

The Flying Car – Challenges and Strategies towards Future Adoption

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14 **Abstract**

15 In recent years, our surface transportation infrastructure is suffering from overuse, extreme traffic
16 congestion, and roadway disrepair. Instead of following the traditional infrastructure expansion policy,
17 current transportation research focuses on developing innovative and novel solutions to the
18 aforementioned issues. Current pathways to overcoming these issues include the gradual transition
19 towards a number of emerging transportation technologies, such as, autonomous motor vehicles for
20 human transport, as well as unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV's) and "drone" technologies for
21 surveillance, and package deliveries. However, as a long-term solution, transportation scientists are
22 also investigating the once-seemingly futuristic notion of flying car technology - a convergent form of
23 ground/air vehicle transportation, and assessing associated regulations. In this paper, an extensive
24 review of current literature is conducted to explore the technological capabilities of flying cars – each
25 requiring appropriate regulations and governance – to become fully sustainable. Specifically, issues
26 pertinent to training, safety, environment, navigation, infrastructure, logistics/sustainability, and
27 cybersecurity and human factors are explored. This paper concludes with a preliminary quantitative
28 analysis exploring the public perceptions associated with flying cars – including anticipated benefits,
29 concerns, and willingness to both hire and acquire the technology once available to consumers.
30 Insights offered by this data will help inform next-generation policies and standards associated with
31 the gradual advancement of flying cars.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 The “Transportation network of Tomorrow” has long been a topic of discussion and debate, with
34 numerous forward-thinking possibilities (e.g., Hyperloop and Personal Rapid Transit; Cunningham,
35 2017). Since the depictions of flying cars were mostly confined in the science fiction movies, the

36 notion of a real “Flying Car” has long-seemed nearer to science fiction than science fact. However,
 37 recent technological advances are slowly bringing these capabilities closer to reality (Covington, 2018).
 38 The surmised advantages of a Flying Car network are many, as it effectively combines ideal
 39 characteristics of both planes and cars. Specifically, a Flying Car is much more maneuverable and
 40 would be less susceptible to traffic jams while traversing three dimensional airspace as compared to
 41 two dimensional ground-based roadways (Soffar, 2018). However, regardless of the superior
 42 transportation capabilities likely to be offered by this technology, the widespread adoption of flying
 43 cars will be predominantly shaped by public perception. Evaluation and statistical analysis of public
 44 perception towards a forthcoming transportation technology pose significant methodological
 45 challenges in terms of unobserved heterogeneity and temporal instability (Mannering and Bhat, 2014;
 46 Mannering et al., 2016; Fountas et al., 2018; Mannering, 2018). A number of recent studies have
 47 demonstrated that people’s perception towards potential benefits and concerns from the future use of
 48 flying cars, as well as the associated safety and security issues are multifaceted, and influenced by a
 49 broad range of socio-demographic factors (Eker et al., 2019a; 2020). In addition, whether general
 50 population is willing to embrace and pay for flying cars as personal vehicles and/or as a shared mobility
 51 service are major research questions that have been investigated as well (Eker et al., 2019b; Ahmed et
 52 al., 2019). In addition to survey-based approaches, virtual and/or live motion and simulation (M&S)
 53 based approaches are warranted for in-depth investigation of safety-, infrastructure-, sustainability-,
 54 environment-, and human factor-specific requirements (as shown in Figure 1).

55 In this context, the ongoing evolution of Flying Cars will have profound impacts upon various policies
 56 and standards that govern future development, test, evaluation, validation, and deployment of the
 57 technology (Lineberger, 2018). Forecasting existing regulations and establishing appropriate
 58 incentives that will serve to standardize and sustain a full-scale Flying Car Transportation network will
 59 be required. In the next section, an overview highlighting the applicability and potential impacts of
 60 M&S towards the future deployment of flying cars in the existing transportation fleet is presented.

61 **2 Applicability of M&S and Training towards Deployment of Flying Cars**

62 Modern technological developments demonstrate that flying cars may be available for commercial use
 63 by 2025 (Becker, 2017; Bogaisky, 2018). Many of the associated challenges to sustain the technology
 64 will necessitate virtual and/or live M&S for testing and validation. For example, the evolution of flying
 65 cars will demand new policies and standards to regulate transition and handoff periods between manual
 66 and autonomous vehicle control and the complex transition between ground and flight dynamics (e.g.,
 67 for takeoffs/landings). Furthermore, new policies and standards will be required to explore the
 68 complexities of airborne navigation safety, which will necessitate both computational M&S for virtual
 69 testing and physical M&S performed within a live setting. For the latter, prototyping (e.g., within a
 70 “drone dome” enclosure; refer to Figure 2) must be leveraged to emulate a functional miniature-scale
 71 infrastructure for forecasted flying car transport modes. Flying car deployment will likewise have
 72 profound impacts on training, which will demand novel regulations for safe operational and
 73 maintenance procedures. The ongoing development of flying car technologies will enable next-
 74 generation training methods within related technological domains, including: a) pilot training and
 75 certification, b) repair/service/upgrade procedures, c) connected/automated vehicles, including
 76 advanced robotics and sensor fusion, and d) machine learning and artificial intelligence (AI). Lastly,
 77 human response to autonomous features of next-generation transport modes remains uncertain.
 78 Through application of M&S, an improved understanding of the complex human factors associated
 79 with flying cars is required to manifest policies and standards that will govern future operation.
 80 Ultimately - human behavioral patterns ascertained (e.g., via human behavior models and simulations)

