Between the Megalopolis and the Deep Blue Sky: Challenges of Transport with UAVs in Future Smart Cities

Blue Sky Ideas Track

Yazan Mualla CIAD, Univ. Bourgogne Franche-Comté, UTBM F-90010 Belfort, France yazan.mualla@utbm.fr

Christophe Nicolle
CIAD, Univ. Bourgogne
Franche-Comté, UB
F-21000 Dijon, France
christophe.nicolle@u-bourgogne.fr

Amro Najjar Umea University 90736 Umea, Sweden najjar@cs.umu.se

Igor Haman Tchappi University of Ngaoundere 454 Ngaoundere, Cameroon igortchappi@gmail.com

> Kary Främling Umeå University 90736 Umeå, Sweden framling@cs.umu.se

Stéphane Galland CIAD, Univ. Bourgogne Franche-Comté, UTBM F-90010 Belfort, France stephane.galland@utbm.fr

Ansar-Ul-Haque Yasar Transportation Research Institute (IMOB), Hasselt University B-3590 Diepenbeek, Belgium ansar.yasar@uhasselt.be

ABSTRACT

With the rapid increase of the world's urban population, the infrastructure of the constantly expanding metropolitan areas is undergoing an immense pressure. To meet the growing demands of sustainable urban environments and improve the quality of life for citizens, municipalities will increasingly rely on novel transport solutions. In particular, Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs) are expected to have a crucial role in the future smart cities thanks to their interesting features such as autonomy, flexibility, mobility, adaptive altitude, and small dimensions. However, densely populated megalopolises of the future are administrated by several municipals, governmental and civil society actors, where vivid economic activities involving a multitude of individual stakeholders take place. In such megalopolises, the use of agents for UAVs is gaining more interest especially in complex application scenarios where coordination and cooperation are necessary. This paper sketches a visionary view of the UAVs' role in the transport domain of future smart cities. Additionally, four challenging research directions are highlighted including problems related to autonomy, explainability, security and validation & verification of the UAVs behavior.

KEYWORDS

Multiagent Systems; Unmanned Aerial Vehicles; Intelligent Transport Systems; Smart Cities

Proc. of the 18th International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems (AAMAS 2019), N. Agmon, M. E. Taylor, E. Elkind, M. Veloso (eds.), May 13–17, 2019, Montreal, Canada. © 2019 International Foundation for Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems (www.ifaamas.org). All rights reserved.

ACM Reference Format:

Yazan Mualla, Amro Najjar, Stéphane Galland, Christophe Nicolle, Igor Haman Tchappi, Ansar-Ul-Haque Yasar, and Kary Främling. 2019. Between the Megalopolis and the Deep Blue Sky: Challenges of Transport with UAVs in Future Smart Cities. In *Proc. of the 18th International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems (AAMAS 2019), Montreal, Canada, May 13–17, 2019*, IFAAMAS, 5 pages.

1 INTRODUCTION

Since the early days of the industrial revolution, people started migrating to cities in droves. In 2007, the percentage of urban population exceeded that of rural population for the first time in history [37]. According to the UN, this Urbanization is expected to accelerate raising the percentage of people living in cities and metropolitan areas to 68% of the world population by 2050 [36]. The result is a denser city infrastructure – where the city is actually the backdrop for all of the social, economic and commercial activities. To accommodate this evolution, cities need to rely on technologies to help them improve the quality of life of their citizens.

Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAVs), colloquially known as drones, are becoming increasingly popular for civil applications in several domains such as transport, energy, telecommunication, environment preservation and infrastructure. According to Teal Group's 2018 World Civil UAV Market Profile and Forecast report [35], civil UAV production will total US\$88.3 billions in the next decade, with a 12.9% compound annual growth rate. The key features making UAVs interesting to use are their small dimensions, effortless deployment, good maneuverability, simple mechanics and adaptive altitude. These features make UAVs accessible for civil applications deployed in urban environment as a practical solution

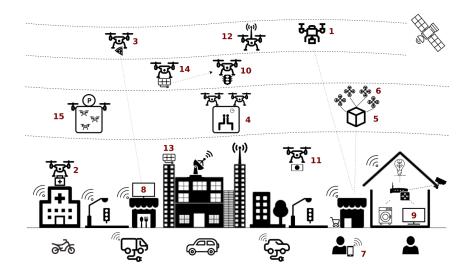


Figure 1: UAVs in a future smart city.

for cost-efficient and rapid delivery. One of the best-known examples is Amazon Prime Air where UAVs are used to deliver packages to customers [6, 13].

