

# Heuristics for the Mirrored Traveling Tournament Problem

Celso C. Ribeiro<sup>1</sup> and Sebastián Urrutia<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Computer Science, Universidade Federal Fluminense, Rua Passo da Pátria 156, Niterói, RJ 24210-240, Brazil.

`celso@inf.puc-rio.br`

<sup>2</sup> Department of Computer Science, Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro, Rua Marquês de São Vicente 225, Rio de Janeiro, RJ 22453-900, Brazil.

`useba@inf.puc-rio.br`

**Abstract.** Professional sports leagues are a major economic activity around the world. Teams and leagues do not want to waste their investments in players and structure in consequence of poor schedules of games. Game scheduling is a difficult task, involving several decision makers, different types of constraints, and multiple objectives to optimize. The Traveling Tournament Problem abstracts certain types of sport timetabling issues, where the objective is to minimize the total distance traveled by the teams. In this work, we tackle the mirrored version of this problem. We first propose a fast and effective constructive algorithm. We also describe a new heuristic based on the combination of the GRASP and Iterated Local Search metaheuristics. A strong neighborhood based on ejection chains is also proposed and leads to significant improvements in solution quality. Very good solutions are obtained for the mirrored problem, sometimes even better than those found by other approximate algorithms for the less constrained non-mirrored version. Computational results are shown for benchmark problems and for a large instance associated with the main division of the 2003 edition of the Brazilian soccer championship, involving 24 teams.

## 1 Introduction

Professional sports leagues are a major economic activity around the world. Teams and leagues do not want to waste their investments in players and structure in consequence of poor schedules of games. Game scheduling is a difficult task with multiple constraints and objectives (involving e.g. logistic, organizational, economical, and fairness issues), as well as several decision makers (such as league officials, team managers, and TV executives).

Besides economical aspects, unfair draws should be avoided. As an example of an unfair draw, the International Rugby Board (IRB) admitted the 2003 Rugby

World Cup draw was unfairly stacked against weaker countries [4], so as that tournament organizers could maximize their profits: richer nations with stronger teams (e.g. Australia, Wales, New Zealand, South Africa, England, and France) were given more time to play their games because of commercial arrangements with broadcasters. While all the bigger teams had at least 20 days to play their four pool games, the smaller sides' matches were crammed into a much tighter schedule (e.g. Italy, Argentina, Tonga, and Samoa). As a consequence, Samoa and Tonga are considering to boycott the next world cup.

Efficient schedules are of major interest for teams, leagues, sponsors, fans, and the media. This issue may be further complicated due to the distances involved. In the case of the Brazilian soccer national championship, a single trip from Porto Alegre to Belém takes almost a full journey and many stops, due to the absence of direct flights to cover a distance of approximately 4000 kilometers. The total distance traveled becomes an important variable to be minimized, so as to reduce traveling costs and to give more time to the players for resting and training along a season that lasts for approximately six months. Another possible variable to be minimized is the maximum distance traveled over all teams.

Several authors in different contexts (see e.g. [1, 2, 5, 24, 26–28, 30, 31]) tackled the problem of tournament scheduling in different leagues and sports such as soccer, basketball, hockey, baseball, rugby, cricket, and football, using different techniques such as integer programming, tabu search, genetic algorithms, and simulated annealing. Another promising technique for sports timetabling is constraint programming, which was already used by Henz [19] and lead to impressive improvements in terms of computation time with respect to [24]. The results in [19] were also improved by Zhang [32], using again constraint programming. We refer to Henz [20] for recent advances in constraint programming for scheduling problems in sports.

The Traveling Tournament Problem is an intermural championship timetabling problem that abstracts certain characteristics of scheduling problems in sports [11]. It combines tight feasibility issues with a difficult optimization problem. The objective is to minimize the total distance traveled by the teams, subject to the constraint that no team can play on a row more than three games at home or away. Since the total distance traveled is a major issue for every team taking part in the tournament, solving a traveling tournament problem may be a starting point for the solution of real timetabling applications in sports.

In this paper, we propose new, effective heuristics for solving the mirrored version of the traveling tournament problem. The contribution of the paper is twofold: first, a new, fast constructive heuristic which provides good initial solutions; and second, a hybridization of the GRASP and ILS (Iterated Local Search) metaheuristics which computes high-quality solutions. The paper is organized as follows. In the next section, the mirrored version of the traveling tournament problem is formulated in detail. In Section 3, we show how a solution of this problem may be represented as an oriented ordered 1-factorization

of a complete graph. A constructive heuristic for building good feasible initial solutions is proposed in Section 4. Three simple neighborhoods and an ejection chain neighborhood are described in Section 5. A local search procedure based on these neighborhoods is described in Section 6. In Section 7, we present the new GRILS-mTTP heuristic for the mirrored Traveling Tournament Problem, combining the main ideas of the GRASP and ILS metaheuristics. Computational results for 12 benchmark instances and one real-life problem are reported in Section 8. Concluding remarks are made in the last section.

## 2 The mirrored traveling tournament problem

We consider a tournament played by  $n$  teams, where  $n$  is an even number. In a *simple round-robin* (SRR) tournament, each team plays every other exactly once in  $n - 1$  prescheduled rounds. The game between teams  $i$  and  $j$  is represented by the unordered pair  $\{i, j\}$ . There are  $n/2$  games in each round. Each team plays exactly once in each round. In a *double round-robin* (DRR) tournament, each team plays every other twice, once at home and once away. A *mirrored double round-robin* (MDRR) tournament is a simple round-robin tournament in the first  $n - 1$  rounds, followed by the same tournament with reversed venues in the last  $n - 1$  rounds. A road trip is a sequence of consecutive away games for a team, while a home stand is a sequence of consecutive home games. We assume that each team in the tournament has a stadium at its home city. The distances between the home cities are known. Each team is located at its home city at the beginning of the tournament, to where it returns at the end after playing the last away game. Whenever a team plays two consecutive away games, it goes directly from the city of the first opponent to the other, without returning to its own home city.

