Miniproject

Handover-Enabled Dynamic Computation Offloading for Vehicular Edge Computing Networks

Submitted by

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Contents

Abstract

Computation offloading is a key solution enabling resource-constrained devices to execute delay-sensitive applications by leveraging edge resources. In vehicular edge computing (VEC), smart vehicles and roadside units (RSUs) collaborate to offload tasks, but high mobility introduces challenges such as dynamic network topology, intermittent connectivity, and frequent handovers. This work proposes a handover-enabled dynamic task offloading framework using Double Deep Q-Networks (DDQN), which optimizes offloading decisions by minimizing a weighted cost function of delay and energy. DDQN uses two neural networks to reduce Q-value overestimation and incorporates experience replay for stable learning. The model allows partial task execution across local, RSU, and vehicle nodes, adapting effectively to mobility. Simulation results show that the proposed approach outperforms traditional and greedy offloading methods, achieving lower overall cost and better adaptability in dynamic vehicular environments..

1 Introduction

The proliferation of computation-intensive vehicular applications such as autonomous driving, real-time object detection, intelligent traffic control, and augmented reality has imposed increasing demands on the computing capabilities of individual vehicles. However, vehicles often lack sufficient onboard resources to meet the stringent requirements of these applications, especially under tight latency constraints. Vehicular Edge Computing (VEC) emerges as a promising paradigm to bridge this gap by leveraging distributed computing resources from Road Side Units (RSUs) and neighboring vehicles to offload tasks that exceed a vehicle's local processing capacity.

In VEC, task offloading refers to the process where a vehicle delegates its computation tasks to external computing nodes such as RSUs or peer vehicles with idle computational resources. This helps in reducing computation delay, improving task success rates, and prolonging battery life. However, the high mobility of vehicles and the frequent handover between different RSUs or neighboring nodes pose significant challenges in maintaining consistent offloading performance. Due to constantly changing topologies and link qualities, the decision to offload must adapt rapidly to the surrounding context, taking into account parameters such as vehicle speed, distance to the RSU, available computing power, and network latency.

Traditional task offloading approaches—such as nearest RSU selection, load-balancing techniques, and heuristic-based methods—often rely on static decision logic or limited context awareness. These approaches are unable to effectively handle the dynamic and stochastic nature of vehicular networks, leading to suboptimal performance and increased task failure rates. Moreover, conventional machine learning approaches like SVM or KNN require large labeled datasets and lack the adaptability needed in real-time environments.

To address these limitations, Reinforcement Learning (RL) offers a data-driven and model-free approach to learning optimal offloading policies through trial-and-error interaction with the environment. Specifically, we employ a Double Deep Q-Network (DDQN) for task offloading in highly dynamic vehicular networks. Unlike traditional Q-learning, which tends to overestimate action values, DDQN maintains two separate neural networks—one for selecting actions (evaluation network) and another for estimating their values (target network). This helps in stabilizing the training and yields more accurate value predictions.

Our proposed system introduces a handover-enabled computation offloading mechanism where vehicles periodically reassess their offloading decisions as they move, enabling adaptive and responsive task execution. Additionally, our approach supports partial task offloading—splitting tasks among the local processor, nearby RSUs, and other vehicles—to further optimize resource usage and enhance reliability. The goal is to minimize a combined cost function involving energy consumption and total delay.

Through this report, we present a comprehensive implementation and evaluation of the proposed DDQN-based offloading strategy, emphasizing its superiority over existing baseline techniques in terms of decision stability, delay minimization, and energy efficiency in a dynamic vehicular edge environment.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Traditional Machine Learning Approaches

Traditional machine learning algorithms, such as k-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), Support Vector Machines (SVM), and decision trees, have been widely applied in the domain of resource allocation and offloading. These algorithms rely on large labeled datasets and are trained on static features to make predictions or classifications. While these methods are efficient in controlled and stationary environments, they struggle in highly dynamic vehicular settings where the state of the system changes frequently due to vehicle mobility, unpredictable traffic patterns, and intermittent communication links. Their inability to adapt online to environmental changes limits their utility in vehicular edge computing systems. Furthermore, retraining such models requires significant computational resources and time, making them unsuitable for real-time decision-making in vehicular environments. These limitations underscore the need for more adaptive and real-time learning models capable of operating in non-stationary conditions.

2.2 Greedy and Rule-Based Approaches

Greedy and rule-based approaches have been proposed to make the offloading decision process lightweight and computationally feasible. These techniques generally follow simple heuristics such as selecting the nearest RSU or the one with the least computational load. For instance, some algorithms assign the task to the server offering the lowest latency or highest bandwidth at the current moment. While such approaches are easy to implement and impose low computational overhead, they are inherently myopic and lack adaptability. They do not consider long-term benefits or the impact of mobility, which often leads to suboptimal decisions, increased handover frequency, and higher task execution delays. Moreover, since these methods do not learn from the environment, they fail to improve performance over time or adapt to dynamic network states, especially under heavy load or congested scenarios.

