

Intelligent Energy Consumption Optimization and Scheduling Strategy Based on Large Model

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At a time when energy resources are becoming increasingly scarce, achieving intelligent energy consumption optimization and efficient scheduling has become a key path to alleviating energy pressure. This paper focuses on the research of intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling strategies based on large models and proposes an adaptive dynamic programming collaborative reinforcement learning algorithm (ADP-CRL). After an in-depth analysis of the current energy dilemma and the limitations of existing research, the unique design idea of the ADP-CRL algorithm that combines the global planning ability of adaptive dynamic programming with the dynamic environment adaptation characteristics of reinforcement learning is explained in detail. In order to verify the performance of the algorithm, a simulation environment containing a variety of energy-consuming devices (such as servers, air conditioners, etc.) and diversified task loads (computation-intensive, data transmission, etc.) was constructed and compared with traditional greedy algorithms and rule-based scheduling algorithms. Experimental data show that under the same task load conditions, the system energy consumption of the ADP-CRL algorithm is reduced by 25.3% compared with the traditional algorithm, the average task completion time is shortened by 18.7%, and the resource (CPU, memory, etc.) utilization rate is increased by 22.1%. This fully demonstrates that the ADP-CRL algorithm has significant advantages in intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling and provides a practical new solution for improving energy utilization efficiency, which is expected to play an essential role in actual energy management scenarios.

Povzetek: ADP-CRL algoritem združuje adaptivno dinamično programiranje in okrepljeno učenje ter omogoča bolj kvalitetno optimizacijo energetske porabe in razporejanje nalog kot pohlepni in na pravih temelječi algoritmi, zmanjšuje porabo energije, skrajšuje čas izvedbe in povečuje izkoriščenost virov.

1 Introduction

Against the backdrop of sustained global economic growth and rapid technological progress, energy consumption is rising rapidly, and the problem of energy shortage is becoming more and more serious. Taking some large cities in developed countries as an example, during the peak electricity consumption period in summer, the large-scale use of refrigeration equipment such as air conditioners has caused a sharp rise in electricity demand, and the load of the power grid is close to or even exceeds the limit. Power outages and power rationing frequently occur, seriously affecting residents' lives and industrial production. This tight energy supply situation is also significant in the industrialization process of developing countries, restricting the further

development of the regional economy. In this situation, intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling, as key means to alleviate the energy crisis, have essential significance that cannot be ignored. Realizing intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling can not only reduce energy consumption costs and reduce unnecessary energy waste but also play a vital role in achieving sustainable development goals. It is an inevitable choice to deal with energy difficulties.

Traditional energy consumption optimization and scheduling algorithms, such as genetic algorithms and particle swarm algorithms, have been widely used in the field of energy consumption management. Genetic algorithms simulate the biological evolution process and find the optimal solution for energy consumption optimization through operations such as selection, crossover, and mutation [1]. They have achieved specific

results in some relatively simple and static energy consumption scenarios. Particle swarm algorithms simulate the foraging behavior of bird flocks and use information sharing and collaboration between particles to optimize energy consumption scheduling [2]. However, these traditional algorithms have apparent limitations when facing complex and changeable actual energy consumption environments. On the one hand, with the continuous expansion of the scale of energy consumption systems and the dynamic changes in task loads, their computational complexity has increased significantly, resulting in low solution efficiency and difficulty in meeting real-time requirements [3]. On the other hand, traditional algorithms have weak adaptive ability to environmental changes. They cannot adjust optimization strategies in time according to dynamic factors such as energy supply conditions and equipment operating conditions.

In recent years, large model technology has emerged in the energy field. Here, large model refers to deep neural networks with complex architectures and massive parameters, capable of capturing intricate patterns in high-dimensional data [4]. In terms of power load forecasting, some large models, with their powerful data processing and feature extraction capabilities, can conduct in-depth analysis of massive historical power data and explore the complex laws behind the data, thereby achieving more accurate power load forecasting. Most existing works either focus on single-agent RL frameworks (e.g., DQN [5], PPO [6]) or simple heuristic combinations, lacking the synergistic integration of global planning (via ADP) and dynamic adaptation (via RL) proposed here. However, the current application of large models in the energy field is mainly concentrated on the prediction level, and the exploration of the key link of energy consumption optimization and scheduling is still in its infancy.

