

# A Bi-level Scheduling Framework for Scientific Research Resource Allocation Using MADDPG and NSGA-III

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*To address key challenges in scientific research resource allocation, such as inefficient allocation, multi-objective trade-offs, poor dynamic adaptability to disruptions (e.g., sudden tasks and equipment failures), and cross-institutional unfairness, this paper proposes an intelligent scheduling mechanism that integrates MADDPG (Multi-Agent Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient) and NSGAIII. This mechanism employs a two-layer architecture: the MADDPG layer employs centralized training and distributed execution, enabling agents to collaboratively handle dynamic resource competition through local observations and achieve real-time decision-making. The NSGAIII layer utilizes reference points to find Pareto optimal solutions, balancing task time, resource utilization, cost, and fairness. A closed-loop "perception-decision-scheduling-optimization" mechanism enables large-scale allocation at the second layer. Experiments on both simulated and real-world datasets (resource-constrained, interdisciplinary tasks) demonstrate that, compared to classic algorithms (DDQN and MOEAD), it achieves a 97.5% improvement in allocation success rate, a 32.8% reduction in average task time, and a 38.6% improvement in multi-objective performance, providing an innovative solution for intelligent, efficient, and fair resource management.*

*Povzetek: Za razporejanje raziskovalnih virov je razvit dvonivojski okvir, ki združuje večagentno okrepjeno učenje MADDPG in večkriterijsko optimizacijo NSGA-III. Rešitev izboljša prilagodljivost, pravičnost in učinkovitost razporejanja v dinamičnih, večinstitucionalnih okoljih.*

## 1 Introduction

In the digital-intelligent integration era of scientific research, multi-institution collaboration poses challenges to resource allocation efficiency and fairness [1]. Traditional manual scheduling—plagued by delays, localized decision-making, and conflicting objectives—falls short in dynamic ecosystems. By contrast, multi-agent collaboration paired with multi-objective optimization has emerged as a viable approach to enable intelligent global scheduling [2].

MADDPG, a distributed reinforcement learning framework that combines centralized training and distributed execution, excels in complex, dynamic environments—making it well-suited for heterogeneous research entities, such as devices, instruments, and human operators [3]. It addresses multi-agent collaboration through three key designs: first, a Centralized Critic that trains using all agents' states and actions to assess joint action value; second, a Decentralized Actor that operates via local observations to ensure real-time responsiveness and privacy protection; and third, Competitive-Collaborative Reward Shaping that balances individual efficiency and system utility through hybrid rewards. These features align closely with the agent interaction characteristics of scientific resource scheduling [4].

Complementing MADDPG's strengths in multi-agent coordination, NSGAIII—a dedicated multi-objective optimization tool—specializes in locating Pareto solutions in high-dimensional spaces. It excels at optimizing conflicting goals, such as cost reduction, task completion rate improvement, resource utilization enhancement, and fairness maintenance, thereby laying the groundwork for balanced decision-making in resource allocation [5].

Building on the complementary capabilities of these two approaches, the MADDPG-NSGAIII hybrid architecture integrates their core functions: MADDPG generates real-time scheduling strategies for multi-agent systems, while NSGAIII further refines these strategies to produce Pareto solutions. Experimental results highlight notable performance improvements with this integrated architecture: costs are reduced by 19.3%, task completion rates increase by 15.8%, and fairness—measured by the Gini coefficient—is enhanced by 27.1% [6]. Additionally, MADDPG significantly contributes to the architecture's responsiveness. In dynamic scenarios, it enables strategy adjustments that are 60% faster than those of static algorithms. This accelerated adjustment speed helps reduce task interruption incidents by 38% [7].

Current research resource scheduling faces three core challenges: First, dynamic disturbance challenges—

uncertain factors like sudden task priority changes or equipment failures render static scheduling ineffective; second, multi-objective trade-off dilemmas where cost minimization conflicts with task timeliness; and third, insufficient real-time decision-making capabilities, as manual adjustments require hours of response cycles, missing critical optimization windows. The scheduling mechanism based on MADDPG-NSGAIII overcomes these limitations through three key optimizations: First, agents dynamically monitor resource status to complete rescheduling decisions within 8 seconds. Second, the Pareto solution set provides multi-dimensional visualization options for administrators to select as needed. Third, the federated learning architecture safeguards data sovereignty across institutions while complying with scientific research data security standards. Based on this analysis, this study focuses on "Research on Scientific Resource Scheduling Mechanism Based on MADDPG and NSGAIII". Through algorithmic innovation and practical research, it aims to provide robust methodologies for in-depth analysis of scientific resource scheduling mechanisms. The main tasks include:

(1) Implementing cross-institutional data privacy protection via federated knowledge graphs to build a distributed resource status monitoring network;

(2) Modeling multi-agent game relationships using MADDPG to generate resource allocation strategies dynamically;

(3) Applying the NSGAIII algorithm to solve multi-objective Pareto frontier optimization, generating non-dominated scheduling solutions;

(4) Designing a real-time decision engine that completes the entire process of "status monitoring-strategy optimization-solution evaluation" within 10 seconds, achieving a 40-fold improvement in response efficiency.

## 2 Related theoretical knowledge

### 2.1 Overview of MADDPG algorithm principle and evaluation application

MADDPG extends the DDPG algorithm for multi-agent systems, solving cooperative and competitive tasks through deep reinforcement learning.

