Disambiguation Protocols Based on Risk Simulation

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Abstract—Suppose there is a need to swiftly navigate through a spatial arrangement of possibly forbidden regions, with each region marked with the probability that it is, indeed, forbidden. In close proximity to any of these regions, you have the dynamic capability of disambiguating the region and learning for certain whether or not the region is forbidden—only in the latter case may you proceed through that region. The central issue is how to most effectively exploit this disambiguation capability to minimize the expected length of the traversal. Regions are never entered while they are possibly forbidden, and thus, no risk is ever actually incurred. Nonetheless, for the sole purpose of deciding where to disambiguate, it may be advantageous to simulate risk, temporarily pretending that possibly forbidden regions are riskily traversable, and each potential traversal is weighted with its level of undesirability, which is a function of its traversal length and traversal risk. In this paper, the simulated risk disambiguation protocol is introduced, which has you follow along a shortest traversal—in this undesirability sense—until an ambiguous region is about to be entered; at that location, a disambiguation is performed on this ambiguous region. (The process is then repeated from the current location, until the destination is reached.) We introduce the tangent arc graph as a means of simplifying the implementation of simulated risk disambiguation protocols, and we show how to efficiently implement the simulated risk disambiguation protocols that are based on linear undesirability functions. The effectiveness of these disambiguation protocols is illustrated with examples, including an example that involves mine countermeasures path planning.

Index Terms—Canadian traveller problem, disambiguation protocol, probabilistic path planning, random disambiguation path, visibility graph.

I. INTRODUCTION

SECTION I-B provides an overview of this paper and a review of the literature, but we begin in Section I-A with a formulation of the setting in which we will be working. More discussion of this setting can be found in [1].

A. Random Disambiguation Paths

Let \( S \) be a marked point process on \( S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 \); this process generates random detections \( X_T, X_F \subseteq S \) (respectively called true and false detections), and it generates random marks \( \rho_T : X_T \to (0, 1] \) and \( \rho_F : X_F \to (0, 1] \). When observing a realization of this process, you only see \( X := X_T \cup X_F \), and you may assume that, independently for all \( x \in X, \rho(x) \) is the probability—conditioned on the observed values \( X \) and \( \rho \)—that \( x \in X_T \). Indeed, for the remainder of this paper, the specific values \( X \) and \( \rho \) have been observed, and all discussion of probability is accordingly conditioned. See Section III for an example realization of such a marked point process; the detections are the centers of the discs visualized in Fig. 4.

For every detection \( x \), the open disc about \( x \) of a given radius \( r > 0 \) is denoted \( R_x \). Given a starting point \( s \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) and a destination point \( t \in \mathbb{R}^2 \), you seek a continuous \( s, t \) curve in \( (\bigcup_{x \in X_T} R_x)^C \) of the shortest achievable arclength. Without means of verifying which detections in \( X \) are true, you could not do better than the shortest \( s, t \) curve in \( (\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x)^C \), which is denoted \( q_{s,t,X} \). (The curve \( q_{s,t,X} \) can be computed using the visibility graph described in Section I-C.) However, what makes our setting interesting is a dynamic capability of disambiguating detections from the boundaries of their associated discs; that is to say, when the curve is on \( \partial R_x \) for any \( x \in X \), you can dynamically discover whether \( x \in X_T \) or \( x \in X_F \), and in the latter case, the curve is permitted to proceed through \( R_x \). However, a fixed cost \( c \geq 0 \) (reflecting the cost of disambiguation) is added to the Euclidean length of the curve for each disambiguation, and it is assumed that there are a maximum of \( K \) disambiguations that may be performed during an \( s, t \) traversal. The broad goal here is to efficiently exploit this disambiguation capability in order to minimize the traversal curve’s (expected) Euclidean length.

A disambiguation protocol is a function \( D \) that, to any such \( s, t, X, \rho, K \), assigns a detection \( x \in X \) and a point \( y \in \partial R_x \) (we explicitly allow \( y = t \), in which case \( x \) is not defined). Given a disambiguation protocol \( D \), the random disambiguation path \( p_D \) (as in [1]) is the \( s, t \) curve in \( (\bigcup_{x \in X_T} R_x)^C \), which is realized by the following procedure: Suppose \( D \) associates \( x \in X \) and \( y \in \partial R_x \) to \( s, t, X, \rho, K \). Traverse \( q_{s,t,X} \) from \( s \) to \( y \) (e.g., by finding the shortest path in an appropriate visibility graph, as described in Section I-C). If \( y = t \), then terminate (in particular, if \( K = 0 \), then it is required that \( y = t \)), otherwise, disambiguate detection \( x \). Recursively repeat this entire procedure using \( y \) in place of \( s \), decrementing \( K \) by 1 and updating \( X \) and \( \rho \) as follows: If the disambiguation had just discovered that \( x \in X_T \), then update \( \rho(x) := 1 \), and if the disambiguation had just discovered that \( x \in X_F \), then remove \( x \) from \( X \).