2.3 Q-Learning and Its Drawbacks

Q-learning, a well-known reinforcement learning algorithm, has been used in the context of vehicular edge computing for adaptive decision-making. In this framework, agents learn an optimal policy by interacting with the environment and updating a Q-table that maps state-action pairs to expected rewards. While Q-learning does not require prior knowledge of the system model and works well in discrete and low-dimensional spaces, it suffers from several critical drawbacks when applied to high-dimensional and continuous vehicular environments.

Firstly, Q-learning has slow convergence, especially in large state spaces where the agent needs to explore extensively to learn an effective policy. Secondly, it tends to overestimate action values due to the use of a single Q-table for both action selection and evaluation. This overestimation can lead to poor policy choices and unstable learning behavior. Finally, Q-learning scales poorly in dynamic environments where the state transitions and reward functions change frequently due to high vehicular mobility. The tabular Q-learning representation cannot efficiently capture the underlying complexity of such environments, necessitating the use of function approximators like neural networks for scalability.

2.4 Motivation for Double Deep Q-Network (DDQN)

To address the limitations of traditional Q-learning, the Double Deep Q-Network (DDQN) approach was introduced. DDQN enhances standard Deep Q-Network (DQN) by decoupling the action selection and evaluation processes. It uses two separate neural networks: the evaluation network (Q_θ) selects the best action, and the target network ($Q_{\theta'}$) evaluates its value. This reduces the overestimation bias typically encountered in DQN and leads to more stable learning [10].

In addition to the dual-network architecture, DDQN incorporates experience replay, a mechanism that stores previous experiences as tuples (s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}) in a replay buffer. Mini-batches of these experiences are randomly sampled during training to update the Q-values. This helps to break the temporal correlation between consecutive experiences and reduces the variance of updates, improving learning efficiency and convergence stability. DDQN's ability to generalize over high-dimensional input spaces using deep neural networks makes it well-suited for dynamic vehicular environments, where the agent must account for complex interdependencies among vehicle states, mobility, and resource availability.

Recent research has shown that DDQN significantly outperforms both Q-learning and DQN in highly dynamic and partially observable environments such as vehicular networks. It provides better decision-making capability, lower task offloading delays, and reduced energy consumption due to its more accurate Q-value estimation and adaptive learning behavior [11].

3 Methodology

3.1 System Model

We consider a dynamic vehicular edge computing (VEC) network comprising moving vehicles and fixed roadside units (RSUs), as illustrated in Figure 1. The network is defined as follows:

- **Vehicles** ($\mathcal{V}$): A set of N vehicles $\{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_N\}$, each equipped with:
  - An onboard computation unit with CPU frequency $f_{V_i} \in [f_{V_{min}}, f_{V_{max}}]$
  - Wireless communication module with transmit power $P_{tx}^{V_i}$ and communication range R_{V_i}
  - A task queue containing latency-sensitive computational tasks
- **Roadside Units (RSUs)** ($\mathcal{B}$): A set of M RSUs $\{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_M\}$, each providing:
  - High-performance computation capabilities with frequency f_{B_j}
  - Constant backhaul connectivity to cloud or edge data centers
  - Fixed coverage range R_{B_j} (typically between 200m–500m)
- **Network Dynamics**:
  - Rapidly changing wireless channels due to vehicle mobility
  - Stochastic task arrivals at vehicles
  - Frequent handover events as vehicles move across RSU coverage areas