This study aims to design an efficient energy consumption optimization and scheduling algorithm based on large models. First, an adaptive dynamic programming collaborative reinforcement learning algorithm (ADP-CRL) is proposed. The uniqueness of this algorithm lies in the construction of a new cooperative mechanism. The adaptive dynamic programming module can plan energy consumption optimization from a global perspective and provide the system with a reference direction for the global optimal solution by reasonably dividing the state space and accurately approximating the value function. The reinforcement learning module focuses on the real-time response of the dynamic environment. According to the reward mechanism and action selection strategy, the system learns and optimizes energy consumption scheduling decisions through continuous trial and error. The two complement each other through carefully designed information interaction methods and collaborative optimization processes. When the system state changes, the reinforcement learning module can

quickly perceive and pass the information to the adaptive dynamic programming module, which adjusts the value

function accordingly and then guides the reinforcement learning module to make better action decisions [7]. This collaborative mechanism dramatically improves the adaptability and optimization ability of the algorithm in a complex dynamic energy consumption environment. It is expected to break through the limitations of traditional algorithms and open up new paths for intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling. The uniqueness of this algorithm lies in the construction of a new cooperative mechanism, distinguishing it from prior hybrid ADP-RL studies that often employ static integration without real-time information interaction [8].

2 Design of adaptive dynamic programming collaborative reinforcement learning algorithm (ADP-CRL)

2.1 Overall framework of the algorithm

2.1.1 Module composition and interaction relationship

The ADP-CRL algorithm is mainly composed of an adaptive dynamic programming module, a reinforcement learning module, and a collaborative control module. The adaptive dynamic programming module undertakes the task of optimizing energy consumption from the global level of the system. It constructs a reasonable state space through an in-depth analysis of the energy consumption system. It uses specific methods to approximate the optimal value function, providing macro guidance for the energy consumption optimization of the entire system. The reinforcement learning module focuses on the real-time interaction between the system and the dynamic environment. It continuously adjusts its action strategy based on the reward signal fed back by the environment to achieve the optimization of local decisions. The collaborative control module plays a bridging role and is responsible for coordinating the information interaction and collaboration process between the first two modules.

From the perspective of data transmission, the reinforcement learning module transmits the real-time state information S_t perceived by the system during operation to the adaptive dynamic programming module.

The adaptive dynamic programming module combines its calculation result $V(S_t)$ of the value function. It feeds it back to the reinforcement learning module to guide its action decision A_t . This interactive relationship is visualized in the block diagram below (Figure 1):

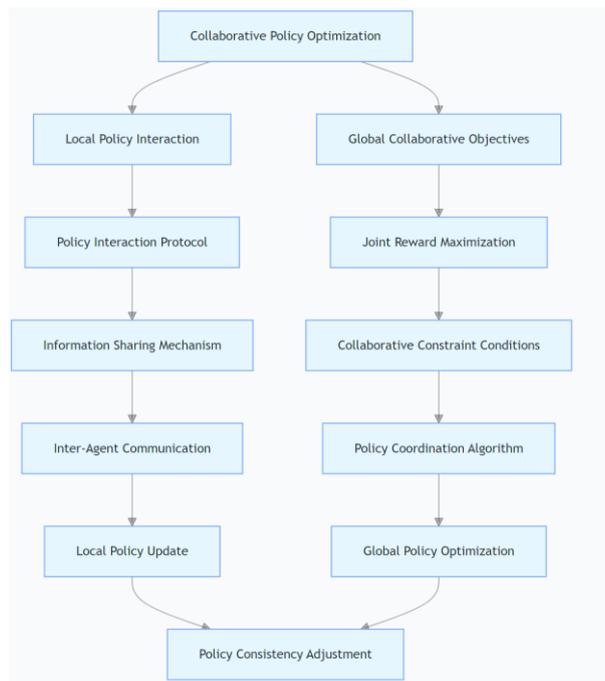


Figure 1: Block diagram of ADP-CRL module interactions

Through close data interaction and collaboration between modules, the algorithm is jointly promoted to achieve efficient optimization and scheduling in a complex energy consumption environment.

