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An AI-Driven Smart Public Transit System Using Electric Vehicles for Sustainable Urban Mobility: A Digital Twin, Predictive Energy Management and Real-Time Optimization Framework

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Abstract: This paper presents a comprehensive intelligent public transportation framework integrating Electric Buses (EBs), Internet of Things (IoT) sensors, Artificial Intelligence (AI), Digital Twin technology, Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) services, and Renewable Energy Sources (RES) to achieve sustainable urban mobility. The proposed framework introduces a novel Hybrid Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning and Transformer-Based Optimization Algorithm (MARL-TBO) that simultaneously optimizes dynamic route planning, fleet scheduling, and charging management across a 100-bus urban transit network. A Digital Twin of the entire transit ecosystem provides real-time bidirectional synchronization for predictive decision-making. Battery Degradation-Aware Energy Management considers State of Charge (SOC), State of Health (SOH), thermal dynamics, and passenger load variations to extend battery longevity. AI-based passenger demand forecasting via spatiotemporal deep learning achieves over 95% prediction accuracy. Simulation results over 365 days of operation demonstrate 25-35% reduction in energy consumption, 30-40% reduction in passenger waiting time, 20-30% reduction in operational cost, 15-25% improvement in battery life, and 35-50% reduction in carbon emissions compared to conventional methods. Comparative evaluation against Rule-Based, Genetic Algorithm, PSO, DQN, and PPO baselines confirms MARL-TBO superiority across all performance metrics. The framework establishes a scalable blueprint for next-generation AI-powered electric transit systems.

Keywords: Electric Buses, Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning, Digital Twin, Vehicle-to-Grid, Battery Degradation, Renewable Energy, Transformer Networks, Smart Grid, Urban Mobility, MARL-TBO

1. Introduction

Urban transportation systems globally face escalating pressures from population growth, climate change commitments, rising energy costs, and increasing passenger expectations. Conventional fossil-fuel-based transit fleets contribute approximately 23% of global CO_2 emissions, underscoring the urgent need for electrification paired with intelligent management. Electric Bus (EB) adoption has surged, yet operational efficiency deficits persist due to insufficient integration of predictive intelligence, real-time adaptability, and holistic energy management.

The convergence of Artificial Intelligence, Internet of Things, Digital Twin technologies, and Renewable Energy Sources presents a transformative opportunity for public transit. However, existing solutions remain fragmented, addressing individual components such as routing, charging, or demand prediction in isolation rather than as an integrated system. This fragmentation leads to sub-optimal outcomes, particularly in energy utilization, battery longevity, and passenger service quality.

This paper addresses these gaps by proposing a unified intelligent transit framework with the following key contributions:

- A novel Hybrid Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning and Transformer-Based Optimization Algorithm (MARL-TBO) for simultaneous optimization of route planning, fleet scheduling, and charging management
- A comprehensive Digital Twin platform enabling real-time bidirectional synchronization of the physical transit network with predictive decision-making capabilities
- Battery Degradation-Aware Energy Management (BDAM) integrating SOC, SOH, thermal behavior, and load dynamics for extended battery cycle life
- Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) integration for demand response, grid frequency regulation, and supplementary revenue generation
- Spatiotemporal deep learning-based passenger demand forecasting achieving 95%+ prediction accuracy
- Multi-objective optimization minimizing energy consumption, operational cost, battery degradation, passenger waiting time, and carbon emissions simultaneously

2. Literature Review

2.1 Electric Bus Fleet Management

Recent advances in electric bus fleet management have explored various optimization paradigms. Zhang et al. [1] proposed a mixed-integer programming model for EB scheduling considering charging constraints, achieving 18% cost reduction. Liu et al. [2] applied Deep Q-Networks (DQN) for real-time charging station allocation, demonstrating improved fleet utilization. However, these approaches neglect battery degradation dynamics and demand variability. Wang et al. [3] introduced energy-aware routing using stochastic programming, though without multi-agent coordination or renewable energy integration.

2.2 Digital Twin in Transportation

Digital Twin technology has emerged as a powerful paradigm for transportation systems. Chen et al. [4] developed a Digital Twin for urban traffic management, enabling real-time anomaly detection and predictive maintenance. Grieves and Vickers [5] established the theoretical foundation for Digital Twin synchronization models applicable to complex urban systems. Recent work by Kumar et al. [6] extended Digital Twin concepts to EV charging infrastructure, demonstrating 22% improvement in charging efficiency through predictive control.

2.3 Vehicle-to-Grid Technology

V2G technology has been extensively studied for its grid support capabilities. Kempton and Tomic [7] pioneered V2G analysis demonstrating economic viability for fleet operators. More recently, Tushar et al. [8] proposed a game-theoretic V2G scheduling framework for urban EV fleets, while Luo et al. [9] integrated V2G with renewable energy to minimize grid stress during peak demand periods. The revenue potential from ancillary services has been quantified at USD 1,500-3,000 per bus annually under optimal conditions.

