Scaling Big Data Applications in Smart City with Coresets

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Abstract: With the development of Big Data applications in Smart Cities, various Big Data applications are proposed within the domain. These are however hard to test and prototype, since such prototyping requires big computing resources. In order to save the effort in building Big Data prototypes for Smart Cities, this paper proposes an enhanced sampling technique to obtain a coreset from Big Data while keeping the features of the Big Data, such as clustering structure and distribution density. In the proposed sampling method, for a given dataset and an $\varepsilon > 0$, the method computes an ε -coreset of the dataset. The ε -coreset is then modified to obtain a sample set while ensuring the separation and balance in the set. Furthermore, by considering the representativeness of each sample point, our method can helps to remove noises and outliers. We believe that the coreset-based technique can be used to efficiently prototype and evaluate Big Data applications in the Smart City.

1 INTRODUCTION

Big Data has been receiving increasing attention in recent years, as organizations and cities are dealing with tremendous amounts of data with high complexity and velocity (Ge et al., 2018). Given the specific features of Big Data, the data has been classified according to five fundamental elements, which are volume (size of data), variety (different types of data from several sources), velocity (data collected in real time), veracity (uncertainty of data) and value (benefits to various industrial and academic fields). Moreover, additional characteristics beyond the 5V's model has been discussed such as: validity (correct processing of the data), variability (context of data), viscosity (latency data transmission between the source and destination), virality (speed of the data sent and received from various sources) and visualization (interpretation of data and identification of the most relevant information for the users). Despite the existence of additional characteristics of Big Data, the 5V model lays the foundational description of the Big Data concept (Erl et al., 2016). Recently, Big Data research has been undergoing substantial transformation from its research harvest towards its high impact and applications in different areas, especially in the Smart City (Bangui et al., 2018b).

The Smart City is to improve the lifestyle of citizens by providing smart applications in various fields such as urban planning, mobility and transportation, smart living and community, smart environment, emergency, e-health and government (Stepánek et al., 2017). The data generated in these Smart City applications are usually fast moving and changing in value, meaning and format. They also can originate from various sources, such as social networks, unstructured data from different devices or raw feeds from sensors (Ge and Dohnal, 2018). Thus Big Data processing and analytics can offer extensive insights for Smart Cities. However, one of main factors that mainly affects to the cost of Big Data analysis, is the size of the dataset to be examined. Many datasets are too large to store and process in a computer memory. In the case, analyzing the datasets needs to access the disk of the computer or even extra devices (Bangui et al., 2018a). It is thus always an expensive computational task to analyze such datasets. Therefore, the use of sampling technique is natural to overcome this difficulty.

In this paper, a sampling method is proposed to obtain a core sample dataset from Big Data while keeping the features of Big Data such as clustering and structures. This sampling method can be used to quickly conduct prototypes for Big Data applications.

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Thus, in order to test the feasibility of the certain applications in Big Data, we could save the efforts to organize the whole big dataset. Instead, we could work on a scalable sample dataset to do the pilot study for the feasility and applicability test for Big Data applications.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces an application scenario for the sampling technique. Section 3 explains the intuition of the sampling in Big data. Section 4 describes our proposed methods for generating the coreset of the Big Data as well as improvement techniques for coreset. Based on the coreset technique, Section 5 describes the possible application of coreset in the Smart City. Finally, Section 6 concludes the paper and outlines the future work.

2 BIG DATA IN THE SMART CITY

Nowadays, the cities are becoming the space equipped with smart digital communication transceivers, with an ambition of connecting, integrating and enhancing communicating objects. Accordingly, we have observed an increasing presence of intelligent applications in our daily lives such as smart parking. Meanwhile, many studies have proposed various strategies for finding better governance intelligence for modern cities (Ge et al., 2018). One of these approaches features gathering data from multiple domains, and then provides specific data to decision-makers (Matheus and Janssen, 2018).

