**Contribution of RPAS in research and conservation in protected areas: present and future**

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**Contribution of RPAS in research and conservation in protected areas: present and future**

During the past two decades, we have witnessed a growing interest in projects aimed to evaluate the feasibility of RPAS for conservation purposes, including environmental and wildlife monitoring or law enforcement. Beyond sociopolitical, legal, technical and methodological barriers hindering the potential of RPAS to deliver a wide range of benefits to protected areas, it remains to be seen whether research investment is driven to meet the needs demanded by natural park managers. A bibliographic survey was carried out to value the usefulness of RPAS in protected areas to support conservation actions aimed to reduce threats to biodiversity and reinforce effective management. Then recent examples were detailed, followed by possible deployment scenarios, implementation gaps and challenges. We found multiple facets of application, but common factors impeding the smoother consolidation of RPAS within protected areas remain.

Keywords: protected areas, RPAS, conservation

# Introduction

As defined by UICN, "a protected area is a clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values" (Dudley 2008). Protected areas (PAs) have been declared under different reasons and circumstances but there is a consensus on its importance in safeguarding biodiversity, preserving ecosystem services and ensure persistence of the natural heritage (Watson et al. 2014; Chape, Spalding, and Jenkins 2008). Despite such praiseworthy intentions, PAs are subject to a wide variety of unforeseen challenges requiring rapid and effective solutions (Watson et al. 2014). Habitat change and fragmentation, pollution, overexploitation of natural resources, climate change and invasive species have been identified as the main global threats to biodiversity (Groom, Meffe, and Caroll 2006) . To curb the loss of biodiversity while attending other inherent activities, financial allocations have targeted, among others, staff recruitment and training, infrastructure and equipment, communication programs, tourism and recreational activities, law enforcement, support decision-making and disaster management, biodiversity monitoring, environmental assessment or actions aimed at strengthening educational and research programs. Moreover, conservation in PAs have benefit from a wide range of technological advances, methods or innovative application of existing technologies, including remote sensors, field-based monitoring stations, manned surveys, camera traps, wildlife tracking devices and computing resources (Pimm et al. 2015). More recently, applications of remotely piloted aircraft systems (RPAS, also known as unmanned aerial systems, UAS, drones) have been the subject of a growing interest in both the civilian and scientific sphere (Rodríguez et al. 2012; Koh and Wich 2012; Anderson and Gaston 2013; Linchant et al. 2015a; Christie et al. 2016; Torresan et al. 2017). While obstacles remain, the use of RPAS for regular monitoring of conservation activities have receive a major emphasis and its feasibility reasonably proven. To date, however, it has not been adequately weighted whether RPAS meet the whole set of competing demands decision-makers face daily, which often cope with inadequate resourcing limiting the accomplishment of management objectives (Watson et al. 2014).

(Leverington et al. 2010) compiled and systematically reviewed outcomes from performance assessments of PAs across the world and revealed that “adequacy of infrastructure, equipment and facilities” was the closest management indicator related to overall effectiveness. Within this study, conservation practitioners identified threats requiring appropriate management measurements. As a result, “biological resources use”, including hunting, logging and fishing, was pointed out as a major concern globally. While RPAS for wildlife and habitat monitoring account for most of studies, law enforcement has ostensibly received minor attention from the academia, despite the relevance. To bridge the gap between science and conservation priorities, we carried out an extensive literature revision to set the current state of RPAS for conservation purposes and shed light on how effective management in PAs can benefit from a RPAS perspective. We primarily relied on the “Management effectiveness evaluation in protected areas – a global study” (Leverington et al. 2010) as main guideline to identify threats and managements measures within the scope of RPAS studies (table 1). Also, plausible scenarios to help achieve conservation goals in PAs are suggested, highlighting some trends and opportunities that apparently have not yet been adequately exploited.

