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## Tabu Search

*Modern Heuristic Techniques for Combinatorial Problems*, Colin R. Reeves (Ed.), 70-150, Blackwell Scientific Publications, Oxford, 1993.

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## 1. Introduction

Tabu search (TS) has its antecedents in methods designed to cross boundaries of feasibility or local optimality standardly treated as barriers, and to systematically impose and release constraints to permit exploration of otherwise forbidden regions. Early examples of such procedures include heuristics based on surrogate constraint methods and cutting plane approaches that systematically violate feasibility conditions. The modern form of tabu search derives from Glover (1986). Seminal ideas of the method are also developed by Pierre Hansen (1986) in a *steepest ascent / mildest descent* formulation. Additional contributions, such as those cited in the following pages, are shaping the evolution of the method and are responsible for its growing body of successful applications.

Webster's dictionary defines *tabu* or *taboo* as "set apart as charged with a dangerous supernatural power and forbidden to profane use or contact ..." or "banned on grounds of morality or taste or as constituting a risk ...." Tabu search scarcely involves reference to supernatural or moral considerations, but instead is concerned with imposing restrictions to guide a search process to negotiate otherwise difficult regions. These restrictions operate in several forms, both by direct exclusion of search alternatives classed as "forbidden," and also by translation into modified evaluations and probabilities of selection.

The purpose of this chapter is to integrate some of the fundamental ways of viewing and characterizing tabu search, with extended examples to clarify its operations. We also point to a variety of directions for new applications and research. Our development includes comparisons and contrasts between the principles of tabu search and those of simulated annealing (SA) and genetic algorithms (GAs). Computational implications of these differences, and foundations for creating hybrid methods that unite features of these different approaches are also discussed. In addition, we examine special designs and computational outcomes for incorporating tabu search as a driving mechanism within neural networks.

The philosophy of tabu search is to derive and exploit a collection of principles of intelligent problem solving. A fundamental element underlying tabu search is the use of flexible memory. From the standpoint of tabu search, flexible memory embodies the dual processes of creating and exploiting structures for taking advantage of history (hence combining the activities of acquiring and profiting from information).

The memory structures of tabu search operate by reference to four principal dimensions, consisting of recency, frequency, quality, and influence. These dimensions in turn are set against a background of logical structure and connectivity. The role of these elements in creating effective problem solving processes provides the focus of our following development.

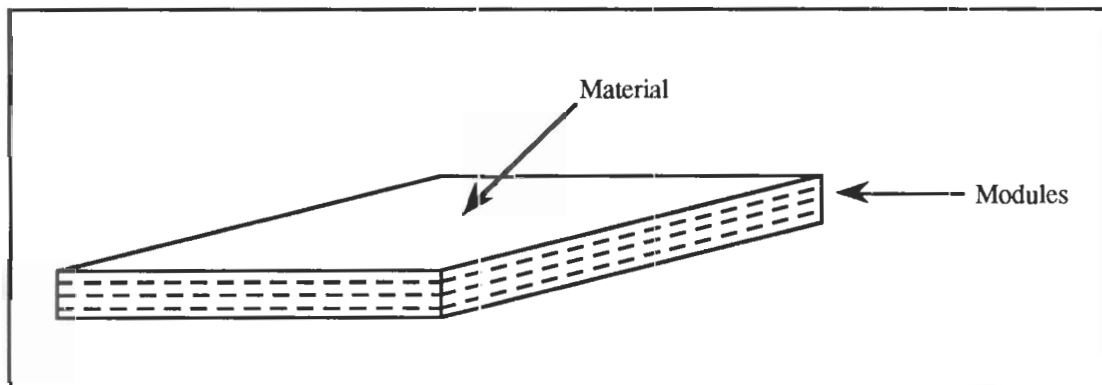
## 2. The Tabu Search Framework

To provide a background for understanding some of the fundamental elements of tabu search, we illustrate its basic operation with an example.

### 2.1 An Illustrative Example

Permutation problems are an important class of problems in optimization, and offer a useful vehicle to demonstrate some of the considerations that must be faced in the combinatorial domain. Classical instances of permutation problems include traveling salesman problems, quadratic assignment problems, production sequencing problems, and a variety of design problems. As a basis for illustration, consider the problem of designing a material consisting of a number of insulating modules. The order in which these modules are arranged determine the overall insulating property of the resulting material, as shown in Figure 1.

Fig. 1 Modules in an insulating material.

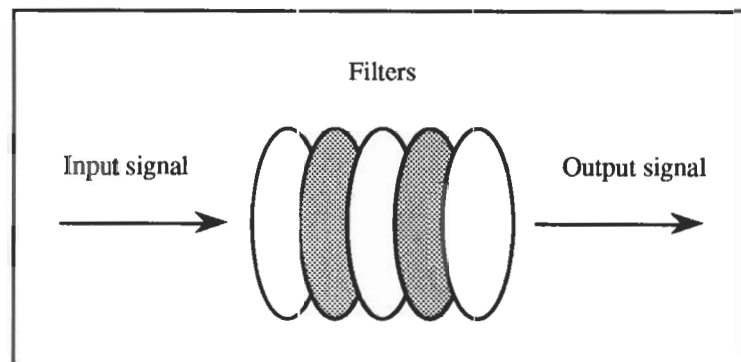


The problem is to find the ordering of modules that maximizes the overall insulating property of the composite material. Suppose that 7 modules are considered for a particular material, and that evaluating the overall insulating property of a particular ordering is a computationally expensive procedure. We desire a search method that is able to find an optimal or near-optimal solution by examining only a small subset of the total possible permutations (in this case, numbering 5040, though for many applications the number can be astronomical).

Closely related problems that can be represented in essentially the same way include serial filtering and job sequencing problems. Serial filtering problems arise in pattern recognition and signal processing applications, where a given input is to be subjected to a succession of filters (or screening tests) to obtain the "best" output. Filters are sequentially applied to the input signal, and the quality of the output is determined by the order in which they are placed (see Figure 2). In this case, the search method must be designed to find the best filtering sequence. Such filtering

processes are also relevant to applications in chemical engineering, astronomy, and biochemistry.

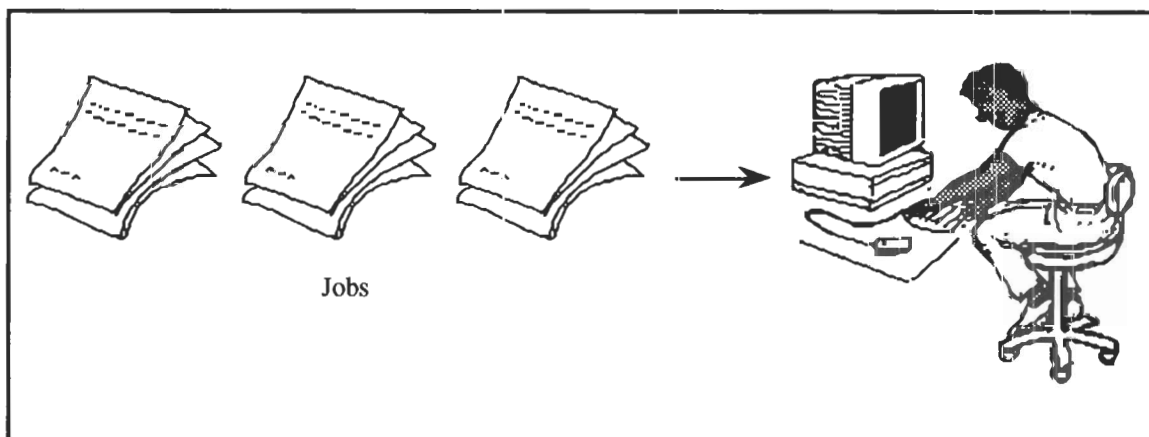
**Fig. 2** Filtering sequence.



Job sequencing problems consist of determining best sequences for processing a set of jobs on designated machines. Each machine thus is assigned some permutation of available jobs. A single machine problem is illustrated in Figure 3. (In some settings, multiple machine problems may be treated by extensions of processes for single machine problems.)

There are many variants of the single machine problem depending on the definition of "best" sequence. For example, the best sequence may be the one that minimizes the makespan (i.e., the completion time of the last job in the sequence). Other possibilities are to minimize a weighted sum of tardiness penalties or a sum of setup costs.

**Fig. 3** Word processing jobs on a single machine.

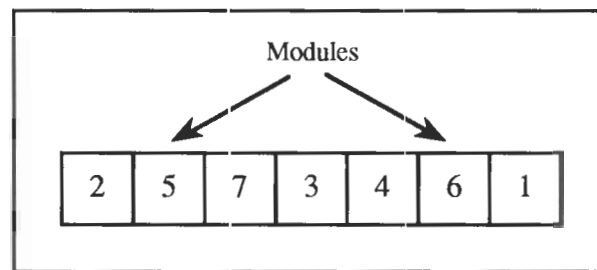


For well structured objective functions, evaluations of ways to move from one solution to another are generally fast. However, problems with even modest numbers of jobs overwhelm the capabilities of algorithms that "guarantee" optimality, rendering them unable to obtain solutions in reasonable amounts of time. That is one of the reasons why effective heuristic approaches have proved important in the area of production scheduling.

Some useful variants of the foregoing problems can be represented "as if" they were permutation problems. These include, for example, problems where it is simultaneously desired to select a best subset of items (modules, filters, jobs) from an available pool, and to identify a best sequence for this chosen set. In this case, the problem can be represented by creating a dummy position to hold a residual pool, where all items that do not currently occupy one of the sequence positions are placed. (The path assignment problem discussed in Section 4 is a good example of this kind of representation.)

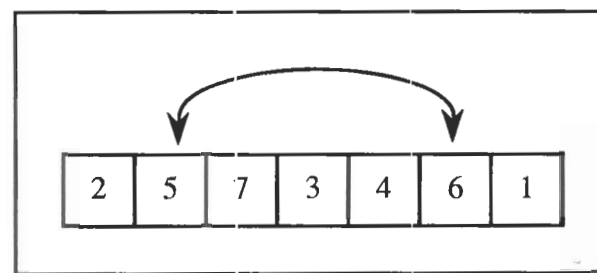
We focus on the module insulation problem to introduce and illustrate the basic components of tabu search. First we assume that an initial solution for this problem can be constructed in some intelligent fashion, i.e., by taking advantage of some problem-specific structure. Suppose the initial solution to our problem is the one shown in Figure 4.

Fig. 4 Initial permutation.



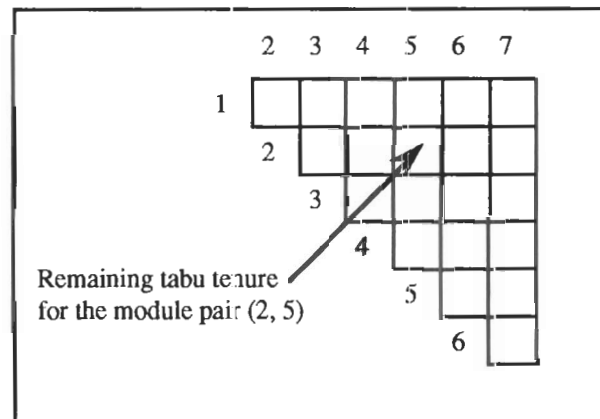
The ordering in Figure 4 specifies that module 2 is placed in the first position, followed by module 5, etc. The resulting material has an insulating property of 10 units (which we assume was found by an accompanying evaluation routine, e.g., a simulator package for estimating the properties of a material without actually building a prototype). TS methods operate under the assumption that a neighborhood can be constructed to identify "adjacent solutions" that can be reached from any current solution. (Neighborhood search is described in Section 2.3.) Pairwise exchanges (or swaps) are frequently used to define neighborhoods in permutation problems, identifying *moves* that lead from one solution to the next. In our problem, a swap exchanges the position of two modules as illustrated in Figure 5. Therefore, the complete neighborhood of a given current solution consists of the 21 adjacent solutions that can be obtained by such swaps.

Fig. 5 Swap of modules 5 and 6.



Associated with each swap is a move value, which represents the change on the objective function value as a result of the proposed exchange. Move values generally provide a fundamental basis for evaluating the quality of a move, although other criteria can also be important, as indicated later. A chief mechanism for exploiting memory in tabu search is to classify a subset of the moves in a neighborhood as forbidden (or tabu). The classification depends on the history of the search, particularly as manifested in the recency or frequency that certain move or solution components, called *attributes*, have participated in generating past solutions. For example, one attribute of a swap is the identity of the pair of elements that change positions (in this case, the two modules exchanged). As a basis for preventing the search from repeating swap combinations tried in the recent past, potentially reversing the effects of previous moves by interchanges that might return to previous positions, we will classify as tabu all swaps composed of any of the most recent pairs of such modules; in this case, for illustrative purposes, the three most recent pairs. This means that a module pair will be kept tabu for a duration (tenure) of 3 iterations. Since exchanging modules 2 and 5 is the same as exchanging modules 5 and 2, both may be represented by the pair (2, 5). Thus, a data structure such as the one shown in Figure 6 may be used.

