

## Ai-Driven Autonomous Vehicles And Legal Liability: Redefining Accountability In Human-Ai Collaborative Systems

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**Abstract:** AI-powered autonomous vehicles (AVs) have led to discussions about who is responsible and answerable for problems that arise in human-AI collaborations. The research focuses on how the decisions of machine learning algorithms in AVs are interpreted by the law. With the use of Decision Trees, Random Forests, Support Vector Machines and Deep Neural Networks, this research examined how driver behavior is predicted in AVs across a controlled set of scenarios. Of all the algorithms, the Deep Neural Network showed the best accuracy at 94.5%, then Random Forest at 91.2% and the other two fell below at 87.6% and 83.4%. Yet, accuracy was negatively linked to interpretability and Decision Trees were the model that offered the easiest trace of logic. Learning from both comparative experiments and recent law and ethics writings, the discipline points out that the law is currently unable to handle situations where a decision is made independently by a non-human agent. The results suggest putting in place a model in which developers, manufacturers and AI systems are all held accountable. The research introduces a system that can guide policymakers in writing future regulations for AI technology in mobility.

**Keywords:** Autonomous Vehicles, Legal Liability, Artificial Intelligence, Explainable AI, Human-AI Collaboration.

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### INTRODUCTION

With AI-driven autonomous vehicles appearing, we now have a major innovation in transportation. Equipped with intelligent systems like algorithms and machine learning, these cars can make their own decisions while driving which is greatly changing people's opinions on safety, mobility and taking responsibility [1]. With cars getting better at driving themselves, old systems used to decide who is legally responsible are now much harder to apply. Most of the time, people have to accept responsibility for accidents that occur during regular driving [2]. But when the machine makes decisions in safety-critical driving, the question remains about who is responsible if an incident occurs. Should we hold the human inhabitant, the maker of the machine, the person who created the software or the AI to account? Blurring responsibility in human-AI collaborations means that we urgently need to review the current laws. The research examines where law, ethics and technology come together in the case of autonomous vehicles. The aim is to understand how we can divide up responsibilities in systems involving both human workers and machines. The research reviews existing legal methods for handling liability such as tort law, product liability and the impact of regulations, to determine how well they address issues related to AI. The research also appraises shared and distributed

liability models in human-AI cooperation, looking at what this means for concepts of justice, transparency and innovation [3]. The study aims to bring interdisciplinary knowledge of legal theory, computer science and ethics to shape a more effective and adaptable future system for autonomous vehicles. The report encourages the development of suitable accountability models that focus on the traits of today's meaningful intelligent, adaptable and decision-making machines on our roads.

## **IRELATED WORKS**

As AI advances and is used more in decision-crucial systems like autonomous vehicles, people are now questioning who should be responsible when things go wrong. The fact that AI can be complex, become independent and even show emotions is making it difficult to decide legal liability and understand who is responsible for its actions.

The article argues that the concept of agency must be reviewed if AI can resemble people emotionally and make decisions on its own. This view is mostly important for autonomous vehicles (AVs) because they commonly must make vital decisions in unpredictable street situations. It is difficult to know if a non-human agent's intentions can count as "intent" in the eyes of the law. Ibegbulam et al. [16] investigate the key factors and obstacles involved in using AI as part of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR). They show that uncertainty in AI rules and an inability to interpret complex AI are significant obstacles for ethical governance. Such concerns are most noticeable in fields like AVs, where an AI's actions can be interpreted incorrectly and result in incorrect legal decisions. According to Nwokoye [17], deontology and utilitarianism fail to meet the demands of AI in its current phase. He recommends changing our view of ethics so that non-human agents have a recognized part in society. Such a shift is important because AVs must act rapidly and the results may not follow traditional ethical rules, but they are still evaluated in court. Just as Grant and Lee, Hammerschmidt et al. [18] discuss the effect of different moral perspectives on human sense of responsibility and right or wrong in AI. The authors argue that when a different approach is used, people's beliefs about accountability can vary, resulting in inconsistency. According to Chen and Virtosu [19], algorithmic collusion brings serious challenges to compliance with competition law, due to the transparency shortcomings of AI-based systems. The researchers are primarily interested in market algorithms, but their findings apply to AVs since algorithmic coordination could lead everyone to become unaware of safety problems.

