

SITUATION ASSESSMENT WITH OBJECT ORIENTED PROBABILISTIC RELATIONAL MODELS

Catherine Howard*, Markus Stumptner**

**Electronic Warfare and Radar Division, Defence Science and Technology Organisation
PO Box 1500, Edinburgh, South Australia, 5111*

***Advanced Computing and Research Centre, University of South Australia, Adelaide, South Australia, 5095*

Keywords: Bayesian Networks, Decision Support Systems, Industrial Applications of Artificial Intelligence

Abstract: This paper presents a new Object Oriented Probabilistic Relational language which is built upon the Bangsø Object Oriented Bayesian Network framework. We are currently studying the application of this language for situation assessment in complex military and business domains.

1 INTRODUCTION

Decision making in time-critical, high stress, information overloaded environments, such as the tactical military domain, is a complex research problem that can benefit from the application of information fusion techniques. Information fusion is the process of acquiring, aligning, correlating, associating and combining relevant information from various sources into one or more representational formats appropriate for interpreting the information. The Lambert revision (Lambert 2003) (λ JDL) of the widely accepted *Joint Directors of Laboratories*, or *JDL model* (Steinberg, Bowman et al. 1998) provides a functional model of the information fusion process. λ JDL divides the information fusion into three sub-processes: object, situation and impact fusion. This paper focuses on Situation Fusion.

Within the λ JDL model, Situation Fusion is defined as the process of utilizing one or more data sources over time to assemble a representation of the *relationships of interest* between objects of interest in the area of interest in the battlespace. *Relationships of interest* can include physical, temporal, spatial, organizational, perceptual and functional relationships. The relationships meaningful to a user will be highly dependent on the domain and the user's intentions. A Situation Assessment is defined as a persistent representation of the relationships of interest.

While significant progress has been made in Object Fusion, substantial challenges remain in Situation and Impact Fusion (Llinas 2001; Sycara

and Lewis 2002; Lambert 2003; Salerno, Hinman et al. 2003). One such challenge is the formalization of the computational processes at these levels.

Formulating Situation Assessments from sensor data requires the ability to represent:

- Objects and their attributes
- Relationships and their attributes

and the ability to:

- Fuse information at various levels of abstraction
- Perform temporal reasoning
- Handle the uncertainty about:
 - The identity, number, location and attributes of objects
 - The existence and attributes of relationships

1.1 Example Scenario

A classic situation assessment example is a tactical military scenario where a helicopter is flying along a planned route. The intent of the pilots is to arrive safely at the target without being seen, acquired or targeted by an adversary's radar installations or shot down by any weapon systems known to be co-located with the radar installations. There are an unknown number of land based friendly and adversary radar and weapon installations in the area. Onboard the helicopter is a suite of sensing systems which collect and analyze emissions from the radars during the flight, but provide only a partial picture of the battle space. The data may be incomplete, incorrect, contradictory or uncertain. It may have various degrees of latency and may be affected by the environment or by enemy deception or

confusion, which creates false or misleading data. The most important *relationships of interest*, given the pilot's intent, include the helicopter approaching, receding from or traversing the detection range of a radar or the lethality envelope of a weapon system. In order to successfully complete the mission, the pilot must develop an understanding of which, if any, of these relationships exist at any given time and the impact the existing relationships will have on the mission objectives.

Counterparts to this competitive scenario in the business domain are numerous, although spatial relationships play little or no role; the threats are competitor's actions in the business environment and the strategic choices correspond to business decisions.

1.2 The Road to OOPRMs

Bayesian Networks (BN) have been used in many existing decision support systems, e.g., to reason about causal and perceptual relationships between objects in the battlespace in tactical military reasoning (Laskey and Mahoney 1997; Mulgund, Rinkus et al. 1997; Gonsalves and Rinkus 1998; Jones, Hayes et al. 1998; Gonsalves, Rinkus et al. 1999; Das, Grey et al. 2002; Wright, Mahoney et al. 2002). However, BN have been shown to be inadequate for reasoning about large, complex domains (Pfeffer 1999) because of their lack of flexibility, the fact that they are static models and their inability to take full advantage of domain structure or reuse. The lack of flexibility is of particular importance to situation assessment domain because the variables relevant to reasoning about a situation will be dependent on the domain and the user intentions.