The Traveling Tournament Problem (TTP) was first established by Easton et al. [11]. Given  $n$  (even) teams and the distances between their home cities, the TTP consists in finding a DRR such that every team does not play more than three consecutive home or away games, no repeaters (i.e., two consecutive games between the same two teams at different venues) occur, and the sum of the distances traveled by the teams is minimized. Benchmark instances are available in [29]. Some of them are based on the Major League Baseball (MLB) in the United States, while the others were generated with a particular circular structure. To date, even small benchmark instances of the TTP with  $n = 8$  teams cannot be exactly solved. We refer to this problem as the non-mirrored TTP, for which both mirrored and non-mirrored solutions are feasible.

The mirrored Traveling Tournament Problem (mTTP) has an additional constraint: the games played in round  $k$  are exactly the same played in round  $k + (n - 1)$  for  $k = 1, \dots, n - 1$ , with reversed venues. Repeaters cannot occur in mirrored schedules. Mirrored tournaments are a common tournament structure

in Latin America. No attempts to solve this version of the problem were found in the literature.

Some approaches based on metaheuristics were already proposed for the non-mirrored TTP. Crauwels and Van Oudheusden [6, 7] proposed ant system heuristics in which the construction procedure is coupled with a backtracking strategy and a local search algorithm, without good numerical results. Cardemil [3] developed a tabu search algorithm that obtained the best known solutions for some benchmark instances in the time of publication. Initial solutions and those used for restarts were randomly generated. Anagnostopoulos et al. [1] proposed a simulated annealing algorithm that found the best known solutions to date for the benchmark instances. Once again, the initial solutions were randomly generated. However, the heuristic is time consuming and takes more than one day of computation time for some benchmark instances.

### 3 Solutions as ordered oriented 1-factorizations

We use the same formulation proposed by de Werra [8, 9] for representing a tournament schedule using 1-factorizations of a graph. A factor of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a graph  $G' = (V, E')$  with  $E' \subseteq E$ .  $G'$  is a 1-factor if all its nodes have degree equal to one. A factorization of  $G$  is a set of edge-disjoint factors  $G^1 = (V, E^1), \dots, G^p = (V, E^p)$ , with  $E^1 \cup \dots \cup E^p = E$ . All factors in a 1-factorization of  $G$  are 1-factors. An oriented 1-factorization of  $G$  is a 1-factorization in which an orientation is set for every edge. In an ordered oriented 1-factorization of  $G$ , the 1-factors are taken in a fixed order.

An SRR tournament with  $n$  (even) teams may be represented by an ordered oriented 1-factorization of the complete undirected graph  $K_n$ . Each node of this graph represents a team. An arc from node  $i$  to node  $j$  in the  $k$ -th 1-factor of an ordered oriented 1-factorization represents the game between teams  $i$  and  $j$  being played at the home city of team  $j$  at round  $k$ . There are  $(n-1)!$  ordered oriented 1-factorizations of  $K_n$  associated with each of its oriented 1-factorizations. Each ordered oriented 1-factorization represents a tournament schedule and each of its  $(n-1)$  oriented 1-factors represents a round.

A mirrored double round tournament with  $n$  (even) teams may be represented as a single round robin tournament which is repeated with reversed venues. In consequence, we may also use ordered oriented 1-factorizations to represent solutions of MDRR tournaments. This representation is very useful in the study of local search neighborhoods carried out in Section 5.

## 4 A fast constructive heuristic for the mTTP

Good initial solutions can affect the performance of metaheuristic-based algorithms for timetabling problems. Elmohamed et al. [12] noticed that when a random initial configuration is used for timetabling problems, simulated annealing performs very poorly; however, there is a dramatic improvement in performance when a preprocessor is used to provide a good starting point for the annealing. Fast approximate algorithms are important to timetabling problems in sports, because the different and possibly contrary interests of decision makers require certain interactivity. Very often a decision maker will be unhappy with the obtained solution, and other solutions will have to be computed quickly.

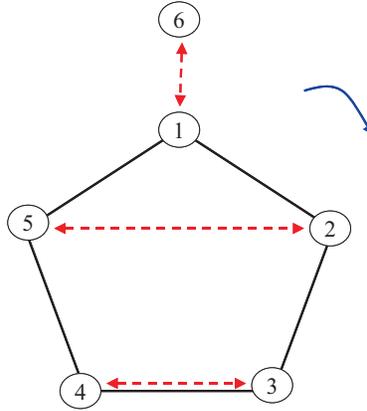
We propose a three phase constructive heuristic for the mTTP. It explores the fact that an MDRR tournament is composed by two SRR tournaments, with the second one equal to the first except by the reversed venues. In the first phase we build a schedule for an SRR tournament with  $n$  abstract teams. Stadiums are not assigned in this phase. In the second phase, the real teams are assigned to the abstract teams. Finally, in the third phase, we create an MDRR tournament assigning stadiums to the games between the real teams.

### 4.1 Phase 1: Build an 1-factorization

The well known “polygon method” [10] is used to build a schedule for an SRR tournament with  $n$  abstract teams, without assigning stadiums to the games.