Fig. 6 Tabu data structure for attributes consisting of module pairs exchanged.



Each cell of the structure in Figure 6 contains the number of iterations remaining until the corresponding modules are allowed to exchange positions again. Therefore, if the cell (3, 5) has a value of zero, then modules 3 and 5 are free to exchange positions. On the other hand, if cell (2, 4) has a value of 2, then modules 2 and 4 may not exchange positions for the next two iterations (i.e., a swap that exchanges these modules is classified tabu).

The type of move attributes illustrated here for defining tabu restrictions are not the only ones possible. For example, reference may be made to separate modules rather than module pairs, or to positions of modules, or to links between their immediate predecessors (or successors), and so forth. Some choices of attributes are better than others, and relevant considerations are discussed in Sections 2.5.1 and 2.5.2. (Attributes involving created and broken links between

immediate predecessors and successors are often among the more effective for many permutation problems.)

To implement tabu restrictions such as those based on module pairs, an important exception must be taken into account. Tabu restrictions are not inviolable under all circumstances. When a tabu move would result in a solution better than any visited so far, its tabu classification may be overridden. A condition that allows such an override to occur is called an *aspiration criterion*. (Several useful forms of such criteria are presented in Section 2.7.) The following shows 4 iterations of the basic tabu procedure that employs the *paired module* tabu restriction and the *best solution* aspiration criterion.

#### Iteration 0 (Starting Point)

Current solution

2	5	7	3	4	6	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 10

Tabu structure

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

Top 5 candidates

Swap	Value	
5 4	6	*
7 4	4	
3 6	2	
2 3	0	
4 1	-1	

The starting solution has an insulation value of 10, and the tabu data structure is initially empty (i.e., it is filled with zeros, indicating no moves are classified tabu at the beginning of the search). After evaluating the candidate swap moves, the top five moves (in terms of move values) are shown in the table for iteration 0 above.

This information is provided by an independent evaluation subroutine designed to identify move values for this particular problem. (Of course, it is not necessary for the subroutine to sort and identify each of the 5 best moves, since we are interested only in the best. Additional options are included to clarify certain ideas subsequently presented.) To locally maximize the insulating property of the material, we swap the positions of modules 5 and 4, as indicated by the asterisk. The total gain of such a move equals 6 units.

**Iteration 1***Current solution*

2	4	7	3	5	6	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 16

*Tabu structure*

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1						
	2					
		3				
			4	3		
				5		
					6	

*Top 5 candidates*

Swap		Value	
3	1	2	*
2	3	1	
3	6	-1	
7	1	-2	
6	1	-4	

The new current solution has an insulating value of 16 (i.e., the previous insulation value plus the value of the selected move). The tabu structure now shows that swapping the positions of modules 4 and 5 is forbidden for 3 iterations. The most improving move at this step is to swap 3 and 1 for a gain of 2.

**Iteration 2***Current solution*

2	4	7	1	5	6	3
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 18

*Tabu structure*

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1		3				
	2					
		3				
			4	2		
				5		
					6	

*Top 5 candidates*

Swap		Value	
1	3	-2	T
2	4	-4	*
7	6	-6	
4	5	-7	T
5	3	-9	

The new current solution becomes the best solution found so far with an insulating value of 18. At this iteration, two exchanges are classified tabu, as indicated by the nonzero entries in the tabu structure.

Note that entry (4, 5) has been decreased from 3 to 2, indicating that its original tabu tenure of 3 now has 2 remaining iterations to go. This time, none of the candidates (including the top 5 shown) has a positive move value. Therefore, a nonimproving move has to be made. The most attractive nonimproving move is the reversal of the move performed in the previous iteration, but since it is classified tabu, this move is not selected. Instead, the swap of modules 2 and 4 is chosen, as indicated by the asterisk.



**Iteration 3***Current solution*

4	2	7	1	5	6	3
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 14

*Tabu structure*

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1		2				
2			3			
3						
4				1		
5						
6						

*Top 5 candidates*

Swap		Value	
4	5	6	T*
5	3	2	
7	1	0	
1	3	-3	T
2	6	-6	

The new current solution has an insulation value inferior to the two values previously obtained, as a result of executing a move with a negative move value. The tabu data structure now indicates that 3 moves are classified tabu, with different remaining tabu tenures. At the top of the candidate list, we find the swap of modules 4 and 5, which in effect represents the reversal of the first move performed, and is classified tabu. However, performing this move produces a solution with an objective function value that is superior to any previous insulation value. Therefore, we make use of the aspiration criterion to override the tabu classification of this move and select it as the best on this iteration.

**Iteration 4***Current solution*

5	2	7	1	4	6	3
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 20

*Tabu structure*

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1		1				
2			2			
3						
4				3		
5						
6						

*Top 5 candidates*

Swap		Value	
7	1	0	*
4	3	-3	
6	3	-5	
5	4	-6	T
2	6	-8	

The current solution becomes the incumbent new best solution and the process continues. Note that the chosen tabu restriction and tabu tenure of 3 results in forbidding only 3 out of 21 possible swaps, since the module pair with a residual tenure of 1 always drops to a residual tenure of 0 each time a new pair with tenure 3 is introduced. (By recording the iteration when a module pair becomes tabu, and comparing this against the current iteration to determine the remaining tabu tenure, it is unnecessary to change these entries at each step as we do here.)

In some situations, it may be desirable to increase the percentage of available moves that

receive a tabu classification. This may be achieved either by increasing the tabu tenure or by changing the tabu restriction. For example, a tabu restriction that forbids swaps containing at least one member of a module pair will prevent a larger number of moves from being executed, even if the tenure remains the same. (In our case, this restriction would forbid 15 out of 21 swaps if the tabu tenure remains at 3!) Such a restriction is based on single module attributes instead of paired module attributes, and can be implemented with much less memory, i.e., by an array that records a tabu tenure for each module separately. Generally speaking, regardless of the type of restriction selected, improved outcomes are often obtained by tabu tenures that vary dynamically, as described in Section 2.6.

*Move Values and Updates.* Because tabu search aggressively selects best admissible moves (where the meaning of best is affected by tabu classification and other elements to be indicated), it must examine and compare a number of move options. For many problems, only a portion of the move values will change from one iteration to the next, and often these changed values can be isolated and updated very quickly. For example, in the present illustration it may be useful to store a table *move\_value(j, k)*, which records the current move value for exchanging modules *j* and *k*. Then when a move is executed, a relatively small part of this table (consisting of values that change) can be quickly modified, and the updated table can then be consulted to identify moves that become the new top candidates.

Such partial updating often can be further enhanced by a list *move\_name(move\_value)* which, for each *move\_value* in a relevant range, identifies *move\_name* to be a specific move that yields this value. A linked list then can connect this *move\_name* to the names of all other moves that yield the same *move\_value*. The combination of the *move\_name(move\_value)* array and the linked list can be updated very quickly to make it easy to locate moves with best move values in cases where only a relatively small number of elements change. A given *move\_value* entry also can refer to a range of move values, with an option to regard all values within a specified range as "essentially equivalent." (However, we suggest the merit of differentiating members of a given range more carefully upon approaching local optimality.)

On a broader scale, lists to facilitate access to best moves invite differentiation to include considerations introduced by move influence (Section 2.7) and by candidate list strategies (Section 3). They also are subject to periodic scanning with reference to concerns that extend beyond the short term horizon, as we illustrate next.

*Complementary Tabu Memory Structures.* The accompaniment of recency based memory with frequency based memory adds a component that typically operates over a longer horizon. To illustrate one of the useful longer term applications of frequency based memory, suppose that 25 TS iterations have been performed, and that the number of times each module pair has been exchanged is saved in an expanded tabu data structure. The lower diagonal of this structure now contains the frequency counts.

**Iteration 26***Current solution*

1	3	6	2	7	5	4
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Insulation Value = 12

*Tabu structure*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1				3			
2							
3	3					2	
4	1	5					1
5		4		4			
6					2		
7	2			3			

Frequency

*Top 5 candidates*

	Swap	Value	Penalized Value	
1	4	3	3	T
2	4	-1	-6	
3	7	-3	-3	*
1	6	-5	-5	
6	5	-4	-6	

At the current iteration (iteration 26), the recency memory indicates that the last three module pairs exchanged were (4, 1), (6, 3), and (4, 7). The frequency counts show the distribution of moves throughout the first 25 iterations. We use these counts to diversify the search, driving it into new regions. This diversifying influence is restricted to operate only on particular occasions. In this case, we select those occasions where no admissible improving moves exist. Our use of the frequency information will penalize nonimproving moves by assigning a larger penalty to swaps of module pairs with greater frequency counts. (Typically these counts **would** be normalized, as by dividing by the total number of iterations or their maximum value.) We illustrate this in the present example by simply subtracting a frequency count from the associated move value.

The list of top candidates for iteration 26 shows that the most improving move is the swap (1, 4), but since this module pair has a residual tabu tenure of 3, it is classified tabu. The move (2, 4) has a value of -1, and it might otherwise be the one next preferred, except that its associated modules have been exchanged frequently during the history of the search (in fact, more frequently than any other module pair). Therefore, the move is heavily penalized and it loses its attractiveness. The swap of modules 3 and 7 thus is selected as the best move on the current iteration.

The strategy of instituting penalties only under particular conditions is used to preserve the aggressiveness of the search. Penalty functions in general are designed to account not only for frequencies but also for move values and certain influence measures, as discussed in Section 2.8.

In addition, frequencies defined over different subsets of past solutions, particularly subsets of elite solutions consisting of high quality local optima, give rise to complementary strategies called *intensification* strategies. Intensification and diversification strategies interact to provide fundamental cornerstones of longer term memory in tabu search. The ways in which such elements are capable of creating enhanced search methods, extending the simplified approach of the preceding example, are elaborated in following sections.

## 2.2 Notation and Problem Description

A few basic definitions and conventions are useful as a foundation for communicating the principal ideas of TS. For this purpose we express the mathematical optimization problem as follows.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Minimize} & c(x) \\ \text{subject to} & \\ & x \in \mathbf{X} \end{array}$$

The objective function  $c(x)$  may be linear or nonlinear, and the condition  $x \in \mathbf{X}$ , summarizes constraints on the vector  $x$ . These constraints may include linear or nonlinear inequalities, and may compel some or all components of  $x$  to receive discrete values.

In many applications of combinatorial optimization, the problem of interest is not explicitly formulated as we have shown it. In such cases the present formulation may be conceived as a code for another formulation. The requirement  $x \in \mathbf{X}$ , for example, may specify logical conditions or interconnections that would be cumbersome to formulate mathematically, but may better be left as verbal stipulations (for example, in the form of rules). Often in these instances the variables are simply codes for conditions or assignments that are parts of the more complex structure. For example, an element of  $x$  may be a binary variable that receives a value of 1 to code for assigning an element  $u$  to a set or position  $v$ , and that receives a value 0 to indicate the assignment does not occur.

## 2.3 Neighborhood Search

TS may be conveniently characterized as a form of neighborhood search, though we warn that neighborhood search often is defined in a more restricted fashion than presented here. Frequently, for example, constructive and destructive procedures are excluded, whereas such procedures and their combinations are standardly subjected to the guidance of TS.

In neighborhood search, each solution  $x \in \mathbf{X}$  has an associated set of neighbors,  $\mathbf{N}(x) \subset \mathbf{X}$ , called the neighborhood of  $x$ . Each solution  $x' \in \mathbf{N}(x)$  can be reached directly from  $x$  by an operation called a *move*, and  $x$  is said to move (or transition) to  $x'$  when such an operation is performed. Normally in tabu search neighborhoods are assumed symmetric, i.e.,  $x'$  is a neighbor of  $x$  if and only if  $x$  is a neighbor of  $x'$ .

The steps of neighborhood search may be described as follows. We assume choice criteria for selecting moves, and termination criteria for ending the search, are given by some external set of prescriptions.

### Neighborhood Search Method

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Step 1 (Initialization).

- (A) Select a starting solution  $x_{now} \in X$ .
- (B) Record the current best known solution by setting  $x_{best} = x_{now}$  and define  $best\_cost = c(x_{best})$ .

Step 2 (Choice and termination).

Choose a solution  $x_{next} \in N(x_{now})$ . If the choice criteria employed cannot be satisfied by any member of  $N(x_{now})$  (hence no solution qualifies to be  $x_{next}$ ), or if other termination criteria apply (such as a limit on the total number of iterations), then the method stops.

Step 3 (Update).

Re-set  $x_{now} = x_{next}$ , and if  $c(x_{now}) < best\_cost$ , perform Step 1(B). Then return to Step 2.