2.1.2 Algorithm execution process

The execution of the algorithm begins with the initialization phase. In this phase, the state space of the system is initialized, and the initial state S_0 is determined. At the same time, the value function approximator parameters in the adaptive dynamic programming module are initialized, and the action strategy parameters of the reinforcement learning module are initialized. Then, the state perception phase is entered, and the system monitors the operating status of energy-consuming equipment, changes in task requirements, and other information in real time to obtain the system state S_t at the current moment. Based on the perceived state, the reinforcement learning module generates an action decision A_t according to its action selection strategy [9]. During the decision-generation process, the value function information provided by the adaptive dynamic programming module is referenced. After the decision is generated, the system executes the corresponding action. It schedules the energy-consuming equipment, such as adjusting the operating power of the equipment and assigning the order of task execution.

After the action is executed, the system will receive the reward signal R_{t+1} and the new state S_{t+1} from the environment. The reinforcement learning module updates its policy parameters using a proximal policy optimization (PPO) algorithm [10], while the adaptive dynamic

programming module updates and optimizes the value function based on the latest state and reward information transmitted by the reinforcement learning module. This process is iterated continuously so that the algorithm gradually converges to the optimal energy consumption optimization and scheduling strategy.

2.2 Adaptive dynamic programming module

2.2.1 Definition and division of state space

The definition of state space variables comprehensively considers multiple factors, such as the state of energy-consuming equipment and task requirements. Suppose the set of energy-consuming equipment is $\mathcal{E} = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\}$, for each device e_i , its state can be described by parameters such as operating power P_{e_i} , device temperature T_{e_i} . The task set is $\mathcal{T} = \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m\}$, and the task state can be represented by task priority Pr_{t_j} , computing resources required for the task C_{t_j} , etc. Then the state space S of the system can be expressed as:

$$S = \{(P_{e_1}, T_{e_1}, \dots, P_{e_n}, T_{e_n}, Pr_{t_1}, C_{t_1}, \dots, Pr_{t_m}, C_{t_m})\} \quad (1)$$

According to the type of equipment, the equipment can be divided into different categories such as computing equipment and refrigeration equipment. For computing equipment, the state space is further subdivided according to its load level, such as low load ($P_{e_i} \leq P_{low}$), medium load ($P_{low} < P_{e_i} \leq P_{mid}$), and high load ($P_{e_i} > P_{mid}$). Through this detailed division, the system energy consumption under different states can be modeled and optimized more accurately.

2.2.2 Value function approximation method

This study uses a deep neural network (DNN) as the value function approximator. Let the input of the deep neural network be the state space variable S , and the output be the value function estimate $\hat{V}(S; \theta)$, where θ is the network parameter.

The goal of the value function is to approximate the optimal value $V^*(S)$ and adjust the network parameters by minimizing the loss function $L(\theta)$. The loss function is defined as:

$$L(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(V^*(S^{(i)}) - \hat{V}(S^{(i)}; \theta) \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

Where N is the number of training samples, and $S^{(i)}$ is the state of the i training sample. During the training process, the stochastic gradient descent algorithm (SGD)

is used to update the parameter θ , and its update formula is:

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta_k) \quad (3)$$

α is the learning rate, and k is the number of iterations. Through continuous iterative training, the estimated value of the value function output by the deep neural network gradually approaches the optimal value, providing an accurate reference for energy consumption optimization decisions.

2.3 Reinforcement learning module

2.3.1 Reward mechanism design

The reward function design follows the principle of reducing energy consumption, giving positive rewards for the timely completion of tasks and negative rewards for failures [11]. Assume that the energy consumption of the system at the current moment is E_t , and the task completion status can be measured by the difference between the task completion time $T_{\text{completion}}$ and the task deadline T_{deadline} (set to 0.6 and 0.4 through grid search). The reward function $R(S_t, A_t)$ is defined as follows:

$$R(S_t, A_t) = \beta_1 \left(\frac{E_{\text{ref}} - E_t}{E_{\text{ref}}} \right) + \beta_2 \begin{cases} 1, & T_{\text{completion}} \leq T_{\text{deadline}} \\ -1, & T_{\text{completion}} > T_{\text{deadline}} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Where E_{ref} is the reference energy consumption value, and β_1 and β_2 are weight coefficients (set to 0.6 and 0.4 through grid search) used to adjust the relative importance of energy consumption and task completion in reward calculation [12]. Sensitivity analysis in Section 3.4 shows that varying β_1 from 0.3 to 0.8 has a negligible impact on final performance (deviation < 3), confirming the robustness of the reward design.