Despite these initial successes, UAV technology is still in its early stages of development. For this reason, considerable limitations should be addressed before a large scale deployment of UAVs is possible. The main drawbacks to mention are related to the safety of humans and the integrity of goods with UAV failures [41], and the high amount of energy consumed by UAVs coupled with their limited battery life [31]. Moreover, since civil applications are mostly deployed in urban environments involving multi-actors, considerable research efforts should be dedicated to enhancing the UAV perceptual and cognitive intelligence required to coordinate complex environments [17].

In multi-actor environments such as megalopolis, we envision a huge number of actors with a high density within the environment. Considering that a part of these actors will interact with intelligent, autonomous and connected objects, or will be one of them, e.g. UAVs, it will be impossible to have a human associated to each of these objects, e.g. as a pilot. This implies a need of autonomy for these objects, cooperation among them for reaching their goals and negotiation between them to avoid conflicts. The agent paradigm is well suitable for modeling, implementing and deploying autonomous entities into multi-actor environments [18]. Therefore, agents play a significant role in the coordination, cooperation, competition and negotiation between all actors, e.g. the study of the swarms' formation of multiple UAVs [10, 32].

While other work [24, 26] considered the challenges of deploying UAVs in smart cities, they mainly mentioned the existing research with no focus on the role of agents. Consequently, the vision exposed in this paper focuses on the application of multiagent concepts to smart cities, and specifically to UAVs in these cities. Several research directions related to multiagent systems in this context are proposed.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 states the future vision of intelligent aerial systems in smart cities. Section 3 identifies the major challenging research directions. Section 4 concludes this paper.

2 FUTURE AERIAL TRANSPORT SYSTEMS IN SMART CITIES

Today, the need for transport of people and goods is increasing but so is traffic congestion, air pollution, road accidents and climate change. Some of the solutions for these problems come in a form of ride-sharing [2, 33]. However, in the future, cities will need to rely on "high-tech" mobility solutions including Internet of Things (IoT) and UAV technologies. Thanks to their autonomy, flexibility, mobility, low-cost maintenance and coverage, UAVs are a useful solution for many of the transport challenges. Below are listed our key visions of the future of transport with UAVs in smart cities.

In-the-Air Services: Recent applications of UAVs concern the fast delivery of goods, such as commercial products ((1) in Figure 1), medical products or first aid kit (2) or food (3). In the future, other entities may be carried by UAVs, such as passengers (4) and big/heavy containers (5). These entities could be carried by a single UAV, or by a swarm of UAVs (6).

Smart transport and Traffic Management: Another vital contribution of UAVs is smart transport, which will likely be another key area of development for any future smart city. Basically, every city can rely on UAVs for improving urban transport and creating a sustainable ecosystem. For example, a flying UAV can guide pedestrians on the ground via smart devices (7) or information panels (8), or guide other UAVs in the air through Vehicular Ad-hoc Networks (10). The latter are known as smart traffic management UAVs that control the

flow of people and goods in the sky. Air traffic management will divide the sky into free flying areas and corridors in which all the UAVs will fly in the same direction. For example, heavy lifting (5) and passengers transport (4) can occupy the lowest corridor.

Air and Climate Management: As cities inevitably become busier, the quality of the air, climate and noise levels created by city systems can be monitored (11) and citizens can be informed (8 or 9). Municipalities can act with real-time actions to better manage the comfort and health of the citizens. To build the transport infrastructure of the future in a more sustainable way, zero-emission and low-noise electric power is the solution. Using electric vehicles like UAVs tends to provide a silent, clean, emission-free and resource efficient city minimizing the risks affecting the health and safety of citizens. Furthermore, UAVs can be equipped with sensors. Data gathered from these sensors can be used by stakeholders to build a map of the environment state. such as air pollution and noise. Yet, a huge number of flying UAVs in the sky raise some environmental issues such as the recycling of out-of-service UAVs and the supply of clean and renewable energy to charge them.