The abstract teams  $1, \dots, n-1$  are initially placed at clockwise consecutively numbered nodes of a regular polygon with  $n-1$  nodes: team 1 in node 1, team 2 in node 2, and so forth. The abstract team  $n$  is not placed in the polygon. At each round  $k = 1, \dots, n-1$ , the abstract team placed in the node numbered  $\ell = 2, \dots, n/2$  plays against the one placed in the node numbered  $n+1-\ell$ . At every round, the abstract team placed at node 1 plays against the abstract team  $n$ . After each round, each abstract team  $1, \dots, n-1$  is moved clockwise to the immediately next node of the polygon. Figure 1 illustrates the application of this procedure for  $n = 6$ .

Next, this schedule is duplicated. This preliminar schedule of an MDRR tournament is used to generate a square  $n \times n$  matrix of consecutive opponents. Each entry  $(i, j)$  in this matrix is equal to the number of times the abstract teams  $i$  and  $j$  are consecutive opponents of other teams. Figure 2 displays the matrix of consecutive opponents built from the schedule produced by the polygon method for  $n = 16$  abstract teams. This figure shows that the polygon method creates several patterns in the schedule. There are several pairs of abstract teams which are consecutively played by many other abstract teams. As an example, we notice that the abstract teams 8 and 10 are consecutive opponents of other teams 26 times along the tournament. Abstract teams which are consecutively played



**Fig. 1.** Polygon method for  $n = 6$  (first round).

more times should preferably be assigned to real teams with smaller distances between their home cities.

#### 4.2 Phase 2: Assign real teams to abstract teams

Pairs of real teams with close home cities should ideally be assigned to pairs of abstract teams which are consecutively played by many other teams. Assigning real teams to abstract teams amounts basically to solving a quadratic assignment problem.

A quick heuristic is applied in this phase. First, the pairs of abstract teams are sorted by non-increasing entries in the matrix of consecutive opponents. Next, the real teams are sorted by increasing distance to the home city of their closest rivals and assigned to abstract teams in this order. Let  $t_1$  be the next real team to be assigned to an abstract team and let  $t_2$  be the team with the closest home city to  $t_1$ :

- If  $t_2$  is already assigned to an abstract team, then find the first pair  $(a, b)$  of abstract teams such that  $a$  is assigned to  $t_2$  and  $b$  is not yet assigned to a real team. In this case, assign the abstract team  $b$  to the real team  $t_1$ .
- If  $t_2$  is not yet assigned to an abstract team, then find the first pair  $(a, b)$  of abstract teams such that none of them is assigned to a real team. In this situation, assign either  $a$  or  $b$  to the real team  $t_1$ .

#### 4.3 Phase 3: Assign stadiums to games

In this last phase, a stadium is assigned to each game. To minimize the total distance traveled, one should attempt to schedule as many games as possible

$$\begin{pmatrix}
 0 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 & 4 \\
 4 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 \\
 4 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 \\
 4 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 26 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 26 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 26 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 26 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 & 0 \\
 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 25 \\
 4 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\
 4 & 2 & 25 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 25 & 2 & 0 & 2
 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Fig. 2.** Matrix of consecutive opponents for  $n = 16$ .

in a road trip. We propose a two-step approach for this phase. The first step builds a feasible schedule, while the second attempts to improve this schedule by reducing the total distance traveled using a quick local search strategy.

Stadiums are randomly assigned to the games in the first round. From round 2 to  $n - 2$ , we use the following strategy to assign a stadium to the game between  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ . We denote by  $n_i$  the number of games that team  $i$  has consecutively played in the previous rounds, either in a home stand or in a road trip.

- Case (1):  $n_{t_2} > n_{t_1}$ 
  - If team  $t_2$  played its last game at home, then schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_1$ ;
  - otherwise, schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_2$ .
- Case (2):  $n_{t_2} < n_{t_1}$ 
  - If team  $t_1$  played its last game at home, then schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_2$ ;
  - otherwise, schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_1$ .
- Case (3):  $n_{t_2} = n_{t_1}$ 
  - If team  $t_1$  played its last game at home and team  $t_2$  away, then schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_2$ ;
  - if team  $t_2$  played its last game at home and team  $t_1$  away, then schedule the game to the stadium of team  $t_1$ ;
  - otherwise, schedule the game randomly to the stadiums of  $t_1$  or  $t_2$ .

The first round of the second phase of an MDRR tournament is exactly the first round of the first phase with reversed venues. Accordingly, the last round and the first round with reversed venues should be considered as consecutive

rounds. Stadiums are randomly assigned in the last round. If a stadium assignment makes the schedule infeasible, then the venue for the corresponding game is reversed. If the schedule remains infeasible, all above steps are repeated and new stadium assignments are performed from scratch.

The final step of the stadium assignment phase consists of a quick local search procedure using the schedule above created as the initial solution and the home-away swap neighborhood described in Section 5.1. The local optimum obtained by local search is returned by the constructive procedure.

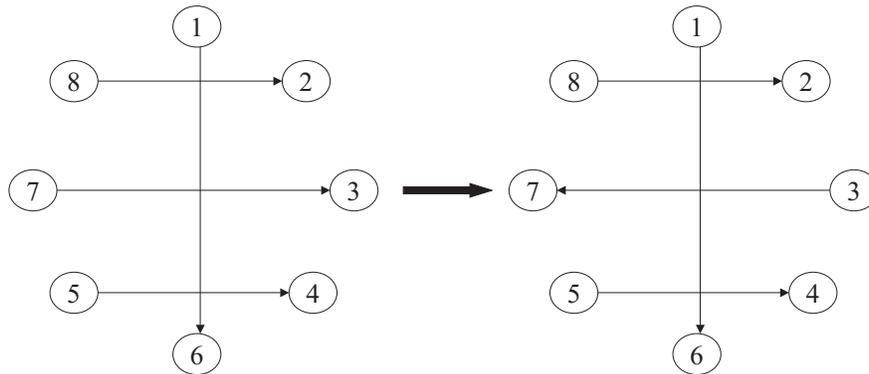
## 5 Neighborhoods

Four neighborhood structures are defined and will be later used by the extended GRASP with ILS heuristic described in Section 7.