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The foregoing method can represent a constructive method by stipulating that  $X$  is expanded to include  $x$  vectors whose components take null (unassigned) values, and by stipulating that a neighbor  $x'$  of  $x$  can result by replacing a null component of  $x$  with a non-null component. (A change of representation sometimes conveniently allows null components to be represented by values of 0 and non-null components by values of 1.) A standard constructive method does not yield symmetric neighborhoods, since non-null components are not permitted to become null again (hence the method ends when no more components are null). However, tabu search reinstates the symmetric relation by allowing constructive and destructive moves to co-exist, as a special instance of an approach called strategic oscillation (see Section 3).

The Neighborhood Search Method can easily be altered by adding special provisions to yield a variety of classical procedures. Descent Methods, which only permit moves to neighbor solutions that improve the current  $c(x_{now})$  value, and which end when no improving solutions can be found, can be expressed by the following provision in Step 2.

### Descent Method

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Step 2 (Choice and termination).

Choose  $x_{next} \in N(x_{now})$  to satisfy  $c(x_{next}) < c(x_{now})$  and terminate if no such  $x_{next}$  can be found.

---

The final  $x_{now}$  obtained by a Descent Method is called a local optimum, since it is at least

as good or better than all solutions in its neighborhood. The evident shortcoming of a Descent Method is that such a local optimum in most cases will not be a global optimum, i.e., it usually will not minimize  $c(x)$  over all  $x \in X$ .

Randomized procedures such as Monte Carlo methods, which include simulated annealing, similarly can be represented by adding a simple provision to Step 2.

#### Monte Carlo Method

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Step 2 (Choice and termination).

- (A) Randomly select  $x_{next}$  from  $N(x_{now})$ .
  - (B) If  $c(x_{next}) \leq c(x_{now})$  accept  $x_{next}$  (and proceed to the Update Step).
  - (C) If  $c(x_{next}) > c(x_{now})$  accept  $x_{next}$  with a probability that decreases with increases in the difference  $c(x_{next}) - c(x_{now})$ . If  $x_{next}$  is not accepted on the current trial by this criterion, return to Step 2(A).
  - (D) Terminate by a chosen cutoff rule.
- 

Monte Carlo methods continue to sample the search space until finally terminating by some form of iteration limit. Normally they use an exponential function to define probabilities, drawing from practice established in engineering and physical science. The Monte Carlo version represented by simulated annealing starts with a high probability for accepting nonimproving moves in Step 2(C) and decreases this probability over time as a function of a parameter called the "temperature," which monotonically diminishes toward 0 as the number of iterations grows. Such approaches offer a chance to do better than finding a single local optimum since they effectively terminate only when the probability of accepting a non-improving move in Step 2(C) becomes so small that no such move is ever accepted (in the finite time allowed). Hence, they may wander in and out of various intermediate local optima prior to becoming lodged in a final local optimum, when the temperature becomes small.

Another randomizing approach to overcome the limitation of the Descent Method is simply to re-start the method with different randomly selected initial solutions, and run the method multiple times. Such a random restart approach (sometimes called Iterated Descent), may be contrasted with a random perturbation approach, which simply chooses moves randomly for a period after reaching each local optimum, and then resumes a trajectory of descent. Alternating threshold methods indicated in Section 2.7.1 provide a refinement of this idea.

## 2.4 Tabu Search Characteristics

Tabu search, in contrast to the preceding methods, employs a somewhat different philosophy for going beyond the criterion of terminating at a local optimum. Randomization is deemphasized, and generally is employed only in a highly constrained way, on the assumption that intelligent search should be based on more systematic forms of guidance. Randomization (pseudo-randomization) thus chiefly is assigned the role of facilitating operations that are otherwise cumbersome to implement or whose strategic implications are unclear. (In the latter case, a supplementary learning approach such as target analysis (Laguna and Glover, 1992) customarily is employed to determine if such implications can be sharpened.) Accordingly, many tabu search implementations are largely or wholly deterministic. An exception occurs for the variant called probabilistic tabu search, which selects moves according to probabilities based on the status and evaluations assigned to these moves by the basic tabu search principles. (A discussion of probabilistic convergence issues is provided by Faigle and Kern, 1992.)

### 2.4.1 Special TS Uses of Memory: Modifying Neighborhood Structures

The notion of exploiting certain forms of flexible memory to control the search process is the central theme underlying tabu search. The effect of such memory may be envisioned by stipulating that TS maintains a selective history  $H$  of the states encountered during the search, and replaces  $N(x_{now})$  by a modified neighborhood which may be denoted  $N(H, x_{now})$ . History therefore determines which solutions may be reached by a move from the current solution, selecting  $x_{next}$  from  $N(H, x_{now})$ .

In the TS strategies based on short term considerations,  $N(H, x_{now})$  characteristically is a subset of  $N(x_{now})$ , and the tabu classification serves to identify elements of  $N(x_{now})$  excluded from  $N(H, x_{now})$ . In the intermediate and longer term strategies,  $N(H, x_{now})$  may contain solutions not in  $N(x_{now})$ , generally consisting of selected elite solutions (high quality local optima) encountered at various points in the solution process. Such elite solutions typically are identified as elements of a regional cluster in intermediate term intensification strategies, and as elements of different clusters in longer term diversification strategies. In addition, elite solution components, in contrast to the solutions themselves, are included among the elements that can be retained and integrated to provide inputs to the search process.

TS also uses history to create a modified evaluation of currently accessible solutions. This may be expressed formally by saying that TS replaces the objective function  $c(x)$  by a function  $c(H, x)$ , which has the purpose of evaluating the relative quality of currently accessible solutions. (An illustration is provided by the use of frequency based memory in the example of Section 2.1.) The relevance of this modified function occurs because TS uses aggressive choice criteria that seek a best  $x_{next}$ , i.e., one that yields a best value of  $c(H, x_{next})$ , over a candidate set drawn from  $N(H, x_{now})$ . Moreover, modified evaluations often are accompanied by systematic alteration of

$N(H, x_{now})$ , to include neighboring solutions that do not satisfy customary feasibility conditions (i.e., that strictly speaking do not yield  $x \in X$ ). Reference to  $c(x)$  and feasibility is retained for determining whether a move is improving or leads to a new best solution.

For large problems, where  $N(H, x_{now})$  may have many elements, or for problems where these elements may be costly to examine, the aggressive choice orientation of TS makes it highly important to isolate a candidate subset of the neighborhood, and to examine this subset instead of the entire neighborhood. This can be done in stages, allowing the candidate subset to be expanded if alternatives satisfying aspiration levels are not found. Because of the significance of the candidate subset's role, we refer to this subset explicitly by the notation  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$ . Then the tabu search procedure may be expressed in the following manner.

#### Tabu Search Method

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Step 1 (Initialization).

Begin with the same initialization used by Neighborhood Search, and start with the history record  $H$  empty.

Step 2 (Choice and termination).

Determine  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$  as a subset of  $N(H, x_{now})$ . Select  $x_{next}$  from  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$  to minimize  $c(H, x)$  over this set. ( $x_{next}$  is called a highest evaluation element of  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$ .) Terminate by a chosen iteration cutoff rule.

Step 3 (Update).

Perform the update for the Neighborhood Search Method, and additionally update the history record  $H$ .

---

Formally the tabu search method is quite straightforward to state. The essence of the method depends on how the history record  $H$  is defined and utilized, and on how the candidate neighborhood  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$  and the evaluation function  $c(H, x)$  are determined.

In the simplest cases we may imagine  $Candidate\_N(x_{now})$  to constitute all of  $N(H, x_{now})$ , and take  $c(H, x) = c(x)$ , disregarding neighborhood screening approaches and the longer term considerations that introduce elite solutions into the determination of moves. We begin from this point of view, focusing on the short term component of tabu search for determining the form and use of  $H$ . The basic considerations provide a foundation for the intermediate and long term TS components as well.



## 2.5 Tabu Search Memory

### 2.5.1 Attribute Based Memory

An attribute of a move from  $x_{now}$  to  $x_{next}$ , or more generally of a trial move from  $x_{now}$  to a tentative solution  $x_{trial}$ , can encompass any aspect that changes as a result of the move. Natural types of attributes are as follows.

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**Illustrative Move Attributes for a Move  $x_{now}$  to  $x_{trial}$**

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- (A1) Change of a selected variable  $x_j$  from 0 to 1.
  - (A2) Change of a selected variable  $x_k$  from 1 to 0.
  - (A3) The combined change of (A1) and (A2) taken together.
  - (A4) Change of  $c(x_{now})$  to  $c(x_{trial})$ .
  - (A5) Change of a function  $g(x_{now})$  to  $g(x_{trial})$  (where  $g$  may represent a function that occurs naturally in the problem formulation or that is created strategically).
  - (A6) Change represented by the difference value  $g(x_{trial}) - g(x_{now})$ .
  - (A7) The combined changes of (A5) or (A6) for more than one function  $g$  considered simultaneously.
- 

A single move evidently can give rise to multiple attributes. For example, a move that changes the values of two variables simultaneously may give rise to each of the three attributes (A1), (A2), and (A3), as well as to other attributes of the form indicated. Attributes that represent combinations of other attributes do not necessarily provide more exploitable information, as will be seen. Attributes (A5) to (A7) are based on a function  $g$  that may be strategically chosen to be completely independent from  $c$ . For example,  $g$  may be a measure of distance (or dissimilarity) between any given solution and a reference solution, such as the last local optimum visited or the best solution found so far. Then, attribute (A6) would indicate whether a trial solution leads the search farther from or closer to the reference point.

Move attributes, involving change, may be subdivided into component attributes called *from-attributes* and *to-attributes*. That is, each move attribute may be expressed as an ordered pair (*from-attribute*, *to-attribute*) whose components are respectively attributes of the solutions  $x_{now}$  and  $x_{trial}$ . Letting  $A(x_{now})$  and  $A(x_{trial})$  denote attribute sets for these two solutions, the requirement of change underlying the definition of a move attribute implies

$$\text{from-attribute} \in A(x_{now}) - A(x_{trial})$$

$$\text{to-attribute} \in A(x_{trial}) - A(x_{now}).$$

This differentiation between move attributes and their component *from-attributes* and *to-attributes* is useful for establishing certain outcomes related to their use.

When we refer to assigning alternative values to a selected variable  $x_j$  of  $x$ , and particularly to assigning values 0 and 1 to a binary variable, we will understand by our previous conventions that this can refer to a variety of operations such as adding or deleting edges from a graph, assigning or removing a facility from a particular location, changing the processing position of a job on a machine, and so forth. Such coding conventions can be extended to include the creation of supplementary variables that represent states of subservient processes. For example,  $x_j = 0$  or 1 may indicate that an associated variable is nonbasic or basic in an extreme point solution procedure, as in the simplex method and its variants for linear and nonlinear programming.

## 2.5.2 Uses of Move Attributes

Recorded move attributes are often used in tabu search to impose constraints, called tabu restrictions, that prevent moves from being chosen that would reverse the changes represented by these attributes. More precisely, when a move from  $x_{now}$  to  $x_{next}$  is performed that contains an attribute  $e$ , a record is maintained for the reverse attribute which we denote by  $\bar{e}$ , in order to prevent a move from occurring that contains some subset of such reverse attributes. Examples of kinds of tabu restrictions frequently employed are as follows.

### Illustrative Tabu Restrictions

---

A move is tabu if:

- (R1)  $x_j$  changes from 1 to 0 (where  $x_j$  previously changed from 0 to 1).
  - (R2)  $x_k$  changes from 0 to 1 (where  $x_k$  previously changed from 1 to 0).
  - (R3) At least one of (R1) and (R2) occur. (This condition is more restrictive than either (R1) or (R2) separately — i.e., it makes more moves tabu.)
  - (R4) Both (R1) and (R2) occur. (This condition is less restrictive than either (R1) or (R2) separately — i.e., it makes fewer moves tabu.)
  - (R5) Both (R1) and (R2) occur, and in addition the reverse of these moves occurred simultaneously on the same iteration in the past. (This condition is less restrictive than (R4).)
  - (R6)  $g(x)$  receives a value  $v'$  that it received on a previous iteration (i.e.,  $v' = g(x')$  for some previously visited solution  $x'$ ).
  - (R7)  $g(x)$  changes from  $v''$  to  $v'$ , where  $g(x)$  changed from  $v'$  to  $v''$  on a previous iteration (i.e.,  $v' = g(x')$  and  $v'' = g(x'')$  for some pair of solutions  $x'$  and  $x''$  previously visited in sequence.)
-

Among the restrictions of the preceding examples, only (R5) applies to a composite attribute, in which two component attributes simultaneously identify a single attribute of a previous move. (However, restriction (R4) is meaningful only if the present move is composed of two such attributes, but does not depend on the condition that both of these attributes have occurred together in the past.) Also, while (R7) is less restrictive than (R6) (since it renders fewer moves tabu), both of these restrictions can reduce either to (R1) or (R2) by specifying  $g(x) = x_j$  or  $g(x) = x_k$ . ((R6) is equivalent to (R7) in the situation where  $g(x)$  can only take two different values.)