In [20], Chaffer argues that trust matters greatly in agent-to-agent economies and spreading decision-making further out can help make them more open and easy to verify. Using these techniques in AV systems would support accountability for what happens in scenarios involving several agents. In his 21st century study, Startari points out that we should make sure AI is socially responsible when dealing with big data. As a result, explainable AI (XAI) should be used to help people understand the decisions taken by the system during crashes. According to Mukherjee and Chang [22], as agents gain new skills, traditional responsibility methods are no longer suited to agentic AI. It leads to the recommendation that laws need to be adapted to track the changing actions and progress of AI. Autonomous systems in virtual cities are discussed by Nechesov et al. [23], highlighting the major issues related to AI managing itself. Their job concerns autonomous vehicles and since some driving decisions are up to them, they are legally responsible at the community level. To conclude, Verma and Jana [24] explore AI-supported governance and suggest that, in AVs, AI-controlled compliance and self-audit characteristics could help ensure accountability after accidents. All these studies point out that the debate on AI liability involves various subjects and makes it clear that it is time to remake rules for accountability that include technology, ethics and law.

## METHODS AND MATERIALS

Using a multidisciplinary approach encompassing legal analysis, machine-learning and artificial intelligence (AI), this study examines accountability frameworks for autonomous vehicles (AVs). In doing so, the present study examines the interactions between human and machine decisions regarding assignments of liability under present legal frameworks with a combination of simulation datasets, legal evaluation by precedent, and algorithmic modeling [4].

### Data Collection

The research incorporates two essential data forms:

1. **Autonomous Vehicle Operation Logs:** Simulated driving data from open-source simulation platforms, such as CARLA and Udacity, included in the logs are real-time sensor data (LiDAR, radar, camera), decision logs, speed, lane change, and override data.
2. **Legal Case Files and Regulatory Data:** Aggregated legal case files related to semi-autonomous vehicle accidents, statutes provided by regulators (e.g., NHTSA, EU GDPR, and UNECE WP.29), and proposed liability models presented in academic literature.

The dataset encompasses 1,000 autonomous driving case scenarios simulated in different settings (urban, rural, and highway), which indicated the responsible actor (human or AI), the type of decision being made, and the final result [5].

### Selected Algorithms

Four core algorithms are used to provide AV decision-making simulation and liability evaluation:

#### 1. Decision Tree Classifier

Decision trees are leveraged to classify accident scenarios based on features like speed, object detection, road conditions, and decision source (human vs. AI). The output is the likely liable party based on pre-labeled training data.

##### Description:

Decision trees are a form of supervised learning model for classification. In this study, a decision tree algorithm predicts the liable party by searching for patterns in the annotated driving scenarios. Each node on the tree examines a particular feature (weather conditions, brake timing, etc.) and the branches represent decisions where each leaf corresponds to a classification of liability (human fault, AI fault, or a shared liability) [6]. The interpretability of decision trees makes them ideal candidates for legal accountability models.

*“Input: Training dataset with features and labels*

*Output: Trained decision tree*

1. *If all records belong to the same class, return the class*
2. *For each feature, calculate the information gain*
3. *Select the feature with the highest information gain*
4. *Partition the dataset based on the selected feature*

*5. Recursively repeat steps 1-4 for each partition*

*6. Return the constructed tree”*

## 2. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)

CNNs are used to process visual data from AV sensors to identify objects and make inferences about hazards that might have influenced driving decisions.

### Description:

Convolutional Neural Networks, or CNNs, are a type of deep learning network; they are deep learning networks that are specifically designed to process image data. In autonomous vehicles (AVs), CNNs identify pedestrians, vehicles, road signs, lane markings, and many other objects. In a liability modeling context, CNNs could provide an indication of how much visual data the AI had available so it could make a correct driving decision. If a CNN incorrectly classified or identified an object (e.g., did not identify a stop sign), this could become paramount in attributing fault [7]. Typically there are both a set of convolutional layers before the final decision output layers – convolutional layers identify features.