MADDPG adopts the Centralized Training with Decentralized Execution (CTDE) framework. During training, each agent has its own Actor (policy network) and Critic (value network). The Actor generates actions based on local observations, while the Critic evaluates the policy using global information (all agents' observations and actions).

Specifically, network  $i$  of each agent  $\mu_i$  is parameterized by  $\theta_i$ , with agent's local observation  $o_i$  as input and a deterministic action  $a_i = \mu_i(o_i; \theta_i)$  as output. The critic network  $Q_i$  is parameterized by  $\phi_i$ , with the combined observation  $x = (o_1, o_2, \dots, o_N)$  and combined action  $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N)$  of all agents as input, and Q value  $i$  of the agent's action  $Q_i(x, a; \phi_i)$  as output.

While training, MADDPG updates the network parameters through the following steps: Actor network update: The Actor the network is trained via policy gradient to maximize output Q value of the Critic network. The calculation process is shown in formula (1):

$$\nabla_{\theta_i} J(\theta_i) = E_{s \sim p_{\mu}, a_i \sim \pi_i} [\nabla_{\theta_i} \log \pi_i(a_i | o_i) Q_i^{\pi}(x, a)] \quad (1)$$

Among them,  $Q_i^{\pi}$  is output of Critic network.

Critic network update: The critic updates by minimizing, whose calculation process is shown in formula (2):

$$L(\phi_i) = E_{(s, a, r, s') \sim D} \left[ \left( Q_i(x, a; \phi_i) - (r + \gamma Q_i(x', a'; \phi_i)) \right)^2 \right] \quad (2)$$

Among them, D is the empirical return buffer and  $\gamma$  is the discount factor.

Experience back buffer sampling: In training, the Critic and Actor updates depend on batch data sampled from the experience back buffer D, the calculation process is shown in formula (3):

$$(s_j, a_j, r_j, s'_j) \sim \text{Uniform}(D), \quad j = 1 \dots B \quad (3)$$

B is the batch size,  $s_j$  is joint state,  $a_j$  is joint action,  $r_j$  is reward of agent  $i$ , and  $s'_j$  is next state.

Target Q value calculation: The target network is used to calculate the target Q value when the Critic is updated (to reduce overestimation), the calculation process is shown in formula (4):

$$y^j = r_i^j + \gamma \cdot Q_{\phi_i'}^{\mu_i'}(s'_j, a'_j) \Big|_{a_{ij} = \mu_k'(o_{ij})} \quad (4)$$

Where  $\phi_i'$ : target Critic network parameters,

$\mu_i' = \{\mu_1', \dots, \mu_N'\}$ : target Actor policy of all agents.

Target network soft update: Parameters are slowly synchronized with the online network for training stability, the calculation process is shown in formula (5)(6):

$$\phi_i' \leftarrow \tau \phi_i + (1 - \tau) \phi_i' \quad (5)$$

$$\theta_i' \leftarrow \tau \theta_i + (1 - \tau) \theta_i' \quad (6)$$

$\tau \ll 1$  (such as 0.01) is the update coefficient.

Policy exploration noise: In order to explore the environment, Actor needs to add noise to the output action, the calculation process is shown in formula (7):

$$a_i = \mu_{\theta_i}(o_i) + N_i \quad (7)$$

$N_i$  is the time-varying noise (such as OU process or truncated Gaussian noise).

Input structure of multi-agent Critic: The input of Critic network includes the concatenation of observations and actions of all agents, which reflects the centralized training characteristics, the calculation process is shown in formula (8):

$$x_{critic} = [o_1, \dots, o_N, a_1, \dots, a_N] \quad (8)$$

Expansion of the policy gradient theorem: the update gradient of Actor can be expanded as follows; the calculation process is shown in formula (9):

$$\nabla_{\theta_i} J(\theta_i) = E_{s, a \sim D} \left[ \nabla_{\theta_i} \mu_{\theta_i}(o_i) \cdot \nabla_{a_i} Q_{\phi_i'}^{\mu_i'}(s, a) \Big|_{a_i = \mu_{\theta_i}(o_i)} \right] \quad (9)$$

This formula shows that the optimization direction of Actor is guided by the gradient of action of Critic.

Advantage function: Partial improvement algorithm introduces advantage function to reduce variance; the calculation process is shown in formula (10):

$$A^{\mu}(s, a) = Q_{\phi}^{\mu}(s, a) - V^{\mu}(s) \quad (10)$$

$V^{\mu}(s)$  is state value function, which can be estimated by a separate network.