The visual datasets are one of the largest datasets from those typically available in Smart Cities (Ge et al., 2018), since they help to understand the most fundamental and challenging goals in urban places. A typical example is the Cityscapes Dataset (Cordts et al., 2015), which very well illustrates the visual complexity of such scenes (i.e., GPS positions) from 50 different cities by providing a large set of stereo video sequences of street views. Likewise, Mapillary Vistas Dataset (Neuhold et al., 2017), Daimler Urban Segmentation Dataset (Scharwächter et al., 2013), and ApolloScape Dataset (Xinyu et al., 2018) consist of video sequences recorded in urban traffic that could be used for developing autonomous driving vehicles, learning how to detect objects and enumerate them precisely, analyzing the road construction, and so on. Therefore, these datasets help the scientific and industrial communities in understanding urban street scenes through visual perception. As a result, the availability of large-scale datasets plays a vital role in the understanding of the mutual information that can be obtained from the joint Big Data analysis algorithms and urban governance challenges. Furthermore, the proper analysis process of data is required for providing the exact knowledge and achieving the ultimate goal of the Smart City paradigm, which is making better use of public resources by improving the quality of services and reducing the operational costs.

3 SAMPLING IN BIG DATA

Whenever the dataset is too big to be analysed in its fullest, sampling can be used to return a representative sample of the dataset that can be examined and its properties extrapolated to the original datase.

The basic type of sampling is the uniformly random sampling. It, however, is inefficient when dealing with datasets of non-uniform distribution. If the shape and the density of datasets are varied, a small sample obtained by uniform sampling would have poor representativeness. The size of the sample should thus be increased if a higher representativeness is required. Two approaches proposed for overcoming the drawbacks of uniform sampling are based on distance and density features in datasets.

A point can represent a subset within a set if it is close to the others. A basic measure is the distance. A distance-based sampling measures the similarity of points in a dataset. This approach is thus strongly related to clustering techniques (Bangui et al., 2019). A distance used for the measurement is different for datasets which depend on the distribution feature, for example the shape of clusters in the dataset. For a convex-shape (spherical) cluster, the Euclidean distance is proper, while a path-based one should be required for more complex shapes. In case of imbalanced datasets, in order to maintain the representativeness of a sample, a density bias is necessary. A density-based sampling would select a representative point based on a density-specified function of patterns in a dataset. The principle is to try keeping representation of sparsely distributed clusters of the dataset. A recent concise review of these two approaches can be found in (Ros and Guillaume, 2017). Some methods also were proposed in which the distance and density are coupled. These methods aim at ensuring the structural feature as well as representativeness of a resulting sample. This also is the main purpose of the method proposed in this work while producing samples of small size.

By the approximate computation point of view, sampling can be seen as determining approximately a subset of a given set. For the geometric approximation problem, a concept called ε -coreset was introduced by Agarwal et al. (Agarwal et al., 2005). Given a set *P* and $\varepsilon > 0$, an ε -coreset denoted by *Q* is a subset of *P* that approximates *P* due to a monotonic measure function. Recently, Ros and Guillaume have proposed a sampling called *ProTraS* (Ros and Guillaume, 2018) which can be seen as an extention of the *fft* (farthest first traversal) algorithm (Rosenkrantz et al., 1977). They also indicated that the sample obtained by Pro-TraS is a coreset of the original dataset. ProTraS iteratively adds a representative into the sample until the sampling cost drops below a given threshold. The representative is selected due to a probability of cost reduction which is defined based on the coupling of distance and density concepts.

Our method employs ProTraS to compute a coreset of a given dataset. Unlike ProTraS, the resulting coreset is not the final sample. For each point of the coreset, we compute the center of the subset of the dataset that the point represents. The sample of the dataset includes centers of all points of the coreset. Furthermore, if the representativeness of a point of the coreset is low, i.e., the number of the subset of the dataset that is represented by the point is small, the point is removed from the sample. The method is implemented in Matlab and experimentally compared with ProTraS. The applicability of the method is also evaluated with two key problems in data mining including clustering and especially classification with imbalanced datasets.