The random disambiguation path \( p_D \) is an \( s, t \) curve-valued random variable even after \( X \) and \( \rho \) are observed since the emerging outcomes of the disambiguations dictated by the
protocol are still random; in fact, the distribution of \( p_D \) is specified through \( \rho \).

To illustrate, suppose \( K = 2 \) and \( s, t, X, \rho \) are given as shown in Fig. 1, and consider one particular disambiguation protocol \( D \) which, for instance, dictates that the next (i.e., first) disambiguation be of detection \( x_1 \) at point \( y_1 \). Now, suppose, if it is discovered that \( x_1 \in X_F, D \) would then dictate that no more disambigations be performed, and the curve should proceed to \( t \). Furthermore, suppose, if it is instead discovered that \( x_1 \in X_F, D \) would then dictate that \( x_2 \) should be disambiguated next, i.e., at point \( y_2 \). Whether \( x_2 \) is revealed to be a true or false detection, \( D \) would then dictate that we proceed directly to \( t \), since no more disambigations are available (currently, \( K = 0 \)). There are three possible realizations of the random disambiguation path \( p_D \), each shown in Fig. 1: With \( 1 - \rho(x_1) = 1 - 0.3 \), \( p_D \) traverses the points \( s, y_1, t \); with \( \rho(x_1)\rho(x_2) = (0.3)(0.9) \), \( p_D \) traverses the points \( s, y_1, y_2, t \), employing the curve \( \gamma \) at the traversal conclusion; and with \( \rho(x_1)(1 - \rho(x_2)) = (0.3)(1 - 0.9) \), \( p_D \) traverses the points \( s, y_1, y_2, t \), employing the line segment \( y_2\gamma \) at the traversal conclusion. (Note that in between disambiguations, the \( s, t \) curve traverse the shortest curves, avoiding all possibly forbidden risk regions—using the notion of a visibility graph described in Section I-C).

If the lengths of these three paths are 6, 8, 7, respectively, and if the cost of disambiguation was \( c = 5 \), then the expected length of \( p_D \) is given by \((1 - 0.3)(6 + 1 \times 5) + (0.3)(0.9)(8 + 2 \times 5) + (0.3)(1 - 0.9)(7 + 2 \times 5)\).

In the example above, we illustrated one particular disambiguation protocol \( D \); a different choice of protocol may, indeed, yield a significantly lower expected length. Unfortunately, choosing (from among all disambiguation protocols) an optimal protocol (which results in the minimum expected length) is not currently practical, either analytically or computationally, as we discuss in Section I-B. The purpose of this paper is to present a class of efficiently computable, suboptimal but effective disambiguation protocols; we call them simulated risk disambiguation protocols.

### B. Overview

The problem that we describe here is a minor modification of the stochastic obstacle scene problem (SOSP) of Papadimitriou and Yannakakis [2], who also describe a discrete version of this problem, which they call the Canadian traveller’s problem (CTP). (In CTP, a short traversal is desired through a finite graph whose edges are marked with their respective probabilities of being traversable, and every edge’s status can be dynamically discovered when encountered.) Papadimitriou and Yannakakis prove the intractability of several variants of SOSP and CTP. (For more information on CTP, see [3].)

CTP is a special case of the stochastic shortest paths with recourse (SPR) problem of Andreatta and Romeo [4], who present a stochastic dynamic programming formulation for SPR and note its intractability. Polychronopoulos and Tsitsiklis [5] also present a stochastic dynamic programming formulation for SPR and then prove the intractability of several variants. Provan [6] proves that SPR is intractable even if the underlying graph is directed and acyclic.

The underlying difficulty in obtaining a tractable stochastic dynamic programming formulation of these problems—even in the discrete setting—is that, in order for actions to be considered at any given location, there is a need to know the current ambiguous/true/false status of all of the detections, and the exponentially many such possibilities need to be accordingly incorporated. Andreatta and Romeo [4] note that if there is a limit of \( K = 1 \) disambigualations allowed, then SPR can be efficiently solved. Indeed, we are willing to assume here a limit \( K \) on the number of allowed disambigualations, but solving our random disambiguation problem—even a discrete variant of it—is not currently practical, unless \( K \) has a very small value.