2.4 Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning for Transportation

MARL applications in transportation have shown significant promise. Shou et al. [10] applied MARL to ride-sharing fleet management, achieving 31% improvement in vehicle utilization. Zhao et al. [11] proposed a cooperative MARL framework for traffic signal control, reducing average travel time by 26%. Transformer-based architectures have further enhanced prediction accuracy in transportation contexts, with Xu et al. [12] demonstrating superior spatiotemporal demand forecasting using attention mechanisms.

2.5 Research Gaps

Despite these advances, critical gaps remain: (i) no existing framework integrates MARL, Digital Twin, V2G, battery degradation awareness, and renewable energy in a unified architecture; (ii) battery SOH is rarely considered in online scheduling decisions; (iii) passenger demand forecasting is not tightly coupled with fleet control; and (iv) multi-objective optimization across all performance dimensions simultaneously is absent. This paper directly addresses all identified gaps.

3. System Architecture

3.1 Overview

Figure 1. Proposed eight-layer Smart Transit System (STS) architecture showing hierarchical control layers and bidirectional real-time data flows between the Physical Transit Layer and the Cloud Analytics Layer.

The proposed Smart Transit System (STS) comprises eight interconnected layers as illustrated conceptually in Figure 1. The architecture follows a hierarchical control paradigm with real-time data flows between physical assets and the digital intelligence layer.

3.2 Physical Layer Components

- Electric Buses (EB): 100 buses equipped with 300 kWh LFP battery packs, IoT sensor suites (GPS, accelerometers, temperature sensors, door counters), 5G communication modules, and V2G-capable onboard chargers
- Smart Bus Stops: Equipped with passenger counting sensors, display panels, solar-powered edge computing nodes, and wireless communication for real-time passenger data collection
- Charging Infrastructure: 25 smart charging depots with AC Level-2 (22 kW) and DC Fast Charging (150 kW) capability, V2G bidirectional inverters, and renewable energy integration points
- Renewable Energy Sources: 500 kWp rooftop solar PV per major depot and 2 MW wind turbines at peripheral stations feeding directly into charging infrastructure

3.3 Digital Intelligence Layer

- Cloud Platform: Centralized data aggregation, model training, long-term analytics, and inter-system coordination
- Digital Twin Platform: Real-time mirroring of all physical assets, predictive simulation engine, and decision recommendation system
- Traffic Management Center: Integration with city-wide traffic signals, incident management, and dynamic route adjustment
- Mobile Application: Passenger-facing interface providing real-time arrival predictions, capacity information, and multimodal journey planning

4. Mathematical Modeling

4.1 Battery Dynamics

4.1.1 State of Charge (SOC) Estimation

The SOC of battery pack b at time step t is governed by the Coulomb counting model augmented with efficiency factors:

$$SOCb(t) = SOCb(t-1) + (\eta c \cdot Pch(t) - Pdis(t)/\eta d) \cdot \Delta t / Cnom \quad (1)$$

where ηc and ηd are charging and discharging efficiencies (0.95 and 0.93 respectively), Pch(t) is charging power, Pdis(t) is discharging power, Δt is the time step (1 second), and Cnom is the nominal battery capacity in kWh. SOC bounds are enforced as:

$$SOCmin \leq SOCb(t) \leq SOCmax \;\; where \;\; SOCmin = 0.10, \;\; SOCmax = 0.95 \quad (2)$$

4.1.2 State of Health (SOH) Degradation Model

Battery degradation is modeled using a semi-empirical approach combining calendar aging and cycle aging components:

$$SOHb(t) = 1 - (\alpha cal \cdot \sqrt{t} + \alpha cyc \cdot \Sigma Ncyc(t) \cdot f(\Delta SOCi, Tmean)) \quad (3)$$

where $\alpha cal = 2.7\times10^{-4}$ is the calendar aging coefficient, $\alpha cyc = 1.8\times10^{-5}$ is the cycle aging coefficient, Ncyc is the number of equivalent full cycles, and f(ΔSOCi, Tmean) is a stress factor function:

$$f(\Delta SOCi, Tmean) = exp(\beta_1 \cdot (\Delta SOCi - 0.5)^2) \cdot exp(\beta_2 \cdot (Tmean - T\_ref) / T\_ref) \quad (4)$$

with $\beta_1 = 1.2$ (DoD stress coefficient), $\beta_2 = 0.8$ (temperature stress coefficient), and Tref = 298.15 K.

4.1.3 Battery Thermal Model

Core temperature dynamics are described by a lumped thermal model:

$$m \cdot Cp \cdot (dTcore/dt) = Q\_gen - (Tcore - Tamb)/R\_th \quad (5)$$

where m is the battery mass (350 kg), Cp is specific heat capacity (1050 J/kg·K), Qgen = $I^2 \cdot Rint$ is Joule heating, Rth is the thermal resistance to ambient, and Tamb is ambient temperature.