### 5.1 Home-away swap (HAS) neighborhood

Each solution in this neighborhood is obtained by reversing the stadium assignment of a single game. Since there are  $n \cdot (n - 1) / 2$  games in each phase of a DRR tournament and the tournament is mirrored, each solution has  $n \cdot (n - 1) / 2$  neighbors in this neighborhood. Only neighbors corresponding to feasible schedules will be visited by the local search procedure described in Section 6.

Solutions are represented as ordered oriented 1-factorizations of  $K_n$ . A move in this neighborhood consists in reversing the orientation of a single arc of an oriented 1-factor. Figure 3 illustrates a move in the HAS neighborhood for  $n = 8$  teams.



**Fig. 3.** Move in neighborhood HAS for  $n = 8$ : the venue of game  $\{3, 7\}$  is changed.

## 5.2 Team swap (TS) neighborhood

Each solution in this neighborhood is obtained by swapping the opponents of any pair of teams  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  in all rounds. If a team  $t_3$  was playing against team  $t_1$  at home (resp. away) in a given round, then in the neighbor solution it will play against team  $t_2$  in the same round at home (resp. away). To ensure that a feasible schedule is obtained, the stadium assigned to the game between them is reversed in the neighbor solution. There are  $n \cdot (n - 1)/2$  possible moves in this neighborhood and all of them correspond to feasible schedules.

Solutions are represented as ordered oriented 1-factorizations of  $K_n$ . A move in this neighborhood consists in swapping the labels of a given pair of nodes in all 1-factors of an ordered oriented 1-factorization.

## 5.3 Partial round swap (PRS) neighborhood

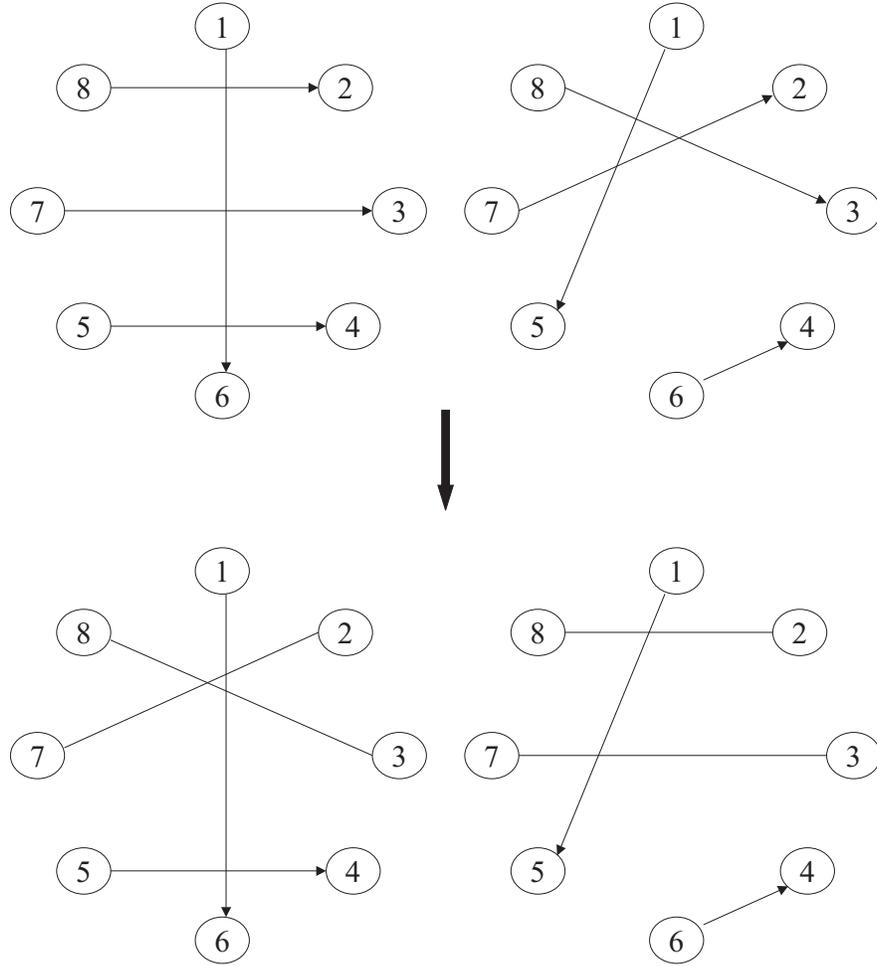
Let  $t_1, t_2, t_3$ , and  $t_4$  be four teams and  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  two rounds such that games  $\{t_1, t_3\}$  and  $\{t_2, t_4\}$  take place in round  $r_1$  and games  $\{t_1, t_4\}$  and  $\{t_2, t_3\}$  in round  $r_2$ . A move in this neighborhood consists in swapping the rounds in which these games take place. Games  $\{t_1, t_4\}$  and  $\{t_2, t_3\}$  are set to round  $r_1$  and games  $\{t_1, t_3\}$  and  $\{t_2, t_4\}$  to round  $r_2$ . All 16 combinations of possible stadium assignments are evaluated and the best feasible combination is retained.