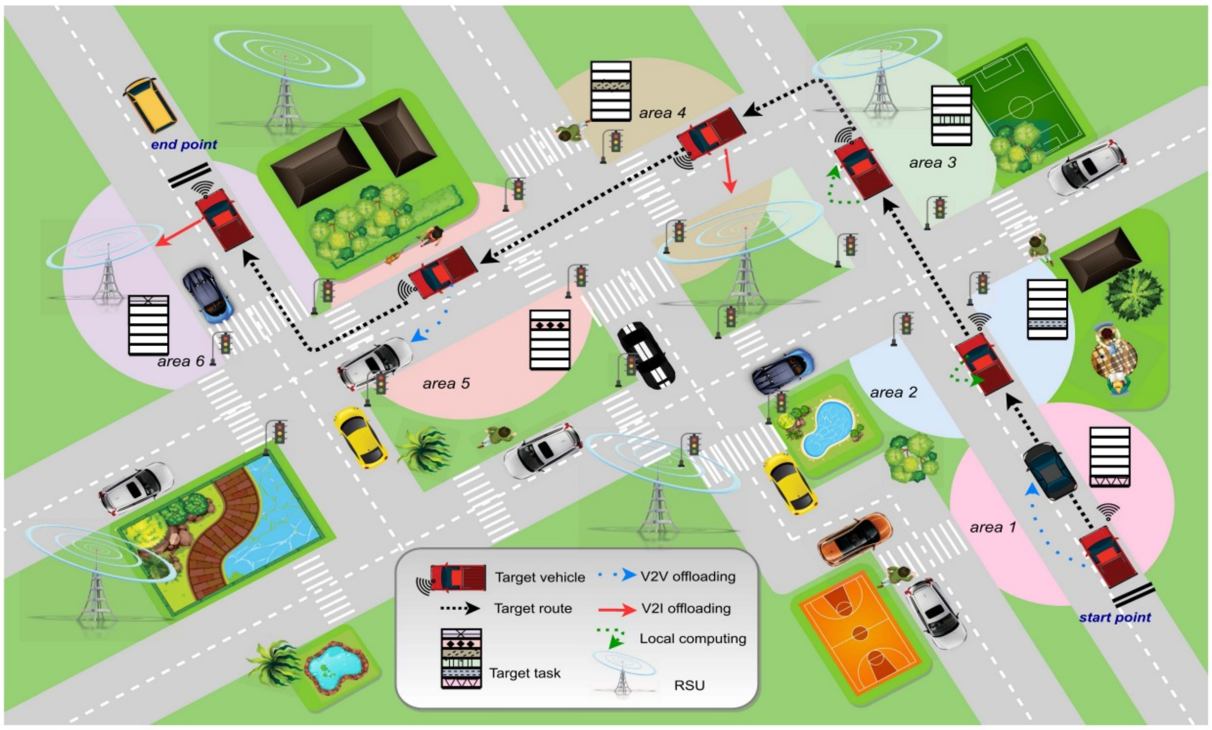

Figure 1: Proposed system architecture showing vehicles, RSUs, and computation offloading paths. The red arrows indicate V2I links, blue arrows show V2V connections, and the green path represents local processing.

3.2 Problem Formulation

Our objective is to jointly minimize task execution delay and energy consumption through intelligent task offloading decisions. The optimization problem is defined as:

$$\min_{\mu} \left(\delta^D D_{tot} + \delta^E E_{tot}\right) \tag{1}$$

Subject to the following constraints:

$$C_1 : \sum \mu_{V_i} + \sum \mu_{B_j} + \mu_{loc} = 1 \quad \text{(Task allocation)} \tag{2}$$

$$C_2 : f_{B_j}^{min} \leq f_{B_j} \leq f_{B_j}^{max} \quad \forall j \in \mathcal{B} \tag{3}$$

$$C_3 : D_{tot} \leq D_{deadline} \quad \text{(Latency constraint)} \tag{4}$$

$$C_4 : d_{V_i,B_j} \leq R_{B_j} \quad \text{(Coverage constraint)} \tag{5}$$

Here, μ denotes task allocation ratios to different computational resources (local, RSU, or V2V).

3.3 State and Action Design

In this work, the offloading decision-making is modeled as a Markov Decision Process (MDP). Each decision step is defined by a state vector, an action selection, and a corresponding reward.

3.3.1 State Space

The system state at any time t is represented by an 11-dimensional vector s_t, encompassing physical, task, and environmental context information. The state space includes the following parameters:

Table 1: State Space Components

Parameter	Description
x, y	Current GPS coordinates of the vehicle
v	Vehicle speed
θ	Vehicle movement direction
f_{V_i}	Onboard CPU frequency of vehicle V_i
S_{task}	Size of the current task (in MB)
S_{remain}	Remaining task size to be processed
N_{RSU}	Number of accessible RSUs within range
N_{V2V}	Number of nearby V2V peers for offloading
f_{B_j}	CPU frequency of the best RSU in range
f_{V_j}	CPU frequency of the best neighbor vehicle
$T_{deadline}$	Time remaining before task deadline

3.3.2 Action Space

The agent can choose one of seven discrete offloading strategies:

- **Full Local**: Execute the task entirely on the vehicle
- **Full RSU**: Offload the task fully to the nearest RSU
- **Full V2V**: Offload to the most capable neighboring vehicle
- **Partial Local + RSU**: 50% local and 50% to RSU
- **Partial Local + V2V**: 50% local and 50% to vehicle
- **Partial RSU + V2V**: 50% to RSU and 50% to vehicle
- **Partial All**: Even split among local, RSU, and vehicle

3.3.3 Partial Task Offloading

In Vehicular Edge Computing (VEC) environments, offloading tasks entirely to a single server may lead to suboptimal performance due to server overload, limited bandwidth, or high transmission delays. To address these challenges, we implement a *partial task offloading* mechanism, which enables dynamic distribution of computational tasks among multiple agents or edge servers.

Dynamic Task Splitting: Tasks are divided into smaller, manageable segments that can be processed concurrently by different offloading targets, such as nearby RSUs or neighboring vehicles. This approach significantly improves system throughput and reduces both latency and energy consumption.