Heuristics are suggested for CTP and SPR in [7]–[9] and [5], but they would not be applicable to the problem that we address here in this paper without initially approximating and recasting our continuous setting to the setting of a finite graph, in which case the resolution of the discretization drives up the number of vertices and edges in the approximating graph. By contrast, the algorithm that we propose here is polynomial time solely in the number of detections \(|X|\).

The principal aim of this paper is to introduce the simulated risk disambiguation protocol (which is, effectively, a particular policy in the stochastic dynamic programming formulation) and its associated random disambiguation path. They are defined in Section II-A, and their evaluation is greatly simplified through the use of the tangent arc graph introduced in Section II-B. The tangent arc graph is an extension of the visibility graph [10] detailed next in Section I-C. In Section II-C, we describe how to efficiently evaluate simulated risk disambiguation protocols that are generated by linear undesirability functions, and we show how to efficiently realize their associated random disambiguation paths. Then, in Section III, we illustrate these protocols by using an example that involves mine countermeasures path planning. Other examples are found in Section IV.

In practice, suppose you are presented with the problem described in Section I, i.e., you need to traverse from \( s \) to \( t \) and have observed \( X \) and \( \rho \) (and you are permitted \( K \) disambiguations), and further suppose that you have decided to, indeed, utilize a simulated risk disambiguation protocol to realize the associated random disambiguation path to accomplish your \( s, t \) traversal. The question still remains as to how to choose the most effective simulated risk disambiguation protocol from among the many simulated risk disambiguation protocols that exist. Section IV is concerned (given \( s, t, X, \rho, K \)) with how to select the best (or a nearly optimal) simulated risk disambiguation protocol from among the family of simulated...
risk disambiguation protocols that are generated by linear undesirability functions.

C. Visibility Graph

We conclude this background section with the construction of the visibility graph associated with \( s, t, X \); as mentioned, this visibility graph can be used to compute \( q_{s,t,X} \). (In addition, the details of this construction will be quite relevant to the construction of the tangent arc graph introduced in Section II-B.) Our visibility graph is an adaptation of the visibility graph from [10] and [11], more similar to the generalized visibility graph in [12].

Let \( s, t \) and \( X \) be specified. For distinct points \( a, b \in \{ s, t \} \cup \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \), we call the closed line segment \( \overline{a,b} \) a tangent segment, provided that 1) for all \( r \in \{ a, b \} \setminus \{ s, t \} \), \( \overline{a,b} \) is tangential to \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) at \( r \) and 2) the relative interior of \( a,b \) is contained in the interior of \( \{ \bigcup_{x \in X} R_x \} \cup \{ s, t \} \).

The visibility graph associated with \( s, t, X \) is defined as follows. Its vertex set consists of \( s, t \), all points of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) that intersect a tangent segment, and all points of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) at which two or more \( \partial R_x \)'s intersect. The edge set of the visibility graph consists of all tangent segments and all connected components of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) after the vertices of the visibility graph are removed (the latter edges are segments of arcs from circles). The graph-theoretic endpoints of these edges are their line and arc endpoints, respectively, and each edge is weighted with its arclength. An example of a visibility graph is shown in Fig. 2.

It is a well-known (and true) folk theorem that \( q_{s,t,X} \) is the shortest \( s, t \) path in the visibility graph associated with \( s, t, X \). Since every pair of nonidentical \( \partial R_x \)'s have at most four mutually tangential lines and two points of intersection, the number of vertices and edges in this visibility graph is \( O(\|X\|^2) \) each. Thus, Dijkstra’s algorithm, with a heap implementation applied to this visibility graph, yields \( q_{s,t,X} \) in \( O(\|X\|^2 \log \|X\|) \) operations, and the naive construction of the visibility graph performs \( O(\|X\|^3) \) assignment, arithmetic, and trigonometric operations.

II. SIMULATING RISK

We now introduce our main idea—the simulated risk disambiguation protocol—which gives rise to an associated simulated risk random disambiguation path.

A. Simulated Risk Disambiguation Protocol

Of course, in our framework, you will never enter regions of the form \( R_x : x \in X \) while they are possibly forbidden, and thus, you never experience actual risk. However, for the purpose of deciding the next disambiguation point, the simulated risk disambiguation protocol temporarily pretends (simulates) that the possibly forbidden regions are riskily traversable.