As before, solutions are represented as ordered oriented 1-factorizations of  $K_n$ . Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two oriented 1-factors for which there are two nodes  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  connected to the same nodes  $t_3$  and  $t_4$  in  $A$  and  $B$ . Then, the nodes connected to  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  in  $A$  and  $B$  may be swapped. A move in this neighborhood is completed by assigning orientations to the edges of  $K_n$  defined by the extremities of the arcs involved in the move. Figure 4 illustrates a move in the PRS neighborhood for  $n = 8$  teams.

We notice that there are no moves in the PRS neighborhood of the solutions generated by the polygon method for  $n = 8, 12, 14, 16, 20, 24$ .

## 5.4 Game rotation (GR) neighborhood

Game rotation consists in enforcing an arbitrary game to be played in an arbitrary round, followed by the appropriate modifications to avoid teams playing more than one game in the same round. The modifications that have to be applied to the current solution give rise to an ejection chain move. Ejection chains are based on the notion of generating compound sequences of moves by linked steps in which changes in selected elements cause other elements to be ejected from their current state, position, or value assignment, see Glover [16, 17]. The



**Fig. 4.** Move in neighborhood PRS for  $n = 8$ : opponents of teams 2 and 3 in two different rounds are swapped. Stadium assignments for the games affected by the move are still to be performed.

move is finalized by the application of the third phase of the constructive heuristic to find feasible stadium assignments.

Once again, solutions are represented as ordered oriented 1-factorizations of  $K_n$ . We first remove all orientations from the current ordered oriented 1-factorization, obtaining simply an ordered 1-factorization. A game rotation ejection chain move starts by inserting an edge  $(t_1, t_2)$  into a given factor. We assume that edges  $(t_1, t_3)$  and  $(t_2, t_4)$  belong to this factor. After the insertion of edge  $(t_1, t_2)$  both nodes  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  have their degrees equal to 2. In consequence, edges  $(t_1, t_3)$  and  $(t_2, t_4)$  have to be removed from this 1-factor. Now, both nodes  $t_3$

and  $t_4$  have their degrees equal to 0. Then, edge  $(t_3, t_4)$  is inserted and we recover an 1-factor. At this point, edges  $(t_1, t_2)$  and  $(t_3, t_4)$  appear twice in the 1-factorization under construction. Analogously, edges  $(t_1, t_3)$  and  $(t_2, t_4)$  do not appear in this 1-factorization. The procedure continues recursively, by reinserting edge  $(t_1, t_3)$  into the factor to where edge  $(t_3, t_4)$  belonged in the original ordered 1-factorization. The procedure stops once a new ordered 1-factorization is obtained after the reinsertion of edge  $(t_2, t_4)$  and the elimination of edge  $(t_1, t_2)$  duplicated in the first step of the ejection chain.

Only neighborhoods PRS and GR are able to change the structure of the 1-factorizations built by the polygon method. The GR neighborhood plays a very important role in the search of good solutions for the mTTP. Ejection chain moves are able to find solutions that are not reachable through other simpler neighborhoods. In particular, we notice that moves in the PRS neighborhood may appear after an ejection chain move is performed, in situations where none existed before. If ejection chains are not used, one may quickly get stuck at schedules with the structure of the solutions built by the polygon method.

## 6 Local search

Four neighborhood structures were defined in the previous section. The first three and simpler neighborhoods HAS, TS, and PRS are explored by local search. The GR ejection chain neighborhood will be explored only as a diversification move performed less frequently by the heuristic described in the next section, due to the high computation costs associated with its investigation.

We use a first-improving strategy similar to the VND procedure [18, 23] to implement the local search algorithm. TS is the first neighborhood explored. Once a local optimum with respect to this neighborhood is found, a quick local search using the HAS neighborhood is performed in search of a better stadium assignment. Next, the PRS neighborhood is investigated. As before, once a local optimum with respect to this neighborhood is found, the algorithm performs a quick local search using the HAS neighborhood in search of a better stadium assignment. This scheme is repeated until a local optimum with respect to all three neighborhoods is found. Neighbor solutions are investigated at random within each neighborhood.

## 7 Extended GRASP with ILS

The GRASP (Greedy Randomized Adaptive Search Procedure) metaheuristic [13, 14, 25] is a multi-start or iterative process, in which each iteration consists of two phases: construction and local search. The construction phase builds a feasible solution, whose neighborhood is investigated until a local minimum is

found during the local search phase. The best overall solution is kept as the result. An extensive survey of the literature is given in [15].

The ILS (Iterated Local Search) metaheuristic [21, 22] starts from a locally optimal feasible solution. A random perturbation is applied to the current solution and followed by local search. If the local optimum obtained after these steps satisfies some acceptance criterion, then it is accepted as the new current solution, otherwise the latter does not change. The best solution is eventually updated and the above steps are repeated until some stopping criterion is met.

We propose a hybridization of the GRASP and ILS metaheuristics into an effective hybrid heuristic for the mTTP, mirrored traveling tournament problem. Basically, we substitute the local search phase of GRASP by an ILS procedure. The pseudo-code in Algorithm 1 summarizes the main steps of the GRILS-mTTP heuristic for finding approximate solutions for the mirrored traveling tournament problem.

```

Procedure GRILS-mTTP();
Data : MaxIter
Result : Solution  $S^*$ 
for  $i = 1, \dots, \text{MaxIter}$  do
     $S \leftarrow \text{BuildGreedyRandomizedSolution}()$ ;
     $\underline{S}, S \leftarrow \text{LocalSearch}(S)$ ;
    repeat
         $S' \leftarrow \text{Perturbation}(S)$ ;
         $S' \leftarrow \text{LocalSearch}(S')$ ;
         $S \leftarrow \text{AcceptanceCriterion}(S, S')$ ;
         $S^* \leftarrow \text{UpdateGlobalBestSolution}(S, S^*)$ ;
         $\underline{S} \leftarrow \text{UpdateIterationBestSolution}(S, \underline{S})$ ;
    until ReinitializationCriterion;
end

```

**Algorithm 1:** Pseudo-code of a GRASP with ILS heuristic for minimization.

The outer *for* loop in algorithm 1 performs `MaxIter` GRASP iterations. Each iteration starts by the construction of an initial solution  $S$  by algorithm `BuildGreedyRandomizedSolution`, which implements the three-stage construction procedure described in Section 4. The greedy criterion used in the second stage is randomized by the introduction of small perturbations in the order in which real teams are assigned to abstract teams.