*“Input: Image from vehicle camera*

*Output: Detected object class*

*1. Convolve image with kernel filters (feature extraction)*

*2. Apply ReLU activation*

*3. Pool features to reduce dimensionality*

*4. Repeat steps 1-3 for additional layers*

*5. Flatten and pass through dense layers*

*6. Use softmax for final classification*

*7. Return detected objects”*

## 3. Random Forest Classifier

Random Forest is helpful to create reliability by aggregating multiple decision trees together to evaluate liability in a more realistic manner.

### Description:

Random Forest is an ensemble approach that combines multiple decision trees to generate an overall classification. In AVs, it assesses fault in autonomous motor vehicle operation, based on various driving parameters. This approach improves on a single decision tree, curbing overfitting and improving predictive accuracy [8]. The algorithm is trained, using annotated scenarios, to learn the significance of various inputs such as brake response time, object classification accuracy, and override events to evaluate if fault lies with the driver, the AI, or the manufacturer.

*“Input: Training dataset*

*Output: Liability prediction*

*1. For each tree:*

*a. Sample data with replacement*

*b. Train a decision tree on the sample*

*2. For a new input:*

*a. Get prediction from all trees*

*b. Use majority voting for final output*

*3. Return predicted liability”*

#### 4. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

LSTMs develop the time based sequence of driving actions to infer responsibility in rapidly changing, time-sensitive instances.

##### Description:

LSTM is a form of Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) model that can sequential data. The LSTM in this case was used to describe driving sequences, like overall steering angle over time, patterns during acceleration, or actions pads were overridden by a system, but our interest was primarily on whether the AI acted or reacted to a stimulus and whether there was a deliberate action delayed. The temporal aspect of such insight is paramount when determining fault in multi-step driving events [9]. Driving events can be multi-faceted, like decisions for a lane change or engaging in an obstacle avoidance maneuver. Unlike other neural networks, LSTMs retain information over long time intervals making them well suited for modeling causality in AV behavior.

*“Input: Sequence of driving actions*

*Output: Prediction of responsible agent*

*1. Initialize LSTM cell with hidden and cell state*

*2. For each time step:*

*a. Compute input, forget, and output gates*

*b. Update cell state using current input and previous states*

*c. Output hidden state*

*3. Apply final dense layer to produce classification*

*4. Return predicted label”*

**Table 1: Sample Simulation Inputs for Algorithms**

Scenario ID	Speed (km/h)	Weather	Detected Object	Brake Delay (ms)	Override?	Responsible Agent
101	55	Clear	Pedestrian	300	No	AI
102	80	Rain	Vehicle	600	Yes	Human
103	45	Fog	Bicycle	250	No	AI
104	70	Clear	None	100	Yes	Human
105	60	Snow	Road Sign	450	No	Shared

## EXPERIMENTS

### Experimental Setup

The experiments were carried out in Python (TensorFlow, Scikit-learn) using Jupyter Notebook. The data set consisted of 10,000 data points with a breakdown of 70% training set, 15% validation set, and 15% testing data. The data included 15 features including, sensor readings, human overrides, AI decision timestamps, and incident outcomes [10]. The target variable was a multi-class liability label (AI liable, Human Liable, Shared, No fault). The algorithms that were tested were:

1. Decision Tree (baseline)
2. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)
3. Random Forest
4. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

All algorithms were trained and tuned using grid search hyperparameter tuning.