Tabu restrictions are also sometimes used to prevent repetitions rather than reversals, as illustrated by stipulating in (R1) that  $x_j$  previously changed from 1 to 0, rather than from 0 to 1. These have a role of preventing the repetition of a search path that leads away from a given solution. By contrast, restrictions that prevent reversals have a role of preventing a return to a previous solution. Hence, tabu restrictions vary according to whether they are defined in terms of reversals or duplications of their associated attributes.

### 2.5.3 The Role of Tabu Status

A tabu restriction typically is activated only in the case where its attributes occurred within a limited number of iterations prior to the present iteration (creating a recency based restriction) or occurred with a certain frequency over a longer span of iterations (creating a frequency based restriction). More precisely, a tabu restriction is enforced only when the attributes underlying its definition satisfy certain thresholds of recency or frequency. To exploit this notion, we define an attribute to be tabu-active when its associated reverse (or duplicate) attribute has occurred within a stipulated interval of recency or frequency in past moves. An attribute that is not tabu-active is called tabu-inactive.

The condition of being tabu-active or tabu-inactive is called the *tabu status* of an attribute. Sometimes an attribute is called tabu or not tabu to indicate that it is tabu-active or tabu-inactive. It is important to keep in mind in such cases that a "tabu attribute" does not correspond to a tabu move. As the preceding examples show, a move may contain tabu-active attributes, but still may not be tabu if these attributes are not of the right number or kind to activate a tabu restriction.

The most common tabu restrictions, whose attributes are the reverse of those defining these restrictions, characteristically have a goal of preventing cycling and of inducing vigor into the search. However, some types of restrictions must be accompanied by others, at least periodically, to achieve the cycle avoidance effect. For example, the restriction (R5) is not able to prevent cycling by itself, regardless of the interval of time it is allowed to be in effect. This can be demonstrated by letting the ordered pair  $(j, k)$  denote an attribute in which  $x_j$  changes from 0 to 1 and  $x_k$  changes from 1 to 0. Then a sequence of 3 moves that creates the three attributes (1, 2), (2, 3), and (3, 1) both starts and ends at the same solution, but this sequence is not prevented by restriction (R5). (R7) also may not prevent cycling, if  $g(x)$  can change from a later value to an

earlier value without visiting values that were successively generated at intermediate points (e.g., going from 5 to 10 to 15 and then back to 5, jumping over the reverse move from 15 to 10).

Cycle avoidance can easily be achieved over the duration of tabu tenure, however, by focusing specifically on *from-attributes* and *to-attributes* rather than on their ordered pair combinations. More precisely, as long as at least one *to-attribute* of a current move is not a *from-attribute* of a previous move, cycling cannot occur. Examination of the preceding restrictions shows that all except (R5) and (R7) implicitly are based on the requirement that specified *from-attributes* of previous moves must not be *to-attributes* of the current move, or else the move is tabu. (The only component attributes of the present move that are relevant to its tabu classification are its *to-attributes*, which to prevent reversals must be *from-attributes* of previous moves.)

It should be pointed out, however, that cycle avoidance is not an ultimate goal of the search process. In some instances, a good search path will result in revisiting a solution encountered before. The broader objective is to continue to stimulate the discovery of new high quality solutions. Hence in the longer term the issue of cycle avoidance is more subtle than simply preventing a solution from being revisited. The way that tabu restrictions depend on different choices of move attributes, and the consequences of this dependency, are examined in the following example.

*An Example.* Consider a past move that involves a change from  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j = q$ . To avoid a reversal, we stipulate that the *from-attribute* of this move,  $x_j = p$ , is tabu-active, thus allowing the possibility of preventing a move with a change in which  $x_j = p$  is the *to-attribute*. But  $x_j = p$  is not the only component of the past move that can qualify as a *from-attribute*, and hence that can be the basis for defining a tabu-active status.

By conceiving an attribute change implicitly to involve replacing an attribute  $e$  by a complementary attribute  $\bar{e}$ , the change from  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j = q$  in fact may be viewed as composed of two such attribute changes: from  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j \neq p$ , and from  $x_j \neq q$  to  $x_j = q$ . Thus,  $x_j \neq q$  also can be regarded as a *from-attribute* of this change. By avoiding either of the tabu-active reverse attributes, to  $x_j = p$  or to  $x_j \neq q$ , the present move will not be able to revisit the solution that initiated the past move. (Note that avoiding  $x_j \neq q$  is the same as compelling  $x_j = q$ , which is more restrictive than avoiding  $x_j = p$ .)

The problem illustrated at the start of this chapter gives an instructive example of options created by identifying tabu attributes in this way. The swap moves of the illustration consist of selecting two items,  $j$  and  $k$ , where item  $j$  occupies position  $p$  and item  $k$  occupies position  $q$ , and then exchanging their positions. Let  $x_u = v$  denote the statement "item  $u$  is assigned to position  $v$ ." Hence the swap move for interchanging the positions of items  $j$  and  $k$  can be represented as consisting of the two operations "from  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j = q$ " and "from  $x_k = q$  to  $x_k = p$ ." Subdividing these operations into their components, we can express the outcome as consisting of the following changes:

from  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j \neq p$   
 from  $x_j \neq q$  to  $x_j = q$   
 from  $x_k = q$  to  $x_k \neq q$   
 from  $x_k \neq p$  to  $x_k = p$ .

Thus, any combination of the preceding *from-attributes* can be selected to represent corresponding *to-attributes* of a move currently under consideration, for the purpose of defining a tabu restriction applicable to this move. We may elect, for instance, to rely on just the first and third of the preceding *from-attributes*, using the tabu restriction that classifies a move tabu only if it contains both  $x_j = p$  and  $x_k = q$  as *to-attributes*. (Hence this prevents the current move if it transfers item  $j$  to position  $p$  and item  $k$  to position  $q$ , where items  $j$  and  $k$  were respectively moved out of these two positions in the past, though not necessarily on the same move.) This is a weaker restriction than one based on either the second or fourth *from-attribute* above, rendering a move tabu if it contains  $x_j \neq q$  or  $x_k \neq p$  as a *to-attribute*, hence essentially compelling the current move to result in  $x_j = q$  or  $x_k = p$  (or at least one or both, depending on the restriction chosen). One implication of choosing stronger or weaker tabu restrictions is to render smaller or larger tabu tenures appropriate.

*Effect of Variable Codings.* Different codings of variables also lead to different consequences for creating tabu restrictions. For example, if  $x_u = v$  instead is given the interpretation "item  $u$  immediately precedes item  $v$ ," then the swap of items  $j$  and  $k$  yields an altered set of attributes with different associated possibilities. Denoting the two items that immediately precede and immediately follow  $j$  by  $p$  and  $q$ , and the two items that immediately precede and immediately follow  $k$  by  $r$  and  $s$ , we see that the swap creates the following changes:

from  $x_j = q$  to  $x_j = s$   
 from  $x_k = s$  to  $x_k = q$   
 from  $x_p = j$  to  $x_p = k$   
 from  $x_r = k$  to  $x_r = j$ .

Moreover, each of these subdivides into two additional components (for example, the first becomes "from  $x_j = q$  to  $x_j \neq q$ " and "from  $x_j \neq s$  to  $x_j = s$ "), yielding a set of options for defining tabu restrictions that is considerably expanded over those of the preceding coding of the variables.

Representationally, there may be multiple options for characterizing the same set of attributes, and it is appropriate to use one that is natural for the problem setting. In this case, for example, it is convenient to represent the condition "item  $u$  immediately precedes item  $v$ " as an arc  $(u, v)$  from node  $u$  to node  $v$  in a directed graph, and by this convention the statement "from

$x_j = q$  to  $x_j = s$ " corresponds to saying "arc  $(j, q)$  replaces arc  $(j, s)$ ." A component change of the form "from  $x_j = q$  to  $x_j \neq q$ " (or "from  $x_j \neq q$  to  $x_j = q$ ") then corresponds to saying that arc  $(j, q)$  is dropped from (or added to) the graph. We note it is always possible to encode the pair of conditions  $x_j = q$  and  $x_j \neq q$  as the assignment of values to a binary variable, e.g., letting  $x_{jq} = 1$  denote  $x_j = q$  and letting  $x_{jq} = 0$  denote  $x_j \neq q$ , and in the present example this yields the standard algebraic notation for expressing that arc  $(j, q)$  is absent or present in a graph.

Broadly speaking, regardless of the representation employed, a move can be determined to be tabu by a restriction defined over any set of conditions on its attributes, provided these attributes are currently tabu-active. As the preceding discussion illustrates, a common type of restriction operates by selecting some subset of attributes and declaring the move to be tabu if a certain minimum number (e.g., one or all) are tabu-active.

## 2.6 Recency Based Tabu Memory Functions

To keep track of the status of move attributes that compose tabu restrictions, and to determine when these restrictions are applicable, several basic kinds of memory functions have been found useful. Two common examples of recency based memory functions are specified by the arrays *tabu\_start*(*e*) and *tabu\_end*(*e*), where *e* ranges over attributes relevant to a particular application. These arrays respectively identify the starting and ending iterations of the tabu tenure for attribute *e*, thus bracketing the period during which *e* is tabu-active.

The rule to identify appropriate values for *tabu\_start*(*e*) and *tabu\_end*(*e*) results by keeping track of the attributes at each iteration that are components of the current move. In particular, on iteration *i*, if *e* is an attribute of the current move, and tabu status is defined to avoid reversals, then we set *tabu\_start*( $\bar{e}$ ) = *i* + 1, indicating that the reverse attribute  $\bar{e}$  begins its tabu-active status at the start of the next iteration. (For example, if *e* represents "from  $x_j = p$ " then  $\bar{e}$  can represent "to  $x_j = p$ ." ) Attribute  $\bar{e}$  will retain this status throughout its tabu tenure, which we denote by *t*. Then this yields *tabu\_end*( $\bar{e}$ ) = *i* + *t*, so that the tenure for  $\bar{e}$  ranges over the *t* iterations from *i* + 1 to *i* + *t*.

As a result, it is easy to test whether an arbitrary attribute *e* is tabu-active, simply by checking to see if *tabu\_end*(*e*) ≥ current\_iteration. Initializing *tabu\_end*(*e*) = 0 for all attributes assures that *tabu\_end*(*e*) < current\_iteration, and hence that attribute *e* is tabu-inactive, until the update previously specified is performed. This suggests we need to keep only the single array *tabu\_end*(*e*) to provide information about tabu status. However, we will see that situations arise where it is valuable to keep *tabu\_start*(*e*), and either to infer *tabu\_end*(*e*) by adding an appropriate value of *t* (currently computed, or preferably extracted from a pre-stored sequence), or to maintain *tabu\_end*(*e*) as a separate array.

Memory often can be further simplified when attributes represent binary alternatives, such as changing from  $x_j = 0$  to  $x_j = 1$ . Then, instead of recording a separate value *tabu\_start*(*e*) for

each of these attributes, it suffices simply to record a single value  $tabu\_start(j)$ . We automatically know whether  $tabu\_start(j)$  refers to changing from  $x_j = 0$  to  $x_j = 1$  or the reverse, by taking account of the value of  $x_j$  in the current solution. If currently  $x_j = 1$ , for example, the most recent change was from  $x_j = 0$  to  $x_j = 1$ . Then the reverse attribute, derived from changing  $x_j$  from 1 to 0, is the one whose tenure is represented by the value of  $tabu\_start(j)$ . (We assume that the latest tabu tenure assigned to an attribute takes precedence over all others.)

Regardless of the data structure employed, the key issue for creating tabu status using recency based memory is to determine a "good value" of  $t$ . Rules for determining  $t$  are classified as static or dynamic. *Static rules* choose a value for  $t$  that remains fixed throughout the search. *Dynamic rules* allow the value of  $t$  to vary. Examples of these two kinds of rules are as follows.

#### Illustrative Rules to Create Tabu Tenure (Recency Based)

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Static rules:

Choose  $t$  to be a constant such as  $t = 7$  or  $t = \sqrt{n}$ , where  $n$  is a measure of problem dimension.

Dynamic rules:

Simple dynamic: Choose  $t$  to vary (randomly or by systematic pattern) between bounds  $t\_min$  and  $t\_max$ , such as  $t\_min = 5$  and  $t\_max = 11$  or  $t\_min = .9\sqrt{n}$  and  $t\_max = 1.1\sqrt{n}$ .

Attribute-dependent dynamic: Choose  $t$  as in the Simple Dynamic rule, but determine  $t\_min$  and  $t\_max$  to be larger for attributes that are more attractive, e.g., based on quality or influence considerations.