Next, algorithm `LocalSearch` is applied to the initial solution built in the previous step, returning a new current solution  $S$ . This solution is also used to initialize the best solution  $\underline{S}$  in the current GRASP iteration. The VND-like local search procedure described in Section 6 is used to implement the `LocalSearch` local search algorithm.

The inner *repeat* loop starts by applying a perturbation to the current solution  $S$  using algorithm `Perturbation` and obtaining a new solution  $S'$ . This algorithm implements a randomly generated move within the GR ejection chain neighborhood described in Section 5.4. Algorithm `LocalSearch` is applied to  $S'$ .

The new solution  $S'$  is accepted or not as the new current solution, depending on the result of an acceptance criterion implemented by algorithm `AcceptanceCriterion` using a threshold parameter  $\beta$ . This parameter is initialized with 0.001 at the beginning of each GRASP iteration and reinitialized with this same value every time the current solution changes. Solution  $S'$  is accepted as the new current solution if its cost is lower than  $(1 + \beta)$  times the cost of the current solution  $S$ . If the current solution does not change after a fixed number of iterations (we used  $12n$  in our implementation), the value of  $\beta$  is doubled (i.e., the acceptance criterion is relaxed).

The best overall solution  $S^*$  and the best solution in the current GRASP iteration are eventually updated and a new cycle starts with the perturbation of the current solution, until a reinitialization criterion implemented by algorithm `ReinitializationCriterion` is met. In this case, a new GRASP iteration starts if eight deteriorating moves have been accepted since the last time the best solution found in this GRASP iteration was updated. Reinitialization occurs if too many perturbations followed by local search are performed without improving the best solution in the current GRASP iteration. We notice that a GRASP iteration is not interrupted if the current solution  $S$  is still being improved.

## 8 Computational results

The algorithms described in this paper were coded in C++ and compiled with version 2.96 of the gcc compiler with the optimization flag `-O3`. The experiments were performed on a Pentium IV machine with a 2.0 GHz clock and 512 Mbytes of RAM memory.

### 8.1 Test problems

Two classes of test problems were originally proposed and described by Easton et al. [11].

The first class is formed by circle instances, artificially generated for testing if traveling tournament problems are easier when the associated traveling salesman problem instances are trivial. `Circ $n$`  denotes a circle instance with  $4 \leq n \leq 20$  teams. Nodes are placed at equal unit distances along a circumference and are labeled  $0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ . There is an edge between nodes  $i$  and  $i + 1 \pmod n$ , for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ . The distance between nodes  $i$  and  $j$  (with  $i > j$ ) is given by

the length of the shortest path between them and is equal to the minimum of  $i - j$  and  $j - i + n$ . National League instances were generated using the distances between the home cities of subsets of teams playing in the National League of the MLB. We denote by `nl $n$`  a national league instance with  $4 \leq n \leq 16$ . All these instances are available at <http://mat.gsia.cmu.edu/TOURN/>. We discarded the smaller instances with  $n = 4$  and  $n = 6$  in our experiments.

Furthermore, we also generated a new real-life instance named `br2003.24` and available at <http://www.esportemax.org/>, defined by the home cities of the 24 teams playing in the main division of the 2003 edition of the Brazilian soccer championship.

## 8.2 Numerical results

We performed two computational experiments, concerning the constructive heuristic described in Section 4 and the `GRILS-mTTP` extended GRASP with ILS heuristic.

In the first experiment, the randomized version of the constructive heuristic was run 1000 times with different seeds for each instance. We report the numerical results in Table 1. For each instance, we first report the worst, average, and best solution value found over the 1000 runs. These values are followed by the relative gap in percent between the values of the best solution found by the constructive heuristic and the best known solution for the non-mirrored instance at the time of writing. We also give the total computation time in seconds over all runs.

Instance	worst	average	best	gap (%)	time (secs.)
<code>circ8</code>	214	180	156	18.2	0.16
<code>circ10</code>	390	344	306	20.5	0.27
<code>circ12</code>	652	573	486	15.7	0.45
<code>circ14</code>	1012	892	748	9.7	0.67
<code>circ16</code>	1508	1329	1138	16.6	0.94
<code>circ18</code>	2086	1880	1584	11.5	1.26
<code>circ20</code>	2818	2532	2234	17.1	1.67
<code>nl8</code>	59485	50478	44902	13.0	0.18
<code>nl10</code>	90530	80103	71092	19.3	0.30
<code>nl12</code>	167414	146365	127534	13.1	0.48
<code>nl14</code>	293675	266216	241361	26.8	0.71
<code>nl16</code>	436137	382032	329990	23.5	1.01
<code>br2003.24</code>	827611	741369	628930	—	2.63