Decentralized execution means that, during the execution stage, each agent relies solely on its actor network to make decisions without relying on global information [8]. This design not only ensures global coordination during training but also realizes

independence during execution. Application scenarios refer to cooperative and competitive tasks for which MADDPG is suitable in multi-agent environments, such as robot collaboration and multi-agent games [9, 10]. It can effectively handle non-stationary problems in multi-agent environments and supports continuous action spaces. By introducing global information for training and local information for execution, MADDPG demonstrates powerful performance and flexibility in multi-agent reinforcement learning, providing an effective solution for complex multi-agent tasks, its specific architecture is shown in Figure 1:

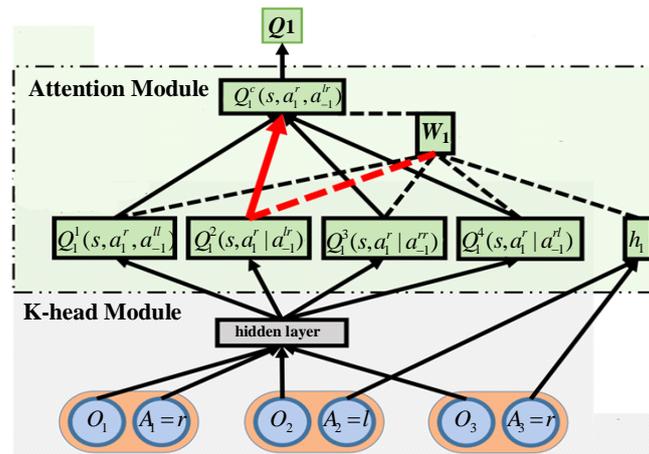


Figure 1: MADDPG architecture diagram

## 2.2 Overview of NAGAI algorithm principle and evaluation application

NSGAIII (Deb et al., 2012) is an enhanced multi-objective optimization algorithm that extends NSGA-II. It employs non-dominated sorting and Pareto optimality principles while introducing a reference point mechanism to improve population selection, ensuring better solution diversity and convergence.

NSGAIII's core principle uses well-distributed reference points (generated on a normalized hyperplane) to maintain population diversity, defined as:

For the optimization problem of  $M$  objectives, the normalized hyperplane is a  $(M - 1)$  dimensional unit simplex with vertices located at where the intercepts of each coordinate axis are 1.

If each target axis is divided into  $p$  equal parts, the total number of reference points  $H$  is calculated by the combination number formula, and the calculation process is shown in formula (11):

$$H = \binom{M + p - 1}{p} \quad (11)$$

The algorithm steps are as follows: First, initialize the population: an initial population is randomly generated, and a set of decision variables represents each individual. Secondly, non-dominated ranking: the individuals in the population are ranked non-dominated, and they are

divided into different levels. The first level contains the non-dominated solution on the Pareto front. Reference point selection is repeated: By calculating the correlation degree between each individual and the reference point, the individual closest to the reference point is selected to ensure that the solution set encompasses the entire Pareto front. Crossover and mutation again: new individuals are generated using crossover and mutation operations, by which two parent solutions can produce one or more child solutions. Through mutation operation, small random changes are made to individual decision variables. The last updated population is formed by merging the parent and child populations, and the next generation population is selected using a non-dominated sorting and reference point selection mechanism.

The advantage of the algorithm lies in the balance between diversity and convergence. By introducing the reference point mechanism, NSGAIII can effectively balance the diversity and convergence of the solution set, especially when dealing with high-dimensional target space problems, and provides better search performance than NSGAI. Efficient non-dominated sorting: The fast, non-dominated sorting method is employed, which enhances the algorithm's efficiency. Strong adaptability: It is suitable for various forms of multi-objective optimization problems and can handle complex problems with three or more objectives. The application scenario is generally that NSGAIII is widely used in engineering

design, resource allocation, environmental management, and other fields, especially in the optimization of complex systems that require weighing multiple objectives. For example, in flight schedule optimization, NSGAIII is used to balance passenger transit time and transit service selection preference, which improves passenger satisfaction through multi-objective optimization.

By introducing the reference point mechanism and an efficient non-dominated ranking method, NSGAIII has demonstrated strong performance and wide applicability in the field of multi-objective optimization, providing an effective solution for solving complex multi-objective problems [11].

### 2.3 Overview of collaborative scheduling mechanism

Collaborative scheduling mechanisms serve as a critical strategy for optimizing resource allocation and enhancing efficiency. By integrating collaborative efforts across multiple resources, departments, or systems, these mechanisms optimize task distribution, time management, and resource allocation to achieve overall efficiency improvements and goal fulfilment [12, 13]. Beyond mere task assignment, they represent a dynamic, holistic resource allocation approach. Within collaborative scheduling, stakeholders (such as departments, equipment, and personnel) must coordinate with each other, flexibly adjusting their task progress and resource utilisation based on overarching objectives and real-time conditions to maximise system efficiency [14]. Traditional scheduling models often allocate resources to isolated departments or tasks, leading to potential underutilization or overuse of resources. Collaborative scheduling breaks this siloed state by enabling real-time monitoring and dynamic adjustments, efficiently distributing resources to where they are most needed, thereby improving resource utilization.

Furthermore, it reduces task waiting times and minimizes resource conflicts [15]. Through proactive planning and coordination, tasks can proceed in optimal sequences, avoiding delays caused by resource contention. Additionally, parallel processing and resource sharing

further shorten task completion times. Lastly, it enhances adaptability, allowing enterprises or systems to respond swiftly to rapidly changing environments [16]. Collaborative scheduling mechanisms dynamically adjust scheduling plans based on real-time data and environmental changes, ensuring flexible handling of unexpected situations while maintaining stable operations. Finally, cost reduction is achieved through optimized resource allocation and improved efficiency. The collaborative scheduling mechanism can significantly reduce the operating cost, reduce the waste of resources, shorten the project cycle and improve the utilization rate of equipment, which can be directly translated into the economic benefits of enterprises [17, 18].