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The indicated values such as 7 and  $\sqrt{n}$  are only suggestive, and represent parameters whose preferred values should be set by experimentation for a particular class of problems. Values between 7 and 20 in fact appear to work well for a variety of problem classes, while values between  $.5\sqrt{n}$  and  $2\sqrt{n}$  appear to work well for other classes. (A weighted multiple of  $\sqrt{n}$  is replaced by a weighted multiple of  $n$  for some problems.) As previously intimated, if  $tabu\_end(e)$  is not maintained separately, but is inferred as the value  $tabu\_start(e) + t$ , then for the dynamic case it may be preferable to pre-compute a sequence of appropriate values for  $t$  and simply step through them each time a new  $t$  is needed. (Random sequences can be reasonably approximated this way with considerable saving of computational effort. Alternatively,  $t$  can be computed only once or a small number of times on a given iteration, instead of being recomputed separately for each trial move.)

It often is appropriate to allow different types of attributes defining a tabu restriction to be

## 2.8 Frequency Based Memory

Frequency based memory provides a type of information that complements the information provided by recency based memory, broadening the foundation for selecting preferred moves. Like recency, frequency often is weighted or decomposed into subclasses by taking account of the dimensions of solution quality and move influence.

For our present purposes, we conceive frequency measures to consist of ratios, whose numerators represent counts of the number of occurrences of a particular event (e.g., the number of times a particular attribute belongs to a solution or move) and whose denominators generally represent one of four types of quantities: (1) the total number of occurrences of all events represented by the numerators (such as the total number of associated iterations), (2) the sum of the numerators, (3) the maximum numerator value, and (4) the average numerator value. Denominators (3) and (4) give rise to what may be called relative frequencies. The meaning of these different types of frequencies will be clarified by examples below. In cases where the numerators represent weighted counts, some of which may be negative, denominators (3) and (4) are expressed as absolute values and denominator (2) is expressed as a sum of absolute values (possibly shifted by a small constant to avoid a zero denominator).

Let  $x(1), x(2), \dots, x(\text{current\_iteration})$  denote the sequence of solutions generated to the present point of the search process, and let  $S$  denote a subsequence of this solution sequence. We take the liberty of treating  $S$  as a set as well as an ordered sequence. Elements of  $S$  are not necessarily consecutive elements of the full solution sequence. (For example, we sometimes will be interested in cases where  $S$  consists of different subsets of high quality local optima.)

Notationally, we let  $S(x_j = p)$  denote the set of solutions in  $S$  for which  $x_j = p$ , and let  $\#S(x_j = p)$  denote the cardinality of this set (hence the number of times  $x_j$  receives the value  $p$  over  $x \in S$ ). Similarly, let  $S(x_j = p \text{ to } x_j = q)$  denote the set of solutions in  $S$  that result by a move that changes  $x_j = p$  to  $x_j = q$ . Finally, let  $S(\text{from } x_j = p)$  and  $S(\text{to } x_j = q)$  denote the sets of solutions in  $S$  that respectively contain  $x_j = p$  as a *from-attribute* or  $x_j = q$  as a *to-attribute* (for a move to the next solution, or from the preceding solution, in the sequence  $x(1), \dots, x(\text{current\_iteration})$ ). In general, if *solution\_attribute* represents any attribute of a solution that can take the role of a *from-attribute* or a *to-attribute* for a move, and if *move\_attribute* represents an arbitrary move attribute denoted by (*from-attribute*, *to-attribute*), then

$$\begin{aligned}
 S(\text{solution\_attribute}) &= \{x \in S: x \text{ contains } \text{solution\_attribute}\} \\
 S(\text{move\_attribute}) &= \{x \in S: x \text{ results by a move containing } \text{move\_attribute}\} \\
 S(\text{from-attribute}) &= \{x \in S: x \text{ initiates a move containing } \text{from-attribute}\} \\
 S(\text{to-attribute}) &= \{x \in S: x \text{ results by a move containing } \text{to-attribute}\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The quantity  $\#S(x_j = p)$  constitutes a *residence measure*, since it identifies the number of



times the attribute  $x_j = p$  resides in the solutions of  $S$ . Correspondingly, we call a frequency that results by dividing such a measure by one of the denominators (1) to (4) a *residence frequency*. For the numerator  $\#S(x_j = p)$ , the denominators (1) and (2) both correspond to  $\#S$ , while denominators (3) and (4) respectively are given by  $\text{Max}(\#S(x_k = q): \text{all } k, q)$  and by  $\text{Mean}(\#S(x_k = q): \text{all } k, q)$ .

The quantities  $\#S(x_j = p \text{ to } x_j = q)$ ,  $\#S(\text{from } x_j = p)$  and  $\#S(\text{to } x_j = q)$  constitute *transition measures*, since they identify the number of times  $x_j$  changes from and/or to specified values. Likewise, frequencies based on such measures are called *transition frequencies*. Denominators for creating such frequencies from the foregoing measures include  $\#S$ , the total number of times the indicated changes occur over  $S$  for different  $j, p$  and/or  $q$  values, and associated Max and Mean quantities.

*Distinctions Between Frequency Types.* Residence frequencies and transition frequencies sometimes convey related information, but in general carry different implications. They are sometimes confused (or treated identically) in the literature. A noteworthy distinction is that residence measures, by contrast to transition measures, are not concerned with whether a particular solution attribute of an element  $x(i)$  in the sequence  $S$  is a *from-attribute* or a *to-attribute*, or even whether it is an attribute that changes in moving from  $x(i)$  to  $x(i+1)$  or from  $x(i-1)$  to  $x(i)$ . It is only relevant that the attribute can be a *from-attribute* or a *to-attribute* in some future move. Such measures can yield different types of implications depending on the choice of the subsequence  $S$ .

A high residence frequency, for example, may indicate that an attribute is highly attractive if  $S$  is a subsequence of high quality solutions, or may indicate the opposite if  $S$  is a subsequence of low quality solutions. On the other hand, a residence frequency that is high (or low) when  $S$  contains both high and low quality solutions may point to an entrenched (or excluded) attribute that causes the search space to be restricted, and that needs to be jettisoned (or incorporated) to allow increased diversity.

From the standpoint of computational simplification, when  $S$  consists of all solutions generated after a specified iteration, then a residence measure can be currently maintained and updated by reference to values of the *tabu-start* array, without the need to increment a set of counters at each iteration. For a set  $S$  whose solutions do not come from sequential iterations, however, residence measures are calculated simply by running a tally over elements of  $S$ .

Transition measures are generally quite easy to maintain by performing updates during the process of generating solutions (assuming the conditions defining  $S$ , and the attributes whose transition measures are sought, are specified in advance). This results from the fact that typically only a few types of attribute changes are considered relevant to track when one solution is replaced by the next, and these can readily be isolated and recorded. The frequencies in the example of Section 2.1 constitute an instance of transition frequencies that were maintained in this simple manner. Their use in this example, however, encouraged diversity by approximating the type of role that residence frequencies are usually better suited to take.

As a final distinction, a high transition frequency, in contrast to a high residence frequency, may indicate an associated attribute is a "crack filler," that shifts in and out of solution to perform a fine tuning function. Such an attribute may be interpreted as the opposite of an influential attribute, as considered earlier in the discussion of Aspiration by Influence. In this context, a transition frequency may be interpreted as a measure of volatility.

*Examples and Uses of Frequency Measures.* Illustrations of both residence and transition frequencies are as follows. (Only numerators are indicated, understanding denominators to be provided by conditions (1) to (4).)

**Example Frequency Measures (Numerators)**

- 
- (F1)  $\#S(x_j = p)$
  - (F2)  $\#S(x_j = p \text{ for some } x_j)$
  - (F3)  $\#S(\text{to } x_j = p)$
  - (F4)  $\#S(x_j \text{ changes}), \text{ i.e., } \#S(\text{from-or-to } x_j = p \text{ for some } p)$
  - (F5)  $\sum(c(x)): x \in S(x_j = p) / \#S(x_j = p)$
  - (F6) Replace  $S(x_j = p)$  in (F5) with  $S(x_j \neq p \text{ to } x_j = p)$ .
  - (F7) Replace  $c(x)$  in (F6) with a measure of the influence of the solution attribute  $x_j = p$ .
- 

The measures (F5) - (F7) implicitly are weighted measures, created by reference to solution quality in (F5) and (F6), and by reference to move influence in (F7) (or more precisely, influence of an attribute composing a move). Measure (F5) may be interpreted as the average  $c(x)$  value over  $S$  when  $x_j = p$ . This quantity can be directly compared to other such averages or can be translated into a frequency measure using denominators such as the sum or maximum of these averages.

Attributes that have greater frequency measures, just as those that have greater recency measures (i.e., that occur in solutions or moves closer to the present), can initiate a tabu-active status if  $S$  consists of consecutive solutions that end with the current solution. However, frequency based memory typically finds its most productive use as part of a longer term strategy, which employs incentives as well as restrictions to determine which moves are selected. In such a strategy, restrictions are translated into evaluation penalties, and incentives become evaluation enhancements, to alter the basis for qualifying moves as attractive or unattractive.

To illustrate, an attribute such as  $x_j = p$  with a high residence frequency may be assigned a strong incentive ("profit") to serve as a *from-attribute*, thus resulting in the choice of a move that yields  $x_j \neq p$ . Such an incentive is particularly relevant in the case where  $\text{tabu\_start}(x_j \neq p)$  is small, since this value identifies the latest iteration that  $x_j \neq p$  served as a *from-attribute* (for

avoiding reversals), and hence discloses that  $x_j = p$  has been an attribute of every solution since.

Frequency based memory therefore is usually applied by introducing graduated tabu states, as a foundation for defining penalty and incentive values to modify the evaluation of moves. A natural connection exists between this approach and the recency based memory approach that creates tabu status as an all-or-none condition. If the tenure of an attribute in recency based memory is conceived as a conditional threshold for applying a very large penalty, then the tabu classifications produced by such memory can be interpreted as the result of an evaluation that becomes strongly inferior when the penalties are activated. It is reasonable to anticipate that conditional thresholds should also be relevant to determining the values of penalties and incentives in longer term strategies. Most applications at present, however, use a simple linear multiple of a frequency measure to create a penalty or incentive term. Fundamental ways for taking advantage of frequency based memory are indicated in the next section.

## 2.9 Frequency Based Memory in Simple Intensification and Diversification Processes

The roles of intensification and diversification in tabu search are already implicit in several of the preceding prescriptions, but they become especially relevant in longer term search processes. Intensification strategies undertake to create solutions by aggressively encouraging the incorporation of "good attributes." In the short term this consists of incorporating attributes receiving highest evaluations by the approaches and criteria previously described, while in the intermediate to long term it consists of incorporating attributes of solutions from selected elite subsets (implicitly focusing the search in subregions defined relative to these subsets). Diversification strategies instead seek to generate solutions that embody compositions of attributes significantly different from those encountered previously during the search. These two types of strategies counterbalance and reinforce each other in several ways.

We first examine simple forms of intensification and diversification approaches that make use of frequency based memory. These approaches will be illustrated by reference to residence frequency measures, but similar observations apply to the use of transition measures, taking account of contrasting features previously noted.

For a diversification strategy we choose  $S$  to be a significant subset of the full solution sequence; for example, the entire sequence starting with the first local optimum, or the subsequence consisting of all local optima. (For certain strategies based on transition measures,  $S$  may usefully consist of the subsequence containing each maximum unbroken succession of nonimproving moves that immediately follow a local optimum, focusing on  $S(\text{to\_attribute})$  for these moves.)

For an intensification strategy we choose  $S$  to be a small subset of elite solutions (high quality local optima) that share a large number of common attributes, and secondarily whose members can reach each other by relatively small numbers of moves, independent of whether these

solutions lie close to each other in the solution sequence. For example, collections of such subsets  $S$  may be generated by clustering procedures, followed by employing a parallel processing approach to treat each selected  $S$  separately.

For illustration purposes, suppose that a move currently under consideration includes two move attributes, denoted  $e$  and  $f$ , which further may be expressed as  $e = (e\_from, e\_to)$  and  $f = (f\_from, f\_to)$ . We provide rules for generating a penalty or incentive function, PI, based on the frequency measures of the attributes  $e$  and  $f$ , which applies equally to intensification and diversification strategies. However, the function PI creates a penalty for one strategy (intensification or diversification) if and only if it creates an incentive for the other. To describe this function, we let  $F(e\_from)$  and  $F(e\_to)$ , etc., denote the frequency measure for the indicated *from-attributes* and *to-attributes*, and let T1, T2, ... , T6 denote selected positive thresholds, whose values depend on the case considered.

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#### Illustrative Penalty/Incentive Function PI for To-attributes

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Choose PI as a monotonic nondecreasing function of one of the following quantities, where PI is positive when the quantity is positive, and is 0 otherwise. (PI yields a penalty in a diversification strategy and an incentive in an intensification strategy.)