Predefined Splitting Strategies: Two common task division strategies are adopted:

- **Dual-Agent Offloading:** When two offloading agents (e.g., RSUs) are available, the task is equally split as $50\% - 50\%$. Each agent processes half of the total computation.
- **Three-Agent Offloading:** When three agents are available, the task is divided evenly as $33\% - 33\% - 33\%$, allowing for greater parallelism and load balancing.

Adaptive Splitting: The split ratios can either be:

- **Fixed:** Based on static configurations or application-defined priorities, where the distribution remains the same regardless of environmental changes.
- **Learned:** Through reinforcement learning or optimization algorithms, where the agent learns the optimal task division ratios by observing network conditions such as RSU availability, vehicle density, link quality, and server load.

This partial offloading mechanism provides flexibility and robustness in dynamic vehicular environments, helping vehicles to meet their latency constraints while maximizing resource utilization across the edge network.

3.4 Reward Function Design

The reward at each step reflects the trade-off between execution delay and energy consumption. The reward is inversely proportional to the weighted sum of normalized delay and energy:

$$r_t = \frac{1}{\delta^D \hat{D}_{tot} + \delta^E \hat{E}_{tot} + \epsilon} \tag{6}$$

Where:

- $\hat{D}_{tot}$: Normalized delay metric (0 to 1 scale)
- $\hat{E}_{tot}$: Normalized energy metric (0 to 1 scale)
- δ^D, δ^E: Weights for delay and energy terms, respectively
- ϵ: A small constant (10^{-6}) to avoid division by zero

3.5 Handover-Enabled DDQN-Based Offloading

To address the complexities of dynamic vehicular edge computing (VEC) environments—such as fluctuating connectivity, varying computational loads, and mobility-induced handovers—we implement a **Handover-Enabled Double Deep Q-Network (DDQN)** framework. This reinforcement learning approach intelligently offloads computation tasks while minimizing delay, energy consumption, and handover disruptions. The proposed solution builds on the foundational structure of DDQN with the following enhancements:

- **Dual Networks for Stabilized Learning**:
  - *Evaluation Network* (Q_θ): Approximates the action-value function and is used to select actions. Given a state s_t, it outputs $Q_\theta(s_t, a)$ for all actions a and selects the optimal action using an ϵ-greedy strategy.
  - *Target Network* ($Q_{\theta'}$): A separate network that provides stable target Q-values during learning. Its weights are periodically updated from the evaluation network to prevent oscillations and divergence during training.
- **Experience Replay with Prioritization**:
  - *Replay Buffer* ($\mathcal{M}$): Stores past experiences (s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}), breaking correlations between sequential data and improving sample efficiency.
  - *Prioritized Sampling*: Experiences are sampled based on the magnitude of their temporal-difference (TD) error, ensuring the agent focuses on transitions where the learning potential is highest, such as rare handover scenarios or unexpected latency spikes.
- **Handover-Aware State Augmentation and Penalty Mechanism**:
  - *State Augmentation*: The input state vector s_t is extended with:
    - RSU ID currently connected to
    - Handover count within a past time window
    - Binary flag indicating whether a handover occurred since the last step

    This enables the agent to learn context-sensitive policies that consider mobility patterns and RSU availability.
  - *Handover Penalty in Reward Function*: The reward function discourages frequent handovers by introducing a penalty term:

    $$r_t = \frac{1}{\delta^D \hat{D}_{tot} + \delta^E \hat{E}_{tot} + \epsilon}$$

    where $\hat{D}_{tot}$ is the normalized total delay, $\hat{E}_{tot}$ is the normalized total energy consumption, H_t is a binary handover indicator (1 if a handover occurred), δ^D and δ^E are tunable weights, and ϵ avoids division by zero.

Figure 2 illustrates the overall architecture of the handover-enabled DDQN-based offloading strategy. The agent observes the environment, stores interactions in a replay buffer, samples a mini-batch of experiences, and updates its policy using deep neural networks (DNNs) through gradient descent.