In-the-Air Infrastructures: Connecting objects within the smart cities via wireless technologies is already a reality (e.q. WiFi, 4G/5G, satellite, etc.). UAVs can offer a novel communication infrastructure by providing communication nodes where static/conventional nodes cannot be present (12). Because of the UAV mobility, this infrastructure may be deployed dynamically, even when the ground communication infrastructure cannot be used, e.g. in case of natural disaster (see below). Another example is when the population density increases at a specific location for a limited time, e.q. at football stadium. In this case, UAVs can offer an efficient networking service to the spectators. Energy consumption of UAVs is an issue: the average flying time for civil multirotor UAVs is around 20 minutes [23]. Consequently, it is mandatory to provide energy charging services to the UAVs on the buildings (13). This service may be also provided on-the-fly by other UAVs with eco-friendly solar power systems (14). Other types of infrastructures may appear in future smart cities, such as aerial parking areas (15) in which the UAVs may park and/or charge their batteries.

Crowd Management: Safety and security are major concerns for every smart city and they will be even more critical in future megalopolises. Already today, UAVs are playing a huge role in crowd management [1, 34, 42], and could definitely improve this field in the future. For example, police and municipal agencies can use UAVs to keep an eye on the crowd during any event (11). This will result in safer cities to live in as well, but will raise privacy issues.

Natural Disaster Control and Emergency Response: In case of disasters in the megalopolis, UAVs can be used to minimize the response time and losses. Floods, fires

and earthquakes are some of the best examples in which authorities can take precautionary measures by monitoring (11) and deploying medical teams (2) or by providing communication infrastructure (12). UAVs can here analyze the entire situation and help with a quicker response than emergency calls.

3 CHALLENGES AND RESEARCH DIRECTIONS FOR AGENTS

The following list provides a synthesis of the major challenges and research directions related to UAVs for agents.

3.1 Making the UAV autonomous

References cite automated decision aiding/decision making in mission management as one of the most difficult problems leading to autonomy. Mission management includes other difficult issues like communications, task and path planning/re-planning, and man-machine interface. The challenge is to optimally update the off-line plan as per the new received information and/or the unforeseen occurred events. The optimization problem is dominated by size, complexity, uncertainty, and the fact that the mission could be shared by different UAVs. This leads to problems related to the cooperation and coordination of the autonomous UAVs, and opens the door for challenges like flexible autonomy [11] and initiative decision-making [14]. Cognitive architectures (e.g. SOAR [21]) and Belief-Desire-Intention (BDI) agent architecture [8] are increasingly becoming used to equip the UAVs with greater autonomy. With these proactive agents representing the UAVs, the latter are capable of autonomously managing their actions and behavior to reach their goals [4, 29].

3.2 Explaining the UAV Behavior

The confirmed tendency towards the development of increasingly autonomous UAVs, would minimize the human intervention by relieving the human operator from the burden of continuously monitoring the UAVs. Nevertheless, in unpredictable situations, the UAV behavior might not conform to the expectations of the human operator. For instance, in a product delivery scenario, an autonomous UAV may choose to deviate from its expected path because of an unforeseen event. The downside of this autonomous, complex and unforeseeable behavior is that it may become non-understandable for the human operator which would have a negative impact on the trust between the UAV and the operator. Moreover, as shown by recent user studies, this problem is aggravated by the fact that remote robots (including UAVs) tend to instill less trust than those co-located [5, 19]. Therefore, enhancing the UAVs with explaining capabilities would allow the human operator to understand the reasons behind their behavior and raises the trust in autonomous UAV systems. Furthermore, explainability may go beyond human-agent relations to agent-agent relations. Hence, to achieve a smooth collaboration among heterogeneous UAVs, they should explain their behavior to each other in order to reach mutual understanding [12].

Recent developments of the eXplainable AI (XAI) domain [3] help UAVs to move in this direction, and there exist common points allowing for synergies between the two domains. One key point is agent architecture. Examining recent multiagent UAV research works shows that many of these works rely on BDI agent architecture [15, 40]. As shown by recent studies, using BDI agents is a promising approach to develop explainable agents [9]. A key explanation for this promising success lies in the fact that BDI paradigm is inspired from folk psychology [20, 22] which means that "the core concepts of the agent framework map easily to the language people use to describe their reasoning and actions in everyday conversations" [28]. Therefore, BDI architecture offers a more straightforward description making models easier to explain for end-users. For this reason, UAV agents with BDI architectures are likely to increase in numbers if the explainable UAV behavior is to become a hot research topic.