- (1)  $\text{Min}(F(e\_to), F(f\_to)) - T1$
  - (2)  $\text{Max}(F(e\_to), F(f\_to)) - T2$
  - (3)  $\text{Mean}(F(e\_to), F(f\_to)) - T3$
- 

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#### Illustrative Penalty/Incentive Function PI for From-attributes

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Choose PI as a monotonic nondecreasing function of one of the following quantities, where PI is positive when the quantity is positive, and is 0 otherwise. (PI yields an incentive in a diversification strategy and a penalty in an intensification strategy.)

- (4)  $\text{Min}(F(e\_from), F(f\_from)) - T4$
  - (5)  $\text{Max}(F(e\_from), F(f\_from)) - T5$
  - (6)  $\text{Mean}(F(e\_from), F(f\_from)) - T6$
- 

The preceding conditions for defining PI are related to those previously illustrated to identify conditions in which attributes become tabu-active. For example, specifying that (1) must be positive to make PI positive corresponds to introducing a tabu penalty (or incentive) when both measures exceed their common threshold. If a measure is expressed as the duration since an attribute was most recently made tabu-active, and if the threshold represents a common limit for

tabu tenure, then (1) can express a recency based restriction for determining a tabu classification. Assigning different thresholds to different attributes in (1) corresponds to establishing attribute-dependent tabu tenures. Similarly, the remaining values (2) through (7) may be interpreted as analogs of values that define recency based measures for establishing a tabu classification, implemented in this case by a penalty.

From these observations, it is clear the frequency measure  $F$  may be extended to represent combined measures of both recency and frequency. Note that recency based memory, by storing *tabu\_start* dates, also can refer to changes that have occurred farther in the past as well as those that have occurred more recently. Although these measures are already implicitly combined when penalties and incentives based on frequency measures are joined with tabu classifications based on recency measures, as a foundation for selecting current moves, it is possible that other forms of combination are superior. For example, human problem solving appears to rely on combinations of these types of memory that incorporate a time discounted measure of frequency. Such considerations may lead to the design of more intelligent functions for capturing preferred combinations of these memory types.

### 3. Broader Aspects of Intensification and Diversification

Intensification and diversification approaches that utilize penalties and incentives represent only one class of such strategies. A larger collection emerges by direct consideration of intensification and diversification goals. We examine several approaches that have been demonstrated to be useful in previous applications, and also indicate approaches we judge to have promise in applications of the future. To begin, we make an important distinction between diversification and randomization.

Diversification versus Randomization. When tabu search seeks a diversified collection of solutions, is much different than seeking a randomized collection of solutions. In general, we are interested not just in diversified collections but also in diversified sequences, since often the order of examining elements is important in tabu search. This can apply, for example, where we seek to identify a sequence of new solutions (not seen before) so that each successive solution is *maximally diverse* relative to all solutions previously generated. This includes possible reference to a baseline set of solutions, such as  $x \in S$ , which takes priority in establishing the diversification objective (i.e., where the first level goal is establish diversification relative to  $S$ , and then in turn relative to other solutions generated). The diversification concept applies as well to generating a diverse sequence of numbers or a diverse set of points from the vertices of a unit hypercube.

Let  $Z(k) = (z(1), z(2), \dots, z(k))$  represent a sequence of points drawn from a set  $Z$ . For example,  $Z$  may be a line interval if the points are scalars. We take  $z(1)$  to be a *seed point* of the sequence. (The seed point may be excepted from the requirement of belonging to  $Z$ .) Then we

define  $Z(k)$  to be a *diversified sequence* (or simply a *diverse sequence*), relative to a chosen distance metric  $d$  over  $Z$  by requiring each subsequence  $Z(h)$  of  $Z(k)$ ,  $h < k$ , and each associated point  $z = z(h+1)$  to satisfy the following hierarchy of conditions:

- (A)  $z$  maximizes the minimum distance  $d(z, z(i))$  for  $i \leq h$ ;
- (B) subject to (A),  $z$  maximizes the minimum distance  $d(z, z(i))$  for  $1 < i \leq h$ , then for  $2 < i \leq h$ , ..., etc. (in strict priority order).
- (C) subject to (A) and (B),  $z$  maximizes the distance  $d(z, z(i))$  for  $i = h$ , then for  $i = h - 1$ , ..., and finally for  $i = 1$ .  
(Additional ties may be broken arbitrarily.)

To handle diversification relative to an initial baseline set  $Z^*$  (such as a set of solutions  $x \in S$ ), the preceding hierarchy of conditions is preceded by a condition stipulating that  $z$  first maximizes the minimum distance  $d(z, z^*)$  for  $z^* \in Z^*$ . A useful (weaker) variant of this condition simply treats points of  $Z^*$  as if they constitute the last elements of the sequence  $Z(h)$ .

Variations on (A), (B), and (C), including going deeper in the hierarchy before arbitrary tie breaking, are evidently possible. Such conditions make it clear that a diverse sequence is considerably different from a random sequence. Further, they are computationally very demanding to satisfy. Even by omitting condition (B), and retaining only (A) and (C), if the elements  $z(i)$  refer to points on a unit hypercube, then by our present state of knowledge the only way to generate a diverse sequence of more than a few points is to perform comparative enumeration. (However, a diverse sequence of points on a line interval, particularly if  $z(1)$  is an endpoint or midpoint of the interval, can be generated with much less difficulty.) Because of this, it can sometimes be useful to generate sequences by approximating the foregoing conditions (see Glover, 1991c). Taking a broader view, an extensive effort to generate diverse sequences can be performed in advance, independent of problem solving efforts, so that such sequences are precomputed and available as needed. Further, a diverse sequence for elements of a high dimensional unit hypercube may be derived by reverse projection techniques ("lifting" operations) from a sequence for a lower dimensional hypercube, ultimately making reference to sequences from a line interval.

Biased diversification, just as biased random sampling, is possible by judicious choices of the set  $Z$ . Also, while the goals of diversification and randomization are somewhat different, the computational considerations share a feature in common. To generate a random sequence by the strict definition of randomness would require massive effort. Years of study have produced schemes for generating sequences that empirically approximate this goal, and perhaps a similar outcome may be possible for generating diversified sequences. The hypothesis of tabu search, in any case, is that recourse to diversification is more appropriate (and more powerful) in the problem solving context than recourse to randomization.

We note these observations can be applied in a setting, as subsequently discussed, where the device of producing a solution "distant from" another is accomplished not by reference to a standard distance metric, but rather by a series of displacements which involve selecting a move from a current neighborhood at each step. (In this case the metric may derive from differences in weighted measures defined over from-attributes and to-attributes.) An application of these ideas is given in Kelly, Laguna, and Glover (1992), and we also discuss a special variation under the heading of "Path Relinking" below. This stepwise displacement approach is highly relevant to those situations where neighborhood structures are essential for preserving desired properties (such as feasibility).

Reinforcement by Restriction. One of the early types of intensification strategies, characterized in terms of exploiting strongly determined and consistent variables in (Glover, 1977), begins by selecting a set  $S$  as indicated for determining a penalty and incentive function, i.e., one consisting of elite solutions grouped by a clustering measure. Instead of (or in addition to) creating penalties and incentives, with the goal of incorporating attributes into the current solution that have high frequency measures over  $S$ , the method of reinforcement by restriction operates by narrowing the range of possibilities allowed for adding and dropping such attributes. For example, if  $x_j = p$  has a high frequency over  $S$  for only a small number of values of  $p$ , then moves are restricted to allow  $x_j$  to take only one of these values in defining a *to-attribute*. Thus, if  $x_j$  is a 0-1 variable with a high frequency measure over  $S$  for one of its values, then this value will become fixed once an admissible move exists that allows such a value assignment to be made. Other assignments may be permitted, by a variant of Aspiration by Default, if the current set of restricted alternatives is unacceptable.

Initial consideration suggests such a restriction approach offers nothing beyond the options available by penalties and incentives. However, the approach can accomplish more than this for two reasons. First, explicit restrictions can substantially accelerate the execution of choice steps by reducing the number of alternatives examined. Second, and more significantly, many problems simplify and collapse once a number of explicit restrictions are introduced, allowing structural implications to surface that permit these problems to be solved far more readily.

Reinforcement by restriction is not limited to creating an intensification effect. Given finite time and energy to explore alternatives, imposing restrictions on some attributes allows more variations to be examined for remaining unrestricted attributes than otherwise would be possible. Thus, intensification with respect to selected elements can enhance diversification over other elements, creating a form of selective diversification. Such diversification may be contrasted with the exhaustive diversification created by the more rigid memory structures of branch and bound. In an environment where the finiteness of available search effort is dwarfed by the number of alternatives that exist to be explored exhaustively, selective diversification can make a significant contribution to effective search.

**Path Relinking.** Path relinking is initiated by selecting two solutions  $x'$  and  $x''$  from a collection of elite solutions produced during previous search phases. A path is then generated from  $x'$  to  $x''$ , producing a solution sequence  $x' = x'(1), x'(2), \dots, x'(r) = x''$ , where  $x'(i+1)$  is created from  $x'(i)$  at each step by choosing a move that leaves the fewest number of moves remaining to reach  $x''$ . (A choice criterion for approximating this effect is indicated below.) Finally, once the path is completed, one or more of the solutions  $x'(i)$  is selected as a solution to initiate a new search phase.

This approach provides a fundamental means for pursuing the goals of intensification and diversification when its steps are implemented to exploit strategic choice rule variations. A number of alternative moves typically will qualify to produce a next solution from  $x'(i)$  by the "fewest remaining moves" criterion, consequently allowing a variety of possible paths from  $x'$  to  $x''$ . Selecting unattractive moves relative to  $c(x)$  at each step will tend to produce a final series of strongly improving moves, while selecting attractive moves will tend to produce lower quality moves at the end. (The last move, however, will be improving, or leave  $c(x)$  unchanged, since  $x''$  is a local optimum.) Thus, choosing best, worst or average moves, using an aspiration criterion to override choices in the last two cases if a sufficiently attractive solution is available, provide options that produce contrasting effects in generating the indicated sequence. (Arguments exist in favor of selecting best moves at each step, and then repeating the process by interchanging  $x'$  and  $x''$ .)

The issue of an appropriate aspiration more broadly is relevant to selecting a preferred  $x'(i)$  for launching a new search phase, and to terminating the sequence early. The choice of one or more solutions  $x'(i)$  to launch a new search phase preferably should depend not only on  $c(x'(i))$  but also on the values  $c(x)$  of those solutions  $x$  that can be reached by a move from  $x'(i)$ . In particular, when  $x'(i)$  is examined to move to  $x'(i+1)$ , a number of candidates for  $x = x'(i+1)$  will be presented for consideration. The process additionally may be varied to allow solutions to be evaluated other than those that yield  $x'(i+1)$  closer to  $x''$ .

Let  $x^*(i)$  denote a neighbor of  $x'(i)$  that yields a minimum  $c(x)$  value during an evaluation step, excluding  $x^*(i) = x'(i+1)$ . (If the choice rules do not automatically eliminate the possibility  $x^*(i) = x'(h)$  for  $h < i$ , then a simple tabu restriction can be used to do this.) Then the method selects a solution  $x^*(i)$  that yields a minimum value for  $c(x^*(i))$  as a new point to launch the search. If only a limited set of neighbors of  $x'(i)$  are examined to identify  $x^*(i)$ , then a superior least cost  $x'(i)$ , excluding  $x'$  and  $x''$ , may be selected instead. Early termination may be elected upon encountering an  $x^*(i)$  that yields  $c(x^*(i)) < \text{Min}(c(x'), c(x''), c(x'(p)))$ , where  $x'(p)$  is the minimum cost  $x'(h)$  for all  $h \leq i$ . (The procedure continues without stopping if  $x'(i)$ , in contrast to  $x^*(i)$ , yields a smaller  $c(x)$  value than  $x'$  and  $x''$ , since  $x'(i)$  effectively adopts the role of  $x'$ .)

**Variation and Tunneling.** A variant of the path relinking approach proposed in (Glover, 1991c) starts both endpoints  $x'$  and  $x''$  simultaneously, producing two sequences  $x' = x'(1),$



...,  $x'(r)$  and  $x'' = x''(1), \dots, x''(s)$ . The choices are designed to yield  $x'(r) = x''(s)$ , for final values of  $r$  and  $s$ . To progress toward this outcome when  $x'(r) \neq x''(s)$ , either  $x'(r)$  is selected to create  $x'(r+1)$ , by the criterion of minimizing the number of moves remaining to reach  $x''(s)$ , or  $x'(s)$  is chosen to create  $x''(s+1)$ , by the criterion of minimizing the number of moves remaining to reach  $x'(r)$ . From these options, the move is selected that produces the smallest  $c(x)$  value, thus also determining which of  $r$  or  $s$  is incremented on the next step.