We aim to use automated reasoning to derive Situation Assessments from signal data to provide dynamic decision support to decisionmakers such as managers or tactical military commanders. In order to do this, we need to represent and reason about the location, status and the relationships which exist between objects in the domain of interest (e.g., the battlespace or market) given the input data (e.g., sensors or market reports). From the preceding discussion of the limitations of BN in the domain, it is clear that a technique is required which can allow the random variables in the model, their state spaces and their probabilistic relationships to vary over time and from instance to instance. First Order Probabilistic Languages (FOPLs) are languages which combine probability theory with the expressive power of first order logic. Recently, FOPLs have been used in a number of domains such as military situation awareness (Pfeffer 1999),

hypertext classification (Getoor 2002) and traffic surveillance (Pasula 2003). Probabilistic Relational Models (PRM) are a family of FOPL. The thesis behind this work is that FOPL in the form of OPRM will provide a flexible and practical approach to reasoning in complex domains such as military Situation Assessment. And that using such a language will formalize the computational processes at this stage of the information fusion process.

2 PROBABILISTIC RELATIONAL MODELS

Probabilistic Relational Models (PRM) (Koller and Pfeffer 1998; Getoor 2002) extend traditional attribute based Bayesian Networks with the concepts of objects, their attributes and relationships between them. The most important difference between BN and PRM is that PRM define the dependency model at the class level. The class dependency model is then instantiated for any instance of the class.

PRM annotate frames with a probability model representing the uncertainty over the properties of an instance, capturing both its probabilistic dependence on its own attributes and the attributes of related instances. PRM specify a template for the probability distribution over a knowledge base (Getoor 2002). This template consists of two parts: a relational component and a probabilistic component. The relational component describes how the classes in the domain are related. The probabilistic component details the probabilistic dependencies between attributes in the domain. A PRM can also represent uncertainty over the structure of the model.

PRM were created by integrating a frame-based representation with the only OOBN framework known at the time; Koller and Pfeffers OOBN framework (hereafter referred to as KPOOBN). However, recent work by Bangso (Bangso and Wuillemain 2000; Bangso 2004) has proposed a new framework for OOBN (hereafter referred to as BOOBN) which has several advantages over Koller and Pfeffer's OOBN framework.

Both KPOOBN and BOOBN frameworks define an OOBN class as a BN fragment containing *output*, *input*, and *protected* (or *encapsulated*) nodes. The input and output variables form the interface of the class. The interface encapsulates the internal variables of the class, d-separating them from the rest of the network. All communication with other instances is formulated in terms of probability statements over the instance's interface.

The main difference between the two frameworks is that BOOBN introduce the use of

reference nodes and *reference links* to overcome the problem that no node inside a class can have parents outside the class. A reference node is a special type of node pointing to a node in another scope (called the *referenced* node). A reference node is bound to its referenced node by a reference link. BOOBN define all input nodes to be reference nodes.

While these reference nodes create an additional computational cost, they provide several important benefits. For example, the reference nodes enable BOOBN framework to have a more intuitive definition of inheritance in the modeling domain. KPOOBN inheritance definition corresponds to contravariance while Bangsø's definition corresponds to covariance. The reference nodes also allow the BOOBN framework to compactly represent dynamic situations, whereas KPOOBN, as it stands, does not have the expressive power to deal with situations that evolve over time (Koller and Pfeffer 1997). These reference nodes also provide an advantage during inference, as outlined in Section 6.