**Table 1.** Computational results: constructive heuristic (1000 runs).

Instance	non-mirrored	mirrored	gap (%)	iteration	time (secs.)
<code>circ8</code>	132	140	6.1	4	3.1
<code>circ10</code>	254	280	10.2	16	290.0
<code>circ12</code>	420	456	8.6	42	1545.7
<code>circ14</code>	682	714	4.7	4	218.9
<code>circ16</code>	976	1046	7.2	99	17015.8
<code>circ18</code>	1420	(*) 1398	-1.5	5	1449.4
<code>circ20</code>	1908	(*) 1898	-0.5	38	13490.6
<code>n18</code>	39721	41928	5.6	1	3.2
<code>n110</code>	59583	64024	7.5	20	650.6
<code>n112</code>	112800	120655	7.0	96	3562.3
<code>n114</code>	190368	208086	9.3	215	22078.5
<code>n116</code>	267194	293635	9.9	176	42290.8
<code>br2003.24</code>	—	538966	—	34	30038.4

(\*) New best solution value for the non-mirrored instance

**Table 2.** Computational results: GRILS-mTTP heuristic.

The constructive heuristic is very fast. If we consider e.g. the `n116` instance, as many as 1000 runs can be performed and different schedules generated in approximately one second. The average gap with respect to the best known solutions for the non-mirrored instances at the time of writing is only 17.1%. The constructive heuristic runs in computation times which are smaller by several orders of magnitude with regard to those observed for other heuristics for the non-mirrored problem. The solutions quickly obtained by our constructive procedure are often even better than those found after a few days of computation time by the ant colony with backtrack and local search heuristic of Crauwells and Van Oudheusden [7].

In the second experiment, the GRILS-mTTP heuristic was applied only once to each test problem. The number of GRASP iterations was set at 250. For each instance, we report in Table 2 the value of the best known solution for the non-mirrored instance at the time of writing and the value of the solution found by the GRILS-mTTP heuristic. These values are followed by the relative gap in percent between the values of the best solution found by the new heuristic and the best known solution for the non-mirrored instance at the time of writing. We also give the iteration counter when the best solution was obtained by the GRILS-mTTP heuristic and the corresponding computation time.

The GRILS-mTTP heuristic is very robust. The largest gap observed between the value of the mirrored solution found by the heuristic and the best known solution value for the non-mirrored problem at the time of writing was only 10.2%. In particular, the new heuristic found mirrored solutions which improved by approximately 1% the best known solution values for the less constrained non-mirrored instances `circ18` and `circ20`.

The computation times also compare favourably with those observed for other heuristics. The computation time to find the best solution value reported by Anagnostopoulos et al. [1] e.g. for the non-mirrored instance `n114` amounts to 418358.2 seconds (i.e., almost five days) on an AMD Athlon machine at 1544 MHz, while the time observed for our heuristic was only 22078.5 seconds on a similar machine (i.e., approximately 5.2%).

Concerning the real-life instance `br2003.24`, we notice that the total traveled distance accordingly with the official schedule used in the 2003 edition of the Brazilian soccer championship amounted to 1,048,134 kilometers. The value of the solution found by the `GRILS-mTTP` heuristic was only 538,966 kilometers, corresponding to a reduction of 48.6% in the total distance traveled.

## 9 Concluding remarks

In this work, we investigated the yet unexplored mirrored version of the traveling tournament problem (mTTP). This tournament structure is very common in Latin American tournaments.

The first contribution of this paper is a very fast constructive heuristic for the mirrored traveling tournament problem. It runs in approximately 1/1000 of a second on a Pentium IV machine with a 2.0 GHz clock for the largest benchmark instances. The average gap with respect to the best known solutions for the non-mirrored instances at the time of writing is only 17.1%. The constructive heuristic runs in computation times which are smaller by several orders of magnitude with respect to those of other heuristics. The solutions quickly obtained are sometimes even better than those found in a few days of computation time by implementations of metaheuristics such as ant colonies.

This constructive heuristic provides a quite effective tool for building good initial solutions for more sophisticated algorithms. It can also be used by decision makers interested in quickly computing and comparing good different tournament schedules in real life applications.

We have also investigated different neighborhood structures for local search procedures. Three simple neighborhoods and an ejection chain neighborhood were described. The latter plays a very important role in the search of good solutions for the mTTP, since the ejection chain moves are able to find solutions that are not reachable through other neighborhoods. Admissible moves in other neighborhoods may appear after an ejection chain move is performed, in situations where none existed before. If ejection chains are not used, algorithms based on local improvement strategies may easily get stuck at schedules with certain structures that cannot be further improved.

Finally, we proposed an extended GRASP with ILS heuristic for the mirrored traveling tournament problem. The `GRILS-mTTP` heuristic obtained very

good solutions for the mTTP. For two benchmark instances, this new algorithm obtained solutions that are even better than the previously best known solutions for the non-mirrored instances. The computation times also compare favourably with those observed for other heuristics. The GRILS-mTTP heuristic is much faster than a simulated annealing procedure which is currently the best heuristic for the non-mirrored problem. As an example, our heuristic is approximately 20 times faster for instance n114.

It is interesting to notice that the total distances traveled in the best known solutions for the mTTP instances are not much larger than those for the associated non-mirrored instances. Furthermore, for two benchmark instances we were able to find mirrored solutions that were better than the best known solutions for the non-mirrored instances at the time of writing.

We have also generated and made available a new real-life instance, defined by the home cities of the 24 teams playing in the main division of the 2003 edition of the Brazilian soccer championship. The GRILS-mTTP heuristic produced a mirrored solution for this instance for which the total distance traveled amounts to almost 50% of that of the schedule actually implemented by the organizers. This reduction amounts to up to 1.5 million dollars in terms of potential savings in airfares.