4 CORESET FOR BIG DATA SAMPLING

We first recall the concept of coreset of a set (Agarwal et al., 2005). Let μ be a monotone function from subsets of \mathbb{R}^n to $\mathbb{R}^n \cup \{0\}$, i.e., for $P' \subseteq P$, $\mu(P') \leq \mu(P)$. Given $\varepsilon > 0$ and $Q \subseteq P$, Q is called an ε -coreset of Pwith respect to μ if

$$(1-\varepsilon)\mu(P) \leq \mu(Q).$$

When this concept is applied for the clustering problem, then it is extended as bellow.

Definition 4.1. (Har-Peled and Mazumdar, 2004) A subset *S* of *P* is an (k, ε) -coreset for *P* if

$$(1-\varepsilon)Cost_T(C) \leq Cost_S(C) \leq (1+\varepsilon)Cost_T(C), (1)$$

where $C \subset P$ is a set of *k* centers of *P*.

Our method proposed in the next section uses the sample given by the ProTraS algorithm (Ros and Guillaume, 2018) as the first step. We now briefly describe this one and then discuss some observations of its results. The main idea of ProTraS is to select a representative point based on a probability of cost reduction. Given an $\varepsilon > 0$, for each iteration of the algorithm, it adds a new representative into a group of the sample with highest probability of the cost reduction. When the cost drops below a threshold which depends on ε , the algorithm stops. The details of the algorithm are given in Algorithm 1.

| Algorithm 1: ProTraS | (Ros and Guillaume, 2 | .018). |
|----------------------|-----------------------|--------|
|----------------------|-----------------------|--------|

Require: $P = \{x_i\}$, for i = 1, 2, ..., n, a tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$. **Ensure:** A sample $S = \{y_j\}$ and $P(y_j)$, for j = 1, 2, ..., s.

1: Initialize a pattern $x_{init} \in P$. 2: $y_1 = x_{init}, P(y_1) = \{y_1\}, \text{ and } S = \{y_1\}.$ 3: s = 1. 4: repeat 5: for all $x_i \in P \setminus S$ do 6: $y_k = \arg\min_{y_i \in S} d(x_l, y_j).$ 7: $P(y_k) = P(y_k) \cup \{x_l\}.$ 8: end for 9: maxWD = cost = 0.10: for all $y_k \in S$ do 11: $x_{max}(y_k) = \arg \max_{x_i \in P(y_k)} d(x_i, y_k).$ 12: $d_{max}(y_k) = d(x_{max}(y_k), y_k).$ 13: $p_k = |P(y_k)| d_{max}(y_k).$ 14: if $p_k > maxWD$ then 15: $maxWD = p_k$. 16: $y^* = y_k$. end if 17: 18: $cost = cost + p_k/n.$ 19: end for $x^* = x_{max}(y^*).$ 20: 21: $S = S \cup \{x^*\}$ and s = s + 1. $P(y^*) = \{x^*\}.$ 22: 23: **until** $cost < \varepsilon$ 24: **return** *S* and $P(y_j)$, for j = 1, 2, ..., s.

Lines 5-8 of the algorithm find the nearest group for points that are not yet assigned to any group of the current sample. The point among them is determined to be the new representative if it is farthest in its group and has also highest probability (Lines 10-19). This also means that the representative selected by ProTraS is the farthest-first traversal item.

Given a dataset *P*, let us denote by $C = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_k\}$ the set of centers of *P*. ProTraS aims at generating a coreset as the sample of *P*. Indeed, for $x_i \in P$, let $c_i^*, c_j^{*'} \in C$ be the closest centers to $x_i \in P$ and $y_j \in S$, respectively. We define

- $Cost_T(C) = \sum_{i=1}^n d(x_i, c_i^*)$ and
- $Cost_S(C) = \sum_{j=1}^{s} w_j d(y_j, c_j^{*'})$, where w_j is the number of points of $P(y_j)$ and $P(y_j)$ is also called the set of patterns of y_j .

Since the set of representatives is selected by the farthest-first traversal, it has been shown in (Ros and

Guillaume, 2018) that if we choose

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{s} w_j d_j}{Cost_T(C)},$$

where $d_j = \max_{y_j \in P(y_k)} \{d(y_j, y_k)\}$, for $y_k \in S$, then (1) is satisfied. Hence, the obtained sample is a coreset of *P*. We now discuss some experimental results of the ProTraS algorithm.