3 OBJECT ORIENTED PRM

Following the example set by Koller and Pfeffer's PRM, we have integrated a frame based representation system with the BOOBN framework. Throughout the remainder of the paper, the University example shown in Figure 1 will be used to illustrate the discussion. We decided to use this relatively "unthreatening" business domain to simplify the exposition and avoid the complexities of identity uncertainty (discussed in Section 7). The following definitions expand (Getoor 2002).

Definition 3.1: OPRM (like PRM) consist of a relational component and a probabilistic component.

The relational component consists of:

- A set of classes, $C = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n\}$, and possibly a partial ordering over C which defines the class hierarchy. The set of classes in the University example is $C = \{\text{Lecturer, Paper, Conference, Promotion Evaluation}\}$.
- A set of descriptive attributes for each class C in C . $C_1.A$ is an attribute A of class C_1 . Each descriptive attribute A has a domain type $\text{Dom}[A] \in C$ and a range type $\text{Range}[A] = \text{Val}[A]$ where $\text{Val}[A]$ is a predefined finite enumerated set of values. The set of descriptive attributes of class C is denoted $A(X)$. In the University example, $A(\text{Lecturer}) = \{\text{Tired, Productivity, Teaching Skills, Brilliance, Quantifier(Papers) and WillGetPromoted}\}$. The Productivity attribute of the Lecturer class has $\text{Val}[\text{Productivity}] = \{\text{low, medium, high}\}$.

- A set of reference attributes ρ for each class C in C . $C_1.\rho$ is a reference attribute ρ of class C_1 . Reference attributes represent functional relationships between instances in the knowledge base (i.e. they are attributes which reference other frame instances). Each reference attribute ρ has a domain type $\text{Dom}[\rho] \in C$ and a range type $\text{Range}[\rho] \in C$ for some class C in C . Each reference attribute (except uncertain reference attributes) have an inverse, which is interpreted as the inverse function of ρ . In our University example, the Paper class has a single valued reference attribute Conference whose value is an instance corresponding to an instance of the Conference class. The set of reference attributes of class C is denoted $R(X)$. In the University example, $R(\text{Paper}) = \{\text{Conference, Promotion Evaluations}\}$.

- A set of named instances, I , which represent instantiations of the classes. As multiple inheritance is not accommodated in this framework, each instance is an instance of only one class.

The probabilistic component consists of:

- A set of conditional probability models $P(A|\text{Pa}[A])$ for the descriptive attributes, where $\text{Pa}[A]$ is the set of parents of A . These probability models may be attached to particular instances or inherited from classes because like PRM, OPRM define the dependency model at the class level, allowing it to be instantiated for any instance of that class.

The classes of the OPRM are organized into a hierarchy. A frame's slots and facets, including their probability models, are inherited from the frame's superclass in the hierarchy. If required, subclasses can redefine any inherited information of any attribute including the probability model.

3.1 Inference in OPRM

Inference is performed on an instantiated OPRM by constructing the 'equivalent' BOOBN for each class by instantiating a node for each uncertain descriptive attribute in the class. The protected nodes in these equivalent BOOBN are encapsulated from the rest of the model via the instances interface and the inference algorithms take advantage of this fact.

3.2 Multi-Valued Reference Attributes

Reference attributes do not necessarily represent one-to-one relationships. These attributes can be multi-valued, representing one-to-many and many-to-many relationships. For example, the Paper attribute in the Promotion Evaluations class is a

multi-valued reference attribute. Each value the attribute can take on is an instance of the *Paper* class. But the parents of a descriptive attribute such as *Lecturer.WillGetPromoted* must be descriptive attributes. In order to allow descriptive attributes such as *Lecturer.WillGetPromoted* to depend on attributes of related instances where the relation is multi-valued, an **aggregate attribute** is introduced into the frame containing the multi-valued attribute. Aggregate attributes allow descriptive attributes such as *Lecturer.WillGetPromoted* to depend on the set of instances via an aggregate property of the set, rather than each individually related instance.

Definition: An aggregate attribute $\gamma(\rho)$ is a descriptive attribute which summarizes a property of a set of related instances. Attributes other than aggregate attribute cannot depend directly in a multi-valued reference attributes.