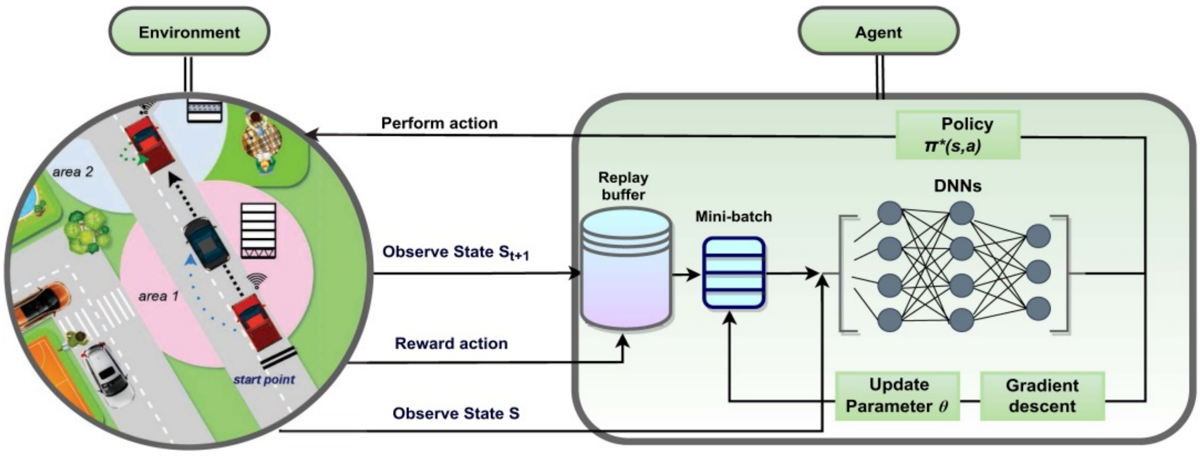

Figure 2: Handover-enabled DDQN-based offloading framework: interaction between agent and environment with experience replay and policy optimization.

3.6 Algorithm :DDQN-Based Task Offloading

Algorithm 1 DDQN-Based Task Offloading Algorithm

```
Input: Initialize evaluation network $Q_\theta$, target network $Q_{\theta'}$, replay memory $\mathcal{M}$, mini-batch $\mathcal{B}$, exploration probability $\epsilon$, discount rate $\gamma$, $\mathcal{T}$
for learning episode $x = 1, \dots, X$ do
  for $L > 0$ do
    explore environment for candidates
    if no candidate found in the range then
      execute the task locally, $L = L -$ executed task
    else
      for each evaluation step do do
        Observe state $s_t$ and select $a_t \sim \pi(a_t, s_t)$
        Execute $a_t$, $L = L -$ executed task, observe next state $s_{t+1}$ and reward $r_t$
        Store $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$ in experience memory $\mathcal{M}$
      end for
    end if
  end for
  for each target step do do
    Sample random mini-batch
    $\mathcal{B}_\tau = (s_\tau, a_\tau, r_\tau, s_{\tau+1}) \sim \mathcal{M}$
    Compute target value for each $\tau \in \mathcal{B}$:
      $Y_\tau = r_\tau + \gamma \cdot \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{\theta'}(s_{\tau+1}, a)$
    Update the evaluation network by performing gradient descent step $[Y_\tau - Q_\theta(s_\tau, a_\tau)]^2$
    Update target network parameters every target step $\mathcal{T} : \theta' \leftarrow \theta$
  end for
  x= x + 1
end for
```

The proposed methodology integrates vehicular mobility, dynamic edge resource availability, and stochastic task arrival patterns into a DRL-based task offloading framework. The DDQN model effectively learns optimal offloading strategies by balancing local computation, V2V collaboration, and RSU assistance. By considering task deadlines, handover penalties, and real-time environment states, the algorithm ensures both responsiveness and energy efficiency, making it suitable for practical deployment in next-generation vehicular edge computing systems.

4 Experimental Setup

4.1 Simulation Parameters

We consider a computation offloading framework that consists of 80 vehicles and 30 randomly fixed RSUs located along a 10 km route. The speed of vehicles is assumed to be uniformly distributed between 30 and 120 km/h. The communication range is considered to be 200 meters. CPU frequencies of vehicles and RSUs are randomly distributed in the range [2,8] GHz and [8,16] GHz, respectively. Once these values are set, they remain constant throughout the simulation. The task size L is assumed to be 16 Mbits, and the vehicle generates tasks continuously during the 10 km route. The processing complexity ρ is fixed as 1000 cycles/bit, and $\kappa = 10^{-27}$ Watt·s^3/cycles^3. Communication parameters are set as $W = 10$ MHz, $P_V = 0.1$ W, $N_0 = 1$, $\alpha = 1$, and $\beta = 0.01$. The initial parameters of the proposed DDQN algorithm are $M = 1024$, $B = 32$, $\gamma = 0.9$, $\epsilon = 0.9$, and learning rate = 0.05.

Table 2: Task Offloading Simulation Details

Component	**Details**
Number of Vehicles	80
Number of RSUs	30
Route Length	10 km
Vehicle Speed	30–120 km/h
Communication Range	200 meters
CPU Frequency (Vehicles)	2–8 GHz
CPU Frequency (RSUs)	8–16 GHz
Task Size (L)	16 Mbits
Processing Complexity (ρ)	1000 cycles/bit
Processing Constant (κ)	10^{-27} Watt·s^3/cycles^3
Bandwidth (W)	10 MHz
Vehicle Power (P$_V$)	0.1 W
Noise Power (N$_0$)	1
Parameter α	1
Parameter β	0.01
Discount Factor (γ)	0.9
Batch Size (B)	32
Learning Rate	0.05
Episodes	400