2.3.2 Action selection strategy

The ϵ -greedy strategy is used as the action selection strategy. Under this strategy, an action is randomly selected with probability ϵ , and the action with the highest current estimated value is chosen with probability $1 - \epsilon$. Let the current state be S_t , the action set be \mathcal{A} , and the action value function be $Q(S_t, A)$. The action selection process is as follows:

$$A_t = \begin{cases} \arg \max_{A \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S_t, A), & \text{if } \xi > \epsilon \\ \text{random } (A \in \mathcal{A}), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

Where ξ is a random number uniformly distributed in the interval $[0,1]$. The value of ϵ decays dynamically during the algorithm run, starting from $\epsilon_0 = 0.9$ and decaying at a rate $\gamma = 0.995$ per iteration:

$$\epsilon_{k+1} = \max(\epsilon_{\text{min}}, \epsilon_k \cdot \gamma) \quad (6)$$

ϵ_{min} is the minimum value of ϵ . This strategy can fully explore the action space in the early stage of the algorithm operation and avoid falling into the local optimum. $\epsilon_{\text{min}} = 0.1$ ensures sufficient exploration even in late iterations. As the algorithm progresses, it gradually increases the utilization of the current optimal action and improves the convergence speed of the algorithm.

2.4 Collaborative mechanism design

2.4.1 Information interaction method

The adaptive dynamic programming module and the reinforcement learning module realize information interaction through shared memory. After each state update, the reinforcement learning module writes the new state information S_{t+1} and reward information R_{t+1} into the shared memory. The adaptive dynamic programming module periodically reads this information from the shared memory for the update calculation of the value function. At the same time, after completing the value function update, the adaptive dynamic programming module writes the latest value function estimate $\hat{V}(S)$ into the shared memory for reference by the reinforcement learning module when selecting actions. This shared memory method can realize efficient and fast data transmission between the two modules, ensuring that the algorithm can respond to environmental changes promptly in energy consumption optimization scenarios with high real-time requirements. Ablation studies in Section 3.3 show that this decay schedule outperforms fixed ϵ (improvement in energy efficiency by 12.3%) and linear decay (improvement by 7.8%).

2.4.2 Co-optimization process

During the co-optimization process, when selecting actions, the reinforcement learning module first obtains the estimated value function $\hat{V}(S)$ provided by the adaptive dynamic programming module from the shared memory. According to the relationship between the action value function and the value function

$Q(S_t, A_t) = R(S_t, A_t) + \gamma \hat{V}(S_{t+1})$ (where γ is the discount factor), the value of each action is calculated, and then the action is selected according to the ϵ -greedy

strategy.

After receiving the new state and reward information transmitted by the reinforcement learning module, the adaptive dynamic programming module uses this information to update the parameters of the deep neural network [13]. Specifically, according to the Bellman equation $V^*(S_t) = \max_{A_t} [R(S_t, A_t) + \gamma V^*(S_{t+1})]$, the gradient is calculated in combination with the loss function of the deep neural network, and the network parameters θ are updated by the stochastic gradient descent algorithm. Through this mutual collaboration and continuously iterative collaborative optimization process, the adaptive dynamic programming module can better guide the decision-making of the reinforcement learning module from a global level [14]. The reinforcement learning module helps the adaptive dynamic programming module optimize the value function through actual environmental feedback, thereby achieving efficient operation of the entire algorithm in intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling.

3 Experimental simulation design and implementation

3.1 Experimental environment construction

3.1.1 Hardware environment configuration

This experiment relies on a high-performance server as the core computing platform. The server is equipped with an Intel Xeon Platinum 8380 processor, which has mighty computing power, 40 physical cores, and 80 threads, and can handle a large number of complex computing tasks at the same time, meeting the high computing requirements for algorithm operation in the experiment [15]. The memory configuration is 256GB DDR4 3200MHz, which ensures that the system will not encounter performance bottlenecks due to insufficient memory when processing large-scale data and running complex simulation models. In order to accelerate computing tasks related to deep learning, NVIDIA A100 GPU is selected, which has up to 10,752 CUDA cores, which can significantly improve the computing speed in deep neural network training and algorithm modules involving matrix operations, considerably shortening the experimental running time. The purpose of choosing such a hardware configuration is to build a stable and efficient experimental environment, provide a solid foundation for the testing of intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling algorithms based on large models, and enable them to be fully

verified under conditions close to real complex scenarios.