81 in conjunction with live/virtual testing to explore the human-machine interface can be leveraged to
 82 clarify the infrastructure challenges associated with real-world deployment.
 83



Figure 1 – Flying car M&S domains of interest



Figure 2 – Flying car drone dome testing

84
 85 In this paper, we present an extensive overview of the capabilities and requirements for actionable
 86 regulations and governance for flying car technology to advise and dictate future test, evaluation,
 87 validation, and deployment of the technology. A brief forecast of the primary issues pertinent to key
 88 M&S domains of interest includes:

- 89 • Safety – The most critical segment of flying car operation will be ground/air transitions
 90 (takeoff/landing), which will demand NAS/FAA regulation, and suitable governance for an
 91 integrated (rather than segregated) airspace. Another critical aspect would be addressing
 92 operational challenges and ensuring safety during adverse weather conditions (e.g., heavy
 93 rainfall, high wind, snowstorm, etc.).
- 94 • Pilot training & certification – For both manual and autonomous flying cars, the vehicle
 95 operator (or pilot), and the air/ground-based support systems (maintenance) will require
 96 appropriate certifications and governance.
- 97 • Infrastructure – Flying cars will require regulations for “vertiports” (takeoff/landing facilities)
 98 for land/air transitions, and this in turn, will dictate policies and standards for vertical takeoffs
 99 and landings operational features.
- 100 • Environment – Governance must be mandated (e.g., NASA UAM) to ensure environmentally
 101 conscious best practices for flying cars. For instance, fully electrical powered operation,
 102 minimum operational noise, and minimum greenhouse gas emission.
- 103 • Logistics & Sustainability – Flying cars will require sustainable legal standards for operation,
 104 maintenance, control, and step-by-step adoption (e.g., as emergency vehicles, as a mode of
 105 ridesharing service, and as consumer vehicle).
- 106 • Cybersecurity - Flying cars will be highly automated, computerized, and likely be connected to
 107 encrypted network for navigational purposes. Such a system will mandate policies for
 108 safeguarding against cybercrimes (e.g., unauthorized remote access through Trojans and
 109 malwares, DDoS attacks preventing network access)

- Human Factors – Human preferences and attitudes will direct and dictate flying car sustenance, including financial (i.e., acquisition expenses; willingness to hire), operational benefits/concerns, and anticipated Use Case scenarios.

We begin with an overview of policies and standards related to safety (i.e., operational; mechanical) – a foremost concern for establishing and maintaining flying car sustainability.

3 Safety Concerns

Beginning with the M400 SkyCar (Moller, 2016), development of flying car technologies has been ongoing since the early 1980's, and numerous manufacturer technologies (e.g., Aurora Flight Sciences PAV, 2019; PAL-V, 2019) are already beyond conceptual design. With the popularity of drones and UAV's steadily on the rise, and with associated demand for policies to support commercial application, flying cars are slowly inching towards reality. If critical regulatory obstacles can be overcome, passenger drones and flying cars could begin to be operational in the next decade (Lineberger, 2018). Obviating safety concerns (both human and autonomous) associated with flying car technology is therefore of paramount importance. As with autonomous ground vehicles, any publicized adverse safety incidents (e.g., Garsten, 2018) can taint public perception (Haboucha et al., 2017; Hulse et al., 2018; Sheela and Mannerling, 2019), and limit the growth rate of consumer acceptance.

The most challenging questions regarding flying cars involve suitable procedures for going airborne (takeoffs) and returning to the ground (landings), and requirement of a complex safety risk analysis to determine the logistics of how flying cars should be regulated by the National Airspace System (NAS), the governing entity for United States airspace (Del Balzo, 2016). From a regulatory standpoint, much additional research is required to ensure that novel autonomous systems to operate, navigate, and control flying cars are equipped with redundancy (backup system), and have "safe mode" capabilities (i.e., "on-the-fly" decision-making) if they encounter unusual situations. Airspace logistics may further dictate that the primary regulatory body (i.e., the FAA) will assign minimum safety standards, and then each individual State would then mandate its own private air traffic controllers (Niller, 2018).

Ensuring operational safety during adverse weather conditions (e.g., snowstorm, heavy rain, high wind, etc.) is another critical safety aspect. Simulation and live testing to determine the thresholds of safe operational environment in terms of visibility, wind speed, precipitation intensity, etc. for different flying car types will be required to form the necessary regulations.

As outlined earlier, advanced models and simulations - in both live and virtual contexts - will be required to prototype common modes of flying car operation to establish baseline Safety guidelines. Additional notional specifics are offered throughout this paper, and in the next section, regulatory requirements for pilot training and certification are discussed.