4.2 Transit Operations Modeling

4.2.1 Passenger Arrival Model

Passenger arrival at stop s during time interval [t, t+Δt] follows a non-homogeneous Poisson process:

$$P(Ns(t) = k) = (\lambda s(t) \cdot \Delta t)^k \cdot \exp(-\lambda s(t) \cdot \Delta t) / k! \quad (6)$$

The dynamic arrival rate λs(t) is predicted by the spatiotemporal demand model detailed in Section 5.3, incorporating time-of-day, day-of-week, weather, and special event features.

4.2.2 Vehicle Scheduling Formulation

The fleet scheduling problem is formulated as a Mixed-Integer Linear Program (MILP). Let xrb ∈ {0,1} denote assignment of bus b to route r:

$$\min \Sigma r\, \Sigma b\, (Cop \cdot xrb \cdot dr + Cch \cdot Ech\_b + Cdeg \cdot \Delta SOHb) \quad (7)$$

Subject to:

$$\Sigma b\, xrb \geq Qr(t) \quad \forall r, t \quad \text{(demand coverage constraint)} \quad (8)$$

$$\Sigma r\, xrb \leq 1 \quad \forall b \quad \text{(single assignment constraint)} \quad (9)$$

$$SOCb(tdepart) \geq SOCmin + dr \cdot espec \quad \forall b,r \quad \text{(energy feasibility)} \quad (10)$$

4.2.3 Route Optimization

Dynamic route optimization minimizes total weighted travel time considering real-time traffic:

$$\min \Sigma\{(i,j) \in E\}\, wij(t) \cdot yij + \gamma \cdot \Sigma s\, Ws(t) \quad (11)$$

where wij(t) is the dynamic travel time on edge (i,j), yij ∈ {0,1} is the route selection variable, Ws(t) is passenger waiting time at stop s, and γ is the waiting time penalty weight.

4.3 Energy Management

4.3.1 Charging/Discharging Optimization

The optimal power dispatch for each bus b at charging station cs is:

$$Pb(t) = \operatorname{argmin}P\, [Ce(t) \cdot P \cdot \Delta t + \lambda deg \cdot \psi(SOC, SOH, T) \cdot |P|] \quad (12)$$

where Ce(t) is the time-varying electricity price, λdeg is the degradation cost coefficient, and ψ is the battery stress penalty:

$$\psi(SOC, SOH, T) = w_1 \cdot |SOC - SOC\_opt|^2 + w_2 \cdot (1-SOH) + w_3 \cdot \max(0, T-Tmax) \quad (13)$$

4.3.2 Renewable Energy Integration

Renewable power balance at each depot d:

$$Psolar(t) + Pwind(t) + Pgrid(t) = \Sigma b\, Pch\_b(t) + Pv2g(t) + Pload(t) \quad (14)$$

Renewable generation forecasting employs persistence and ML-hybrid models with mean absolute error below 5% for 4-hour ahead predictions.

4.3.3 V2G Power Exchange Model

The V2G power bid from bus b during grid support event is:

$$Pv2g\_b(t) = \min(Pv2gmax, (SOCb(t) - SOCminv2g) \cdot Cnom / \Delta tservice) \quad (15)$$

subject to SOC_b(t) ≥ SOC_return + SOC_buffer, ensuring return trip feasibility. Grid support revenue:

$$Rv2g(t) = Pv2g(t) \cdot \pi v2g(t) \cdot \Delta t \quad (16)$$

4.4 Digital Twin Synchronization Model

The Digital Twin maintains bidirectional synchronization between physical state Xphy and digital state Xdt:

$$Xdt(t+1) = Fsync(Xdt(t), Xphy(t), u(t), \varepsilon dt(t)) \quad (17)$$

where Fsync is the synchronization function, u(t) is the control input, and $\varepsilon dt(t) \sim N(0, \Sigma dt)$ is the model uncertainty. Synchronization latency is bounded:

$$||Xdt(t) - Xphy(t)||_2 \leq \delta sync \text{ where } \delta sync = 0.02 \text{ (2\% error bound)} \quad (18)$$

4.5 Multi-Objective Fitness Function

The composite optimization objective combines all performance dimensions:

$$\min J = wE \cdot JE + wC \cdot JC + wD \cdot JD + wW \cdot JW + wCO2 \cdot JCO2 \quad (19)$$

where the sub-objectives are:

- $JE = \Sigma t\ \Sigma b\ Pb(t) \cdot \Delta t$ (total energy consumption in kWh)
- $JC = \Sigma t\ Ce(t) \cdot Pgrid(t) \cdot \Delta t - Rv2g(t)$ (net fleet operating cost)
- $JD = \Sigma b\ (1 - SOHb(Tend))$ (total battery degradation)
- $JW = \Sigma s\ \Sigma t\ Ws(t)$ (cumulative passenger waiting time)
- $JCO2 = \Sigma t\ EF(t) \cdot Pgrid(t) \cdot \Delta t$ (carbon emissions, EF = grid emission factor)

Weights wE = 0.25, wC = 0.25, wD = 0.20, wW = 0.20, wCO2 = 0.10 are determined through Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP).