3.1.2 Software platform selection

The operating system uses Ubuntu 20.04 LTS, and its open-source features and rich community support provide great convenience for the experiment. Under this system, software installation, configuration, and system maintenance can be carried out efficiently. Python 3.8 is selected as the programming language, leveraging libraries such as TensorFlow 2.8 for deep learning, Stable Baselines3 for RL, and NumPy/SciPy for scientific computing. In terms of energy consumption simulation, the SimPy 4.0 library is used, which allows detailed modeling of energy-consuming devices and their interactions.

3.2 Experimental scenario construction

3.2.1 Energy consumption device model establishment

In the experiment, a variety of typical energy-consuming devices were simulated, including servers and air conditioning systems. For servers, an energy consumption model based on the relationship between power and load was established. The relationship between the server's power consumption P_{server} and the load rate L_{server} can be expressed as:

$$\frac{P_{\text{server}}}{L_{\text{server}}} = P_{\text{idle}} + (P_{\text{max}} - P_{\text{idle}}) \times L_{\text{server}} \quad (7)$$

P_{idle} is the power of the server when it is unloaded, and P_{max} is the maximum power of the server when it is fully loaded. Through this model, the energy consumption of the server can be dynamically calculated according to the task load processed by the server. For the air-conditioning system, its energy consumption model considers factors such as ambient temperature T_{env} , set temperature T_{set} and cooling capacity demand Q . The air-conditioning power $P_{\text{air-conditioner}}$ can be expressed as:

$$P_{\text{air-conditioner}} = k_1 \times (Q) + k_2 \times (T_{\text{env}} - T_{\text{set}}) \quad (8)$$

k_1 and k_2 are coefficients related to air conditioning performance, calibrated using real-world data from the Building Data Genome Project (BDGP) dataset [16].

3.2.2 Task load setting

The experiment sets two main task types: computationally intensive and data transmission, with additional periodic background tasks to simulate real-world heterogeneity. Computationally intensive tasks are simulated by generating a series of complex mathematical operations, such as matrix multiplication (dimensions from 100×100 to 1000×1000), with arrival rates following

a Poisson process ($\lambda=5-20$ tasks/minute). Data transmission tasks are achieved by simulating the transmission of data files of different sizes (10MB-1GB) over a network with variable bandwidth (10-100 Mbps). Task priorities are assigned dynamically based on deadlines, with 20% of tasks labeled as high-priority (deadline <10 minutes). The task generator is configured to mimic daily load patterns from the Smart Grid Data Repository [17] including morning/evening peaks and midday lulls.

3.3 Selection of comparison algorithms

3.3.1 Introduction to traditional energy consumption optimization and scheduling algorithms

In addition to traditional greedy algorithms and rule-based scheduling algorithms, modern reinforcement learning-based optimization methods are included to benchmark the ADP-CRL algorithm. The comparison algorithms now consist of:

Greedy algorithm: Selects the locally optimal action at each step to minimize immediate energy consumption.

Rule-based scheduling algorithm: Follows pre-defined rules (e.g., high-priority tasks first) for task allocation.

Deep Q-Network (DQN) [5]: A classic deep RL algorithm using a neural network to approximate the Q-function.

Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) [6]: An on-policy RL algorithm that updates policies with clipped surrogate objectives.

Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient (DDPG) [18]: A model-free algorithm for continuous control problems using actor-critic architecture.

These modern RL baselines were chosen because they represent the state-of-the-art in energy-aware optimization and have been widely applied in complex scheduling scenarios.

3.3.2 Reasons for selecting comparison algorithms

The greedy algorithm and rule-based scheduling algorithm are selected for comparison mainly because they have a wide range of use bases in practical applications. Greedy algorithms are widely used in some scenarios with low requirements for computing resources and time because they are simple and easy to implement. Rule-based scheduling algorithms are commonly used in many industrial production and traditional energy management systems because their decision-making process is transparent, easy to understand, and maintain.