An aggregate attribute is represented in the equivalent BOOBN by a simple node. As a descriptive attribute, an aggregate attribute has a set of parents, which includes each related instance, and a distribution that specifies the conditional probability over its values, given the values of its parents

In our university example, the aggregate attribute *QuantifierPapers* is true if and only if more than 5 papers have a high impact, i.e. true if $\geq 5(\text{Papers.Impact:high})$. In this case the value of the aggregate attribute is {true, false}. Because an aggregate attribute is a descriptive attribute, it can be a parent of another attribute. For example, *Lecturer.Quantifier(Papers)* is a parent of *Lecturer.WillGetPromoted*.

4 THE UNIVERSITY EXAMPLE

The University example model is the simplest form of OPRM, where the complete relational structure (i.e. the set of objects and relationships between them) is known. Given the relational structure, the OPRM specifies a probability distribution over the attributes of the instances in the model. We are employing the unique names assumption in this example, which means that each object in the knowledge base is assumed to have a unique identifier (i.e. identity uncertainty is not present).

The OPRM shown in Figure 1 evaluates the promotion prospects of university academics based upon their teaching skills, brilliance and productivity and the impact of their publications. The impact of their publications are effected by the standard and prestige of the conferences to which they were submitted and is summarized by the aggregate node *Quantifier(Papers)*.

In the diagram, the red nodes indicate output nodes while the dashed nodes represent input nodes. Together input and output nodes define the interfaces, *Int*, of the various classes. For example, the interface for the *Lecturer* class $\text{Int}(\text{Lecturer}) = \{\text{Quantifier(Papers)}, \text{Brilliance}, \text{Will-GetPromoted}\}$. The interface for the *Paper* class is $\text{Int}(\text{Paper}) = \{\text{Brilliance}, \text{Standard}, \text{Prestige}, \text{Impact}\}$. The interface for the *Conference* class is $\text{Int}(\text{Conference}) = \{\text{Standard}, \text{Prestige}\}$ while the interface for the *Promotion Evaluations* class is $\text{Int}(\text{Promotion Evaluations}) = \{\text{Quantifier(Papers)}, \text{Brilliance}\}$.

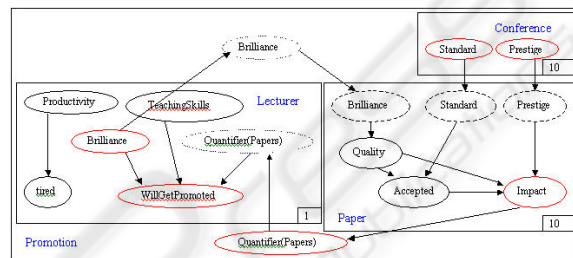


Figure 1: The university OPRM. The model contains one instance of the *Lecturer* class, ten instances of the *Papers* class and ten instances of the *Conferences* class

5 TECHNIQUES FOR REPRESENTING UNCERTAINTY

The OPRM framework (like PRM) can be extended to accommodate uncertainty about the relational structure of the model. In these cases, the uncertainty in the relational structure needs to be explicitly modeled in the OPRM. The following techniques (adapted from (Koller and Pfeffer 1998; Pfeffer, Koller et al. 1999; Getoor 2002)) are useful when the knowledge about the relational structure is not complete.

5.1 Structural Uncertainty

There are three types of structural uncertainty; number, reference and identity uncertainty. The techniques used to extend OPRM to accommodate the first two types will be discussed in this section. As we do not yet have techniques to accommodate identity uncertainty into OPRM, it is discussed further in Section 7.

5.2 Number Uncertainty

Number uncertainty is present when it is unclear how many values a multi-valued reference attribute can take. For example, it may be uncertain how many papers the lecturer Dr Smith has written. Number uncertainty allows the set of instances in the model to be varied.

Number uncertainty is integrated into the probabilistic model of a class by introducing a **number attribute**.