3.3 Ensuring Security and Authentication

The quest of developing autonomous and decentralized UAV systems raises several challenges related to security and authentication. For instance, within a swarm, a UAV must be able to detect and entrust its peers, and ensure data confidentiality and integrity. Otherwise, faulty or malicious UAVs may deviate the swarm behavior [16]. These challenges are accentuated by the fact that most UAV swarms are designed to operate autonomously without a central regulating authority. Recent research has outlined Block-Chain Technology (BCT) as a potential solution to overcome this problem. In addition to providing a platform allowing for secured interactions among UAVs, BCT can also be used to enhance the decentralized decision making of the UAV swarm [7] since it allows all the participants to share an identical view of the world, and facilitate agreements among UAV teams [16]. Yet, before BCT is ready to be used with UAVs, several limitations must be solved [16]: (i) latency: the time required to update the block-chain is too long to allow real-time compliance (a common requirement in UAV applications); (ii) Most of the UAVs are resource-constrained devices which might be unable to undertake the heavy computations demanded by BCT; (iii) On the long run, BCT can be very demanding in terms of bandwidth and communication overhead since all agents should share a copy of a long "ledger" of interactions [39]. This issue, known as "bloat", poses a considerable challenge to UAV teams which have limited hardware and communication capabilities.

3.4 Verifying and Validating the UAVs Behavior

The more complex a UAV software function gets, the more difficult it becomes to test [38]. Furthermore, functional requirements are only one aspect of a system. Beyond the pure verification of a requirement lies the benchmark of the implemented solution. The resulting outcome may be determined by a test of the requirement, but the specific path to the solution can have different levels of quality. Therefore, additional tests must verify that the specified safety boundaries,

as well as additional constraints, are met by the proposed solution. To be able to assess highly automated functions and to be able to assure a high-quality software system, it is, therefore, necessary to implement a scoring system or a benchmark to evaluate the autonomy using non-functional requirements. For example, for path planning the standardized benchmark by [25] is utilized to measure the correctness and result quality by expressing a set of pass/fail criteria from the standardized baseline solution.

Note that benchmarks are problem specific, and not implementation specific. This enables developers not only to test a path-planning algorithm automatically, without a manual review from an engineer, but also to evaluate algorithms and compare them with different implementations and solution approaches. The development of such automatic benchmarks for additional problems like sensor fusion and computer vision, to generally assess the capability to fulfill navigation safety and performance requirements, will be critical to the progress of UAVs and the evaluation of new approaches [38].

The growing pressure to innovate and the demand for shorter development cycles require changes in the UAV development methodology. As a result, there is a shift in the demands on testbed systems. This desire for shorter development times stands opposed to the growing complexity required for developing of increasingly automated and autonomous systems [30]. Enabling early validation of such system designs requires the simulation of components [27]. This requires the development of adapted simulation environments, possibly real-time, composed of a collection of reusable modules combining real and virtual components (also called XiL: X-in-the-Loop, where X meaning alternatively Model, Software, Hardware or Human).

4 CONCLUSION

Nowadays, urban population is witnessing an unprecedented sharp increase, as cities are the centers of education, innovation, culture and opportunities. In the coming decades, the flourishing of megalopolises is inevitable, and smart measures should be taken to guarantee a good quality-of-life for their dwellers. The aim of this paper is twofold. First, list and discuss our key visions of the aerial UAV transport in future smart cities. Second, outline the key challenges and research directions for agents as follows: (i) Design of fully autonomous UAVs; (ii) Explanation of the UAVs behavior when they are part of a complex system; (iii) Security and authentication of UAVs; (iv) Verifying and validating the UAVs behavior.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is supported by the Regional Council of Bourgogne Franche-Comté (RBFC, France) within the project Urban-Fly 20174-06234/06242. This work is partially supported by the Wallenberg AI, Autonomous Systems and Software Program (WASP) funded by the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation.