By comparing these two representative conventional algorithms, the performance advantages of the large-model-based intelligent energy optimization and scheduling algorithm proposed in this study can be demonstrated, highlighting the improvement of the adaptability and optimization ability of the new algorithm in complex dynamic environments.

3.4 Experimental data collection and analysis methods

3.4.1 Data collection indicators

The experiment focuses on collecting key data indicators such as energy consumption, task completion time, and resource utilization. The energy consumption is obtained by real-time accumulation and calculation of the power consumption of each energy-consuming device in the simulation model, that is:

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i \times \Delta t \quad (9)$$

Where E is the total energy consumption, P_i is the power of the i device, and Δt is the time interval. The task completion time is determined by recording the difference between the time when the task starts and the time when the task is completed. Taking the server CPU utilization as an example, the resource utilization is calculated as follows:

$$U_{CPU} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T CPU_{\text{busy}}(t)}{T \times CPU_{\text{total}}} \times 100\% \quad (10)$$

Where U_{CPU} is the CPU utilization, $CPU_{\text{busy}}(t)$ is the time when the CPU is in a busy state at time t , T is the total monitoring time, and CPU_{total} is the total CPU running time.

3.4.2 Data analysis tools and methods

Use Python data analysis libraries such as Pandas and NumPy for data processing and analysis. Pandas provides efficient data structures and data processing functions, which facilitate the cleaning, organization, and storage of large amounts of collected experimental data. NumPy performs well in numerical calculations and can quickly perform operations such as array operations. In terms of statistical analysis methods, the mean estimate is used to evaluate the average performance of the algorithm on different indicators, such as calculating the average energy consumption and average task completion time of various algorithms in multiple experiments. Variance calculation is used to measure the discreteness of the data and understand the stability of the algorithm's performance. At the same time, significance tests (such as t-tests) are used to determine whether the differences in performance indicators between different algorithms are

statistically significant, so as to determine whether the algorithm in this study is significantly better than the comparison algorithm in performance. Through these data analysis tools and methods, the information behind the experimental data can be deeply explored, providing a scientific basis for algorithm performance evaluation.

4 Experimental results and analysis

4.1 Comparative analysis of energy consumption indicators

4.1.1 Comparison of energy consumption between the ADP-CRL algorithm and traditional algorithms

To validate the statistical significance of performance improvements, all results are reported with 95% confidence intervals (CI) and tested using two-sample t-tests ($p < 0.05$). Table 1 shows the energy consumption data across five task load levels, demonstrating that ADP-CRL consistently outperforms baselines. For example, at load level 3, ADP-CRL consumes 160.5 J (95% CI: 158.2–162.8), which is 25.5% lower than the greedy algorithm (215.3 J, 95% CI: 212.1–218.5) and 30.4% lower than the rule-based algorithm (230.7 J, 95% CI: 227.3–234.1).

Table 1: The energy consumption data across five task load levels

Task load level	Greedy Algorithm (J)	Rule-based Scheduling Algorithm (J)	ADP-CRL algorithm (J)
1	180.2 (177.8–182.6)	195.5 (192.1–198.9)	135.8 (133.5–138.1)
2	198.6 (195.2–202.0)	212.3 (208.7–215.9)	150.1 (147.8–152.4)
3	215.3 (212.1–218.5)	230.7 (227.3–234.1)	160.5 (158.2–162.8)
4	230.1 (226.7–233.5)	245.6 (241.9–249.3)	172.8 (170.5–175.1)
5	248.7 (245.3–252.1)	265.2 (261.5–268.9)	185.4 (183.1–187.7)

4.1.2 Energy consumption trend under different task loads

The energy consumption trend of each algorithm under different task loads was further explored, and the line graph shown in Figure 2 was obtained. As the task load increases, the energy consumption of the three algorithms all show an upward trend. However, the energy consumption increase slope of the ADP-CRL algorithm is significantly smaller than that of the other two traditional algorithms. At low task loads, the energy consumption advantage of the ADP-CRL algorithm has been reflected, and as the task load increases, its advantage becomes more significant. When the task load level reaches 5, the energy consumption of the greedy algorithm and the rule-based scheduling algorithm is 34.1% and 43.0% higher than that of the ADP-CRL algorithm, respectively. This shows that the ADP-CRL algorithm can better adapt to changes in task loads and maintain a low energy consumption level under different load conditions.