The path relinking approach can benefit by a tunneling approach that allows a different neighborhood structure to be used than in the standard search phase. In particular, it often is desirable to periodically allow moves for path relinking that normally would be excluded due to creating infeasibility. Such a practice is less susceptible to becoming "lost" in an infeasible region than other ways of allowing periodic infeasibility, since feasibility evidently must be recovered by the time  $x''$  is reached. The tunneling effect thus created offers a chance to reach solutions that might otherwise be bypassed. In the variant that starts from both  $x'$  and  $x''$ , at least one of  $x'(r)$  and  $x''(s)$  may be kept feasible.

Path relinking can be organized to place greater emphasis on intensification or diversification by choosing  $x'$  and  $x''$  to share more or fewer attributes in common. Similarly choosing  $x'$  and  $x''$  from a clustered set of elite solutions will stimulate intensification, while choosing them from two widely separated sets will stimulate diversification.

**Extrapolated Relinking.** An extension of the path relinking approach, which we call *extrapolated relinking*, goes beyond the path endpoint  $x''$  (or alternatively  $x'$ ), to obtain solutions that span a larger region. The ability to continue beyond this endpoint results by a method for approximating the move selection criterion specified for the standard path relinking approach, which seeks a next solution that leaves the fewest moves remaining to reach  $x''$ . Specifically, let  $A(x)$  denote the set of solution attributes in  $x$ , and let  $A\_drop$  denote the set of solution attributes that are dropped by moves performed to reach the current solution  $x'(i)$ , i.e., the attributes that have served as *from-attributes* in these moves. (Some of these may have been reintroduced into  $x'(i)$ , but they also remain in  $A\_drop$ .) Then we seek a move at each step to maximize the number of *to-attributes* that belong to  $A(x'') - A(x'(i))$ , and subject to this to minimize the number that belong to  $A\_drop - A(x'')$ . Such a rule generally can be implemented very efficiently, by data structures limiting the examination of moves to those containing *to-attributes* of  $A(x'') - A(x'(i))$  (or permitting these moves to be examined before others).

Once  $x'(r) = x''$  is reached, the process continues by modifying the choice rule as follows. The criterion now selects a move to maximize the number of its *to-attributes* not in  $A\_drop$  minus the number of its *to-attributes* that are in  $A\_drop$ , and subject to this to minimize the number of its *from-attributes* that belong to  $A(x'')$ . (The combination of these criteria establishes an effect analogous to that achieved by the standard algebraic formula for extending a line segment beyond an endpoint. However, the secondary minimization criterion is probably less important.) The path then stops whenever no choice remains that permits the maximization

criterion to be positive.

For neighborhoods that allow relatively unrestricted choices of moves, this approach yields an extension beyond  $x''$  that introduces new attributes, without reincorporating any old attributes, until no move remains that satisfies this condition. The ability to go beyond the limiting points  $x'$  and  $x''$  creates a form of diversification not available to the path that "lies between" these points. At the same time the exterior points are influenced by the trajectory that links  $x'$  and  $x''$ .

Solutions Evaluated but Not Visited. Intensification and diversification strategies may profit by the fact that a search process generates information not only about solutions actually visited, but also about additional solutions evaluated during the examination of moves not taken. One manifestation of this is exploited by reference to the solutions  $x^*(i)$  in the path relinking approach. From a different point of view, let  $S^*$  denote a subset of solutions evaluated but not visited (e.g., taken from the sequence  $x(1), \dots, x(\text{current\_iteration})$ ) whose elements  $x$  yield  $c(x)$  values within a chosen band of attractiveness. It is relatively easy to maintain a count such as  $\#S^*(\text{to } x_j = p)$ , which identifies the number of times  $x_j = p$  is a *to-attribute* of a trial move leading to a solution of  $S^*$ . Such a count may be differentiated further by stipulating that the trial move must be improving, and of high quality relative to other moves examined on the same iteration. (Differentiation of this type implicitly shrinks the composition of  $S^*$ .) Then an attribute that achieves a relatively high frequency over  $S^*$ , but that has a low residence frequency over solutions actually visited, is given an incentive to be incorporated into future moves, simultaneously serving the goals of both intensification and diversification. Recency and frequency interact in this approach by disregarding the incentive if the attribute has been selected on a recent move.

Interval Specific Penalties and Incentives. A useful adjunct to the preceding ideas extends the philosophy of Aspiration by Search Direction and Aspiration by Strong Admissibility. By these aspiration criteria, improving moves are allowed to escape a tabu classification under certain conditions, but with the result of lowering their status so that they are treated as inferior improving moves. An extension of this preserves the improving-nonimproving distinction when penalties and incentives are introduced that are not intended to be preemptive. For this extension, evaluations again are divided into the intervals of improving and nonimproving. Penalties and incentives then are given limited scope, degrading or enhancing evaluations within a given interval, but without altering the relationship between evaluations that lie in different intervals.

Incentives granted on the basis of influence similarly are made subject to this restricted shift of evaluation. Since an influential move usually is not improving in the vicinity of a local optimum, maintaining the relationship between evaluations in different intervals implies such moves usually will be selected only when no improving moves exist, other than those classified tabu. But influential moves also have a recency based effect. Just as executing a high influence move can cancel the tabu classification of a lower influence move over a limited span of iterations, it also should reduce or cancel the incentive to select other influential moves for a corresponding

duration.

Candidate List Procedures. Section 2.4.1 stressed the importance of procedures to isolate a candidate subset of moves from a large neighborhood, to avoid the computational expense of evaluating moves from the entire neighborhood. Procedures of this form have been used in optimization methods for almost as long as issues of reducing computational effort have been taken seriously (since at least the 1950's and probably much earlier). Some of the more strategic forms of these procedures came from the field of network optimization (Glover, *et al.*, 1974; Mulvey, 1978; Friendewey, 1983). In such approaches, the candidate subset of moves is referenced by a list that identifies their defining elements (such as indexes of variables, nodes, or arcs), and hence these approaches have acquired the name of *candidate list strategies*.

A simple form of candidate list strategy is to construct a single element list by sampling from the neighborhood space at random, and to repeat the process if the outcome is deemed unacceptable. This is the foundation of Monte Carlo methods, as noted earlier. Studies from network optimization, however, suggest that approaches based on more systematic designs produce superior results. Generally, these involve decomposing a neighborhood into critical subsets, and using a rule that assures subsets not examined on one iteration become scheduled for examination on subsequent iterations. For subsets appropriately determined, best outcomes result by selecting highest quality moves from these subsets, either by explicit examination of all alternatives or by using an adaptive threshold to identify such moves (see Glover, Glover, and Klingman, 1986).

Another kind of candidate list strategy periodically examines larger portions of the neighborhood, creating a master list of some number of best alternatives found. The master list is then consulted to identify moves (derived from or related to those recorded) for additional iterations until a threshold of acceptability triggers the creation of a new master list.

Candidate list strategies implicitly have a diversifying influence by causing different parts of the neighborhood space to be examined on different iterations. This suggests there may be benefit from coordinating such strategies with other diversification strategies, an area that remains open for investigation. Candidate list strategies also lend themselves very naturally to parallel processing, where forms of neighborhood decomposition otherwise examined serially are examined in parallel. Moves can be selected by choosing the best candidate from several processes, or instead each process can execute its own preferred move, generating parallel solution trajectories that are periodically coordinated at a higher level. These latter approaches hold considerable promise. Some of the options are described in (Glover, Taillard, and de Werra, 1992).

Compound Neighborhoods. Identifying an effective neighborhood for defining moves from one solution to another can be extremely important. For example, an attempt to solve a linear programming problem by choosing moves that increment or decrement problem variables, versus

choosing moves that use pivot processes or directional search, obviously can make a substantial difference in the quality of the final solution obtained. The innovations that have made linear programming a powerful optimization tool rely significantly on the discovery of effective neighborhoods for making moves.

For combinatorial applications where possibilities for creating neighborhoods are largely confined to various constructive or destructive processes, or to exchanges, improvements often result by combining neighborhoods to create moves. For example, in sequencing applications such as the one illustrated in Section 2.1, it generally is preferable to combine neighborhoods consisting of insert moves and swap moves, allowing both types of moves to be considered at each step. Another way of combining neighborhoods is to generate compound moves, where a sequence of simpler moves is treated as a single more complex move.

A special type of approach for creating compound moves results by a succession of steps in which an element is assigned to a new state, with the outcome of *ejecting* some other element from its current state. The ejected element then in turn is assigned to a new state, thus ejecting another element, and so forth, creating a chain of such operations. For example, such a process occurs in a job sequencing problem by moving a job to a new position occupied by another job, thereby ejecting this job from its position. The second job then is moved to a new position to eject yet another job, and so on, finally ending by inserting the last ejected job between two jobs that are currently adjacent. This type of approach, called an *ejection chain strategy*, includes the ejection of links between elements (such as jobs) rather than ejecting the elements themselves, and also applies to aggregated elements and links. Ejection chain strategies have useful applications for problems of many types, particularly in connection with scheduling, routing, clustering, and partitioning (Glover, 1991a, 1992b; Dorndorf and Pesch, 1992). A tabu search method incorporating ejection chains has proved highly successful for multilevel generalized assignment problems (Laguna, *et al.*, 1991), suggesting the relevance of these strategies for creating compound neighborhoods in other tabu search applications.

Creating New Attributes — Vocabulary Building and Concept Formation. A frontier area of tabu search involves the creation of new attributes out of others. The learning approach called *target analysis*, which can implicitly combine or subdivide attributes to yield a basis for improved move evaluations, has been effectively used in conjunction with tabu search in scheduling applications (see Section 4), and provides one of the means for generating new attributes. In this section, however, we focus on creating new attributes by reference to a process called vocabulary building, related to concept formation.

Vocabulary building is based on viewing a chosen set  $S$  of solutions as a text to be analyzed, by undertaking to discover attribute combinations shared in common by various solutions  $x$  in  $X$ . Attribute combinations that emerge as significant enough to qualify as units of vocabulary, by a process to be described below, are treated as new attributes capable of being incorporated into tabu restrictions and aspiration conditions. In addition, they can be directly

assembled into larger units as a basis for constructing new solutions.

We represent collections of attributes by encoding them as assignments of values to variables, which we denote by  $y_j = p$ , to differentiate the vector  $y$  from the vector  $x$  which possibly may have a different dimension and encoding. Normally we suppose a  $y$  vector contains enough information to be transformed into a unique  $x$ , to which it corresponds, but this assumption can be relaxed to allow more than one  $x$  to yield the same  $y$ . (It is to be noted that a specified range of different assignments for a given attribute can be expressed as a single assignment for another, which is relevant to creating vocabulary of additional utility.)

Let  $Y(S)$  denote the collection of  $y$  vectors corresponding to the chosen set  $S$  of  $x$  vectors. In addition to assignments of the form  $y_j = p$  which define attributes, we allow each  $y_j$  to receive the value  $y_j = *$ , in order to generate subvectors that identify specific attribute combinations. In particular, an attribute combination will be implicitly determined by the non- $*$  values of  $y$ .

The approach to generate vocabulary units will be to compare vectors  $y'$  and  $y''$  by an intersection operator,  $Int(y', y'')$  to yield a vector  $z = Int(y', y'')$  by the rule:  $z_j = y'_j$  if  $y'_j = y''_j$ , and  $z_j = *$  if  $y'_j \neq y''_j$ . By this definition we also obtain  $z_j = *$  if either  $y'_j$  or  $y''_j = *$ .  $Int$  is associative, and the intersection  $Int(y: y \in Y)$ , for an arbitrary  $Y$ , yields a  $z$  in which  $z_j = y_j$  if all  $y_j$  have the same value for  $y \in Y$ , and  $z_j = *$  otherwise.

Accompanying the intersection operator, we also define a relation of containment, by the stipulation that  $y''$  contains  $y'$  if  $y'_j = *$  for all  $j$  such that  $y'_j \neq y''_j$ . Associated with this relation, we identify the *enclosure* of  $y'$  (relative to  $S$ ) to be the set  $Y(S:y') = \{y \in Y(S): y \text{ contains } y'\}$ , and define the enclosure value of  $y'$ ,  $enc\_value(y')$ , to be the number of elements in this set, i.e., the value  $\#Y(S:y')$ . Finally, we refer to the number of non- $*$  components of  $y'$  as the *size* of the vector, denoted  $size(y')$ . (If  $y \in Y(S)$ , the size of  $y$  is the same as its dimension.)

Clearly the greater  $size(y')$  tends to become, the smaller  $enc\_value(y')$  tends to become. Thus for a given size  $s$ , we seek to identify vectors  $y'$  with  $size(y') \geq s$  that maximize  $enc\_value(y')$ , and for a given enclosure value  $v$  to identify vectors  $y'$  with  $enc\_value(y') \geq v$  that maximize  $size(y')$ . Such vectors are included among those regarded to qualify as vocabulary units.