Definition: A number attribute $\text{num}(\rho)$ is a descriptive attribute with the range equal to the set of integers $\{0..n\}$ where n is the upper bound. $\text{Num}(\rho)$ denotes the number of values of ρ .

A number attribute is represented in the equivalent BOOBN by a simple node. As a descriptive attribute, a number attribute has a set of parents (e.g., $\text{num}(\text{Paper})$ could be dependant on $\text{Lecturer.Productivity}$) and a distribution that specifies the conditional probability over its values, given the values of its parents.

Recall from Section 3.2 that multi-values reference attributes require an aggregate node to be introduced into the network. Under number uncertainty, the value of the aggregate attribute will depend on the number attribute as well as the value of related instances. For example, the value of $\text{DrSmith.Quantifier}(\text{Papers})$ will depend on the number attribute $\text{DrSmith.num}(\text{Papers})$ and the impact attribute of the set of related instances $\text{Paper}[1]$ through to $\text{Paper}[10]$.

5.3 Reference Uncertainty

Reference uncertainty is uncertainty over the value of a single-valued reference attribute. For example: it may be uncertain which conference $\text{Paper}[1]$ was submitted to. That is, there is uncertainty over which **Conference** frame instance the $\text{Paper}[1].\text{Conference}$ reference attribute refers to. In this case, which value of conference **Prestige** and **Standard** should be used to determine the impact of the paper? Reference uncertainty allows the relationships between instances to be varied.

If $C1.\rho$ (Paper.Conference) is an uncertain reference attribute with domain $C2$ (**Conference**). In the case of reference uncertainty, we need to specify a probability model for the value of the uncertain reference attribute $C1.\rho$. Instead of having the OPRM specify a probability distribution directly over the set of instances of $C2$ (i.e. **Conference1-Conference10**), a technique introduced by (Getoor 2002) partitions the instances of $C2$ into subsets using attributes of $C2$. The probability distribution can then be specified over these partitions (which

encodes how likely the reference attributes value is to fall into one partition versus another). Instances are then selected uniformly from within these partitions.

Thus reference uncertainty is integrated into the probabilistic model of a class by associating each uncertain reference attribute ρ of the class with a **selector attribute** $\text{sel}(\rho)$.

Definition: A *selector attribute* $\text{sel}(\rho)$ is a descriptive attribute where the values are a finite enumerated set of frame instances. The partition function (Getoor 2002) is defined as $\Psi_\rho: Y \rightarrow \text{Dom}[\Psi_\rho]$. The values of the partition function, ϕ , determine the subset of $C2$ from which the value of ρ will be selected. The domain of the selector attribute is $\text{Dom}[\Psi_\rho]$. Thus the choice of value for $\text{sel}(\rho)$ determines the subset of $C2$ from which the value of ρ is chosen. A partition function has a set of partition attributes $P[\rho]$ for of ρ . The parents of $\text{sel}(\rho)$ are those attributes/attribute chains which influence the choice of a frame instance as the value of ρ .

A selector attribute is represented in the equivalent BOOBN by a simple node. In addition to the selector attribute node, a multiplexor node is introduced to the network. The set of parents for the multiplexor node include the selector attribute and all instances of the related frame (eg. the **Conference.standard** node for each instance of **Conference**). The multiplexor node uses the probability distribution of the selector attribute to select as its value the value of one of its other parents.

To continue our University example, uncertainty over which conference $\text{Paper}[1]$ had been submitted to would result in $\text{Paper}[1].\text{Accepted}$ being dependant on all possible combinations of **Conference.Standard** values for the uncertain **Conference** attribute. The value of $\text{Paper}[1].\text{Conference}$ could be one of several **Conference** instances depending on the value of the selector attribute. The set of **Conferences** could be partitioned based on the **Prestige** attribute. In this case $P[\text{Paper.Conference}] = \{\text{Prestige}\}$ and

$\Phi_{\text{Paper.Conference}}:$
 $\text{Conference} \rightarrow \{\text{low, medium, high}\}.$