REFERENCES

- Lamia Alabdulkarim, Wafa Alrajhi, and Ebtesam Aloboud. 2016.
 Urban Analytics in Crowd Management in the Context of Hajj.
 In International Conference on Social Computing and Social Media. Springer, 249–257.
- [2] Javier Alonso-Mora, Samitha Samaranayake, Alex Wallar, Emilio Frazzoli, and Daniela Rus. 2017. On-demand high-capacity ridesharing via dynamic trip-vehicle assignment. *National Academy* of Sciences 114, 3 (2017), 462–467.
- [3] Sule Anjomshoae, Amro Najjar, Davide Calvaresi, and Kary Framling. 2019. Explainable agents and robots: Results from a systematic literature review. In 18th International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems. To appear.
- [4] Willson Amalraj Arokiasami, Prahlad Vadakkepat, Kay Chen Tan, and Dipti Srinivasan. 2016. Interoperable multi-agent framework for unmanned aerial/ground vehicles: towards robot autonomy. Complex & Intelligent Systems 2, 1 (2016), 45–59.
- [5] Wilma A Bainbridge, Justin Hart, Elizabeth S Kim, and Brian Scassellati. 2008. The effect of presence on human-robot interaction. In 17th IEEE International Symposium on Robot and Human Interactive Communication. IEEE, 701–706.
- [6] Dane Bamburry. 2015. Drones: Designed for product delivery. Design Management Review 26, 1 (2015), 40–48.
- [7] Tulio L Basegio, Regio A Michelin, Avelino F Zorzo, and Rafael H Bordini. 2017. A Decentralised Approach to Task Allocation Using Blockchain. In *International Workshop on Engineering Multi-Agent Systems*. Springer, 75–91.
- [8] Michael Bratman. 1987. Intention, Plans, and Practical Reason. Vol. 10. Harvard University Press Cambridge, MA.
- [9] Joost Broekens, Maaike Harbers, Koen Hindriks, Karel Van Den Bosch, Catholijn Jonker, and John-Jules Meyer. 2010. Do you get it? User-evaluated explainable BDI agents. In German Conference on Multiagent System Technologies. Springer, 28–39.
- [10] Axel Bürkle. 2009. Collaborating miniature drones for surveillance and reconnaissance. In *Unmanned/Unattended Sensors and Sensor Networks VI*, Vol. 7480. International Society for Optics and Photonics.
- [11] Axel Bürkle, Florian Segor, and Matthias Kollmann. 2011. Towards Autonomous Micro UAV Swarms. *Journal of Intelligent* and Robotic Systems 61, 1-4 (2011), 339–353.
- [12] Ting Chen, Duncan Campbell, Luis Felipe Gonzalez, and Gilles Coppin. 2015. Increasing Autonomy Transparency through capability communication in multiple heterogeneous UAV management. In IEEE/RSJ International Conference on Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS). IEEE, 2434–2439.
- [13] Raffaello D'Andrea. 2014. Guest editorial can drones deliver? IEEE Transactions on Automation Science and Engineering 11, 3 (2014), 647–648.
- [14] Ana de Castro, Jorge Torres-Sánchez, Jose Peña, Francisco Jiménez-Brenes, Ovidiu Csillik, and Francisca López-Granados. 2018. An automatic random forest-OBIA algorithm for early weed mapping between and within crop rows using UAV imagery. Remote Sensing 10, 2 (2018), 285.
- [15] Mario Hernandez Dominguez, Jose-Isidro Hernández-Vega, Dolores-Gabriela Palomares-Gorham, C Hernández-Santos, and Jonam L Sánchez Cuevas. 2016. A BDI Agent System for the collaboration of the Unmanned Aerial Vehicle. Research in Computing Science 121 (2016), 113–124.
- [16] Eduardo Castelló Ferrer. 2016. The blockchain: a new framework for robotic swarm systems. arXiv preprint arXiv:1608.00695 (2016).
- [17] Dario Floreano and Robert J Wood. 2015. Science, technology and the future of small autonomous drones. *Nature* 521, 7553 (2015), 460–466.
- [18] Alex Glaser and Glen Allmendinger. 2017. Smart Cities Growth Opportunities Overview 2016–2021. Technical Report. Boulder, USA.
- [19] Helen Hastie, Xingkun Liu, and Pedro Patron. 2017. Trust triggers for multimodal command and control interfaces. In 19th ACM International Conference on Multimodal Interaction. ACM, 261– 268.
- [20] Terence Horgan and James Woodward. 1985. Folk psychology is here to stay. The philosophical review 94, 2 (1985), 197–226.
- [21] John E Laird. 2012. The Soar cognitive architecture. MIT press.
- [22] Bertram F Malle. 2006. How the mind explains behavior: Folk explanations, meaning, and social interaction. Mit Press.