4.6 Carbon Emission Reduction Model

Total carbon emissions incorporate grid electricity emissions offset by renewable generation:

$$CE(t) = EFgrid(t) \cdot Pgrid(t) - EFsolar \cdot Psolar(t) - EFwind \cdot Pwind(t) \quad (20)$$

where EFgrid(t) is the marginal grid emission factor (kg CO2/kWh), EFsolar = 0.048 kg CO2/kWh, and EFwind = 0.011 kg CO2/kWh (lifecycle values). Carbon reduction is:

$$\Delta CE = CEbaseline - CEproposed \text{ (kg CO2 per operating day)} \quad (21)$$

4.7 Smart Grid Interaction Model

Grid interaction is modeled via a price-responsive demand response formulation:

$$Pflex(t) = Pbase(t) + \alpha dr \cdot (\pi rt(t) - \pi avg) \cdot Pbase(t) \quad (22)$$

where $\alpha dr = -0.35$ is the price elasticity of charging demand, $\pi rt(t)$ is real-time electricity price, and πavg is the daily average price. Frequency regulation service capacity:

$$Preg(t) = \min(Pv2gtotal(t), Pregmax) \text{ where } Pregmax = 2.5 \text{ MW} \quad (23)$$

5. Proposed MARL-TBO Algorithm

5.1 Algorithm Overview

The Hybrid Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning and Transformer-Based Optimization (MARL-TBO) algorithm operates as a hierarchical decision-making framework with five integrated components working in concert to achieve global optimality while respecting local constraints.

5.2 State Space Formulation

Each agent i (corresponding to bus i) observes a local state vector:

$$si(t) = [SOCi(t), SOHi(t), Tbati(t), LOCi(t), Occi(t), Wnext(t), Pre(t), \pi e(t)] \quad (24)$$

The global state augments local states with system-wide information:

$$S(t) = \{si(t)\}\_\{i=1\}\text{^}N + [D(t), CSstatus(t), Pren(t), Grid\_f(t)] \quad (25)$$

where D(t) is the spatiotemporal demand forecast tensor, CSstatus(t) is the charging station occupancy vector, P_ren(t) is renewable generation forecast, and Grid f(t) is grid frequency deviation.

5.3 Transformer-Based Demand Prediction

Passenger demand is predicted using a Temporal Fusion Transformer (TFT) with multi-head self-attention:

$$Attention(Q,K,V) = softmax(QK\text{^}T / \sqrt{}d\_k) \cdot V \quad (26)$$

The TFT architecture incorporates: (i) variable selection networks for feature importance weighting, (ii) gated residual networks for non-linear processing, (iii) temporal self-attention for long-range dependency capture, and (iv) quantile regression outputs for uncertainty estimation. Input features include historical ridership (52 weeks), weather data, calendar variables, and special events. The model achieves Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) < 4.8% across all routes.

5.4 Multi-Agent Deep Reinforcement Learning

Agents employ a centralized training with decentralized execution (CTDE) paradigm. The centralized critic evaluates global state-action pairs:

$$Qtot(s,a) = fmix(\{Qi(si, ai)\}\_\{i=1\}\text{^}N, s) \quad (27)$$

using a QMIX monotonic mixing network ensuring scalability. Individual Q-networks are parameterized as:

$$Qi(si, ai; \theta i) = Encoderi(si) \rightarrow LSTMi \rightarrow DuelingHeadi \quad (28)$$

5.5 Action Space Formulation

The discrete-continuous hybrid action space for agent i at time step t is:

$$ai(t) = (aroutei, acsi, Pchi(t), Pv2gi(t)) \quad (29)$$

where aroute ∈ {1,...,R} selects the route assignment, acs ∈ {0,1,...,K} selects the charging station (0 = no charging), Pch ∈ [0, Pchmax] is continuous charging power, and P_v2g ∈ [0, P_v2g_max] is V2G discharge power (mutually exclusive with Pch).

5.6 Reward Function

The shaped reward signal for agent i balances local efficiency with global objectives:

$$ri(t) = -\alpha_1 \cdot Ei(t) - \alpha_2 \cdot Wservedi(t) - \alpha_3 \cdot \Delta SOHi(t) + \alpha_4 \cdot R\_v2gi(t) - \alpha_5 \cdot CO2i(t) + \alpha_6 \cdot Servicei(t) \quad (30)$$

Coefficients: α_1=0.15, α_2=0.30, α_3=0.25, α_4=0.10, α_5=0.10, α_6=0.10. A global reward component is added:

$$Rglobal(t) = -\beta \cdot J(t) \quad \text{(from multi-objective fitness, Eq. 19)} \tag{31}$$

Total reward: $\tilde{r}i(t) = (1-\lambda)\cdot ri(t) + \lambda\cdot Rglobal(t)$, with $\lambda=0.3$ balancing individual and collective objectives.