4 Pilot Training and Certification Standards

As flying cars will involve airborne egress (i.e., aviation), regulations will be mandated by the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) with a conservative Safety Management System (FAA, 2016) to govern and manage effective risk controls (Del Balzo, 2016). For traditional aircraft, the FAA has a successful regulatory system for pilot licenses, aircraft certification and registration, takeoff and landing sites (airports), and a mechanism for air traffic control. With the anticipated introduction of flying cars, traffic control systems will have to accommodate for added complications, and compared to smaller drones, the path to regulating human flight will be challenging and time consuming (Stewart,

152 2018). For a ground vehicle, one requires separate driver’s licenses to operate a sedan vs. a motorcycle
 153 vs. a multi-axle semi-truck. Conversely, a flying car operator will require licensure both to drive and
 154 fly, and will require appropriate vehicle registration and Type Certification. Proposed flying car
 155 technologies are essentially fixed-wing airplanes (e.g., the Aurora PAV), but others operate more as a
 156 motorcycle-gyrocopter hybrid (e.g., the PAL-V). Ultimately, certain proposed vehicles will operate as
 157 a car with wings (i.e., a flying car), while others will effectively serve as an airplane with wheels (i.e.,
 158 a driving plane), which complicates regulatory matters relevant to the requisite skill of the flying car
 159 “operator”, as well as matters related to certification, airworthiness, and licensure (Del Balzo, 2015).

160 A wide range of flying car types are forecasted to eventually be allowed to operate within large,
 161 metropolitan areas. As such, their sustenance will largely depend on Certification procedures, which
 162 will dictate the urgency and tempo of this emergent, and disruptive technology as it evolves.
 163 Preliminary versions of flying cars will likely have a driver/pilot on board for the flight segment(s) of
 164 the journey. However, technologists are already developing concept models for future flying car
 165 models that will be remotely piloted and supervised either: a) by live humans on the ground, or b) by
 166 autonomous systems in the air and/or on the ground. To operate “urban air mobility (UAM)” vehicles
 167 (either with or without passengers) without a pilot would depend not only on the Certification of the
 168 vehicle, but likewise on the Certification of pilots and support systems on the ground – for which
 169 suitable policies have not yet been established (Thippavong et al., 2018). Ultimately, advanced
 170 (virtual) M&S will be required to specify appropriate training systems (with suitable fidelity), and
 171 design standardized training scenarios for future flying car operators – particularly for handling
 172 complex ground-air and air-ground transitions. Regulation of air traffic issues across all governing
 173 bodies will be a unique and complex challenge. Accordingly, in the next section, a number of key
 174 policies and standards issues related to infrastructure and navigation are investigated in greater detail.

175 **5 Infrastructure & Navigation**

176 The navigational benefits of instituting a functional flying car network are obvious – a technology that
 177 allows civilians to transport from source to destination at a fraction of the overall time required to drive
 178 the same distance. Refer to Figure 3, which illustrates a sample journey that compares drive/flight
 179 times for a work commute. Here, the estimated 20 minute drive path (shown in red) is constrained by
 180 2D roads, ground congestion, and the natural limitations of land topography. The flight path (shown
 181 in green) obviates these constraints, and reduces the point-to-point straight path travel distance by
 182 approximately 2/3 (i.e., to 7 minutes). In this scenario, the prevalence of infrastructures that would
 183 permit safe takeoffs and landings, as well as infrastructure for vehicle storage (e.g., parking) is
 184 assumed. Naturally, such a vast network of vertical takeoff and landing facilities, or “vertiports” would
 185 necessitate standards and certifications for our infrastructure (e.g., helipads installed atop large public
 186 buildings; large segments of flat land designated for air-ground transitions) (Lineberger, 2018).
 187 Design, layout, and specification of such vertiports will require advanced M&S (e.g., Monte Carlo
 188 simulations and advanced heuristic optimization techniques) to guarantee human safety and likewise
 189 maximize operational effectiveness and efficiency. Accordingly, transportation authorities must
 190 mandate that flying car operators are constrained to selected flight corridors, such that a direct route
 191 might not always be an option. These corridors would likely be strategically located over reduced-risk
 192 areas of land that have minimal population (Roberts and Milford, 2017).

193
 194 A related consideration is the need to regulate and mandate a functional range of motion for a flying
 195 car. Suitable design specifications will rely upon live and virtual testing, and M&S to determine
 196 technical standards that meet all functional requirements, and are likewise cost effective and
 197 sustainable. For example, we presume that in standard operational mode, the bottom of the vehicle is

198 oriented downward (i.e., along the +Z axis), and it can traverse vertically while having the capacity to
 199 “hover”, and likewise remain stationary while airborne. Furthermore, we presume that flying cars
 200 would travel longitudinally (i.e., along an X-axis), and laterally (i.e., along a Y-axis) without having
 201 to orient the vehicle in that direction. Flying cars, like aircraft, will thus require rotational motion: to
 202 bank (roll), to tilt (pitch), and to revolve (yaw) to establish orientation within a plane parallel to the
 203 ground (Worldbuilding, 2016). There will likely be situations where extended horizontal runways are
 204 not geometrically feasible, and will require a vertical takeoff and landing (VTOL) capability.
 205 Ridesharing companies (e.g., Uber and Lyft) are forecasting VTOL vehicles that are easier to fly than
 206 helicopters (Stewart, 2018), and have a “segregated airspace” dedicated for and managed by
 207 ridesharing entities. However, Federal regulators will likely mandate long-term policies involving a
 208 holistic integrated airspace, where everyone shares the skies (Stewart, 2018). Accordingly,
 209 idealizations of flying cars are such that they have the approximate size of a car, can drive on the road
 210 like a car, but also have VTOL capabilities.
 211