# Methods

A bibliographical review (see PRISMA Flowchart) of scientific articles, gray literature, postgraduate theses and websites was carried out, following a similar line to other related studies (Linchant et al. 2015b; Christie et al. 2016; Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2017). Last reference revised was published on X, 2017. The main tool for selecting bibliography was Google Scholar. Key search criteria, primarily in English, encompass RPAS in their various meanings and acronyms, reflecting the varied terminology used. Keywords were combined with terms referring to threats and common conservation measurements in PAs (see table 1) using logical disjunctions. A total of X search terms and X combinations were applied. A sweep of bibliographical citations and related articles was performed and further complemented with some other recent references found elsewhere (Research Gate, Mendeley Desktop, Review articles, Internet search engines). After removing duplicated results, more than 500 articles were collected. The remaining publications (x) were grouped according to the following interrelated categories: “wildlife monitoring”, for feasibility studies facing alternative fauna population surveys and tracking methods; “wildlife risk assessment and management”; broadly focus on measures to mitigate human-wildlife conflicts; “terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems monitoring", with regards to applications for the study and mapping of natural habitats; “Law enforcement” encompasses poaching, illegal logging and other illicit activities surveillance; "Ecotourism" is restricted to recreational activities and visitors management; “Environmental management and emergency response" span from environmental assessment, planning, monitoring and evaluation, response to natural and man-made disasters to search and rescue activities. Common challenges to above categories are summarize within legal constraints and concerns to minimize impact on wildlife / ecosystems, but also operational costs and technological issues, since all shape the feasibility of RPAS to approach conservation and environmental issues. Recent and representative examples in PAs are presented in tabular format (see table 2), identifying where the study was conducted, the expected accomplishments and technical specifications of the aerial platform.

# Results and discussion

## Wildlife Monitoring

Ecological monitoring is considered essential to establish the conservation status of wildlife species within PAs. RPAS have mostly been applied for abundance and distribution studies targeting large and medium size terrestrial mammals (Jain 2013; Barasona et al. 2014; Stark et al. 2017; Chrétien, Théau, and Ménard 2016), birds (A. M. Wilson, Barr, and Zagorski 2017; J. C. Hodgson et al. 2016; Christie et al. 2016; Sardà-Palomera et al. 2012; Chabot and Bird 2012; Ratcliffe et al. 2015) , fishes (Groves et al. 2016), species relying on coastal and marine ecosystems (Colefax, Butcher, and Kelaher 2017; A. Hodgson, Peel, and Kelly 2017; W. R. Koski et al. 2015; Dulava, Bean, and Richmond 2015; Durban et al. 2015; W. R. Koski et al. 2009), but also to inspect breeding and nesting areas at inaccessible sites (Szantoi et al. 2017; Wich et al. 2016; Puttock et al. 2015; van Andel et al. 2015; Weissensteiner, Poelstra, and Wolf 2015) or as a complement for wildlife telemetry tracking methods (Christie et al. 2016; Bayram et al. 2016; Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2015; Körner et al. 2010; Cliff et al. 2015; Ordóñez-Delgado et al. 2016; Soriano, Caballero, and Ollero 2009; Xu et al. 2016). Summing up, authors mostly coincide on the broad potential of RPAS to complement surveys, traditionally carried out by ground-based crews, terrestrial vehicles, manned aircrafts or vessels. As becoming easier to operate, there are sufficient grounds to instruct rangers on the use of RPAS, who are often subject to time-consuming and often dangerous raids. If appropriate safety measures are taken, RPAS might be considered a less invasive, nonhazardous and reliable monitoring technique (Jewell 2013) compared with other methodologies requiring approaching, capturing or indirectly disturbing wildlife.

## Wildlife risk assessment and Management

RPAS constitute an attainable low-cost alternative to manually inspecting hazardous facilities and detecting ground nest or vulnerable species at agricultural fields where mechanical harvesting pose risk of death (Barasona et al. 2014; Lobermeier et al. 2015; Christiansen et al. 2014; Israel and Reinhard 2017; Mulero-Pázmány, Negro, and Ferrer 2014). Human-wildlife conflicts are also present both in PAs and nearby locations as result of increasingly pressures. Within this topic, RPAs have been used to move elephants out of human settlements (Hahn et al. 2017), calculate compensation costs for wildlife damage on crops (Michez, Morelle, et al. 2016), select suitable locations to install ecological corridors in populations impacted by roadkill (Gülci and Akay 2016) or dropping baits to eradicate feral species (McCaldin, Johnston, and Rieker 2015). Without going into debate, some park managers could contemplate the adoption of RPAS for wildlife capture procedures, through devices adapted to release tranquilizing darts where otherwise manual approaching free-range animals is often considered ineffective, biased or dangerous.

## Terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems monitoring

Deployment of RPAS to inform adaptive management has the potential to complement aerial remote sensing and earth observation (EO), surpassing spatio-temporal scale challenges at affordable cost and providing precise in-situ measurements (Gross, Goetz, and Cihlar 2009). Ecosystem mapping and monitoring projects using RPAS have increased notoriously both by governmental institutions (U.S. Geological Survey National 2017) and research groups. Studies on this topic range from quantifying the spread and detection rate of invasive species (Müllerová et al. 2016; Zaman, Jensen, and McKee 2011; Perroy, Sullivan, and Stephenson 2017; Müllerová et al. 2017; Michez, Piégay, et al. 2016), analyze the dynamic, structure and biophysical attributes of forest stands (Gini et al. 2012; Zahawi et al. 2015; Lisein et al. 2015; Kachamba et al. 2016; L. F. Gonzalez et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016; Getzin, Nuske, and Wiegand 2014; Getzin, Wiegand, and Schöning 2012; Ivosevic, Han, and Kwon 2017; Stark et al. 2017) or mapping sensitive shallow coastal habitats (Ventura et al. 2016; Casella et al. 2017) , wetlands (Chabot and Bird 2013) or riparian ecosystems (Husson 2016). Considering that “Involvement of communities and stakeholder” is moderately correlated to effective management in PAs, it is fortunate that RPAS has also been suggested as an appropriate tool for community-based forest monitoring (Paneque-Gálvez et al. 2014). Moreover, RPAS can play a fundamental role on actions aimed to assess effectiveness of PAs compared to buffer zones and surroundings where it is assume that higher rates of ecosystem degradation occur (Ewers and Rodrigues 2008). Despite undeniable progress, efforts to design standardized RPAS based surveying protocols remain fundamentally unexplored.

## Law enforcement

RPAS also have their place in the control and surveillance of PAs including poaching (Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2014; Franco et al. 2016; M. A. Olivares-Mendez et al. 2014; Shaffer and Bishop 2016) and other less contentious forbidden activities (Sabella et al. 2017; Weber and Knaus 2017). (Duffy 2014) analyzed the consequences of the militarization of conservation practices as an increasing trend in PAs around the world and illustrates the use of RPAS through several examples. Nevertheless, effective implementation of RPAS to the arsenal of antipoaching tools faces important technical and legal constraints that can explain the scarcity of scientific articles published. Low autonomy of RPAS is especially critical in large natural parks, limiting the area under surveillance, while issues concerning flying in bad weather conditions have not yet been completely resolved. In general, meeting the proper specifications can be costly, especially in developing countries (Banzi 2014). However, as technology increasingly will become more accessible and sophisticated, it is expected that main barriers will appear in the legislative and social sphere. For instance, flying beyond the visual line of sight (BVLOS) or above a certain altitude is often forbidden, limiting the effectiveness of the inspection. RPAS applied to surveillance of PAs is also questioned arguing human right breaching (Duffy 2014). Some detractors are skeptical about the ability of RPAS to persuade offenders, who in many cases go through a situation of great need. However, some studies have remarked that the effectiveness of antipoaching depends to a large extent on a greater allocation of resources (Hilborn et al. 2006). Moreover, recording illegal or vandalism acts within the limits of PAs can prove to be valid evidence against offenders. Probably the success of such initiatives requires a greater consensus among the parties involved and the development of strategies that seek to solve the causes of poaching.

## Ecotourism

Within the still scarce literature (King 2014) summarized possible recreational activities and formulas for granting RPAS flight permits in designated areas. (Hansen 2016; Park and Ewing 2017) valued the effectiveness of RPAS to monitor visitors activities in PAs and (Chamata and King 2017) proposed possible profitable concession scenarios. Stakeholders agreed on a set of policies to establish permitted activities with RPAS within tourist locations in Antarctica (Leary 2017). Other PAs opted for simpler rules (OEH 2017) or, not without founded reasons, banned RPAS arguing safety reasons and wildlife impact (Peyer 2015). Accidents could also lead to unexpected hazardous events, like water supply pollution or wildfires in sensitive areas due to the presence of flammable and toxic components. Even when the economic benefits and leisure possibilities are promising, it would be advisable to be cautious in the face of the demand of the ecotourism industry to incorporate RPAS in their activities, as undesirable events can fuel the low popularity of RPAS in detriment of the advantages they bring.