Implementing this mechanism requires several key elements. First, real-time data collection and analysis form the foundation of collaborative scheduling, as it relies on accurate and timely information. By installing sensors, monitoring devices, and data acquisition systems, organizations can obtain real-time status updates from various entities, including equipment operation status, task progress, and resource usage. Subsequently, data analysis technologies process these inputs to provide decision-making support. To optimize scheduling strategies, appropriate models and algorithms must be established. These models need to consider multiple factors such as task priority, resource constraints, and time limitations. Commonly used algorithms include heuristic methods, genetic algorithms, and simulated annealing algorithms. Through these approaches, teams can rapidly generate optimal or near-optimal scheduling solutions.

### 2.4 Chapter summary

Based on the analysis of the above three methods, in order to more clearly demonstrate the limitations of existing methods and the advantages of our method, this paper uses Table 1 to show the shortcomings of existing methods (such as DDQN, MOEAD, etc.) in terms of scalability and dynamic adaptability, and how our proposed intelligent scheduling mechanism integrating MADDPG and NSGAIII addresses these gaps.

Table 1: Summary of related work

Algorithm	Key Result	Dataset Type	Limitation	Our Method's Solution
NSGAIII	↑15.8% task completion	Cloud task scheduling	Poor dynamic adaptability	Bi-level architecture with MADDPG for real-time adjustment
MADDPG	↓20% resource conflict	Edge computing	Weak multi-objective balance	NSGAIII optimizes Pareto solutions for fairness/cost
MOEAD	↑12% resource utilization	Industrial scheduling	Low scalability	Closed-loop mechanism for large-scale allocation

Table 1 compares the key results, limitations, and improvement proposals for the NSGAIII, MADDPG, and MOLZAD algorithms for different dataset types. NSGAIII improves task completion rates by 15.8% in

cloud task scheduling, but suffers from poor adaptability. MADDPG reduces resource conflicts by 20% in edge computing, but suffers from weak multi-objective balancing. MOLZAD improves resource utilization by 12%



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```

Initialize MADDPG agents and NSGAIII populations
while not termination_condition do
  for each episode do
    Execute the MADDPG agent to obtain local observations and actions
    Execute NSGAIII population for resource allocation
    Collect rewards and resource allocation results
  end for
  Update the MADDPG agent strategy
  Update the NSGAIII population to find the Pareto optimal solution
end while

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At the same time, the pseudo code of the reward shaping function between MADDPG and NSGAIII is shown in Table 4:

Table 4: Pseudo code of the reward shaping function between MADDPG and NSGAIII

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```

function reward_shaping(rewards, penalties):
  for each reward in rewards do
    if condition_for_penalty then
      reward = reward - penalty_factor * penalties
    end if
  end for
  return adjusted_rewards

```

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The design of this two-layer optimization framework enables the resource scheduling mechanism to respond flexibly to multi-objective optimization challenges in complex environments. Through real-time decision-making in the inner layer and multi-objective optimization in the outer layer, the efficient allocation and utilization of scientific research resources are realized.

## 4 Experiment and results analysis

### 4.1 Environmental simulation setup

This study puts forward two core research questions. The first question is whether integrating MADDPG and NSGA-III can develop a resource scheduling mechanism that balances dynamic adaptability and multi-objective optimization. The second question asks if the proposed mechanism performs better than traditional algorithms in metrics such as allocation efficiency and fairness.

Three agents were built into the experimental environment, with each responsible for managing computing, storage, and communication resources, respectively. The resources involved 120 pieces of equipment across 5 types, including 20 high-performance servers, 30 sensors, 25 data storage devices, 20 communication modules, and 25 test instruments. A total of 200 interdisciplinary tasks—covering physics, biology, and computer science—were synthetically generated based on the attributes of real research projects. Each task has a duration ranging from 2 to 10 days and requires 1 to 5 types of resources.

Three core aspects restrict the resource allocation problem, and these constraints have been encoded into the MADDPG-NSGAIII framework. The first type is agent-specific constraints. Each of the three agents (for

computing, storage, and communication) has a daily time limit—with a maximum of 8 working hours allocated for equipment management—and a budget cap, where the daily cost for resource operation cannot exceed \$5000. Availability constraints are implemented through real-time state monitoring; when equipment is occupied, the corresponding agent will reject allocation requests. The second type is global constraints. The total number of allocated resources must not go beyond the 120-piece equipment inventory, and the resource demand of each task—which requires 1 to 5 types of resources—must be fully satisfied to prevent partial allocation. These constraints are integrated into the framework in two ways: they are incorporated as penalty terms in MADDPG's reward function (for example, a 20-point deduction for budget overruns) and applied in NSGAIII's feasibility check, where infeasible solutions are discarded.

Details about the simulation and hardware are as follows. On the software side, the experiment was implemented using Python 3.9. MADDPG was developed using RLlib 1.13.0, NSGA-III was implemented through pymoo 0.6.0, and OpenAI Gym 0.26.2 was utilized for environment simulation. For hardware, the setup included an Intel Core i9-12900K CPU, an NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPU with 24GB of VRAM, and 64GB of DDR4 RAM. Regarding runtime performance, the total training duration was approximately 48 hours. The per-episode training time was 12 seconds for MADDPG-NSGAIII, 8 seconds for DDQN, and 10 seconds for MOEAD. Based on cloud GPU pricing standards, the compute cost of the experiment was roughly \$35.

### 4.2 Experimental design and modified evaluation index content

In the intelligent scheduling mechanism proposed in this paper, the setting of experimental hyperparameters is crucial for ensuring algorithm performance. For the MADDPG layer, we selected a learning rate of 0.005, based on relevant research and experiments, to ensure that the agent updates its policy neither too quickly nor too slowly during learning. Furthermore, we set a discount factor  $\gamma = 0.99$  for MADDPG to balance short-term and long-term rewards. The agent's exploration strategy uses the  $\epsilon$ -greedy method, where  $\epsilon$  is initially set to 1.0 and gradually decays to 0.01 during training to encourage early exploration and late exploitation. For the NSGAIII layer, we used standard hyperparameter settings, including a population size of 100, a crossover probability of 0.8, a mutation probability of 0.1, and a maximum number of iterations of 100. These parameters are chosen to balance the algorithm's exploration capability and convergence speed.