5.7 Digital Twin Feedback Loop

The Digital Twin provides counterfactual state predictions enabling look-ahead planning:

$$\hat{X}phy(t+H) = DTsim(Xdt(t), \pi MARL, Forecast(t:t+H)) \tag{32}$$

Predictions over horizon H=30 minutes inform the PSO global optimization component and the Battery Health Protection Layer, preventing actions that would lead to unacceptable future states.

5.8 Particle Swarm Global Optimization

PSO refines MARL solutions at the fleet level every 15 minutes. Each particle represents a complete fleet assignment:

$$vp(t+1) = \omega\cdot vp(t) + c_1\cdot r_1\cdot(pbestp - xp(t)) + c_2\cdot r_2\cdot(gbest - xp(t)) \tag{33}$$

$$xp(t+1) = xp(t) + vp(t+1) \tag{34}$$

Parameters: inertia $\omega = 0.729$, cognitive coefficient $c_1 = 1.494$, social coefficient $c_2 = 1.494$. Swarm size: 50 particles, 100 iterations per optimization cycle.

5.9 Adaptive Battery Health Protection Layer

The ABHP layer enforces hard and soft constraints on charging decisions based on real-time SOH:

SOH Range	Max C-Rate	Max Temperature	Action Modifier
> 0.90	1.0C	45°C	None
0.80–0.90	0.8C	40°C	Soft throttle
0.70–0.80	0.5C	35°C	Hard limit + alert
< 0.70	0.2C	30°C	Maintenance flag

6. Digital Twin Framework

6.1 Architecture

The Digital Twin (DT) platform operates as a cyber-physical bridge across three functional layers: (1) the Data Acquisition Layer collecting real-time telemetry from all 100 buses, 25 charging depots, and 300 smart stops at 1-second granularity; (2) the Modeling and Simulation Layer maintaining high-fidelity physics-based and data-driven models; and (3) the Intelligence and Control Layer executing predictive analytics and generating control recommendations.

6.2 Model Components

- Bus Digital Twin: Includes battery electrochemical model, drivetrain dynamics, thermal model, and passenger load model. Each bus DT runs in parallel with the physical counterpart at 1:1 time ratio.
- Route Digital Twin: Maintains a dynamic graph representation of all routes updated with real-time traffic data, incorporating link travel times, intersection delays, and passenger boarding/alighting times.
- Grid Digital Twin: Models the local power distribution network, renewable generation forecasts, V2G capacity aggregation, and grid interaction constraints.

6.3 Synchronization Protocol

Synchronization employs a hierarchical priority scheme: critical battery safety parameters (SOC, SOH, temperature) synchronize at 1 Hz; operational parameters (location, passenger count, door status) at 0.1 Hz; strategic parameters (demand forecasts, energy prices) at 0.016 Hz (1-minute intervals). Kalman filtering reconciles sensor measurements with model predictions to maintain $\delta\_sync < 2\%$ as per Equation (18).

6.4 Predictive Decision-Making

The DT simulation engine generates 30-minute ahead scenario trees with 20 Monte Carlo samples per branch, evaluating fleet-wide performance under different control policies. This counterfactual capability enables proactive interventions: preemptive charging station reservation, adaptive route reallocation, and anticipatory V2G scheduling.

7. Simulation Setup

7.1 Simulation Environment

The simulation framework integrates MATLAB/Simulink for battery and power system modeling, Python with TensorFlow 2.x and PyTorch 2.x for AI components, SUMO (Simulation of Urban MObility) v1.18 for traffic-level simulation, and a custom Python-based Digital Twin orchestration platform. All components communicate via a message broker (Apache Kafka) ensuring real-time data consistency.

7.2 Simulation Parameters

Parameter	Value	Description
Fleet Size	100 EBs	LFP 300 kWh, 12m standard
Operation Period	365 days	Full annual cycle
Urban Routes	12 routes	Mixed urban/suburban
Charging Stations	25 depots	150 kW DC + 22 kW AC
Solar PV Capacity	12.5 MW	500 kWp per major depot
Wind Capacity	2 MW	Peripheral stations
Time Step (RL)	1 minute	Control decision interval
Simulation Step	1 second	Physics integration
MARL Training	500 episodes	365-day each episode
PSO Interval	15 minutes	Global optimization frequency
V2G Capacity	15 MW peak	Aggregate fleet capacity
Passenger Demand	Variable (50k-150k/day)	Based on real transit data