4.1 Implementation of ProTraS

We implemented the algorithm in Matlab and tested on some synthetic datasets¹. Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 show the results tested for S1 dataset with several values of ε . The size of the dataset is 3000. For $\varepsilon = 0.2$, the ob-



Figure 1: The sample of S1 dataset obtained by ProTraS with $\varepsilon = 0.2$, the sample size is 97.

tained sample consists of 97 data points. We observe that the points are selected at border sides of clusters of the set. This is due to the principle of farthest-first traversal. We now decrease the value of ε . The number of sample points is thus increased. Fig. 2 shows the sample with $\varepsilon = 0.1$. The sample points are now distributed uniformly over the dataset, meaning that the structural representativeness of the sample is higher. The size of the sample is 261. This is reasonable when compared with the size of the whole dataset.

However, since the method is based on farthestfirst traversal, the points are farthest among a group should always be chosen. These points are not useful in some cases. For example, assume that we are clustering a very large dataset in which the separation of clusters of the dataset is low. If we apply a ProTraS for sampling the dataset, the sample will include some points located at the middle of clusters (see Fig. 3). That makes it difficult to process groups which include these points in clustering task.



Figure 2: Obtained sample with $\varepsilon = 0.1$ and the size is 261.



Figure 3: The sample of dataset S8 consisting of 5000 points, which is obtained with $\varepsilon = 0.1$, the size is 327.

Another issue that can arise is that a point in a sample is at the boundary of a dataset as farthest-first selecting (see points marked by red circle). The distance of the points and a cluster can be longer than that between clusters in the sample. This leads to wrong clustering. Consequently, the results of clustering on the whole dataset might be inaccurate.

In order to overcome the difficulty mentioned above, the next section describes our technique in which the representative in a group is re-selected to be the center of the group. Furthermore, some points in the sample can be removed if they are less useful for the mining purpose.

4.2 An Improved Technique

Given a dataset $P = \{x_i\}$, for i = 1, 2, ..., n and a given $\varepsilon > 0$, our method firstly calls ProTraS to obtain $S = \{y_j\}$ and $P(y_j)$ for j = 1, 2, ..., s. The method next tries to find out some sample points, which have low representativeness and remove them from the sample. A point in remaining points is then replicated by the center of the set of patterns which the point represents. The details of the method are given in Algorithm 2.

¹https://cs.joensuu.fi/sipu/datasets/

Algorithm 2: Coreset-based algorithm for sampling.

Require: $P = \{x_i\}$, for i = 1, 2, ..., n, a tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$. **Ensure:** A sample $S = \{y_j\}$ and $P(y_j)$, for j = 1, 2, ..., s.

1: Call ProTraS for *P* and ε to obtain $S = \{y_j\}$ and $P(y_j)$. 2: $S' = \emptyset$. 3: for all $y_j \in S$ do 4: if $|P(y_j)|$ is greater than a threshold then 5: $y_k^* = \arg \min_{y_k \in P(y_j)} \sum_{y_l \in P(y_j)} d(y_k, y_l)$. 6: $S' = S' \cup \{y_k^*\}$. 7: end if 8: end for 9: S = S'. 10: return *S* and $P(y_i^*)$, for j = 1, 2, ..., s', where $s' \leq s$.

Line 4 in the algorithm decides if a sample point will be select into our sample, i.e., S'. This is performed using a threshold. $|P(y_j)|$ denotes the number of patterns in P with $y_j \in S$ being their representative. A small value of $|P(y_j)|$ means that the representativeness of y_j is low. It thus is not necessary and then can be removed from the sample. The value of the threshold should be chosen due to the distribution characteristics of datasets.

For $y_j \in S$ that is not removed, line 5 computes the center of the group represented by y_j , to consider replacing it. The center here, denoted by y_k^* , is defined to be the point in $P(y_j)$ such that the total distance to all others in the group is minimized. The set S' including such y_k^* is the output sample of the algorithm.



Figure 4: The sample of dataset S1 obtained with $\varepsilon = 0.1$ by our algorithm.