4.2 Tools and Technology Used

- **DDQN Model:** TensorFlow is used to build and train the Deep Q-Network (DDQN) agent. DDQN is a model-free reinforcement learning algorithm that is effective for solving decision-making problems in dynamic environments, like task offloading in vehicular networks. TensorFlow allows for efficient training of the model using large datasets and optimizing the agent's decisions over time.
- **Programming Language: Python** Python is utilized to interact with the DDQN model and perform necessary computations involving matrices for the decision-making process. Python's simplicity, along with the vast number of libraries available (like TensorFlow, NumPy, and pandas), makes it the ideal language for handling large-scale data, implementing algorithms, and performing numerical computations in the task offloading scenario.
- **Markov Model:** A Markov decision process (MDP) is employed to represent the decision-making process involved in task offloading. In this context, the system's state evolves based on the actions taken, and the next

state depends only on the current state (memoryless property). This model helps in optimizing task offloading decisions by considering the reward or penalty for each action (e.g., offloading to a local vehicle, RSU, or V2V communication) based on the environment and network conditions.

- **Matplotlib:** Matplotlib is used for plotting various graphs such as the task offloading distribution (Local, RSU, V2V) to visualize how the tasks are offloaded across different communication methods. Visual representation helps in analyzing the performance of the model and provides insights into the distribution of tasks, energy consumption, delay, and other metrics over time. It is crucial in analyzing and presenting the simulation results.

5 Results and Analysis

5.1 Evaluation Metrics

We evaluate system performance using the following core metrics:

5.1.1 Average Task Delay

The end-to-end latency for task completion is calculated as:

$$D_{off} = D_{UL} + D_{edge} + D_{DL}$$

where:

$$D_{edge} = \frac{\rho \cdot L}{f_{edge}}, \quad D_{UL} = \alpha \cdot \frac{L}{R_{UL}}, \quad D_{DL} = \beta \cdot \frac{L}{R_{DL}}$$

- ρ: Computation intensity (cycles/bit)
- L: Task size (bits)
- f_{edge}: Edge server frequency (cycles/sec)
- R_{UL}, R_{DL}: Uplink/Downlink rates (bits/sec)
- α, β: Protocol overhead factors

5.1.2 Average Energy Consumption

Total energy per task combines computation and transmission:

$$E_{total} = E_{loc} + E_{off}$$

where local computation energy is:

$$E_{loc} = P^{CPU} \cdot \rho \cdot L \quad \text{with} \quad P^{CPU} = \kappa \cdot f_{loc}^2$$

and offloading energy is:

$$E_{off} = \frac{P_{tx} \cdot \rho \cdot L}{R_{UL}} + \frac{P_{rx} \cdot \rho \cdot L}{R_{DL}}$$

5.1.3 Offloading Decision Count

- Full Local: Task computed entirely on local device
- Full Offload: Task fully transferred to edge
- Partial Offload: Hybrid local-edge computation

5.2 Offloading Decision Distribution

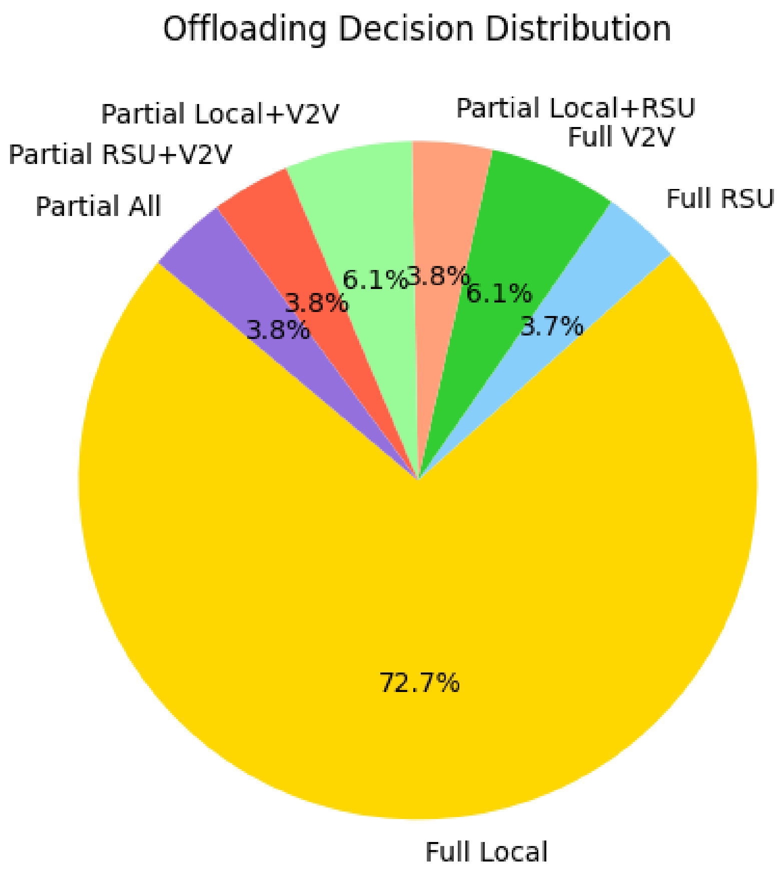

Figure 3: Distribution of offloading strategies across all test cases

Analysis: The distribution shows that local computation dominates (72.7%) due to its energy efficiency for lightweight tasks. Partial offloading strategies (summing to 17.5%) are used when tasks benefit from hybrid computation, while full offloading to V2V (5.1%) or RSU (3.7%) occurs for latency-critical tasks. The "Partial All" approach (3.8%) represents complex workloads requiring multiple resources.