- [23] John F McEvoy, Graham P Hall, and Paul G McDonald. 2016. Evaluation of unmanned aerial vehicle shape, flight path and camera type for waterfowl surveys: disturbance effects and species recognition. PeerJ 4 (2016), e1831.
- [24] Hamid Menouar, Ismail Guvenc, Kemal Akkaya, A Selcuk Uluagac, Abdullah Kadri, and Adem Tuncer. 2017. UAV-enabled intelligent transportation systems for the smart city: Applications and challenges. *IEEE Communications Magazine* 55, 3 (2017), 22–28.
- [25] B. Mettler, Z. Kong, C. Goerzen, and M. Whalley. 2010. Benchmarking of Obstacle Field Navigation Algorithms for Autonomous Helicopters. *Journal of Intelligent and Robotic Systems* 27, 1–4 (2010), 65–100.
- [26] Farhan Mohammed, Ahmed Idries, Nader Mohamed, Jameela Al-Jaroodi, and Imad Jawhar. 2014. UAVs for smart cities: Opportunities and challenges. In *International Conference on Unmanned Aircraft Systems (ICUAS)*. IEEE, 267–273.
- [27] Yazan Mualla, Wenshuai Bai, Stéphane Galland, and Christophe Nicolle. 2018. Comparison of Agent-based Simulation Frameworks for Unmanned Aerial Transportation Applications. Procedia computer science 130, C (2018), 791-796.
- [28] Emma Norling. 2004. Folk psychology for human modelling: Extending the BDI paradigm. In 3rd International Joint Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems-Volume 1. IEEE Computer Society, 202–209.
- [29] Domenico Pascarella, Salvatore Venticinque, and Rocco Aversa. 2013. Agent-based design for UAV mission planning. In 8th International Conference on P2P, Parallel, Grid, Cloud and Internet Computing (3PGCIC). IEEE, 76–83.
- [30] Michael Paulweber and Klaus Lebert. 2016. Powertrain Instrumentation and Test Systems. Development-Hybridization-Electrification. Springer (2016).
- [31] Aleksandar Rodić and Gyula Mester. 2011. Modeling and simulation of quad-rotor dynamics and spatial navigation. In 9th IEEE International Symposium on Intelligent Systems and Informatics (SISY). IEEE, 23–28.
- [32] Carlos Sampedro, Hriday Bavle, Jose Luis Sanchez-Lopez, Ramon A Suárez Fernández, Alejandro Rodríguez-Ramos, Martin Molina, and Pascual Campoy. 2016. A flexible and dynamic mission planning architecture for uav swarm coordination. In *International Conference on Unmanned Aircraft Systems (ICUAS)*. IEEE, 355–363.
- [33] Susan Shaheen, Adam Stocker, and Marie Mundler. 2017. Online and app-based carpooling in France: Analyzing users and practices—A study of BlaBlaCar. In *Disrupting Mobility*. Springer, 181–196
- [34] Deepak Sharma, Amol P Bhondekar, AK Shukla, and C Ghanshyam. 2016. A review on technological advancements in crowd management. Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing (2016), 1–11.
 [35] Teal Group. 2018. World Unmanned Aerial Vehicle Systems –
- [35] Teal Group. 2018. World Unmanned Aerial Vehicle Systems 2018 Market Profile and Forecast. Technical Report. Teal Group Corporation.
- [36] The United Nations Organization. 2018. 68% of the world population projected to live in urban areas by 2050, says UN. (05 2018). https://www.un.org/development/desa/en/news/population/2018-revision-of-world-urbanization-prospects.html. Accessed on 2019-02-20.
- [37] The World Bank. 2018. Rural population (% of total population). (2018). https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.RUR.TOTL.ZS. Accessed on 2019-02-20.
- [38] Christoph Torens, Florian-M. Adolf, and Lukas Goormann. 2014. Certification and Software Verification Considerations for Autonomous Unmanned Aircraft. Journal of Aerospace Computing, Information and Communication (2014).
- [39] Andrew Wagner. 2014. Ensuring network scalibility: How to fight blockchain bloat. Bitcoin Magazine 6 (2014).
- [40] Matthew P. Webster, Neil Cameron, Michael Fisher, and Mike Jump. 2014. Generating Certification Evidence for Autonomous Unmanned Aircraft Using Model Checking and Simulation. J. Aerospace Inf. Sys. 11, 5 (2014), 258–279.
- [41] Graham Wild, John Murray, and Glenn Baxter. 2016. Exploring Civil Drone Accidents and Incidents to Help Prevent Potential Air Disasters. Aerospace 3, 3 (2016), 22.
- [42] Yifei Yuan, Zhenrui Wang, Mingyang Li, Young-Jun Son, and Jian Liu. 2015. DDDAS-based information-aggregation for crowd dynamics modeling with UAVs and UGVs. Frontiers in Robotics and AI 2 (2015), 8.