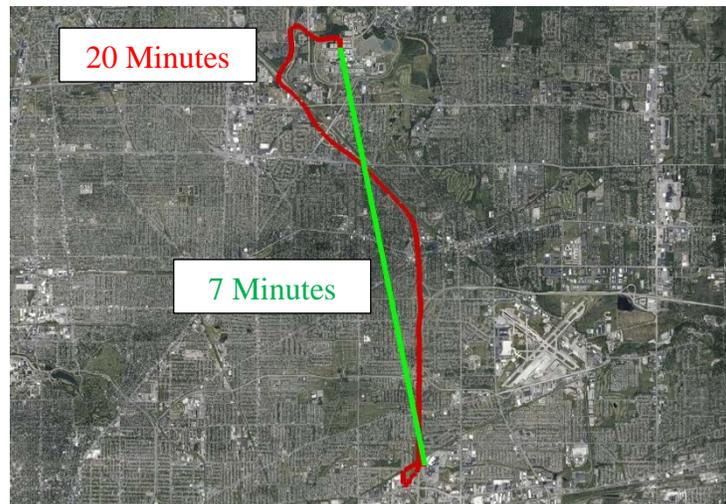


Figure 3 – Navigational benefits of flying cars

212 Reliance on present-day battery science will be a limiting operational factor, as power constraints will
 213 dictate a brief (e.g., 10-20 minute) flight duration prior to re-charge (Rathi, 2018). Uber (Uber, 2016)
 214 likewise concluded that batteries are not yet sufficient in terms of energy density, cycle life, nor cost-
 215 effectiveness, but supposes near-term improvement with economies of scale. A successful flying car
 216 engine is likely to be one that can successfully separate the source of rotational force from the speed
 217 of rotation (e.g., a “Split Power” engine (Yeno, 2018)). Commercial stakeholders, federal/state
 218 policymakers, and regional urban planning authorities therefore must envision an infrastructure that
 219 fully enables 3D egress within a densely populated (airborne) transportation grid. Likewise, to create
 220 a unified traffic management system, infrastructure for high-speed data communications and
 221 geolocation will be required along predefined flight corridors (Worldbuilding, 2016). To this end,
 222 suitable policies and regulations will be required to establish guidelines to insure that scalability and
 223 operational efficiency are accounted for as a functional Flying Car network evolves.

224 Finally, to operationalize flying car aeronautics, policymakers and regulators must consider the in-
 225 vehicle user interface that will be required for flying car navigation. Instead of “floating” intersections,
 226 lane markers, and roadway signage – computer graphics technologists, virtual reality (VR)/Gaming
 227 enthusiasts, and M&S subject-matter experts are already evaluating and prototyping next-generation

standards for flying car Heads-Up Display (HUD) navigation systems to support personal air travel (Frey, 2006). Such interfaces require customizable applications to permit airborne lane changes, and likewise, the augmented reality (AR) display would feature traffic information that will assist with safe navigation of changes in heading (i.e., turns). Policymakers therefore must establish guidelines for a robust human-machine interface such that on takeoff, the field-of-view will transform seamlessly into a display system appropriate for use in flight mode (AeroMobil, 2019).

6 Environmental and Energy Considerations

Although UAV's were initially marketed as purely recreational devices, the prospect that passenger drones might soon be transporting civilians across large cities and vast rural landscapes (Ratti, 2017) has obvious advantages. However, it is difficult to fully comprehend the far-reaching environmental impacts likely to be imposed by flying cars, and flying car-based ridesharing services. Although flying cars will presumably be a clean (i.e., partial- or full-electric power) mode of human transport, a substantial fleet of such vehicles could demand substantial energy resources and appreciably increase the overall amount that humans travel. In this context, extensive research on self-driving vehicles demonstrated that due to the mobility convenience offered, personally owned self-driving cars would almost invariably increase the total vehicle miles traveled (VMT), which translates into significant increase in energy demand and emission, and perhaps increased congestions in roadways (Fagnant and Kockelman, 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Self-driving vehicles may yield sustainable environmental benefit in terms of overall VMT reduction and greenhouse gas emission reduction only if they are deployed as shared mobility services (Fagnant and Kockelman, 2018). Environmental implications of electric vehicles (EVs) is also extensively investigated in the literature, and majority of the findings suggest that EVs would yield sustainable reduction in greenhouse gas emission only if the electricity production relies on renewable energy sources (hydro, nuclear, wind, solar, geothermal), instead of fossil fuels (Granovskii et al., 2006; Richardson, 2013). With the preceding findings regarding self-driving and electric vehicles in mind, life-cycle assessment of flying cars under different operational scenarios such as personal ownership, shared mobility service, and a mixture of both is warranted. In addition, environmental impact assessment under different energy sources, and propulsion systems is another significant direction towards future research. In this regard, findings from a recent study demonstrated the potential of flying cars in reducing greenhouse gas emission in a specific usage scenario, when compared against combustion engine based, and battery electric engine based personal vehicles (Kasliwal et al., 2019). However, to date, there have been no extensive analyses conducted upon flying cars that have attempted to quantify their systemic impact on the existing transportation network and environment as a whole (Stone, 2017). In this section, how flying cars might impact daily existence within highly urbanized environments, along with a dialogue concerning anticipated policy modifications, are explored.