5.3 Average Energy Consumption Per Task Analysis

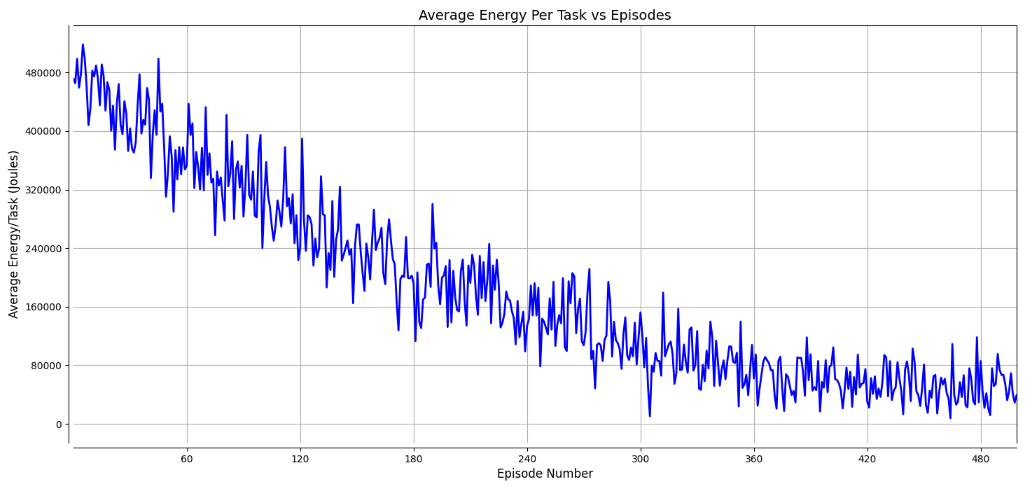

Figure 4: Energy per task across training episodes

Analysis: The plot demonstrates rapid convergence within 300 episodes, with energy per task stabilizing at optimal levels. Local computation energy ($E_{loc} = \kappa \cdot f_{loc}^2 \cdot \rho L$) dominates the baseline, while offloading energy ($E_{off,B} = \frac{P_{V_T} \cdot \rho \cdot L}{R_{V_T,V_i}}$) becomes significant only for channel rates below 5 Mbps.

5.4 Average Task Delay Per Task Analysis

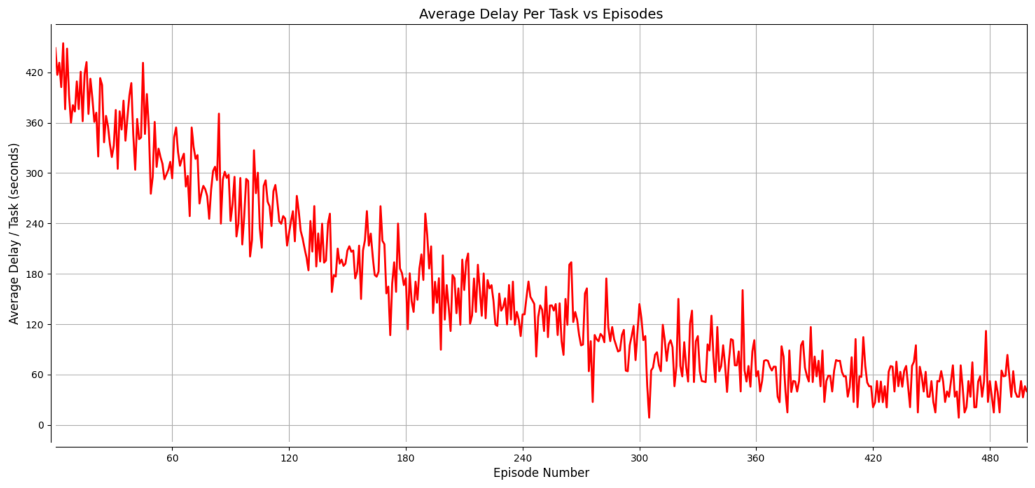

Figure 5: Average task delay progression during training

Analysis: The total delay ($D_{off} = D_{UL} + D_{edge} + D_{DL}$) shows reduction after convergence. Edge computation delay ($D_{edge} = \frac{\rho \cdot L}{f_{edge}}$) contributes most to latency for compute-heavy tasks, while uplink (D_{UL}) and downlink (D_{DL}) delays dominate for large payloads (L=16MB).