## References

1. A. Anagnostopoulos, L. Michel, P. Van Hentenryck, and Y. Vergados. A simulated annealing approach to the traveling tournament problem. In *Proceedings of CPAIOR'03*, 2003.
2. B.C. Ball and D.B. Webster. Optimal schedules for even-numbered team athletic conferences. *AIEE Transactions*, 9:161–169, 1997.
3. A. Cardemil. Optimización de fixtures deportivos: Estado del arte y un algoritmo tabu search para el traveling tournament problem. Master's thesis, Universidad de Buenos Aires, Departamento de Computación, Buenos Aires, 2002.
4. British Broadcasting Corporation. IRB admits to 'unfair' draw. Online document at <http://news.bbc.co.uk/sport1/hi/rugby-union/rugby-world-cup/3236607.stm>, last visited January 14, 2003.
5. D. Costa. An evolutionary tabu search algorithm and the NHL scheduling problem. *INFOR*, 33:161–178, 1995.
6. H. Crauwels and D. Van Oudheusden. A generate-and-test heuristic inspired by ant colony optimization for the traveling tournament problem. In *Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on the Practice and Theory of Automated Timetabling*, pages 314–315, Gent, 2002.
7. H. Crauwels and D. Van Oudheusden. Ant colony optimization and local improvement. In *Workshop of Real-Life Applications of Metaheuristics*, Antwerp, 2003.
8. D. de Werra. Geography, games and graphs. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 2:327–337, 1980.
9. D. de Werra. Scheduling in sports. In P. Hansen, editor, *Studies on Graphs and Discrete Programming*, volume 11 of *Annals of Discrete Mathematics*, pages 381–395. North-Holland, 1981.

10. J. Dinitz, E. Lamken, and W.D. Wallis. Scheduling a tournament. In C.J. Colbourn and J. Dinitz, editors, *Handbook of Combinatorial Designs*, pages 578–584. CRC Press, 1995.
11. K. Easton, G.L. Nemhauser, and M.A. Trick. The traveling tournament problem: Description and benchmarks. In T. Walsh, editor, *Principles and Practice of Constraint Programming*, volume 2239 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 580–584. Springer, 2001.
12. S. Elmohamed, P. Coddington, and G. Fox. A comparison of annealing techniques for academic course scheduling. In E. Burke and M. Carter, editors, *Practice and Theory of Automated Timetabling II: Selected Papers from the 2nd International Conference for the Practice and Theory of Automated Timetabling*, volume 1408 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 92–114. Springer, 1998.
13. T.A. Feo and M.G.C. Resende. A probabilistic heuristic for a computationally difficult set covering problem. *Operations Research Letters*, 8:67–71, 1989.
14. T.A. Feo and M.G.C. Resende. Greedy randomized adaptive search procedures. *Journal of Global Optimization*, 6:109–133, 1995.
15. P. Festa and M.G.C. Resende. GRASP: An annotated bibliography. In C.C. Ribeiro and P. Hansen, editors, *Essays and Surveys in Metaheuristics*, pages 325–367. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2002.
16. F. Glover. New ejection chain and alternating path methods for traveling salesman problems. In *Computer Science and Operations Research: New Developments in Their Interfaces*, pages 449–509. Elsevier, 1992.
17. F. Glover. Ejection chains, reference structures and alternating path methods for traveling salesman problems. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 65:223–253, 1996.
18. P. Hansen and N. Mladenović. Developments of variable neighborhood search. In C.C. Ribeiro and P. Hansen, editors, *Essays and Surveys in Metaheuristics*, pages 415–439. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2002.
19. M. Henz. Scheduling a major college basketball conference revisited. *Operations Research*, 49:163–168, 2001.
20. M. Henz, T. Müller, and S. Thiel. Global constraints for round robin tournament scheduling. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 153:92–101, 2004.
21. O. Martin and S.W. Otto. Combining simulated annealing with local search heuristics. *Annals of Operations Research*, 63:57–75, 1996.
22. O. Martin, S.W. Otto, and E.W. Felten. Large-step Markov chains for the traveling salesman problem. *Complex Systems*, 5:299–326, 1991.
23. N. Mladenović and P. Hansen. Variable neighborhood search. *Computers and Operations Research*, 24:1097–1100, 1997.
24. G.L. Nemhauser and M.A. Trick. Scheduling a major college basketball conference. *Operations Research*, 46:1–8, 1998.
25. M.G.C. Resende and C.C. Ribeiro. Greedy randomized adaptive search procedures. In F. Glover and G. Kochenberger, editors, *Handbook of Metaheuristics*, pages 219–249. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2003.
26. R.A. Russell and J.M. Leung. Devising a cost-effective schedule for a baseball league. *Operations Research*, 42:614–625, 1994.
27. J.A.M. Schreuder. Combinatorial aspects of construction of competition Dutch professional football leagues. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 35:301–312, 1992.
28. J.M. Thompson. Kicking timetabling problems into touch. *OR Insight*, 12:7–15, 1999.
29. M.A. Trick. Challenge traveling tournament instances. Online document at <http://mat.gsia.cmu.edu/TOURN/>, last visited on October 11, 2003.

30. M.B. Wright. Scheduling English cricket umpires. *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, 42:447–452, 1991.
31. J.T. Yang, H.D. Huang, and J.T. Horng. Devising a cost effective basketball scheduling by evolutionary algorithms. In *Proceedings of the 2002 Congress on Evolutionary Computation*, pages 1660–1665, Honolulu, 2002.
32. H. Zhang. Generating college conference basketball schedules by a SAT solver. In *Proceedings of the Fifth International Symposium on the Theory and Applications of Satisfiability Testing*, pages 281–291, Cincinnati, 2002.