Based upon the anticipated operational dynamics of flying cars, energy requirements are forecasted to be substantial. It is widely assumed that many flying car designs will require rotors, which are essentially large fans that force air downward to generate an upward propulsion. It will be difficult or impossible to achieve this lift force without creating air disturbance – and associated noise. As discussed previously, novel and substantial modifications to existing infrastructure must be governed to enable safe takeoffs and landings (with VTOL capabilities), as well as vehicle parking/storage. However, highly urbanized areas (e.g., New York City) already have substantial problems regulating aircraft noise. Recent noise complaints for residential helicopter tours along the Hudson River have resulted in increased regulation for tour operators (Bellafante, 2014), when prior to this legislation, there were fewer than 5,000 tourist helicopter flights per month. Extrapolating the prospect that flying cars could potentially serve as a daily transport mechanism for the ~8 million residents of metropolitan

274 NYC, it becomes readily apparent that appropriate regulations (e.g., maximum sound decibels, at
 275 certain times-of-day and days-of-week, and within an appropriate distance of densely populated areas)
 276 will be required to inform a comprehensive noise ordinance to advise sustainable flying car operation
 277 (Ratti, 2017).

278 In addition to noise concerns, governance and oversight must be established to ensure that a network
 279 of flying cars will not result in undue burden of the existing Air Traffic Control (ATC) system.
 280 NASA’s ongoing Urban Air Mobility (UAM) project aims to develop an efficient air transportation
 281 network for unmanned package delivery as well as manned flying passenger taxis within both rural
 282 and heavily urbanized regions (Thipphavong et al., 2018). UAM researchers are considering
 283 aeronautics issues to mitigate noise concerns associated with flying car operation, and are partnering
 284 with the FAA to develop rules and procedures that can manage the anticipated low-altitude operation
 285 of flying cars (Salazar, 2018). Finally, the capability of the technology to reduce reliance on fossil
 286 fuels, and tailpipe emissions measured as carbon dioxide equivalent or CO₂e (UCSUSA, 2019; Tischer
 287 et al., 2019) will help to establish the long-term sustainability of flying cars. It is reasonable to presume
 288 that through the application of e.g., human behavior modeling and discrete event simulation, this
 289 transportation analysis infographic is scalable to hybrid-style (flying car) vehicles that are capable of
 290 both driving and flight. Future policies and regulations (e.g., those governed by The Environmental
 291 Protection Agency, or EPA) will therefore demand that flying cars must comply with federal emissions
 292 and fuel-economy standards (Negroni, 2012).

293 **7 Adoption Logistics & Technological Sustainability**

294 Emergent flying car technologies will need to meet the technical and safety standards of both cars and
 295 airplanes, and at least initially, will be costly both to acquire and to maintain. In addition, the manner
 296 in which complex control devices are currently employed to direct and monitor road safety, allowable
 297 flight routes for flying cars will need to be mandated and regulated in a similar fashion. Likewise, as
 298 flying cars will exhibit exponential complexity in terms of vehicle design (e.g., propulsion/engine) and
 299 achievable speeds that are much faster than standard cars, it will be a major and multi-faceted challenge
 300 for policymakers to institute sustainable legal standards (e.g., operation, maintenance, control) for such
 301 vehicles (Soffar, 2018). In addition, from manufacturer’s and commercial operator’s point of view, an
 302 optimal balance between energy capacity (gasoline and/or battery), and speed-range combination for
 303 flying car production models would be a multidisciplinary challenge.

304 Technologists (e.g., Templeton, 2018) forecast that adoption logistics for flying cars will transpire in
 305 a staged manner, initially, to meet our most critical transportation requirements. Driven by
 306 regional/national policies and regulations, one could envision a gradual deployment scenario beginning
 307 first with adoption by specialty vehicles (e.g., law enforcement, construction, emergency fire response,
 308 ambulances), followed by ridesharing companies, and eventually followed by civilians. For example,
 309 a limited fleet of self-operating flying ambulances could be effective at quickly transporting a patient,
 310 along with a health professional and essential supplies, in a manner that is non-disruptive to traffic on
 311 the ground. Likewise, in certain situations, if the transport was completely without a paramedic
 312 onboard to tend to a patient, it might ultimately be a better choice to fly (i.e., above the traffic) for ~5
 313 minutes than to have the commute consume 15 minutes (by ground) driving in a large vehicle with full
 314 gear and support team. Note that despite the idealized and academic expectation that flying car
 315 technologies should originate through emergency responders, a logical argument can be made that
 316 preliminary deployment might instead be driven by industry giants with substantial financial interests
 317 (e.g., Amazon, for package delivery; Uber, for consumer ridesharing applications). Regardless,
 318 proposed vertiports will require design standards (e.g., layout, features, geometries) – as advised by

319 advanced M&S (e.g., multi-resolution models and macro/micro-simulations) to accommodate flying
 320 and landing hundreds of aircraft. Likewise, regulations for the associated airspace requirements to
 321 enable takeoff and landing patterns will be mandated.