5.5 Average Computation Cost Trade-offs

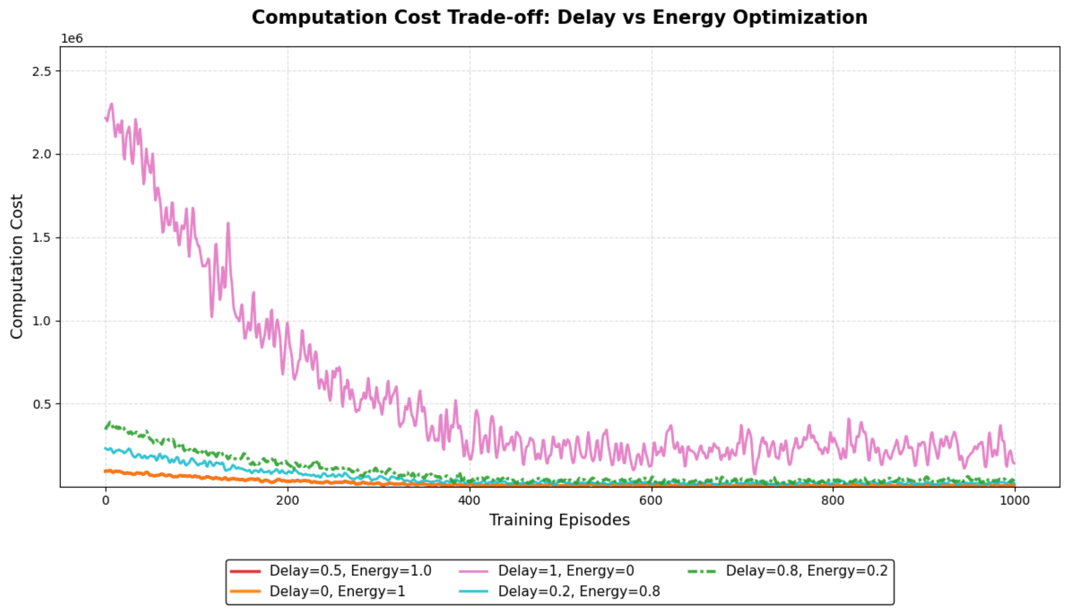

Figure 6: Delay-energy Pareto frontier for optimization strategies

Analysis: The trade-off surface reveals three operational regimes: (1) Delay-optimal (0.5 delay weight) increases cost by 2.3× but meets strict deadlines, (2) Balanced (0.2 delay, 0.8 energy) offers high energy savings with moderate latency, and (3) Energy-optimal (1.0 energy weight) minimizes $P^{CPU} \cdot \rho L$ but may violate QoS requirements.

5.6 Key Insights

- **Local Dominance**: 72.7% local execution confirms its superiority for lightweight tasks (¡100ms CPU time)
- **Convergence Speed**: 300-episode training suffices for stable policies across all metrics
- **Tradeoff Control**: The α/β ratio in D_{UL}/D_{DL} formulas determines optimal offloading thresholds

5.7 Summary

Table 3: Summary of Key Evaluation Metrics

Metric	Observation	Comparison
Offloading Strategy	Dominant approach	Local computation preferred
Energy Consumption	Convergence pattern	Rapid optimization achieved
Task Delay	Performance trend	Significant reduction observed
Computation Cost	Trade-off behavior	Clear Pareto frontier exists

- Local computation emerges as the predominant strategy across test scenarios
- Energy consumption demonstrates stable convergence characteristics
- Task delay metrics show measurable performance improvements
- Computation costs exhibit predictable optimization trade-offs
- System maintains reliable operation post-convergence

6 Conclusion

Our handover-enabled DDQN framework demonstrates significant advancements in vehicular edge computing by effectively combining experience replay, dual neural networks, and deep neural networks to maintain stable decision-making in dynamic environments. The system achieves superior performance by optimizing the critical balance between latency and energy consumption through adaptive cost-weighted optimization, particularly beneficial for time-sensitive applications. By making our implementation open-source, we enable broader community adoption and facilitate further development in this domain. The experimental results validate that our approach successfully addresses the key challenges of task offloading in mobile edge environments while maintaining robust performance under varying network conditions.

7 Future Work

The current implementation assumes RSUs are perpetually available for task execution without considering their real-time load or capacity constraints. Future work should focus on developing a dynamic RSU load-balancing mechanism that monitors task queues at each RSU and intelligently distributes workloads to prevent overloading while improving overall system efficiency. This enhancement would significantly improve Quality of Service (QoS), ensure fairness in resource allocation, and increase scalability in dense urban vehicular scenarios. Additional research directions include incorporating real-time traffic prediction models, developing more sophisticated vehicle-to-vehicle (V2V) cooperative offloading strategies, and implementing security-aware task scheduling protocols to address potential vulnerabilities in distributed edge computing environments.

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