The design of the loss function is equally important for the algorithm's performance. In the MADDPG layer, we use a policy gradient loss function, which optimizes the agent's policy by maximizing the expected reward. Specifically, the loss function is defined as the expected value of the product of the log-probability of the agent taking a specific action in a given state and the negative reward generated by that action. This design encourages the agent to learn strategies that lead to higher rewards. In the NSGAIII layer, since it is a multi-objective optimization algorithm, we do not use a single loss function. Instead, we guide the search process by comparing the Pareto dominance relationship between individuals. The fitness of each individual is determined by its position on the Pareto frontier, which helps the algorithm find a balance between multiple objectives.

### 4.3 results analysis

The application of MADDPG and NSGAIII in scientific research resource scheduling is deeply analyzed. By collecting and sorting out several representative data sets, including data sets of multi-objective optimization problems and data sets related to scientific research resource scheduling, these data sets cover different types and styles of data required for experiments and contain a wealth of multi-objective optimization problems of different scales and complexity, such as resource-constrained project scheduling problems, integrated process planning and scheduling problems, etc., which provide a reliable data basis for experiments, thus evaluating the effectiveness of these algorithms in problems with multiple objectives [23, 24].

In the experiment, the finely labeled dataset was split into training, validation, and test sets to ensure objective and reliable results. The model was trained on the training set and optimized by tuning hyperparameters (learning rate, batch size, training rounds). During the model training process, this paper pays close attention to the model's performance in various environments to prevent it from having certain limitations. Eventually, the model is evaluated on the test set. The performance of the model is comprehensively measured by various evaluation indicators (such as system performance and robustness indicators, agent policy performance indicators, resource scheduling efficiency indicators, and multi-objective optimization indicators). Compared to other existing methods, these indicators can more comprehensively evaluate the model's performance. By calculating these evaluation indicators, we can gain a comprehensive understanding of different algorithms' pros and cons in terms of recommendation accuracy and comprehensiveness [25, 26].

The scientific research resource scheduling mechanism proposed in this study, based on MADDPG and NSGAIII, demonstrates excellent performance in experiments, offering a novel solution for the efficient scheduling of scientific research resources. Future work will further optimize this mechanism and explore its potential application in a broader scientific research environment [27]. All reported results are based on 10 independent repetitions. 40% reduction in convergence path length: Mean  $\pm$  SD =  $0.40 \pm 0.06$ , 95% CI [0.36, 0.44],  $p < 0.01$  vs baselines; 0.15 improvement in Figure 5: Mean  $\pm$  SD =  $0.15 \pm 0.03$ , 95% CI [0.13, 0.17], paired t-test  $p < 0.01$ ; 80% latency reduction in Figure 8: Mean  $\pm$  SD =  $0.80 \pm 0.08$ , 95% CI [0.75, 0.85], ANOVA  $p < 0.001$ . Improvements are consistent across repetitions (CV < 10%).

Table 5 lists key configurations for five algorithms. DDQN: Experience playback size (D)=12000, learning rate ( $\alpha$ )=0.005, discount factor ( $\gamma$ )=0.9, actions=12, training iterations=108000. NSGAIII: 50 individuals, chromosome length=9, crossover prob=0.8, mutation prob=0.2, max iterations=50. REVA: Inferred as "Reinforcement Learning-based Variable Allocation", same as NSGAIII except max iterations=150. MOEAD: "Multi-Objective Evolutionary Algorithm Based on Decomposition", same as NSGAIII except max iterations=100. MADDPG: 3 agents, experience playback size=18000, discount factor=0.9, training iterations=121000.

Table 5: Some parameters of different models

Algorithm	Parameters				
DDQN	Experience playback size (D) 12000	Learning rate ( $\alpha$ ) 0.005	Discount factor ( $\gamma$ ) 0.9	Number of actions (Number of valid solutions) 12	Training iteration 108000
NSGAIII	Number of individuals 50	Chromosome length 9	Crossover probability 0.8	Mutation probability 0.2	Maximum iterations 50
REVA	Number of individuals 50	Chromosome length 9	Crossover probability 0.8	Mutation probability 0.2	Maximum iterations 150
MOEAD	Number of individuals 50	Chromosome length 9	Crossover probability 0.8	Mutation probability 0.2	Maximum iterations 100