322 Lastly, manufacturing challenges may inhibit the sustainability of flying cars as economies of scale
 323 will demand many aircraft flying as soon as possible. Leveraging advanced (e.g., lightweight, strong
 324 composite) volume-based manufacturing methods from automotive to aviation is required. However,
 325 it is anticipated that this transition will be a gradual process over time (Adams, 2018). From operational
 326 perspective, due to the complex engineering nature of flying cars, safety-certified, passenger-carrying
 327 flying vehicles will heavily rely on computers and autonomy. However, autonomous systems tend to
 328 lack the judgment, situational awareness, and instantaneous interventions often required from live
 329 human pilots – and will demand an extended period for development of regulatory standards.

330 **8 Cybersecurity**

331 It is forecasted that flying car operation will rely heavily upon computational AI for Detect and Avoid
 332 (DAA) technologies to recognize, distinguish, and track other aircraft, predict conflicts, and take
 333 corrective action as required. To realize such functionality will demand cognitive systems and
 334 computing; platforms that encompass machine learning/reasoning, human-machine
 335 interaction/automation, and network sensors for seamless and real-time vehicle-vehicle and vehicle-
 336 infrastructure communications. Beyond the prevailing safety concerns associated with a major system
 337 malfunction while flying over a densely populated area, we still lack a comprehensive understanding
 338 of how flying cars can be protected from hackers, terrorists, or other cyber criminals (Ratti, 2017). The
 339 establishment of cybersecurity policies and standards will be a major requirement for fully realizing
 340 flying cars sustainably.

341 Many present-day Communications, Navigation, and Surveillance (CNS) systems will require
 342 expansion to cover additional airspace requirements for flying cars. Fortunately, NASA (and other
 343 agencies) are developing operational policies for Urban Air Mobility (UAM) related to aircraft,
 344 airspace, and hazards, and to include provisions for security. As flying cars will drastically enhance
 345 the overall mobility of persons and goods within metropolitan regions, our air traffic management
 346 system must assign protocols for cybersecurity to assure reliable exchange of data (e.g., vehicle,
 347 navigation, command/control (C2) link, weather), and novel authentication mechanisms will be
 348 required to detect intrusions and data leaks (Thipphavong et al., 2018). Instatement of cybersecurity
 349 standards will be required to protect vehicle interfaces from attacks (both physical and electronic) to
 350 the networks that control flying cars. Stochastic M&S (Pokhrel and Tsokos, 2017) will be mandated
 351 to predict, quantify and assess risks to the overall network which will help to inform appropriate
 352 countermeasures. Cyber criminals have previously demonstrated the relative ease with which ground
 353 vehicles can be compromised after identifying access to its internal operating system (i.e., the
 354 Controller Area Network, or CAN bus). Accordingly, cybersecurity specialists for flying cars must
 355 impact policies for safeguarding against malwares and Trojans that attempt unauthorized remote access
 356 to its Electronic Control Unit (ECU) (Tabora, 2018). In the next section, a brief discussion concerning
 357 the critical human factors that interrelates to all of the relevant subdomains discussed so far is
 358 presented, which will drive and dictate the near-term adoption of flying cars.

359 **9 Exploratory Human Factors to Inform Future Flying Cars Policy**

360 In addition to the various technological policy and regulatory requirements summarized thus far, we
 361 must forecast the critical human element associated with our relationship with flying cars (i.e., the
 362 Human-Machine interface). For the technology to sustain, humans will be required to overcome
 363 psychological, attitudinal, perceptual or behavioral barriers (Fountas et al., 2019; 2020; Pantangi et al.,
 364 2019) that are associated with the concept of flying a car, or longer-term, being transported within a
 365 pilotless and fully autonomous flying vehicle. Furthermore, for flying cars to be widely accepted and
 366 adopted, they will have to be as flexible and convenient for daily transport as a modern-day automobile
 367 and quickly establish well-documented safety records (Lineberger et al., 2018). A survey was
 368 conducted to investigate the human factors associated with flying car technologies. It was conducted
 369 in an online platform called SurveyMonkey, and a total of 692 respondents from 19 different countries
 370 participated in the survey. A number of exploratory studies have been conducted so far, based on the
 371 data collected in the aforementioned survey (Eker et al., 2019a, 2019b, 2020; Ahmed et al., 2019).
 372 Here, we briefly summarize and illustrate the key issues investigated in the aforementioned works, as
 373 they will directly influence future policies and regulations associated with emergent technological
 374 advances.

375 The first analysis (Eker et al., 2019b), provides a preliminary investigation of individuals’ perceptions
 376 regarding the future adoption of flying cars. Figure 4 illustrates willingness to pay to purchase a flying
 377 car for personal use, forecasting what is expected to be common price points for this mode of transport.
 378 Just over 40% expressed an interest in acquiring a flying car vehicle at a ~\$100k purchase value, and
 379 these numbers decline sharply with increased dollar amounts. In Figure 5, the anticipated use case
 380 scenarios for flying cars across three subcategories are explored: activity, duration of travel, and time-
 381 of-day. The figure illustrates the forecasted use of flying cars most often for entertainment and work
 382 activities; respondents seem more likely to use the technology for trips of longer duration (i.e.,
 383 hundreds of miles) as opposed to short trips, and perhaps not surprisingly, remarked as being slightly
 384 more likely to use flying cars during daylight (i.e., morning/afternoon) periods than during darkness.

