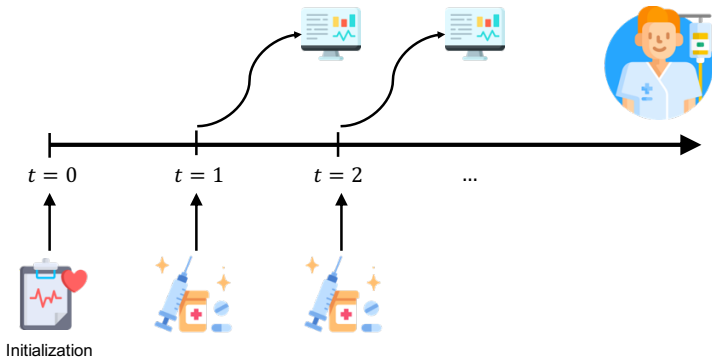
Case study: Pulse Physiology Engine

We apply our methodology to **Pulse Physiology Engine**, an open source computational model designed for human physiology simulation

Validate using the **MIMIC-III** dataset, generated from 40,000+ ICU patients at Beth Israel Hospital



Pulse Physiology Engine

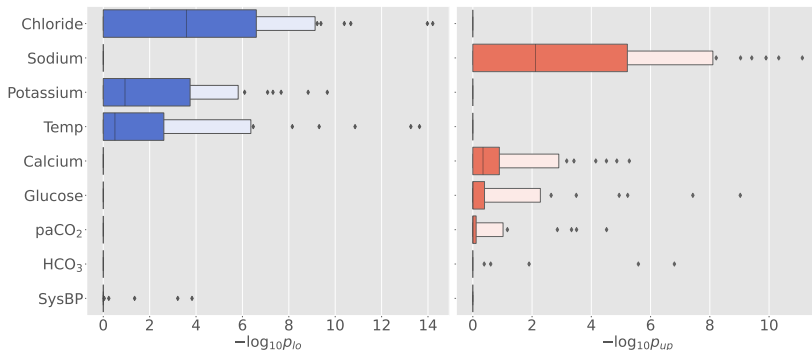


Results

Physiological quantity	# Rejections	# Hypotheses
Chloride Blood Concentration (Chloride)	24	94
Sodium Blood Concentration (Sodium)	21	94
Potassium Blood Concentration (Potassium)	13	94
Skin Temperature (Temp)	10	86
Calcium Blood Concentration (Calcium)	5	88
Glucose Blood Concentration (Glucose)	5	96
Arterial CO ₂ Pressure (paCO ₂)	3	70
Bicarbonate Blood Concentration (HCO ₃)	2	90
Systolic Arterial Pressure (SysBP)	2	154
Arterial O ₂ Pressure (paO ₂)	0	78
Arterial pH (Arterial_pH)	0	80
Diastolic Arterial Pressure (DiaBP)	0	72
Mean Arterial Pressure (MeanBP)	0	92
Respiration Rate (RR)	0	172
Heart Rate (HR)	0	162

Table: Overall rejections (FWER = 0.05)

Additional granularity

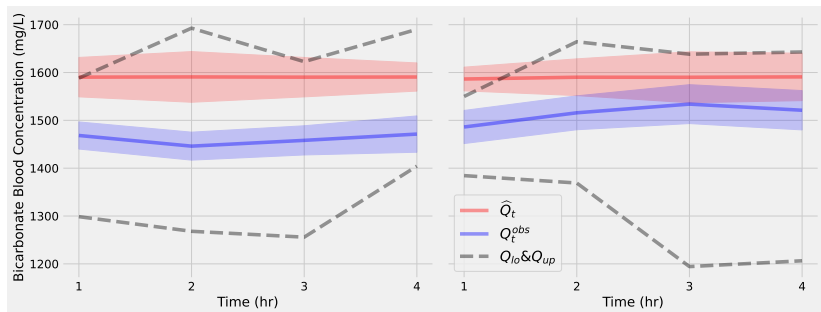


p-values for physiological quantities some rejections (notice consistent over/underestimation)

Pitfalls of naive twin assessment

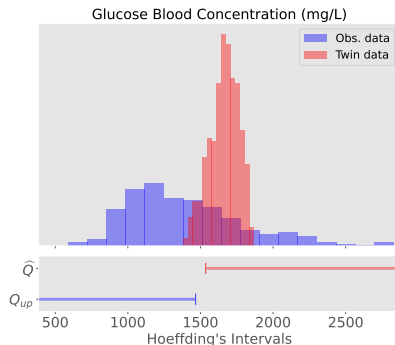
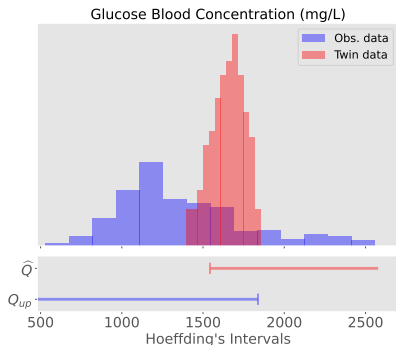
For two separate choices of $(a_{1:t}, B_{1:t})$, compare

$$\hat{Q}_t := \mathbb{E}[\hat{Y}(a_{1:t}) \mid \hat{X}_{0:t}(a_{1:t}) \in B_{0:t}],$$
$$Q_t^{\text{obs}} := \mathbb{E}[Y(A_{1:t}) \mid X_{0:t}(A_{1:t}) \in B_{0:t}, A_{1:t} = a_{1:t}].$$



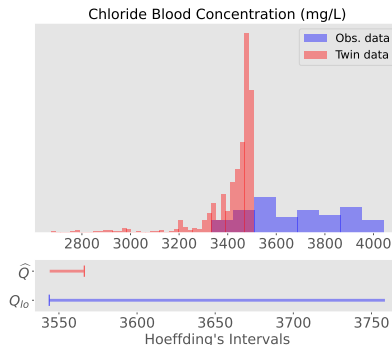
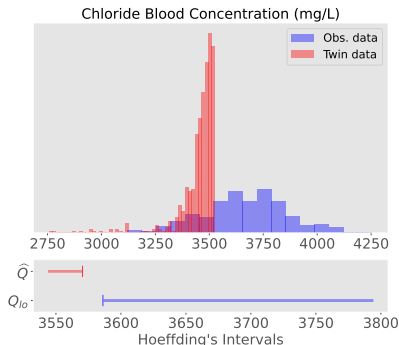
Left case looks worse, but in fact only right case leads to some rejection

Pitfalls of naive twin assessment (2)



Despite apparent similarity, right hypothesis is rejected but left one is not

Pitfalls of naive twin assessment (3)



Despite apparent similarity, right hypothesis is rejected but left one is not

Thank you!



Joint work with Rob Cornish, Arnaud Doucet, and Chris Holmes

Charles F Manski. Nonparametric bounds on treatment effects. *The American Economic Review*, 80(2):319–323, 1990.

Junzhe Zhang and Elias Bareinboim. Near-optimal reinforcement learning in dynamic treatment regimes. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 32, 2019.