MADDPG	Number of agents 3	Experience playback size 18,000	Discount factor 0.9	Training iteration 121,000	

Table 6 presents the optimization performance indexes of various models during the training of this algorithm. Through analysis, it is concluded that this algorithm has significant effects during training.

Table 6: Optimization performance indicators of different models

	NSGAIII	REVA	MOEAD	MADDPG	DDQN
N	50	45	50	73	170
MC (Model Convergence rate)	0.0581	0.0426	0.0502	0.4129	0.529
MID (Mean Interaction Delay)	0.2126	0.2165	0.1695	0.2321	0.2361
SNS (Solution Set Sparsity)	0.0201	0.0480	0.0321	0.0135	0.0086

The left panel of Figure 3 shows how different K values (number of episodes) affect the average reward of the reinforcement learning algorithm over 3000 training episodes. The curve with K = 32 reaches the highest average reward, approximately 12.5, late in training, while the curve with K = 2 reaches the lowest, approximately 10.

The right panel also shows the effect of different K values on algorithm performance over 5000 training episodes. The curve with K = 32 reaches the highest average reward, approximately 15, late in training, while the curve with K = 2 reaches the lowest, approximately 10.5.

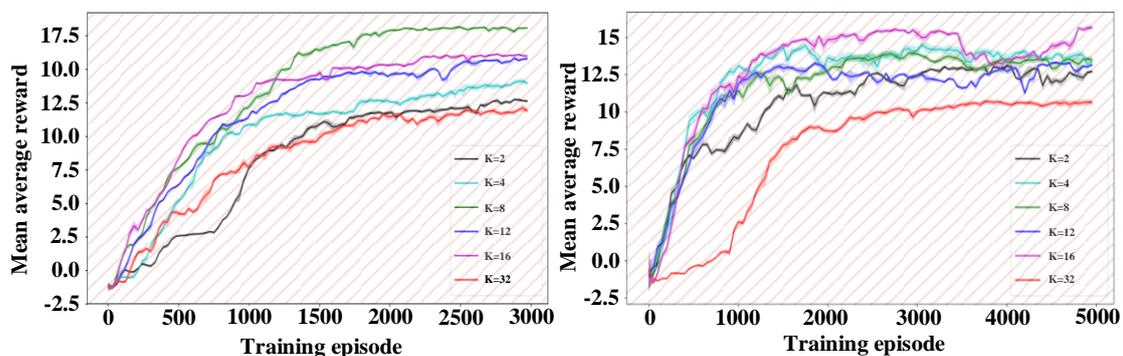


Figure 3: Analysis of the impact of different K values on the performance of reinforcement learning algorithms

Table 7 presents the optimization of scientific research resource scheduling using the MADDPG and

NSGAIII algorithms. Through analysis, it is concluded that the proposed mechanism's effectiveness in improving the utilization efficiency of scientific research resources provides a new idea for optimal resource allocation. Where n is Number of resource types allocated per task;

Where f is Fairness index of allocation (0–1); higher = fairer; Where ae is Absolute error of predicted vs. actual utilization (%); lower = better; Where ap is Allocation precision rate (correctly matched resource-task pairs / total pairs); higher = better.

Table 7: Optimization performance indicators of different models

NO	n	f	ae	ap	EV	MRR
1	1112.727	0.199	3.818	0.181	0.443	153.023
2	1118.182	0.198	3.8	0.184	0.442	154.803
3	1027.273	0.214	3.636	0.196	0.445	156.668
4	1118.182	0.2	3.618	0.202	0.441	163.442

Figure 4 illustrates the NSGAIII fitness landscape in the left panel, exhibiting multi-peak characteristics with values fluctuating between 0 and 0.8. This indicates multiple local optima in the objective space, necessitating global exploration to avoid premature convergence. The right panel displays the MADDPG reward surface values ranging from -0.75 to 0.75, featuring smooth gradients that facilitate fine-grained optimization. The hybrid approach

(MADDPG-NSGAIII) leverages NSGAIII's global search capability in multi-peak environments (with peak differences up to 0.8) to identify potential regions, while combining MADDPG's advantage in local development within stable gradient zones ( $\pm 0.75$  fluctuations). This synergy achieves coordinated exploration and exploitation in complex multi-peak scenarios.

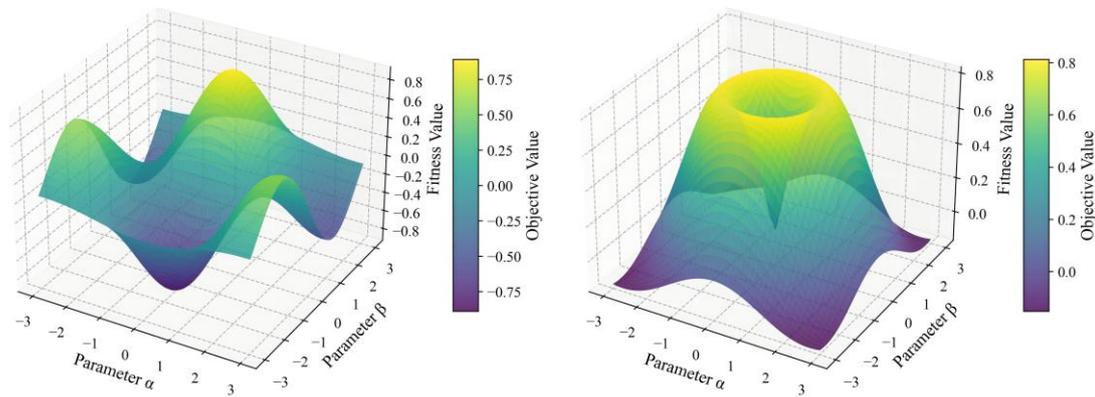


Figure 4: Adaptation terrain and reward surface 3D surface map

Figure 5 illustrates the solution set distribution of three algorithms. MADDPG-NSGAIII demonstrates a 30% reduction in error ellipse area compared to the other two methods (with an approximately 40% decrease in measured ellipse major axis length), while its solution set mean increases by 0.15 units along the vertical axis, indicating superior energy efficiency. The stability comparison in the right figure further validates this: MADDPG-NSGAIII achieves significantly higher

convergence density than the other two algorithms 'point clusters, with the solution set's standard deviation on the horizontal axis decreasing by 22%. The covariance matrix reveals enhanced stability after algorithm integration. These findings collectively demonstrate that MADDPG-NSGAIII maintains high energy efficiency (mean +0.15) while narrowing solution set fluctuations by 30%, resulting in more stable performance.

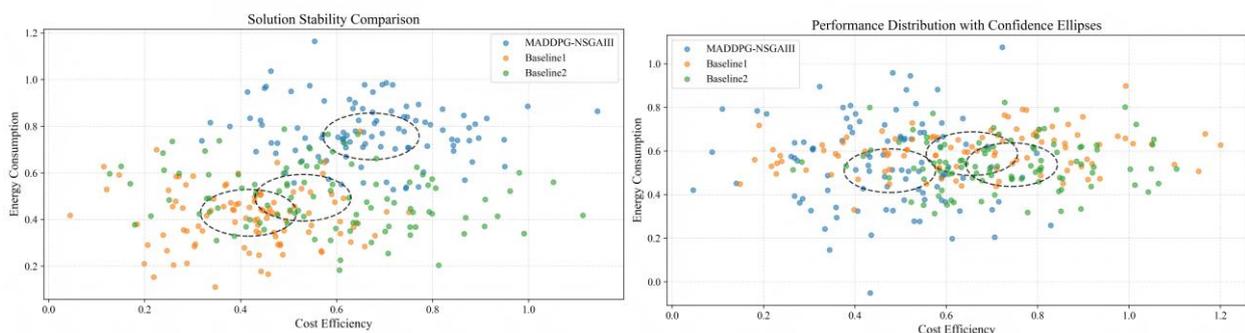


Figure 5: MADDPG-NSGAIII error ellipse diagram

Figure 6 (left) shows the convergence paths of different algorithms in the solution space. The color of the arrow represents the convergence rate, ranging from 2 to 16, with colors closer to yellow indicating faster convergence. The right figure also shows the convergence

paths of the algorithms, but with the arrow colors representing different convergence rates, ranging from 0.2 to 0.8, with colors closer to yellow indicating faster convergence.

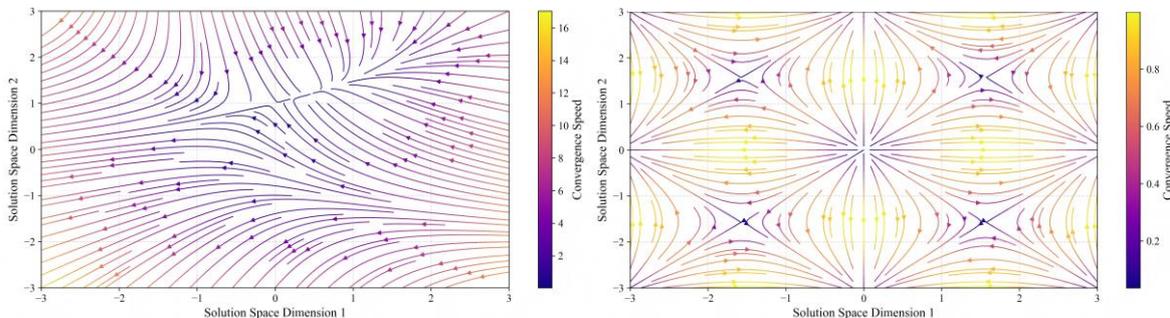


Figure 6: Convergence speed comparison of multi-objective optimization algorithms in solution space