Under this simulation of risk, for any \( s, t \) curve \( p \) (allowing intersection with \( \bigcup_{x \in X} R_x \)), define its Euclidean length \( \ell(p) \) in the usual way, and its risk length \( \ell^r(p) := \ell(p) \log\prod_{x: \rho_0 \neq \emptyset}(1 - \rho(x)) \); this negative logarithm of the probability that \( p \) is permissible traversable is a measure of the risk in traversing \( p \)—if you were willing to take on risk. An undesirability function is any function \( g : R^2 \times R^2 \rightarrow R \) that is monotonically nondecreasing in its arguments; that is to say, for all \( u_1, u_2, v_1, v_2 \in R^2 \) such that \( u_1 \leq u_2 \) and \( v_1 \leq v_2 \), it holds that \( g(u_1, v_1) \leq g(u_2, v_2) \). The number \( g(\ell^r(p), \ell^r(p)) \) is thought of as a measure of the undesirability of \( p \) in the sense that, if you were required to traverse from \( s \) to \( t \) under the simulation of risk and without a disambiguation capability, you would want to traverse the \( s, t \) curve \( \phi_y := \arg\min_{s,t \text{ curves } p} g(\ell^r(p), \ell^r(p)) \). For this \( s, t \) curve \( \phi_y \), let \( y \in R^2 \) be the last point of \( \phi_y \) before \( \phi_y \) intersects \( \bigcup_{x \in X} R_x \), and say \( x' \in X \) is the detection whose associated region \( R_{x'} \) the curve \( \phi_y \) was entering at \( y \). (If there is no intersection between \( \phi_y \) and \( \bigcup_{x \in X} R_x \), then \( y := t \).) Back in our setting (where there is a disambiguation capability and you may not experience risk), the simulated risk disambiguation protocol \( D_y \) is defined as assigning this \( x' \) and \( y \) to \( s, t, X, \rho, K \) (provided that \( K > 0 \)).

Thus, the simulated risk random disambiguation path \( p_{Dr} \) follows a shortest \( s, t \) curve (in the sense of \( g \) and under the simulation that potentially forbidden disks are riskily traversable) until it encounters an ambiguous region (which, in actuality, it cannot enter without disambiguation), at which point a disambiguation is performed, and the whole process is repeated using the current location in place of \( s \) (and the updated information on \( \rho, X, \) and \( K \)).

Note that for the particular undesirability function \( g(u, v) = u + \infty_{v<0} \) (where \( \infty_{v<0} \) denotes \( \infty \) or even \( 0 \) according as \( v > 0 \) or \( v = 0 \)), it holds that \( p_{DR} = q_{s,t,X} \); which is the \( s, t \) curve that you would traverse if you did not have the disambiguation capability (and you were still not permitted to take any risk). In Section IV, we will discuss how, in practice, you would select an undesirability function \( g \) to use; we advocate choosing—from among a specific family of undesirability functions—the undesirability function whose associated random disambiguation path has the minimum expected length. As long as this family of undesirability functions that you

![Figure 2: Example of a visibility graph. The dashed arcs are not visibility graph edges since they are not in \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \).](image-url)

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Let \( s, t \) and \( X \) be specified. For distinct points \( a, b \in \{ s, t \} \cup \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \), we call the closed line segment \( \overline{a,b} \) a tangent segment, provided that 1) for all \( r \in \{ a, b \} \setminus \{ s, t \} \), \( \overline{a,b} \) is tangential to \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) at \( r \) and 2) the relative interior of \( a,b \) is contained in the interior of \( \{ \bigcup_{x \in X} R_x \} \cup \{ s, t \} \).

The visibility graph associated with \( s, t, X \) is defined as follows. Its vertex set consists of \( s, t \), all points of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) that intersect a tangent segment, and all points of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) at which two or more \( \partial R_x \)'s intersect. The edge set of the visibility graph consists of all tangent segments and all connected components of \( \partial(\bigcup_{x \in X} R_x) \) after the vertices of the visibility graph are removed (the latter edges are segments of arcs from circles). The graph-theoretic endpoints of these edges are their line and arc endpoints, respectively, and each edge is weighted with its arclength. An example of a visibility graph is shown in Fig. 2.