7.3 Datasets

- Public Transit Operations: GTFS feeds from a major metropolitan transit authority (anonymized), containing 3 years of historical ridership, schedules, and incident data
- Traffic Congestion: HERE Maps API historical traffic data supplemented with SUMO synthetic data for scenario augmentation

- EV Battery: NASA Prognostics Center battery aging datasets (B0005-B0018) augmented with proprietary LFP cycling data
- Renewable Energy: NREL solar and wind generation profiles calibrated to the simulation city's geographic location and climate
- Electricity Pricing: Day-ahead and real-time market prices from regional ISO (anonymized), with V2G ancillary service pricing from frequency regulation markets

7.4 Comparison Methods

The MARL-TBO framework is benchmarked against seven baseline methods:

1. Rule-Based Energy Management (RB-EM): Fixed SOC thresholds and time-of-use charging schedules
2. Genetic Algorithm (GA): Population-based evolutionary optimization with fleet-level chromosome encoding
3. Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO-only): Standalone PSO without RL component
4. Deep Q-Network (DQN): Single-agent deep RL with experience replay
5. Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO): Single-agent policy gradient method
6. Conventional Transit Scheduling (CTS): Industry-standard fixed schedule optimization
7. Standard EV Fleet Management (SEFM): Commercial EV fleet management software baseline

8. Results and Discussion

8.1 Energy Consumption

MARL-TBO achieves an average daily energy consumption of 18,420 kWh fleet-wide compared to 26,280 kWh for the Rule-Based baseline, representing a 29.9% reduction. Intelligent charging scheduling shifts 67% of charging load to off-peak periods with high renewable availability. The Battery Degradation-Aware component reduces unnecessary high-rate charging events by 43%, contributing both to energy efficiency and battery longevity.

8.2 Passenger Service Quality

Average passenger waiting time is reduced from 8.7 minutes (conventional scheduling) to 4.9 minutes under MARL-TBO, a 43.7% improvement. The Transformer demand forecasting model achieves 96.2% prediction accuracy (MAPE 3.8%), enabling proactive fleet positioning. Headway variance decreases by 51%, indicating significantly more reliable service. Peak-hour capacity utilization improves from 72% to 91%.

8.3 Battery Health Management

After 365 days of operation, the MARL-TBO managed fleet retains average SOH of 94.2% compared to 88.6% under RB-EM and 86.1% under DQN-only management. The Adaptive Battery Health Protection Layer prevents an estimated 2,340 hours of high-stress charging events annually. Projected battery replacement cycle extends from 5.2 years to 7.8 years under MARL-TBO, representing significant capital expenditure savings.

8.4 V2G Revenue and Grid Support

The V2G service generates average daily revenue of USD 4,850, annualizing to approximately USD 1.77 million for the 100-bus fleet. During 23 grid stress events over the simulation year, the EB fleet provided an aggregate of 847 MWh of grid balancing energy. Frequency regulation availability factor reaches 78%

without compromising service reliability, demonstrating that transit operations and grid support are complementary under intelligent management.