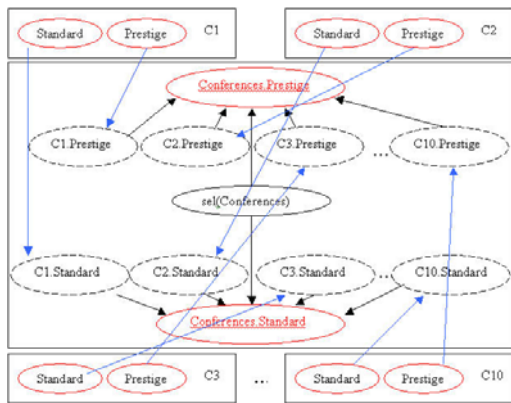


Figure 2: The equivalent BOOBN which would be used to determine the values of Conference.Prestige and Conference.Standard under reference uncertainty

The CPD for the selector attribute could be [0.1 0.6 0.3], i.e., it is 30% likely that the paper was accepted by a prestigious conference, 60% likely the paper was accepted by a conference with a medium level prestige and 10% likely the paper was accepted to a conference with a low prestige.

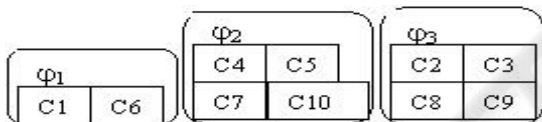


Figure 3: An example of how the Conference instances could be partitioned based on the Prestige of the Conference where ϕ_1 is the set of conferences with low prestige, ϕ_2 medium and ϕ_3 high

5.4 Existence Uncertainty

OPRM allow both real world objects and the relationships between them can be represented by classes. Existence uncertainty occurs when it is uncertain whether a relationship exists between objects. A set of potential relationship classes is specified, but it is uncertain which relationships actually exist. Existence uncertainty is required in the competitive domains because there is often only partial, indicative (not definitive) evidence of the presence of a relationship between objects in the market or battlespace. Existence uncertainty is integrated into the probabilistic model of a class by introducing an **existence attribute**.

Definition: An existence attribute is a descriptive attribute whose value of {true, false} depends on the existence attribute of all parents of the existence attribute.

An existence attribute is represented in the equivalent BOOBN by a simple node with links to

its parents. A class exhibiting existence uncertainty is called undetermined and each instance of the class contains an existence attribute. For classes that are determined, the value of the existence attribute is always true.

6 FUTURE WORK

Like PRM, and indeed most current FOPL approaches (Pasula 2003), OPRM employ the unique names assumption. That is, each instance in the knowledge base is assumed to correspond to a different object. This assumption may be violated in the military domain, where there is a distinct possibility that multiple observations (and therefore multiple instances in the knowledge base) may represent the same object. In the military information fusion domain, identity uncertainty would have a profound impact on data association (the tracking of objects from time to time and from sensor to sensor). A recent thesis by (Pasula 2003) investigated the incorporation of identity uncertainty into PRM. Future work will include the investigation of techniques for incorporating identity uncertainty into OPRM.

The expressive power of OPRM makes it easy to construct models whose equivalent OOBN will have very large cliques. Incorporation of identity uncertainty into the language would only exacerbate this problem. We also intend to research and implement appropriate approximate inference algorithms.

7 CONCLUSIONS

We have presented OPRM, a language that extends the Object Oriented Bayesian Network framework developed by Bangsø with a frame-based representation. This language allows domains to be modelled in a structured manner in terms of objects and the relationships between them. We postulate that once identity uncertainty is incorporated into the language, OPRM will provide a flexible and practical approach to reasoning in complex domains, such as military or economic situation assessment, where the unique names assumption cannot be employed. We also postulate that the extended version of OPRM will provide a formalism for the Situation Assessment computational processes.

As relational databases are a common mechanism for representing structured data (e.g. medical records, sales and marketing information, etc), OPRM are applicable to a wide range of

domains and applications for example, disaster management and computer network security and stock market modelling.