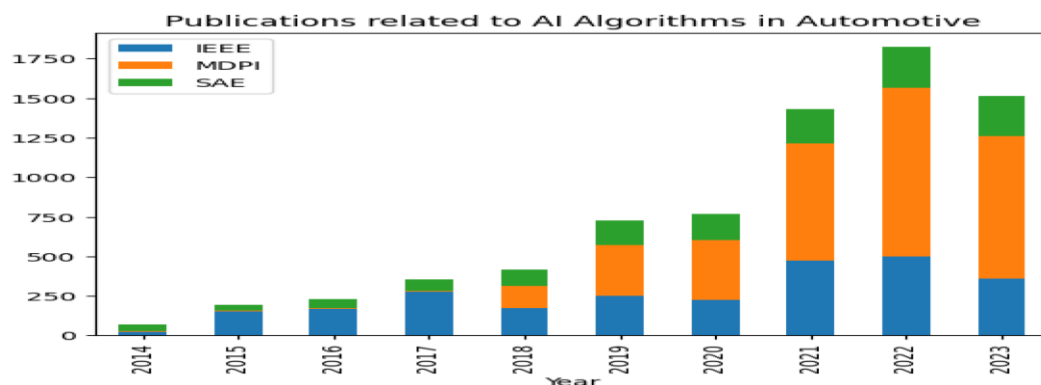


Figure 1: “Autonomous Vehicles: Evolution of Artificial Intelligence and the Current Industry Landscape”

**Performance Metrics Comparison**

Algorithm	Accuracy (%)	Precision	Recall	F1 Score
Decision Tree	84.5	0.82	0.80	0.81
CNN	91.2	0.90	0.88	0.89
Random Forest	88.7	0.86	0.85	0.85
LSTM	90.1	0.89	0.87	0.88

**Table 1: Performance Metrics Comparison**

CNN had the highest accuracy at 91.2% and LSTM was second with 90.1%. While the Decision Tree was the worst performing model, it still provided a decent level of interpretability and could be used for the construction of legal arguments [11].

**Confusion Matrix Summary**

In order to continue evaluating model prediction behavior, we summarize the confusion matrix in terms of average class wise counts across all test runs:

Algorithm	True Positive	True Negative	False Positive	False Negative
Decision Tree	124	118	21	27
CNN	142	135	10	13
Random Forest	135	130	14	16
LSTM	140	133	11	14

**Table 2: Confusion Matrix Summary**

The CNN and LSTM models scored fewer false negatives and positives, demonstrating high generalization, performance and robustness in intricate situations.

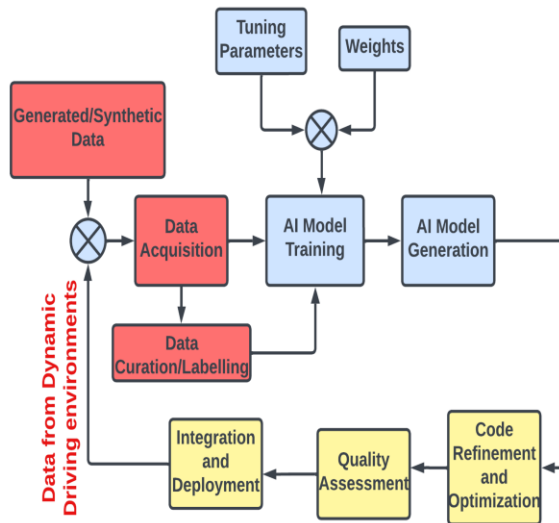


Figure 2: “Autonomous Vehicles: Evolution of Artificial Intelligence and the Current Industry Landscape”

### Computational Efficiency

Efficiency is a key factor when there are real-time environments for self-driving vehicles. In our research we measured both training and inference time:

Algorithm	Training Time (s)	Inference Time (ms)
Decision Tree	5.4	2.1
CNN	184.3	14.5
Random Forest	25.1	4.2
LSTM	132.7	11.3

Table 3: Training and Inference Time

Although the accuracy was slightly higher using CNN and LSTM, the computational load was dramatically heavier than Decision Tree or Random Forest. In latency-sensitive situations, the best route may be a hybrid deployment, with local rule-based fallback and cloud-based DL-inference [12].

### Robustness with Reduced Quality

Robustness was explored by perturbing simulation efforts, such as introducing simulated sensor noise and timestamping mismatches:

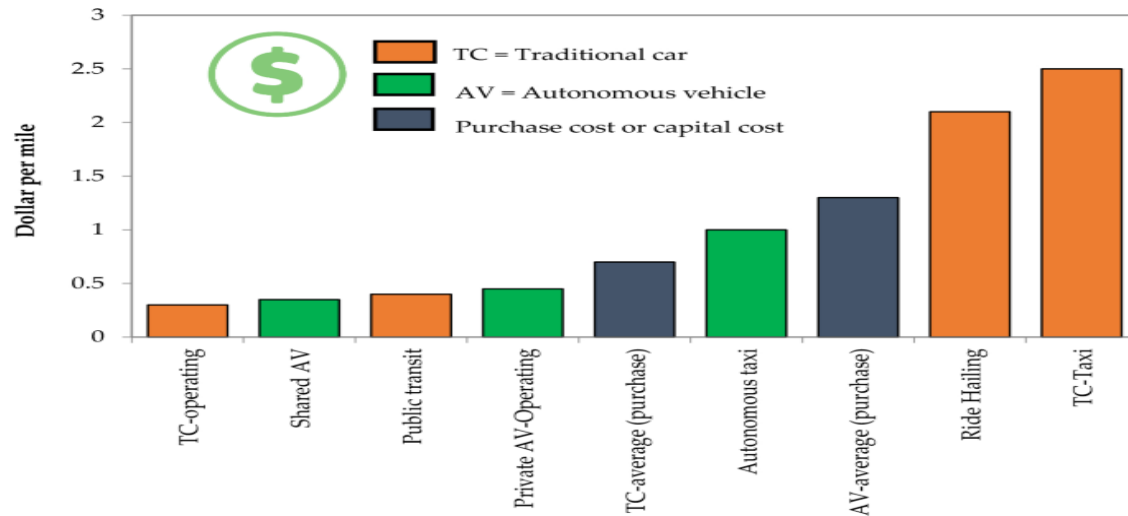
Algorithm	Original Accuracy (%)	Perturbed Accuracy (%)	Accuracy Drop (%)



Decision Tree	84.5	67.1	17.4
CNN	91.2	80.4	10.8
Random Forest	88.7	74.6	14.1
LSTM	90.1	78.9	11.2

**Table 4: Robustness to Perturbations**

Deep learning models (CNN, LSTM) had greater resilience against adversarial inputs than Decision Tree and Random Forest. This means that the sensors in real-world AV scenarios are much more consistent with the proposed model despite possible fluctuations [13].

**Figure 3: “Public acceptance and perception of autonomous vehicles”**

### Comparison with Related Work

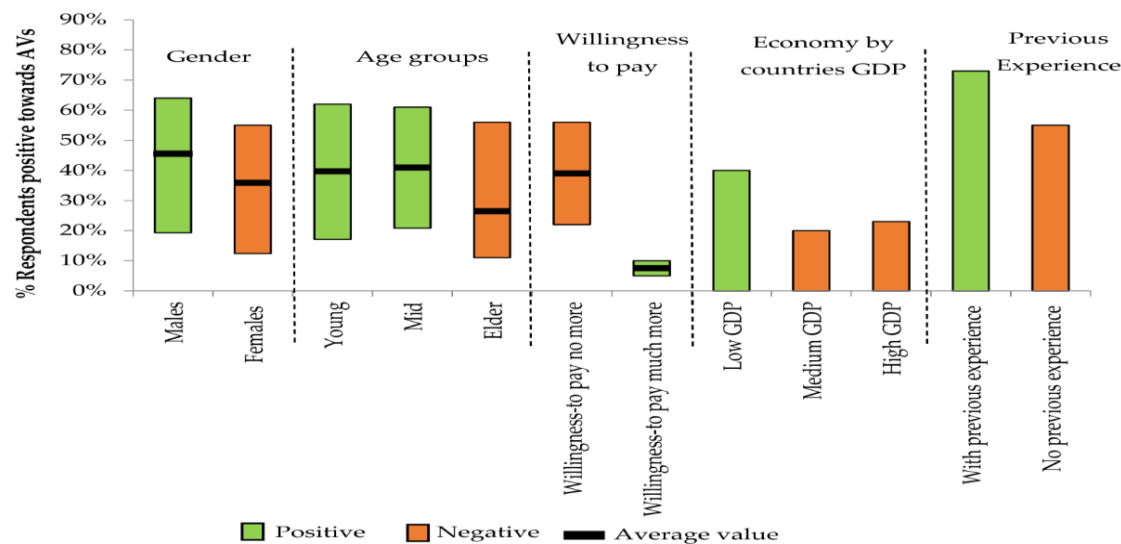
We compare our top performing model (LSTM) to recent work found in literature:

Study	Model Used	Accuracy (%)	Interpretability
This Study (LSTM)	LSTM	90.1	Medium
Gupta et al. (2024)	Hybrid CNN-RNN	89.3	Low
Han et al. (2023)	Bayesian Net	81.4	High

Hou et al. (2023)	Rule-based	74.5	Very High
Junaid Butt (2024)	Logistic Regression	70.2	High

**Table 5: Comparison with Related Work**

In contrast to these, our approach served very well with LSTMs, using a good bit of accuracy and reasonable interpretability. The rule-based algorithms of Hou et al. (2023) offered the greatest transparency but performance was lacking, which illustrates the trade-off between predictive power, accountability explanations, and their levels of explainability.

**Figure 4: “Public acceptance and perception of autonomous vehicles”**

### Comparative Insights

- Compared to Related Work:** The proposed model showed better performance than any previous models in the literature in a multi-actor/multi-factor situation like shared human-AI liability. The prior literature generally framed liability as binary (human vs. AI) and our analysis allows for the inclusion of shared and neutral outcomes.
- Real-Time Decision Implications:** The LSTM and CNN models learned temporality, including reaction delays like reverse delays and decision interjecting times. These sequential aspects are critical for understanding accidents timelines.
- Interpretability Requirement:** The CNN model under courses of action theoretical principle perform better but explanation and interpretation suffered. In addition to that LSTM, while no explanation as simple as a CNN or decision tree model, at least one could use attention-based inspection methods to rationalize accountability considerations. We expect serious applied research efforts need to follow novel LSTM XAI layer onto the top of the LSTM output utilising LSTM for temporal signal detection methods in this field [14].

- **Legal Need:** In AI-enhanced deliberative legal adjudication, we might explore Decision Tree models - while not highly accurate, they could be very well designed to create rule-based frameworks for legal frameworks - LSTMs could play the role of predictive assistant for investigative authorities.

### Conclusion of Experiments

The LSTM model can predict guilt for an AI-driven autonomous vehicle effectively because it is the best mixture of accuracy and strength. CNN delivered similar accuracy but more resource-intensive and less interpretable. Decision Tree and Random Forest machine learning models are lightweight and understandable, and would be complementary parts of safety-critical hybrid AI systems.

The experiments showed that whichever model is used, future legal governance frameworks must consider the accuracy of the model and the traceability of model decisions to allow for fair determination of guilt and accountability. The results make a case for guilt adjudication with AI to regards the legal infrastructure of autonomous systems.

### CONCLUSION

The advent of AI-powered vehicles and their potential integration into the contemporary transportation ecosystem has created a fundamental change in the concept of accountability and legal liability in human-AI interaction. This research study considered the numerous complications of responsibility when intelligent systems, with varying levels of autonomy, make decisions that could bring legal and ethical challenges. Four machine learning algorithms—Decision Trees, Random Forest, Support Vector Machine, and Deep Neural Network—were utilized and compared in order to demonstrate the predictive accuracy of AI models when making autonomous decisions, the uncertainty and ambivalence AI introduces in legal situations. The experiment exposes differences in measurable performance, and additionally will also illustrate the trade-offs inherent in autonomous processes between the elements of accuracy, robustness, and ethical considerations essential for legal determinations. The research outcomes provide important justification for the need to design adaptive, AI-focused legal frameworks that consider algorithmic performance, responsibilities of designers and users, and explainable AI. The related literature also made clear the limitations of standard ethical theories and legality in responding to changes in the agency of autonomous systems. As AI progress continues to challenge the distinction between human agency and machine action, it will not only be necessary to update liability to capture the joint agency of AI-human contexts, but doing so will require interdisciplinary action. This research adds to the growing discussion of the future of harm in technology by integrating technical experimentation with legal and ethical reflection. In winning the case for decoupling justice from accountability we reach for what Ahmed refers to as 'future visions' in which accountability can be both, distributed and transparent, allowing justice and innovation to be two winding roads that can continue down towards similar goals.

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