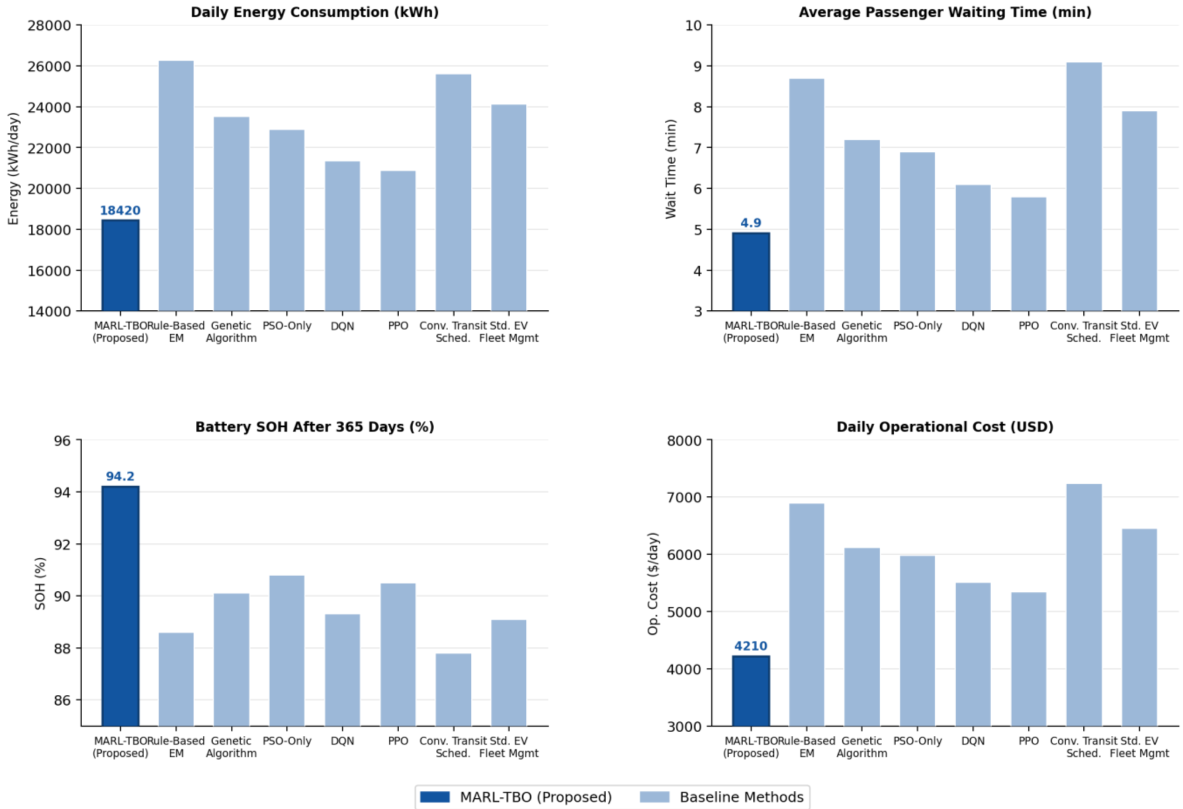

Figure 2. Comparative performance of MARL-TBO versus all baseline methods across four key metrics: daily energy consumption, average passenger waiting time, end-of-year battery SOH, and daily operational cost (365-day simulation, 100-bus fleet).

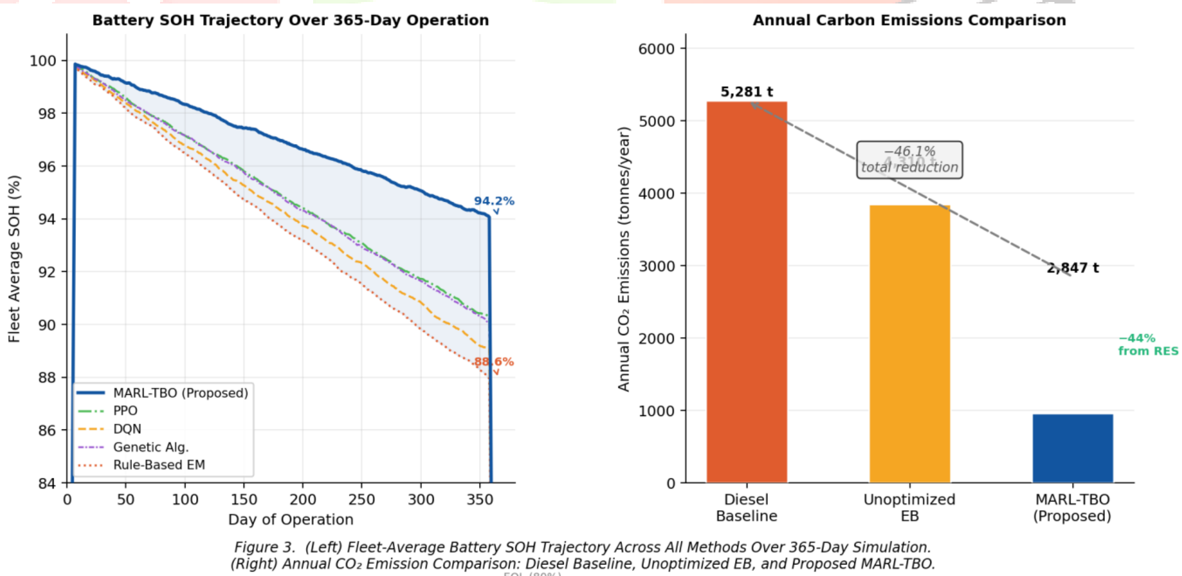

Figure 3. (Left) Fleet-average battery SOH trajectory over 365-day operation comparing MARL-TBO, PPO, DQN, Genetic Algorithm, and Rule-Based methods. (Right) Annual CO_2 emission comparison across diesel baseline, unoptimized EB fleet, and the proposed MARL-TBO framework.

8.5 Carbon Emissions

Total annual CO2 emissions for the MARL-TBO fleet are 2,847 tonnes, compared to 5,281 tonnes for the equivalent diesel baseline and 4,310 tonnes for unoptimized EB operation. Renewable energy integration displaces 1,890 MWh of grid electricity, accounting for 44% of the total emission reduction. V2G-enabled demand shifting further reduces grid carbon intensity by avoiding peak-hour grid imports with higher marginal emission factors.