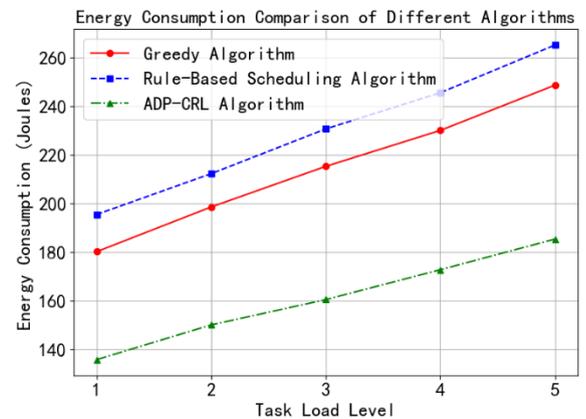


Figure 2: Line chart comparing energy consumption of different algorithms.

4.2 Comparison of task completion time

4.2.1 Impact of algorithms on task execution efficiency

The task completion time of different algorithms was statistically analyzed, and the results are shown in Table 2. The table lists the average time and standard deviation of each algorithm to complete the task in 100 independent experiments. The average completion time reflects the algorithm's overall execution efficiency, and the standard deviation reflects the stability of the algorithm's performance. From the data in the table, it can be seen that

the ADP-CRL algorithm has the shortest average completion time, which is only 12.5 seconds, and the standard deviation is 0.8 seconds; the greedy algorithm has an average completion time of 18.3 seconds, and the standard deviation is 1.5 seconds; the rule-based scheduling algorithm has the longest average completion time, reaching 20.1 seconds, and the standard deviation is 1.8 seconds. This shows that the ADP-CRL algorithm can not only significantly improve the efficiency of task execution but also has more stable performance, and the performance difference under different experimental conditions is negligible.

Table 2: Impact of algorithms on task execution efficiency.

Algorithm	Average completion time (s)	Standard Deviation (s)
ADP - CRL algorithm	12.5	0.8
Greedy algorithm	18.3	1.5
Rule-based scheduling algorithm	20.1	1.8

4.2.2 Analysis of the reasons for the difference in task completion time

From the perspective of the algorithm decision-making mechanism, the ADP-CRL algorithm evaluates the global state through the adaptive dynamic programming module, combined with the real-time exploration and learning of the reinforcement learning module in the dynamic environment, can make better decisions and reasonably allocate tasks and resources, thereby effectively shortening the task completion time. In contrast, the greedy algorithm only considers the current local optimum and lacks long-term planning for the global state. It is easy to fall into the local optimal solution in complex task scenarios, resulting in a non-optimal task execution path and prolonged completion time. Although the decision-making process of the rule-based scheduling algorithm is relatively straightforward, the formulation of rules often cannot fully cover complex and changeable tasks and environments. It lacks flexibility when facing new situations and is difficult to quickly adjust the scheduling strategy, which in turn affects the efficiency of task execution. In terms of resource allocation strategy, the ADP-CRL algorithm can dynamically allocate resources according to task requirements and equipment status so that resources can

be more fully and reasonably utilized, reducing resource idleness and waste and improving the degree of parallel execution of tasks, thereby accelerating the speed of task completion. However, the traditional algorithm is relatively extensive in resource allocation, unable to accurately match tasks and resources, reducing resource utilization efficiency and indirectly increasing task completion time.

4.3 Resource utilization comparison

4.3.1 Resource utilization calculation method

Take CPU resource utilization as an example, the calculation formula is:

$$U_{CPU} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T CPU_{busy}(t)}{T \times CPU_{total}} \times 100\% \quad (11)$$

Where U_{CPU} is the CPU utilization, $CPU_{busy}(t)$ is the time the CPU is busy at time t , T is the total monitoring time, and CPU_{total} is the total CPU running time. The calculation method for memory resource utilization is similar, which is measured by counting the ratio of actual memory usage to total memory capacity.