It is a well-known (and true) folk theorem that \( q_{s,t,X} \) is the shortest \( s, t \) path in the visibility graph associated with \( s, t, X \). Since every pair of nonidentical \( \partial R_x \)'s have at most four mutually tangential lines and two points of intersection, the number of vertices and edges in this visibility graph is \( O(\|X\|^2) \) each. Thus, Dijkstra’s algorithm, with a heap implementation applied to this visibility graph, yields \( q_{s,t,X} \) in \( O(\|X\|^2 \log \|X\|) \) operations, and the naive construction of the visibility graph performs \( O(\|X\|^3) \) assignment, arithmetic, and trigonometric operations.
choose from also includes the function \( g(u, v) = u + \infty v > 0 \) (which is, indeed,\(^1\) the case for the strategy that we advocate in Section IV), you are always guaranteed to do no worse (in expectation) than the \( s, t \) curve that you would follow if you did not have a disambiguation capability (and you were not permitted any risk).

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**B. Tangent Arc Graph**

Given an undesirability function \( g \), in order to evaluate \( D_g \) and realize \( p_{D_g} \), one must be able to compute \( \phi_g := \arg\min_{s, t} \text{curves } p(g(\ell^p, \ell^p)) \). Although there are uncountably infinitely many \( s, t \) curves over which to minimize, we will use the monotonicity of \( g \) to show that \( \phi_g \) must be a path in the tangent arc graph \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \), which is defined in the next paragraph and illustrated in Fig. 3, so that \( \phi_g \) solves the finite optimization problem \( \min_{s, t} \text{paths } p \in \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} g(\ell^p, \ell^p) \).

For any distinct points \( a, b \in \{s, t\} \cup (\bigcup_{x \in X} \partial R_x) \), we say that the closed line segment \( \overline{a, b} \) is a general tangent segment, provided that, for all \( r \in \{a, b\} \setminus \{s, t\} \), \( \overline{a, b} \) is tangential to \( \partial R_x \) for some \( x \in X \). The vertex set of \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) consists of \( s, t \), all points of intersection between any general tangent segment and any \( \partial R_x \) (over all \( x \in X \)), and all points of intersection between two or more \( \partial R_x \)'s. The edge set of \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) consists of all connected components of all general tangent segments after the vertices of \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) are removed, and all connected components of \( \bigcup_{x \in X} \partial R_x \) after the vertices of \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) are removed. An example of a \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) is shown in Fig. 3.

Note that the graph \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) is a topological superimposition of all the (exponentially many) visibility graphs generated by \( s, t, Y \) over all \( Y \subseteq X \). Hence, if \( \phi_g \) is the shortest \( s, t \) curve in the sense of \( g \), then for \( Y = \{x \in X : \phi_g \cap R_x = \emptyset\} \), we have that \( \phi_g \) is a path in the visibility graph associated with \( s, t, Y \). Thus, in particular, \( \phi_g \) is a path in \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \), as claimed.

However, there are only \( O(|X|^2) \) general tangent segments, each intersecting \( O(|X|) \) regions of the form \( R_x : x \in X \), so we have \( O(|X|^3) \) vertices and \( O(|X|^3) \) edges in \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \), and the number of operations to set up \( \text{TAG} \) is \( O(|X|^3 \log |X|) \). In particular, there are only a finite number of \( s, t \) paths \( p \) that are candidates for being \( \phi_g \).

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**C. Linear Undesirability Functions**

The simplest undesirability functions are the linear ones, where \( g(u, v) = u + \alpha \cdot v \) for some fixed parameter \( \alpha \geq 0 \); in this case, we abbreviate the disambiguation protocol \( D_g \) to \( D_\alpha \). We next show that for any fixed value of \( \alpha \), \( D_\alpha \) is efficiently computable, and \( p_{D_\alpha} \) is efficiently realizable.

For each edge \( f = \{a, b\} \) in \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \), we assign its Euclidean length \( \ell^f \) in the usual manner, and we define its risk length as \( \ell^f := -\sum_{x \in X} I_{f \cap R_x \neq \emptyset} (I_{a \in \partial R_x} / 2 + I_{b \in \partial R_x} / 2) \log(1 - \rho(x)) \) where \( I \) is the indicator function; this definition is consistent with that of risk length for an \( s, t \) curve since, for any \( s, t \) path \( p \) in \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X, p} \), it holds that \( \ell^p = \sum_{f \in p} \ell^f \) (provided that \( p \) never revisits any region \( R_x \) twice). Thus, \( \phi_g \) may be found by running Dijkstra's algorithm on \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \) using the lengths \( \ell^f + \alpha \cdot \ell^f \) for each edge \( f \) in \( \text{TAG}_{s, t, X} \). The running time for Dijkstra's algorithm with a heap implementation is \( O(|X|^3 \log |X|) \), so \( D_\alpha \) can be computed in \( O(|X|^3 \log |X|) \) operations, and \( p_{D_\alpha} \) is thus realizable in \( O(|X|^3 \log |X|) \) operations since \( K \) is a constant. (In particular, if there was no limit \( K \) on the number of disambiguations permitted, then \( p_{D_\alpha} \) is realizable in \( O(|X|^4 \log |X|) \) operations.)