REFERENCES

- Bangso, O. (2004). Object Oriented Bayesian Networks. PhD Dept. of Computer Science, Aalborg University: 110.
- Bangso, O., M. J. Flores, et al. (2004). Plug and Play Object Oriented Bayesian Networks.
- Bangso, O. and P.-H. Wuillemin (2000). Top Down Construction and Repetitive Structures Representation in Bayesian Networks. Proc. 13th FLAIRS, AAAI Press.
- Das, S., R. Grey, et al. (2002). Situation Assessment via Bayesian Belief Networks. Proc. 5th Int'l Conf on Information Fusion, Annapolis, MD, USA.
- Flores, M. J., J. A. Gamez, et al. (2003). Incremental Compilation of a Bayesian Network. Proc. 19th Conf on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence, Morgan Kaufmann.
- Getoor, L. (2002). Learning Statistical Models From Relational Data. PhD thesis Department of Computer Science, Stanford University: 189.
- Gonsalves, P., G. Rinkus, et al. (1999). A Hybrid Artificial Intelligence Architecture for Battlefield Information Fusion. Proc. 2nd Int'l Conf on Information Fusion, Sunnyvale, CA.
- Gonsalves, P. G. and G. J. Rinkus (1998). Intelligent Fusion and Asset Management Processor. 1998 IEEE Information Technology Conference, Syracuse, NY.
- Jones, P. M., C. C. Hayes, et al. (1998). CoRAVEN: Modeling and Design of a Multimedia Intelligent Infrastructure for Collaborative Intelligence Analysis. Proc. of the IEEE Int'l Conf on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics (SMC'98), San Diego, California.
- Koller, D. and A. Pfeffer (1997). Object-Oriented Bayesian Networks. Proc. 13th Conference on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence, Providence, RI.
- Koller, D. and A. Pfeffer (1998). Probabilistic Frame-Based Systems. Proc. 15th National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-98), Madison, Wisconsin.
- Lambert, D. A. (2003). Grand Challenges of Information Fusion. Proc. 6th Int'l Conf on Information Fusion, Cairns.
- Laskey, K. B. and S. M. Mahoney (1997). Network Fragments: Representing Knowledge for Constructing Probabilistic Models. Proc. 13th Conf on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence, Providence, RI, Morgan Kaufmann.
- Llinas, J. (2001). Handbook of Multisensor Data Fusion. Boca Raton, FL, CRC Press.
- Mulgund, S., G. Rinkus, et al. (1997). OLIPSA: On-Line Intelligent Processor for Situation Assessment. Proc. 2nd Annual Symp on Situational Awareness in the Tactical Air Environment, Patuxent River, MD.
- Pasula, H. M. (2003). Identity Uncertainty PhD thesis in Dept of Comp Sci, University of California, Berkeley.
- Pfeffer, A., D. Koller, et al. (1999). SPOOK: A System for Probabilistic Object Oriented Knowledge Representation. Proc. 15th Conf Uncertainty in AI (UAI-99).
- Pfeffer, A. J. (1999). Probabilistic Reasoning for Complex Systems. PhD thesis Dept of Comp Sci, Stanford Uni.
- Salerno, J., M. Hinman, et al. (2003). Information Fusion for Situational Awareness. Proc. 6th Int'l Conf on Information Fusion, Cairns, Queensland.
- Steinberg, A. N., C. L. Bowman, et al. (1998). Revisions to the JDL Data Fusion Model. The Joint NATO/IRIS Conference, Quebec, Canada.
- Sycara, K. and M. Lewis (2002). From Data to Actionable Knowledge and Decision. Proc. 5th Int'l Conf on Information Fusion, Annapolis, MD, USA.
- Wright, E., S. M. Mahoney, et al. (2002). Multi-Entity Bayesian Networks for Situation Assessment. Proc. 5th Int'l Conf on Information Fusion.