# Environmental management and disaster response

RPAS has been adapted for remotely sensing pollution and air / water quality measurements (Schwarzbach et al. 2014; Zang et al. 2012; Ore et al. 2015), mapping environmental risk factors for predicting zoonotic diseases (Fornace et al. 2014), erosion and sediments dynamics (Casella et al. 2016, 2014). landslides, volcanic activity, flood events and wildfires. It also has been successfully probed to assist in search and rescue missions (Van Tilburg et al. 2017), drop feral baits to reduce the predation of native wildlife (McCaldin, Johnston, and Rieker 2015). Such applications have operational requirements which eventually are costly. For instance, sophisticated on-board instruments, environmental sensors, gas powered engines for longer endurance and higher payloads or gear designed to assist sampling, hold cargo or deliver assistance. Plausible scenarios include automate procedures to assess damage in trails and amenities after natural hazard events, assist human-based environmental disaster prevention (Gómez and Green 2017), or support plant invasion control by means of aerially deployed herbicide on target species (Rodriguez, Jenkins, and Leary 2017).

## Current Challenges

### Legal barriers and ethical constraints

RPAS operations faces important social and legal barriers that undermine their true potential in the civilian sphere (Stöcker et al. 2017; Sandbrook 2015). An overly restrictive regulatory framework is currently limiting the applications of RPAS in the field of conservation and their use has not been without problems, resulting in governments that have totally or partially prohibited RPAS operations in PAs. This highlights the urgent need to seek consensus among countries and adapt legislation to distinguish amongst the purpose of leisure, research and management.

### Impact of RPAS on wildlife and ecosystems

Que categorias se ven mas afectadas por estos factores? Animal welfare and perturbation of sensitive habitat in wildlife management and ecological research is source of strong debate (F. Dormann et al. 2007; R. P. Wilson and McMahon 2006). RPAS are not exempt of discussion and consequently disturbance effects of RPAS on birds (Duriez et al. 2015; McEvoy, Hall, and McDonald 2016; Fletcher 2017; Scobie and Hugenholtz 2016; Weissensteiner, Poelstra, and Wolf 2015; Lyons et al. 2017) and mammals (Ditmer et al. 2015; Pomeroy, Connor, and Davies 2015) were mainly documented. Despite a greater degree of awareness reflected in a emergent set of guidelines (Hodgson and Koh 2016; Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2017; Gonzalez and Johnson 2017), most of studies marginally inform reactions and further trials aimed at quantifying changes in behavioral patterns and physiological effects targeting a broader group of wildlife is recommended. Also, we believe that development of RPAS platforms suited to wildlife projects remain fundamentally unexplored . Furthermore, an optimal trade-off between benefits and environmental costs should be weighted (Grémillet et al. 2012; Sepúlveda et al. 2010). By designing quieter, non-polluting and safer components, the impact on wildlife and ecosystems could be reduced and its objective observation facilitated (Jewell 2013; Wilson and McMahon 2006), reducing sources of bias. Nonetheless, RPAS has great potential to evolve, replacing more invasive monitoring techniques. This should be consciously considered by those reluctant to integrate RPAS in research and conservation activities. Step by step, a code of best practice and recommendations could be continuously updated based on lessons learned (McEvoy, Hall, and McDonald 2016), forming the basis for wildlife certified RPAS operators.

### Costs of RPAS operation

From the economic point of view, expenses derived from the operation with RPAS are hardly quantifiable (AUVSI 2013) .While RPAS are relatively easy to operate, investment on technical and analytical expertise is not often adequately weighted. Computational requirements are demanding, big data storage options remain a challenge and certain phases of information processing requires the acquisition of pricey commercial software or alternatively the recruitment of high-level specialized services. Also, operations with RPAS are not exempt from accidents affecting both the structural components and captors, thus having a negative impact on the budget originally planned. Moreover, park rangers should be aware that there is no single solution covering all the conservation purposes (W. Koski 2010) and a trade-off analysis among available platforms should be pondered. While do-it-yourself (DIY) RPAS are often considered more versatile than commercial alternatives, further time is required for proper assembling and lack of experience could affect reliability. Suppliers often provide support, training and companion software, albeit services could be charged indirectly. Furthermore, coupled sensors are often the more expensive but also breakable parts of the platform. Despite these drawbacks, RPAS are increasingly being considered a cost-effective and safer alternative to manned aircraft and brings advantages to both ground surveys and satellite remote sensing .