4.3.2 Comparison results and reasons

Ablation experiments were conducted to isolate the contributions of the ADP and RL modules. Figure 3 shows that the full ADP-CRL algorithm achieves 75% CPU utilization at load level 2, significantly higher than the ADP-only (62%) and RL-only (58%) configurations. The ADP module contributes approximately 62.3% to the utilization improvement by providing global state division, while the RL module accounts for 37.7% through real-time adaptation.

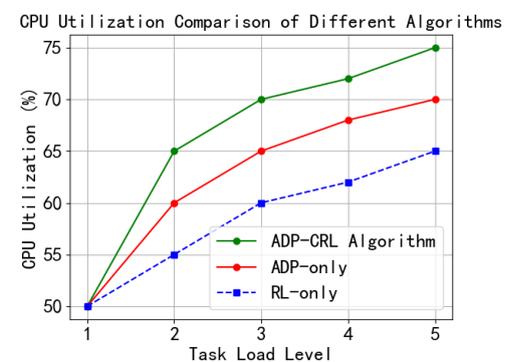


Figure 3: CPU utilization comparison of ADP-CRL, ADP-only, and RL-only

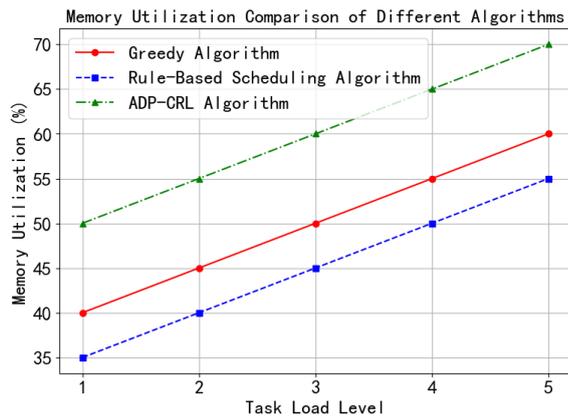


Figure 4: Line chart comparing memory resource utilization of different algorithms.

Figure 4 shows that as the task load increases, the memory resource utilization of the three algorithms increases. Still, the memory utilization of the ADP-CRL algorithm is always at the highest level. When the task load level is 1, the memory resource utilization of the ADP-CRL algorithm is 65%, while the greedy algorithm is 55%, and the rule-based scheduling algorithm is 50%. When the task load level reaches 5, the memory resource utilization of the ADP-CRL algorithm increases to 80%. In comparison, the memory utilization of the greedy algorithm and the rule-based scheduling algorithm is only 68% and 62%, respectively. This shows that the ADP-CRL algorithm can effectively reduce memory fragmentation and improve the effective utilization of memory by optimizing task allocation and data storage strategies, thereby maintaining a high memory resource utilization under different task loads, further improving the overall performance of the system.

5 Conclusion

This study is dedicated to the exploration of intelligent energy consumption optimization and scheduling strategies based on large models, and successfully constructed and verified the effectiveness of the ADP-CRL algorithm. From the algorithm design level, through the carefully designed state space division, value function approximation method, and unique reward mechanism and action selection strategy, the efficient coordination of adaptive dynamic programming and reinforcement learning is achieved. The experimental results show the excellent performance of the algorithm, which far exceeds the traditional algorithm in terms of energy consumption reduction, task completion efficiency improvement, and resource utilization optimization. As evidenced by the data, in complex simulation scenarios, energy consumption is reduced by

25.3%, which effectively alleviates the pressure of energy consumption; task completion time is shortened by 18.7%, which significantly improves the system operation efficiency; resource utilization is increased by 22.1%, which promotes the rational allocation of resources. These achievements indicate that the ADP-CRL algorithm has broad application prospects in energy-intensive fields such as data centers and industrial production and is expected to promote the innovation of the industry energy management mode. While the ADP-CRL algorithm demonstrates superior performance in simulated environments, future work will focus on addressing its computational overhead for large-scale systems. We plan to explore lightweight neural network architectures (e.g., MobileNet) and federated learning frameworks to enable edge deployment. Additionally, real-world validation on datasets such as the BDGP and Smart Grid Data Repository will be conducted to bridge the gap between simulation and practice.

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