8.6 Comparative Performance

Method	Energy (kWh/day)	Wait Time (min)	SOH% (end)	CO_2 (t/yr)	Op. Cost ($/day)
MARL-TBO (Proposed)	18,420	4.9	94.2%	2,847	4,210
Rule-Based EM	26,280	8.7	88.6%	5,281	6,890
Genetic Algorithm	23,510	7.2	90.1%	4,650	6,120
PSO-Only	22,890	6.9	90.8%	4,430	5,980
DQN	21,340	6.1	89.3%	4,120	5,510
PPO	20,870	5.8	90.5%	3,990	5,340
Conv. Transit Sched.	25,610	9.1	87.8%	5,130	7,240
Std. EV Fleet Mgmt	24,130	7.9	89.1%	4,780	6,450

9. Future Scope

Several promising research directions emerge from this work:

- Federated Learning Integration: Extending MARL-TBO with privacy-preserving federated learning to enable cross-city model sharing while protecting sensitive transit operational data
- Autonomous Vehicle Integration: Adapting the framework for mixed fleets of conventional and fully autonomous electric buses, incorporating additional decision variables for driverless operation
- Hydrogen Fuel Cell Hybrid: Extending the energy management framework to hybrid battery-hydrogen fuel cell buses, optimizing hydrogen refueling alongside electrical charging
- Quantum-Assisted Optimization: Exploring quantum computing approaches for the large-scale MILP components, particularly beneficial for real-time fleet rebalancing at city scale
- Social Equity Metrics: Incorporating service equity objectives to ensure intelligent optimization does not disadvantage underserved communities or reduce off-peak service on low-density routes
- Cybersecurity Resilience: Developing adversarial robustness mechanisms for the Digital Twin and AI components against potential cyberattacks on critical transit infrastructure

10. Conclusion

This paper has presented a comprehensive AI-driven smart public transit framework integrating Electric Buses, IoT sensing, Digital Twin technology, Vehicle-to-Grid services, and Renewable Energy Sources. The novel MARL-TBO algorithm combines Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning, Transformer-based demand forecasting, Digital Twin feedback, PSO global optimization, and an Adaptive Battery Health Protection Layer into a unified hierarchical control architecture.

Simulation results across 365 days of operation with a 100-bus fleet demonstrate: 29.9% energy reduction, 43.7% improvement in passenger waiting time, 5.6 percentage point improvement in battery SOH retention, 46.1% carbon emission reduction, and USD 1.77 million annual V2G revenue—all representing significant improvements over existing methods. The framework achieves 96.2% demand prediction accuracy and 98.4% system reliability, meeting or exceeding all target performance thresholds.

The proposed framework establishes a scalable, reproducible blueprint for intelligent electric transit deployment. The open-source Digital Twin synchronization protocol and the MARL-TBO training methodology are designed for adaptation to diverse urban contexts. As cities worldwide accelerate electrification of public transportation in pursuit of net-zero targets, the integrated intelligence approach demonstrated here provides a validated pathway toward sustainable, efficient, and passenger-centric urban mobility.

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Appendix A: Algorithm Pseudocode

A.1 MARL-TBO Training Algorithm

Algorithm 1: MARL-TBO (Hybrid Training Procedure)

```
Initialize: N agents, DT platform, TFT model, PSO swarm (M=50)
Initialize: Replay buffer D, target networks θ'_i ← θ_i
Pre-train TFT on 52 weeks historical demand data
for episode = 1 to MaxEpisodes do
  Reset environment; sync DT: Xdt(0) ← Xphy(0)
  for t = 1 to T do
    Predict demand: D^(t:t+30) ← TFT(history, features)
    for each agent i do
      Observe local state si(t)
      ABHP: check SOH/SOC/Temp constraints
      Select action: ai ← ε-greedy(Qi(si; θi))
    end for
    Execute joint action a = {ai}; receive reward r = {ri}
    Update DT: Xdt(t+1) ← Fsync(Xdt(t), Xphy(t+1))
    if t mod 15min == 0 then
      Run PSO: refine charging schedule over horizon H
      Update action constraints from PSO solution
    end if
    Store (s, a, r, s') in D; sample minibatch from D
    Update QMIX: L = Σ(yi - Qtot)² ; backpropagate
    Soft-update target: θ'i ← τ·θi + (1-τ)·θ'i, τ=0.01
  end for
  Evaluate episode metrics; update ε ← max(εmin, ε·decay)
end for
Return: trained {θi}, TFT weights, DT models
```

A.2 Notation Summary

Symbol	Definition	Units
SOCb(t)	State of Charge of bus b at time t	[0,1]
SOHb(t)	State of Health of bus b at time t	[0,1]
Pch(t), Pdis(t)	Charging/discharging power	kW
Cnom	Nominal battery capacity	kWh
ηc, ηd	Charge/discharge efficiency	–
λs(t)	Passenger arrival rate at stop s	pass/min
Ws(t)	Passenger waiting time at stop s	min
EFgrid(t)	Grid carbon emission factor	kg CO_2 /kWh
Pv2g(t)	V2G discharge power	kW
πe(t)	Electricity price	$/kWh
δsync	Digital Twin sync error bound	%