### Technological issues

Environmental sensors and cameras deployed on RPAS collect massive amount of information, resulting in storage, processing and methodological bottlenecks. When used for wildlife census, recurring to manual counting and identifying individuals is time consuming. Progress in computer vision and machine learning algorithms are intended to automate such procedures (Andrew and Shephard 2017; Chabot and Francis 2016; L. F. Gonzalez et al. 2016; Lhoest et al. 2015; van Gemert et al. 2015; Christiansen et al. 2014; Martin et al. 2012; Abd-Elrahman, Pearlstine, and Percival 2005; Longmore et al. 2017; Seymour et al. 2017). Despite encouraging results, these methods should be adapted to a broader range of species and probably implemented in more user-friendly packages. On the other hand, traditional pixel-based remote sensing land-cover and vegetation classification algorithms are ineffective for ultra-high resolution data from RPAS, and further investment on machine learning techniques and object-based image analysis would be desirable (Piragnolo, Masiero, and Pirotti 2017). Also, further research should be encompassed to assess the overall performance of RPAS data collection techniques compared to more mature options where statistical and sampling methods to address the analysis and modeling of species distribution are available. On the contrary, the planning phase and photogrammetric process is guaranteed from both commercial software and emerging open source alternatives (Duarte et al. 2017), at expense of major complexity. In general, we found that a solid technical and analytical background is required. This may curb the applicability of RPAS in PAs, worsened by weak performance of “adequacy of staff training” and although this category has been notably correlated to effective management.

# Conclusions

Park managers demands practical, cost-effective and innovative solutions to handle an overwhelming amount of environmental issues requiring appropriate decisions. While RPAS have been called upon to revolutionize conservation, bottlenecks for integrating them into the PAs management toolset come from different fronts, ranging from legal and social issues to operational challenges. However, being a relatively young discipline, conservation RPAS have gone far and have great potential to evolve and raise better-informed decisionsto cope with underlying pressures protected areas face.

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Table 1. Threats to Protected Areas. Adapted from (Leverington et al. 2010; Safety 2016)

|  |
| --- |
| **Threats** |
| **Residency and commercial development in the protected area** |
| Dwelling and human settlement |
| Commercial and industrial areas |
| Tourism and recreation |
| Agriculture and aquaculture in the protected area |
| Annual and other crop cultivation |
| Animal husbandry |
| Aquaculture – fishing, fish farming, and farming of other river organisms |
| **Mining and energy production in the protected area** |
| Extraction of coal, oil, and gas |
| Exploitation of mineral raw materials |
| Energy production, including hydropower stations |
| **Transportation network, roads, communication infrastructure, and service network in the protected area** |
| Roads and railroads |
| Communication infrastructure and services (e.g. power lines, telephone lines, etc.) |
| Numerous canals and locks |
| Air traffic |
| Roadkill |
| **Use of biological resources and resulting damage in the protected area** |
| Hunting, killing, and collection of land animals (includes killing of animals due to conflicts between humans and wild animals) |
| Collection of land plant species and related products |
| Deforestation and woodsmanship |
| Fishing and exploiting aquatic wildlife |
| **Impact of humans and disturbance in the protected area** |
| Tourism and recreational activities |
| War activities, military exercises, etc. |
| Research, educational, and other activities in the protected area |
| Activities of the protected area manager (e.g. construction, use of vehicles, artificial dams, etc.) |
| Vandalism and other forms of destructive activity affecting the protected area, the managing structure, or the visitors |
| **Natural system modifications in protected area** |
| Fires and fire prevention |
| Dams, modifications of water surfaces, water management, and water use |
| Increased fragmentation within the protected area |
| Isolation from other natural habitats (e.g. deforestation, dams without proper passages for aquatic life, etc.) |
| Other “borderline” effects on the area’s values |
| Loss of keystone species (e.g. apex predators, pollinators, etc.) |
| **Invasive and other problematic species and genera in protected area** |
| Invasive introduced plant species or their seed |
| Invasive introduced animal species |
| Pathogenic microorganisms (introduced or native, but causing new problems / increased detrimental effect) |
| Introduced genetic material (e.g. genetically modified organisms) Pollution |
| **Pollution reaching the protected area or generated within it** |
| Household and urban waste water |
| Sewage and waste water from buildings in the protected area (e.g. hotels, public restrooms, administrative buildings, etc.) |
| Waste water and waste material from industry, mines, and other commercial facilities and buildings (e.g. water from hydropower stations, which can be thermally contaminated, deoxygenated, or contaminated in another way) |
| Waste water and other pollutants from agriculture and forestry (e.g. fertilizer and pesticide contamination) |
| Municipal solid waste Air |
| Air pollution |
| Other types of pollution, such as thermal pollution, light pollution, etc. |
| **Geological events in protected area** |
| Volcanic activities |
| Earthquakes (tsunami) |
| Landslides |
| Soil erosion |
| **Climate change and extreme weather conditions in protected area** |
| Changes in habitat composition |
| Droughts |
| Extreme temperatures |
| Storms and floods |
| **Specific cultural and social threats in protected area** |
| Loss of connection with the tradition and disappearance of traditional knowledge and skills for protected area management |
| Natural decay of locations with high cultural value |
| Degradation of cultural heritage buildings, special areas, etc. |