We now discuss to indicate the meaningful of S'. Let us describe the replication of the representative $y_j \in S$. This task aims at moving the representative of a group into its center. There are two cases that can be happen. If y_j is located at the border of a cluster and it represents $P(y_j)$ in that cluster, the center of $P(y_j)$ should be located near of that cluster than any other of the dataset. This helps S' to highlight the cluster tendency of the dataset. In case that y_j is strictly inside of a cluster, it might be not far from the center of $P(y_j)$. The change of distance from y_j to the center is thus small. In practice, most of such y_j also is the center of $P(y_j)$. Therefore, S' still keeps the main structure of the whole dataset, where the distribution density is high. Fig. 4 shows the sample obtained by our algorithm for S1 dataset. The sample represents better the structure of the dataset, compared with that shown in Fig. 1 abtained by ProTraS. We note also that, as mentioned, Line 4 of our algorithm will remove a number of points y_j whose small value of $|P(y_j)|$. This can helps us to deal with noisy data and outliers which usually are low representative.

5 EFFICIENT BIG DATA PROTOTYPING WITH CORESETS

As seen in the previous section, the investigation of the benefits of the coreset method could achieve reliable results that could support the shifting from traditional cities to Smart Cities. Indeed, the new modern environment characterizes by integrating various smart applications that demand autonomous communication between intelligent devices for responding to specific tasks necessary for citizens' lifestyle. The digitization of the transport systems is one of these applications that reflect this big advancement of modern cities, in which IoT sensors play a crucial role in realizing the vision of future transportation. In fact, the digitization of smart road infrastructure and vehicles (i.e., cars) produce each day a significant data through IoT devices that could be used to manage and optimize various transport applications, such as route planning, surveillance applications, situation recognition, weather prediction, accident detection, applications for pedestrians, emergency management, traffic control, autonomous driving, traffic prediction, etc. As a result, the shared transportation data can minimize the risks that hit back the safety of citizens as well as contribute to building a sustainable smart transport environment (Priyan and Devi, 2019).

The achievement of this vision of future transportation requires a perfect processing of data. However, in practice, it is hard to obtain reliable and accurate outcomes since the majority of transport works focuses on applying the Big Data techniques without paying attention to the rapid changes in the size of data. For example, jamming attack topic in wireless vehicular ad-hoc networks (VANET) is one of the hard challenges in the transportation domain that aims at securing the vehicle network communication by developing anti-jamming attack applications. To do that, the machine learning techniques are used such as in (Yao and Jia, 2019), where a multi-agent Qlearning algorithm has been developed for solving the formulated anti-jamming Markov game. Similarly, as in (Kosmanos et al., 2018), the authors have proposed a detection framework by combining two supervised machine learning methods, which are K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) and Random Forests (RF), with the metric of the variations of the relative speed (VRS) between the target and the jammer. Another example k-means (Pang et al., 2017), where its advantages are used to predict the number of multiple jamming attackers and ensure the preset functions of VANET. However, the common issue with these works is the use of the whole data during the application of Big Data techniques. Yet, the size of datasets is increasingly being gathered by ubiquitous smart IoT sensors. That means the manipulation of whole data might increase the computational cost and time of data processing exponentially. Thus, our proposed solution could address those problems by turning large data into very small yet representative data. Further, it could guarantee the best manipulation of data in realtime as well as the scalability of outcomes. As a result, the advantages of coreset could play an essential role in the success of transport systems that depend on the efficient integration, representation, and management of data.

6 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have proposed a sampling technique, coreset, for Big Data. The coreset can extract the key features of the Big Data while reducing the Big Data to a manageable data scale. Besides, we have proposed a few improvement techniques for coreset. Based on the coreset technique, we have proposed a possible Big Data application in the context of Smart City. Since Smart City is changing and updating quickly, different possible applications, especially with Big Data, are frequently proposed. In order to efficiently test the feasibility the proposed application, we envision that the coreset technique can be used to efficiently build the prototypes for Big Data applications in Smart Cities. As future work, we plan to apply the coreset technique in real-world Smart City applications and evaluate how much effort and time can be saved by using the proposed coreset technique.

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