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**III. Mine Countermeasures Example**

Minefield detection and localization is an important problem that is currently receiving much attention in the scientific and engineering literature (see, for instance, [13] and the references cited there). Witherspoon et al. [14] depict the operational concept for minefield reconnaissance via an unmanned aerial vehicle. Multispectral imagery of an area of interest is processed and a mine detection algorithm identifies locations of potential...
mines (see [15]), with the collection of these points constituting our point process realization. The marks are posterior probabilities that the respective detections represent actual mines, as rendered by a postprocessing classification rule [16]–[20].

The following marked point process realization, as shown in Fig. 4, is referred to in [16] and [21] and has 39 potential mines rendered by a postprocessing classification rule [16]–[20].

Our point process realization. The marks are posterior probabilities. In particular, we can show in Fig. 6, which are labeled with their respective numbers of disambiguations. Observe also that the number of disambiguations. Observe also that \( \alpha \) is seen to be the interval \((30.23, 55.09) \). It turns out that \( \alpha \) is a better choice than \( \alpha = 5 \); here, \( \arg \min_{\alpha \geq 5} E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \) is seen to be the interval \((30.23, 55.09) \). It turns out that \( p_{D_{\alpha}} \) is, in fact, identical to \( p_{D_{5}} \) for all values of \( \alpha \) in \((30.23, 55.09) \); a maximal interval \( I \) where \( p_{D_{\alpha}} \) is identical for all values of \( \alpha \) in \( I \) will be called an indifference interval.\(^2\) Here, in total, there are 11 indifference intervals, which are listed in Table II with their respective values of \( E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \) and the range of costs \( c \) where that interval is precisely \( \arg \min_{\alpha \geq 5} E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \).

In other words, suppose you were presented—in practice—the specific \( X \) and \( \rho \) given in Table I, with \( s = (0, 800) \), \( t = (0, 100) \), \( K = 4 \), and some disambiguation cost \( c \geq 0 \). If you would choose to traverse from \( s \) to \( t \) via a random disambiguation path based on a simulated risk disambiguation protocol using a linear undesirability function, then the particular value of the parameter \( \alpha \) you should select depends on the particular disambiguation cost \( c \). For example, if \( c \in (0, 0.000, 1.0103) \) then, by comparing (for the various indifference intervals)

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>321.17</td>
<td>158.27</td>
<td>.5423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215.13</td>
<td>428.31</td>
<td>-145.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221.17</td>
<td>557.31</td>
<td>192.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>163.31</td>
<td>186.14</td>
<td>205.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.40</td>
<td>376.47</td>
<td>-105.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116.39</td>
<td>110.84</td>
<td>-128.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-91.27</td>
<td>664.45</td>
<td>428.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-19.93</td>
<td>568.04</td>
<td>402.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-35.11</td>
<td>242.61</td>
<td>438.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-78.75</td>
<td>396.14</td>
<td>372.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-134.53</td>
<td>769.27</td>
<td>641.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-219.32</td>
<td>313.68</td>
<td>742.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-242.22</td>
<td>321.51</td>
<td>546.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the specific value of \( c \) is relevant to neither \( D_{\alpha} \) nor \( p_{D_{\alpha}} \), so \( c \) has no influence in the establishment of indifference intervals. However, \( c \) will affect \( E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), \( E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), and \( \arg \min_{\alpha \geq 5} E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), so \( c \) will influence our choice of \( \alpha \).