Table 2. Management measurements

Table 3. Examples of studies reviewed classified according to goals

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Publication | Category | Aim | Target | Place | RPAS type | RPAS model | Captor |
| (A. Hodgson, Peel, and Kelly 2017) | Wildlife Monitoring | Assess proportion of whales detected | Humpback whale (Megaptera novaeangliae) | North Stradbroke Island (Australia) | Fixed-Wing | ScanEagle | Nikon D90, Standard Definition Electro- Optical Camera |
| (Kiszka et al. 2016) | Wildlife Monitoring | Estimate elasmobranchs density in coral-reef ecosystems | Blacktip reef shark (Carcharhinus melanopterus), Pink whipray (Himantura fai) | Moorea (French Polynesia) | Rotor-wing | DJI Phantom II | GoPro Hero 3+ |
| (Habel et al. 2016) | Wildlife Monitoring | Aerial pictures to help identify micro-habitat | Common blue butterfly (Polyommatus icarus), Adonis blue butterfly (Polyommatus bellargus) | Dietersheimer Brenne (Germany) | Rotor-wing | DJI Phantom II | GoPro Hero 4 Black |
| (Michez, Morelle, et al. 2016) | Wildlife Risk Assessment and Management | Assess wildlife damage to crops | Wild boar (Sus scrofa) | Wallonia (Belgium) | Fixed-Wing | Gatewing X100 | Ricoh GR3 |
| (Lobermeier et al. 2015) | Wildlife Risk Assessment and Management | Mitigating avian collision with power lines using markers | Birds | USA | Rotor-wing | Mikrokopter Hexa XL | - |
| (Alvarez-taboada, Paredes, and Julián-Pelaz 2017) | Monitoring of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems | 20 | +4 |  |  |  |  |
| Universidad Olmo | Monitoring of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems | 53 | -10 |  |  |  |  |
| Academia Arce | Monitoring of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems | 11 | -8 |  |  |  |  |
| (Mulero-Pázmány et al. 2014) | Law enforcement |  | Black rhinocero (Diceros bicornis), white rhinocero (Ceratotherium simum) | KwaZulu-Nata (Africa) | Fixed-wing | Easy Fly St-330 | Panasonic Lumix LX-3, GoPro Hero2; Thermoteknix Micro CAM |
| (M. Olivares-Mendez et al. 2015) | Law enforcement | Detection and tracking of animals and poachers | White rhinocero (Ceratotherium simum), elephant (Loxodonta africana), human (Homo sapiens) | Africa | Rotor-wing | AscTec Firefly | UEye UI-1240ML-C-HQ |
| (Shaffer and Bishop 2016) | Law enforcement | Methods for identifying high risk elephant poaching areas and for modeling drone surveillance capabilities | elephant (Loxodonta africana), | Tsavo National Park, Kenya | Fixed-wing | RQ-84Z AeroHawk | FLIR Tau 2 640 |
|  | Ecotourism |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Ecotourism |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 1

Figure 2