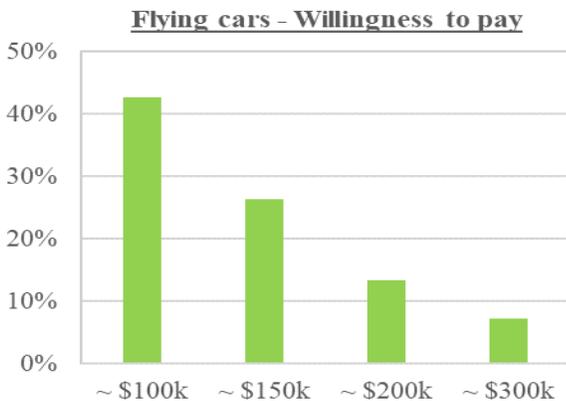


Figure 4 – Willingness to pay

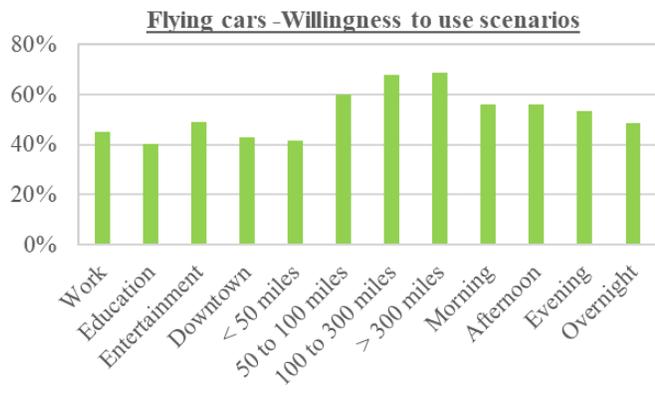


Figure 5 – Flying car use case scenarios

385 The second analysis (Eker et al., 2020) provides a preliminary investigation in to the public perceptions
 386 of forecasted flying car technologies. Specifically, this effort explores the fact that the future adoption
 387 of flying cars is directly associated with individuals’ perceptions of the benefits and concerns arising
 388 from key operational characteristics related to this complex and technologically disruptive technology.

389 Figure 6 illustrates the anticipated benefits of flying car technologies, where respondents anticipated
 390 the potential of reduced travel time, and increased travel time reliability (e.g., reduced traffic), while
 391 being comparatively less anticipatory of the possible gains resulting from reduced fuel expenses and
 392 vehicle emissions. Likewise, Figure 7 illustrates the fundamental concerns for eventual flying car
 393 deployment, where respondents seemed most apprehensive about weather conditions, and more
 394 concerned about airborne (compared to ground) interactions with other vehicles, while somewhat
 395 surprisingly, expressing reduced concern regarding the forecasted requirement to fly one’s own flying
 396 car.

397 Finally, the third analysis (Ahmed et al., 2019) explores human willingness to hire next-generation
 398 flying car based ridesharing services. This study investigates human perceptions and expectations
 399 involving flying cars with specific regards to shared mobility services, previously unexamined within
 400 travel demand literature. Figure 8 illustrates human preferences towards flying car based ridesharing
 401 service. The graph shows that the willingness towards human-driven flying cars is slightly bigger than
 402 that of fully autonomous counterparts. Figure 9 illustrates human expectations regarding the cost of
 403 flying car based ridesharing service. It shows that humans are willing to pay slightly more than current
 404 ground-based rates for ridesharing services. However, the current threshold for tolerated increase is
 405 slight, as indicated by the 4th order polynomial “trend line” displayed on the plot.

406 **10 Recommendations and Directions Towards Future Research**

407 The discussion on the seven key domains of interest presented in this paper provides an overview of
 408 the challenges that need to be addressed for the successful integration of flying cars as a new mode in
 409 the existing transportation infrastructures. With safety and human behavioral related challenges being
 410 of utmost importance, recommendations and directions for future work are discussed below.

411 A well-balanced regulatory framework for flying cars is ideally the first step towards ensuring safety
 412 for all stakeholders (from passengers, to operators, to public or private infrastructure owners). With an
 413 objective to form a baseline for regulations and security measures, Eker et al. (2019a) evaluated the
 414 feasibility of four security measures in terms of public acceptability and trust on the measures. These
 415 measures are: (a) use of existing FAA regulations for flying car air traffic control; (b) establishing air-
 416 road police force with flying police cars; (c) detailed profiling and background checking for flying car
 417 owners and operators; and (d) establishing no-fly zones for flying cars near sensitive locations, such as
 418 military bases, power/energy plants, government facilities, and major transportation hubs, to name a
 419 few. Findings from this study revealed that the majority of the participants had positive inclination
 420 towards these four measures (61%, 71%, 75% and 79%, respectively). This makes the proposed
 421 measures ideal as a regulatory and policy starting point. By making appropriate safety-related
 422 adjustments, effective measures and regulations can be derived by the regulatory and legislative
 423 authorities.

424 Technological progress in flying car development is rapidly accelerating across the world, reaching an
 425 increasingly wider audience over time. Exposure to this information is expected to affect public
 426 perceptions towards flying car technologies. In this context, continuous assessment of public
 427 perception towards several aspects related to flying cars is warranted. A few relevant examples related
 428 to uncharted thematic topic that are specific to flying cars include willingness to use, willingness to
 429 pay, opinions regarding various deployment scenarios, perception towards potential benefits and
 430 concerns, effects on environment, and transformational effects on urban settings, to name a few. Such
 431 assessment should also take place at a micro level, with specific focus towards different geographic
 432 regions, and different socio-economic and demographic target audience groups. The outcomes from

433 such assessment would ultimately aid the stakeholders (manufacturers, operators, legislative and
 434 regulatory entities) to amend their respective plans, roadmaps and policies.