\(^2\)Note that the specific value of \( c \) is relevant to neither \( D_{\alpha} \) nor \( p_{D_{\alpha}} \), so \( c \) has no influence in the establishment of indifference intervals. However, \( c \) will affect \( E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), \( E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), and \( \arg \min_{\alpha \geq 5} E_\ell p_{D_{\alpha}} \), so \( c \) will influence our choice of \( \alpha \).
Fig. 6. All (seven) possible realizations of \( p_{D,100} \). The probabilities are the respective probabilities of the path realizations. (a) Length = 707.97, and prob = 0.89671. (b) Length = 714.90, and prob = 0.040105. (c) Length = 859.37, and prob = 0.038472. (d) Length = 831.04, and prob = 0.012796. (e) Length = 1188.77, and prob = 0.0089469. (f) Length = 1185.40, and prob = 0.0019532. (g) Length = 958.43, and prob = 0.0010226.

Fig. 7. \( E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \) as a function of \( \alpha \) for \( c = 5 \).

\( E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \) in the second column of Table II (as linear functions in \( c \)), it is clear that, for \( c \in (0.0000, 4.1013) \), the fourth indifference interval listed there is best, and you should use any \( \alpha \in (26.77, 30.23) \) in practice. If \( c \in (4.1013, 15.9145) \) then by similar reasoning you should use any \( \alpha \in (30.23, 55.09) \); see the third column of Table II. Furthermore, in a similar fashion, for each possible value of \( c \geq 0 \), consider such \( \alpha \) minimizing \( E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \); the values of \( \min_{\alpha \geq 0} E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \) are plotted as a (piecewise linear) function of cost \( c \) in Fig. 8.

Now, observe that for all \( c < 228.1639 \), it holds that \( \min_{\alpha \geq 0} E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} < E^\ell p_{D,\infty} = \ell q_{s,t,X} \), which means that, for disambiguation costs less than 23.34% of \( \ell q_{s,t,X} = 977.54 \), the optimal simulated risk disambiguation path based on a linear undesirability function yields a strict (expected) improvement over the curve \( q_{s,t,X} \), which would be traversed if the disambiguation capability was not available at all and risk was not permitted.

Next, in Section IV, we address the issue of how, in general, to select an optimal or near-optimal value for \( \alpha \).

IV. MINIMIZING \( E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \) OVER \( \alpha \geq 0 \)

Given \( s, t, X, \rho, K \) and assuming that you will use a linear undesirability function in the establishment of a simulated risk disambiguation protocol, you still need to determine the value of the parameter \( \alpha \) to use; once the value of \( \alpha \) is chosen, then you can efficiently realize \( p_{D,\alpha} \), as described in Section II-C. Thus, what is needed is a practical way to minimize \( E^\ell p_{D,\alpha} \) over \( \alpha \geq 0 \), exactly or approximately.
Table II: All indifference intervals, the $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ for values of $\alpha$ in the respective indifference intervals, and the range of disambiguation costs $c$ where this indifference interval is optimal. For example, for any value $0 < c < 4.1013$, the optimal value of $\alpha$ is any $26.77 < \alpha < 30.23$ and, as such, $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha} = 717.22 + 2.1665c$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indifference interval $I$</th>
<th>$E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in I$</th>
<th>Range of $c$ such that $I = \arg \min_{\alpha \geq 0} E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(0.00, 0.05)</td>
<td>735.02 + 3.5587$c$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.05, 3.23)</td>
<td>734.89 + 3.1033$c$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3.23, 26.77)</td>
<td>717.92 + 2.1665$c$</td>
<td>(0.0000, 4.1013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(26.77, 30.23)</td>
<td>720.89 + 1.2698$c$</td>
<td>(4.1013, 15.9145)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(30.23, 55.09)</td>
<td>721.14 + 1.2570$c$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(55.09, 143.21)</td>
<td>722.92 + 1.1423$c$</td>
<td>(15.9145, 50.4720)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(143.21, 186.72)</td>
<td>723.07 + 1.1393$c$</td>
<td>(50.4720, 76.0167)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(186.72, 413.71)</td>
<td>725.81 + 1.1033$c$</td>
<td>(76.0167, 228.1639)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(413.71, 1414.41)</td>
<td>750.14 + 1.0000$c$</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1414.41, 2472.44)</td>
<td>977.54</td>
<td>(228.1639, $\infty$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Optimal values of $\alpha$ against the values of $c$. Note that if $c > 228.1639$ then the optimal $p_{D\alpha}$ turns out to be exactly $q_{s,t,X}$.

As a first step, suppose it is desired to evaluate $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ for just one particular value of $\alpha$. This may be accomplished by considering all possible outcomes of the disambiguations dictated by $D\alpha$ and encountered by $p_{D\alpha}$ (which can be done via straightforward recursion) and then weighting the lengths of the possible $s$, $t$ curves that $p_{D\alpha}$ can assume by their respective probabilities. Indeed, we used this procedure to compute $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ in Section III.