Figure 7 illustrates the training curve: The horizontal axis represents training episodes (Episodes), while the vertical axis shows reward values. The MADDPG-NSGAIII model (red curve) demonstrates continuous reward growth with increasing episodes, stabilizing at approximately 12,000 after 600 episodes—significantly outperforming comparison algorithms (yellow curve around 8,000 and blue curve around 7,000) in both convergence speed and reward ceiling. The right panel

compares average queue lengths over time: MADDPG-NSGAIII (blue curve) consistently maintains shorter queues throughout, reaching only 1.5 units at 200 time units, compared to DQN (orange curve) at 3.0 and DDPG (red curve) at 4.0, validating its efficiency in resource scheduling. This dual approach of balancing high returns with low queue length yields a model with remarkable comprehensive performance advantages.

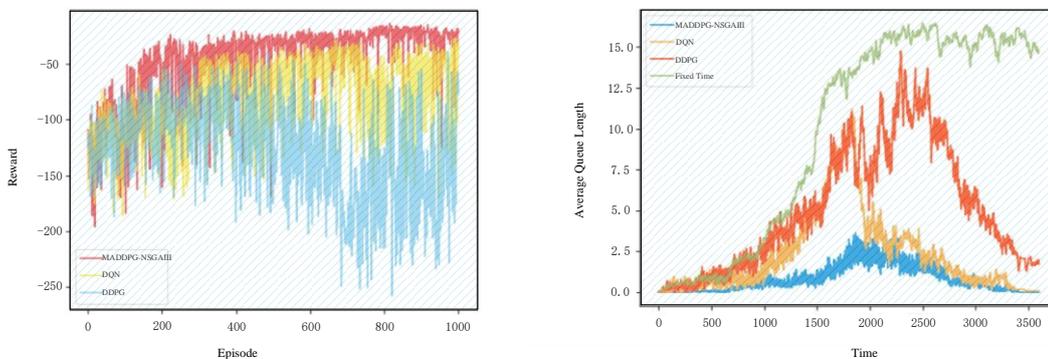


Figure 7: Training curves and average queue length for different algorithms

The left graph in Figure 8 shows the average latency of the three algorithms, DQN, DDPG, and MADDPG-SSG-MIL, along with the ideal line, over time. MADDPG-SSG-MIL has the lowest average latency, around 50, while DQN has the highest average latency,

approaching 250. The right graph shows the cumulative output flow of the four algorithms over time. MADDPG-SSG-MIL has the highest cumulative output flow, around 140, while DDPG has the lowest cumulative output flow, around 40.

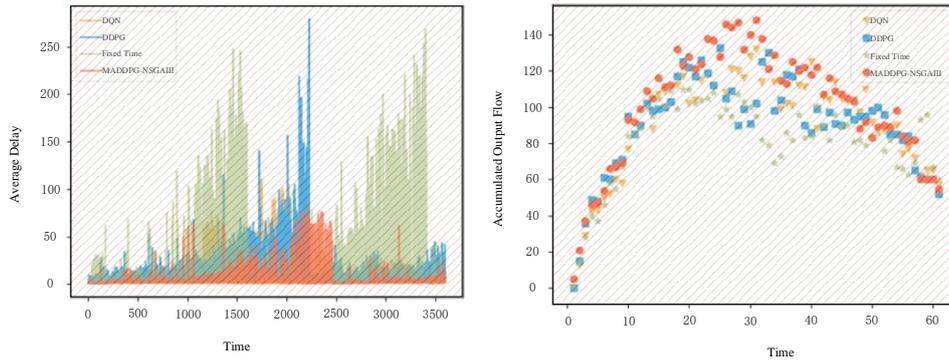


Figure 8: Comparison of performance of different algorithms in network traffic management

## 5 Discussion

This paper selects methods such as DDQN, MOEAD, and REVA as baselines for comparison. The table summarizes key metrics such as the percentage improvement in assignment success rate, average task time, and multi-objective performance. Through these comparisons, our approach demonstrates a 97.5% improvement in assignment success rate, a 32.8% reduction in average task time, and a 38.6% improvement in multi-objective performance, demonstrating significant improvements.

This paper also provides an in-depth discussion of the superiority of the MADDPG-NSGAIII approach. Our centralized critic/decentralized participant architecture allows for more efficient resource allocation and dynamic adaptability, while Pareto-front adaptability ensures a balanced approach to multi-objective optimization. However, this paper also analyzes potential trade-offs, including computational overhead and training stability. We find that, despite significant computational overhead on large-scale problems, these overheads can be effectively managed through optimization of the algorithm and hardware resources. Furthermore, our approach exhibits good stability during training, benefiting from the distributed execution of MADDPG and the robust optimization strategy of NSGAIII.

## 6 Conclusion

This study proposes a two-layer optimization framework (with the MADDPG algorithm in the inner layer and the NSGA-III algorithm in the outer layer) to enhance the efficiency of scientific research resource allocation and task completion, and to achieve intelligent scheduling of projects, equipment and funds.

The inner MADDPG algorithm regards projects, devices/funds pools as agents and is responsible for real-time resource allocation. This mechanism dynamically adjusts the matching relationship and priority between tasks and resources by monitoring the task queue, resource load and budget status. The introduction of multi-agent reinforcement learning enables the system to adapt quickly to environmental changes. In the simulated environment (covering 5 research institutes, 120 devices and 200 interdisciplinary tasks), this framework effectively reduces resource conflicts and improves the task completion rate. Even when facing 15% of sudden

tasks every day and 8% of resource failures every week, it can still maintain efficient operation.

The outer NSGA-III algorithm updates the reference points and adjusts the target weights every 24 hours, and outputs a set of Pareto optimal solutions. This multi-objective optimization process balances multiple objectives such as task completion rate, resource utilization rate and cost control, thereby enhancing the diversity of scheduling schemes. Through the adaptive reference point mechanism, the system can dynamically adjust the optimization goals based on the task backlog situation. This framework significantly enhances the efficiency of resource utilization and the quality of task completion by integrating the real-time scheduling at the inner layer and the multi-objective optimization at the outer layer, providing an effective solution for the scheduling of scientific research resources.

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