435 **11 Summary and Conclusion**

436 As our surface transportation infrastructure continues to suffer from overuse, congestion, disrepair,
 437 transportation scientists are already investigating the feasibility of passenger drone and flying car
 438 technologies. For these reasons, we have presented an extensive literature-based overview of the
 439 emergent capabilities of flying car, and critically – their requirement for actionable regulations and
 440 governance to advise and dictate future test, evaluation, validation, and deployment.

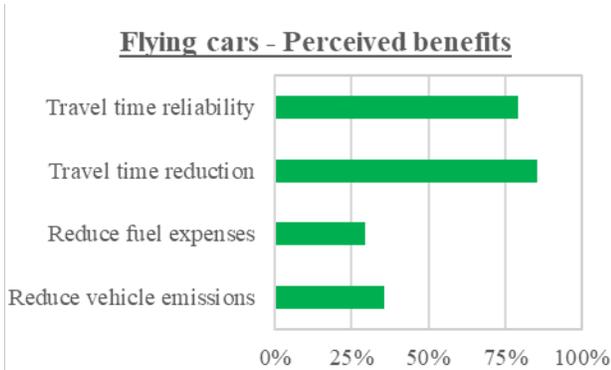


Figure 6 – Benefits of flying cars

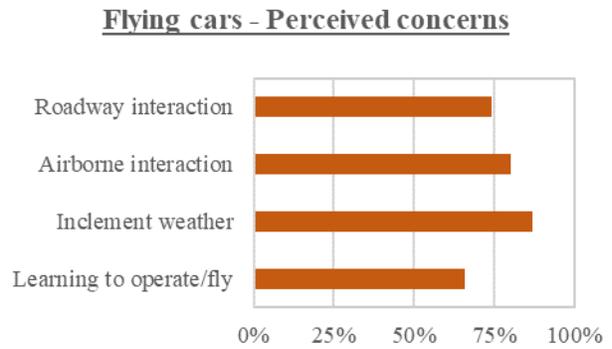


Figure 7 – Concerns related to Flying Cars

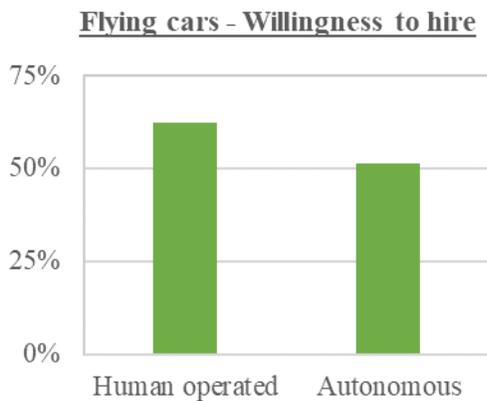


Figure 8 – Willingness to hire

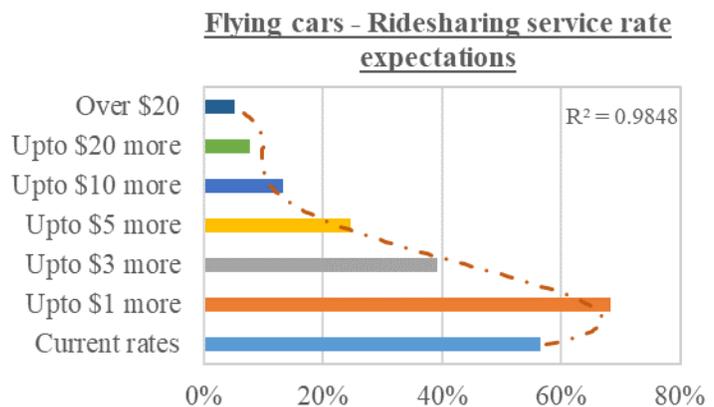


Figure 9 – Willingness to pay

441 In this paper, we emphasized seven key M&S domains of interest (Safety, Training, Infrastructure,
 442 Environment, Logistics/Sustainability, Cybersecurity, and Human Factors) critical to the forecasted
 443 advancement of flying cars, and explored how these technologies will influence future policies,
 444 regulations, certifications, and governance. Moving forward, an excellent direction towards future
 445 research would be the development of a high-fidelity M&S framework – including both live and virtual
 446 testing aspects - to examine the emerging operational feasibility of flying cars. Such a capability will
 447 allow technologists and subject matter experts to prototype and validate ground/air traffic simulation-
 448 tools, and enable researchers to model and analyze complex egress scenarios within diverse operational
 449 settings. We anticipate that live physical test environments will be necessary to perform advanced
 450 scenario prototyping, once baseline feasibility has been achieved through virtual simulation. The

451 outcomes of such M&S frameworks will further serve to influence policymakers and service providers
452 towards achieving sustainable technological policies and standards.

453 **12 Author Contributions**

454 All authors contributed in the preparation and the completion of the submitted paper.

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460 **14 Data Availability Statement**

461 The datasets for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

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