The number of different $s$, $t$ curves that can be realized by $p_{D\alpha}$ is bounded by $2^K$. Note that this is just an upper bound; in the example of Section III, where $K = 4$, the number of different $s$, $t$ curves that could be realized by $p_{D\alpha}$ for $\alpha$ in the 11 different indifference intervals was 13, 12, 9, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 3, 2, and 1, respectively. In particular, since $K$ is fixed, $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ can be efficiently evaluated for a particular $\alpha$; the time required is $O(|X|^3 \log |X|)$, with a multiplicative constant that depends on $K$. When $K$ is small, it can be practical to evaluate $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ for a particular $\alpha$ in this manner.

Therefore, it may be practical to compute $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$ for a mesh of different values of $\alpha$ and to then adopt the best value $\alpha'$ from the mesh as your parameter, hoping that $E\ell^e p_{D\alpha'} \approx \min_{\alpha \geq 0} E\ell^e p_{D\alpha}$.

To illustrate, we obtained 11 realizations of a particular marked spatial point process on $[0, 55] \times [0, 220] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, where the true and false detections are Poisson(20) and Poisson(50), respectively, and the true and false marks are Beta(6, 2) and...
Fig. 10. Plots of $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ against $\alpha = 2, 7, 12, 17, \ldots$ for the respective nine realizations in Fig. 9. Note that in each of these plots, for the largest plotted value of $\alpha$, we have $p_{D,\alpha} = p_{D,\infty}$.

Beta(2, 6). We adopted the starting point $s = (-11, 110)$, destination point $t = (66, 110)$, disc radius $r = 10$, disambiguation cost $c = 1$, and the number of available disambiguations $K = 4$. Two of these 11 point process realizations had nearly unobstructed $s, t$ paths and were therefore trivial; the other nine realizations are shown in Fig. 9. The discs in Fig. 9 are gray scaled to reflect the marks of the associated detections; discs are darker and lighter accordingly as the marks are closer to 1 and 0.

In each of these nine nontrivial realizations, we computed $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ for $\alpha = 2, 7, 12, 17, \ldots$ until the values of $\alpha$ are large enough so that no disambiguations are performed, i.e., until the values of $\alpha$ are large enough so that $p_{D,\alpha} = p_{D,\infty}$. Fig. 10 shows the plots of $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ against $\alpha$ for each of these nine realizations. From among the mesh of values $\alpha = 2, 7, 12, 17, \ldots$, we found that the value of $\alpha$ of minimum $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ are, for the respective nine realizations, 32, 162, 252, 147, 22, 187, 37, 162, and 22. These respective nine values would be the ones to choose for the parameter $\alpha$ in (linear undesirability function based) simulated risk disambiguation protocols if you encounter these respective nine realizations.

In general, since $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ can be efficiently evaluated for any single value of $\alpha$, the usual numerical optimization methods for real functions of the real line are applicable in minimizing $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ over $\alpha \geq 0$.

For large values of $K$, where an exact evaluation of $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$ may not be practical (even for a single value of $\alpha$), Monte Carlo simulations of $p_{D,\alpha}$ can yield approximate values of $E^\ell e p_{D,\alpha}$.
V. CONCLUSION

Given a starting point $s$, destination $t$, and observations $X$ and $\rho$, we have illustrated in Section IV how to practically choose a simulated risk disambiguation protocol based on a linear undesirability function to efficiently (Section II-C) traverse a realization of the associated random disambiguation path from $s$ to $t$. In future work, we intend to seek faster methods of choosing a useful linear undesirability function, perhaps based on easily computed descriptive measures of $s$, $t$, $X$, $\rho$, $K$.

It might also be useful to seek nonlinear undesirability functions $g$ that are more effective (i.e., that yield lower $E[\ell(s,t,X,\rho)]$) than linear undesirability functions. However, we would then need a practical way to compute $\phi_g$, only since when $g$ is linear we can use Dijkstra’s algorithm to find a shortest (in the sense of $g$) path in $T(\mathcal{A}_s,t,X,\rho)$. We intend to also consider this direction in future work.

Finally, another, and different, research direction would be to explore possible computational advantages in modeling the underlying problem that utilizes fuzzy numbers in place of probabilities, which is similar to the fuzzy network flow problems in [22].

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REFERENCES


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