Similarly we include reference to weighted enclosure values, where each  $y \in Y(S)$  is weighted by a measure of attractiveness (such as the value  $c(x)$  of an associated solution  $x \in S$ ), to yield  $enc\_value(y')$  as a sum of the weights over  $Y(S:y')$ . Particular attribute values likewise may be weighted, as by a measure of influence, to yield a weighted value for  $size(y')$ , equal to the sum of weights over non- $*$  components of  $y'$ .

From a broader perspective, we seek vectors as vocabulary units that give rise to aggregate units called *phrases* and *sentences* with certain properties of consistency and meaning, characterized as follows. Each  $y_j$  is allowed to receive one additional value,  $y_j = blank$ , which may be interpreted as an empty space free to be filled by another value (in contrast to  $y_j = *$ ,

which may be interpreted as a space occupied by two conflicting values). We begin with the collection of vectors created by the intersection operator  $Int$ , and replace the  $*$  values with *blank* values in these vectors. We then define an extended intersection operator  $E\_Int$ , where  $z = E\_Int(y', y'')$  is given by the rules defining  $Int$  if  $y'_j$  and  $y''_j$  are not *blank*. Otherwise  $z_j = y'_j$  if  $y''_j = \text{blank}$ , and  $z_j = y''_j$  if  $y'_j = \text{blank}$ .  $E\_Int$  likewise is associative. The vector  $z = E\_Int(y: y \in Y)$  yields  $z_j = *$  if any two  $y \in Y$  have different non-*blank* values  $y_j$ , or if some  $y$  has  $y_j = *$ . Otherwise  $z_j$  is the common  $y_j$  value for all  $y$  with  $y_j$  non-*blank* (where  $z_j = \text{blank}$  if  $y_j = \text{blank}$  for all  $y$ ).

The  $y$  vectors created by  $E\_Int$  are those we call *phrases*. A *sentence* (implicitly, a complete sentence) is a phrase that has no *blank* values. We call a phrase or sentence *grammatical* (logically consistent) if it has no  $*$  values. Grammatical sentences thus are  $y$  vectors lacking both *blank* values and  $*$  values, constructed from attribute combinations (subvectors) derived from the original elements of  $Y(S)$ . Finally we call a grammatical sentence  $y$  *meaningful* if it corresponds to, or maps into a feasible solution  $x$ . (Sentences that are not grammatical do not have a form that permits them to be translated into an  $x$  vector, and hence cannot be meaningful.)

The elements of  $Y(S)$  are all meaningful sentences, assuming they are obtained from feasible  $x$  vectors, and the goal is to find other meaningful sentences obtained from grammatical phrases and sentences constructed as indicated. More precisely, we are interested in generating meaningful sentences (hence feasible solutions) that are not limited to those that can be obtained from  $Y(S)$ , but that also can be obtained by one of the following strategies:

- (S1) Translate a grammatical phrase into a sentence by filling in the blanks (by the use of neighborhoods that incorporate constructive moves);
- (S2) Identify some set of existing meaningful sentences (e.g., derived from current feasible  $x$  vectors not in  $S$ ), and identify one or more phrases, generated by  $E\_Int$  over  $S$ , that lie in each of these sentences. Then, by a succession of moves from neighborhoods that preserve feasibility, transform each of these sentences into new meaningful sentences that retain as much of the identified phrases as possible;
- (S3) Identify portions of existing meaningful sentences that are contained in grammatical phrases, and transform these sentences into new meaningful sentences (using feasibility preserving neighborhoods) by seeking to incorporate additional components of the indicated phrases.

The foregoing strategies can be implemented by incorporating the same tabu search incentive and penalty mechanisms for choosing moves indicated in previous sections. We assume in these strategies that neighborhood operations on  $x$  vectors are directly translated into associated changes in  $y$  vectors. In the case of (S1) there is no assurance that a meaningful sentence can be

achieved unless the initial phrase itself is meaningful (i.e., is contained in at least one meaningful sentence) and the constructive process is capable of generating an appropriate completion. Also, in (S3) more than one grammatical phrase can contain a given part (subvector) of a meaningful sentence, and it may be appropriate to allow the targeted phrase to change according to possibilities consistent with available moves.

Although we have described vocabulary building processes in somewhat general form to make their range of application visible, specific instances can profit from special algorithms for linking vocabulary units into sentences that are both meaningful and attractive, in the sense of creating good  $c(x)$  values. An example of this is provided by vocabulary building approaches for the traveling salesman problem described in (Glover, 1992b), where vocabulary units can be transformed into tours by specialized shortest path procedures. A number of combinatorial optimization problems are implicit in generating good sentences by these approaches, and the derivation of effective methods for handling these problems in various settings, as in the case of the traveling salesman problem, may provide a valuable contribution to search procedures generally.

**Strategic Oscillation.** The strategic oscillation approach is closely linked to the origins of tabu search, and provides an effective interplay between intensification and diversification over the intermediate to long term. Strategic oscillation operates by moving until hitting a boundary, represented by feasibility or a stage of construction, that normally would represent a point where the method would stop. Instead of stopping, however, the neighborhood definition is extended, or the evaluation criteria for selecting moves is modified, to permit the boundary to be crossed. The approach then proceeds for a specified depth beyond the boundary, and turns around. At this point the boundary again is approached and crossed, this time from the opposite direction, proceeding to a new turning point. The process of repeatedly approaching and crossing the boundary from different directions creates a form of oscillation that gives the method its name. Control over this oscillation is established by generating modified evaluations and rules of movement, depending on the region currently navigated and the direction of search. The possibility of retracing a prior trajectory is avoided by standard tabu mechanisms.

A simple example of this approach occurs for the multidimensional knapsack problem, where values of zero-one variables are changed from 0 to 1 until reaching the boundary of feasibility. The method then continues into the infeasible region using the same type of changes, but with a modified evaluator. After a selected number of steps, direction is reversed by changing variables from 1 to 0. Evaluation criteria to drive toward improvement (or smallest disimprovement) vary according to whether the movement is from more-to-less or less-to-more feasible (or infeasible), and are accompanied by associated restrictions on admissible changes to values of variables. An implementation of such an approach by Freville and Plateau (1986, 1990) has generated particularly high quality solutions for multidimensional knapsack problems.

A somewhat different type of application occurs for the problem of finding an optimal

spanning tree subject to inequality constraints on subsets of weighted edges. One type of strategic oscillation approach for this problem results by a constructive process of adding edges to a growing tree until it is spanning, and then continuing to add edges to cross the boundary defined by the tree construction. A different graph structure results when the current solution no longer constitutes a tree, and hence a different neighborhood is required, yielding modified rules for selecting moves. The rules again change in order to proceed in the opposite direction, removing edges until again recovering a tree. In such problems, the effort required by different rules may make it preferable to cross a boundary to different depths on different sides. An option is to approach and retreat from the boundary while remaining on a single side, without crossing (i.e., electing a crossing of "zero depth"). In this example, additional types of boundaries may be considered, derived from the inequality constraints.

The use of strategic oscillation in applications that alternate constructive and destructive processes can be accompanied by exchange moves that maintain the construction at a given level. A *proximate optimality principle*, which states roughly that good constructions at one level are likely to be close to good constructions at another, motivates a strategy of applying exchanges at different levels, on either side of a target structure such as a spanning tree, to obtain refined constructions before proceeding to adjacent levels.

Finally, we remark that the boundary incorporated in strategic oscillation need not be defined in terms of feasibility or structure, but can be defined in terms of a region where the search appears to gravitate. The oscillation then consists of compelling the search to move out of this region and allowing it to return.

#### 4. Tabu Search Applications

Tabu search is still in an early stage of development, with a substantial majority of its applications occurring only since 1989. However, TS methods have enjoyed successes in a variety of problem settings, as represented by the partial list shown in Table 1.

Scheduling provides one of the most fruitful areas for modern heuristic techniques in general and for tabu search in particular. Although the scheduling applications presented in Table 1 are limited to those found in the published literature (or about to appear), there are a number of studies currently in progress that deal with scheduling models corresponding to modern manufacturing systems.

One of the early applications of TS in scheduling is due to Widmer and Hertz (1989), who develop a TS method for the solution of the permutation flow shop problem. This problem consists of  $n$  multiple operation jobs arriving at time zero to be processed in the same order on  $m$  continuously available machines. The processing time of a job on a given machine is fixed (deterministic) and individual operations are not preemptable. The objective is to find the ordering of jobs that minimizes the makespan, i.e., the completion time of the last job.



**Table 1** Some applications of tabu search.

<b>Area</b>	<b>Brief Description</b>	<b>Reference</b>
<i>Scheduling</i>	Employee scheduling	Glover & Mcmillan (1986)
	Flow shop scheduling	Widmer & Hertz (1989) Taillard (1990)
	Job shop scheduling with tooling constraints	Widmer (1991)
	Convoy scheduling	Bovet, Constantin, & de Werra (1991)
	Single machine scheduling	Laguna, Barnes, & Glover (1991)
	Just-in-time scheduling	Laguna & Gonzalez-Velarde (1991)
	Multiple-machine weighted flow time problem	Barnes & Laguna (1992)
	Flexible-resource job shop scheduling	Daniels & Mazzola (1992)
	Job shop scheduling	Dell'Amico & Trubian (1992)
	Single machine scheduling (target analysis)	Laguna & Glover (1992)
	Resource scheduling	Mooney & Rardin (1992)
	Sequencing jobs with deadlines and setup times	Woodruff & Spearman (1992)
<i>Transportation</i>	Traveling salesman problem	Malek, <i>et al.</i> (1989) Glover (1991a)
	Vehicle routing problem.	Gendreau, Hertz, & Laporte (1991) Osman (1992) Semet & Taillard (1992)
<i>Layout and Circuit Design</i>	Quadratic assignment problem	Skorin-Kapov (1990) Taillard (1991) Chakrapani & Skorin-Kapov (1992)
	Electronic circuit design	Bland and Dawson (1991)
<i>Telecommunications</i>	Path assignment	Oliveira & Stroud (1989) Anderson, <i>et al.</i> (1992)
	Bandwidth packing	Glover & Laguna (1992)
<i>Graphs</i>	Clustering	Glover, McMillan, & Novick (1985) Hansen, Jaumard, & Da Silva (1992)
	Graph coloring	Hertz & de Werra (1987) Hertz, Jaumard, & Aragao (1992)
	Stable sets in large graphs	Friden, Hertz, & de Werra (1989)
	Maximum clique problem	Gendreau, Soriano, & Salvail (1992)
<i>Probabilistic Logic and Expert Systems</i>	Maximum satisfiability problem	Hansen & Jaumard (1990)
	Probabilistic logic	Jaumard, Hansen, & Aragao (1991)
	Probabilistic logic / expert systems	Hansen, Jaumard, & Aragao (1992)
<i>Neural Networks</i>	Learning in an associative memory	de Werra & Hertz (1989)
	Nonconvex optimization problems	Beyer & Ogier (1991)
<i>Others</i>	Multiconstraint 0-1 knapsack problem	Dammeyer & Voß (1992)
	Large-scale controlled rounding	Kelly, Golden, & Assad (1992)
	General fixed charge problem	Sun & McKeown (1992)

Widmer and Hertz use a simple insertion heuristic based on a traveling salesman analogy to the permutation flow shop problem to generate the starting ordering of the jobs. The procedure considers neighborhoods defined by swap moves, and at each iteration the best non-tabu move is executed evaluated relative to  $c(x)$ . The tabu tenure is exclusively set to a value of 7 moves and the restriction the tabu restriction is based on the paired attributes (job index, position). The termination criterion is specified as a maximum number of iterations.

Computational experiments compare this TS implementation with six previously developed heuristic methods. The study examines 50 problems with  $n$  and  $m$  ranging from values of 5 to 20 where the maximum number of TS iterations is set to  $n+m$ . In direct competition with the best previous heuristic developed by Nawaz, Ensore and Ham (1983), the TS method returns superior solutions for 58% of the problems and matches the best solution found for 92% of the problems. This early TS procedure does not include many of the mechanisms described in this chapter which now are established to be important components of the more effective procedures. Nevertheless, the study was important for being one of the first of its type, and for disclosing the relevance of TS for scheduling, thus motivating other research to follow in this area.

The study of Taillard (1990) is noteworthy in this regard, applying tabu search to the flow shop sequencing problem. This work demonstrates that tabu search obtains solutions uniformly better than the best of the classical heuristics, while investing comparable solution time. In addition, although optimality of the solutions could not be proved, by allowing sufficient CPU time Taillard's TS method found optimal solutions for every problems for which a such solution was known. Another study in this area by Widmer (1991) develops a TS method for the solution of an important problem in scheduling models for flexible manufacturing (i.e., the job shop scheduling problem with tooling constraints). This implementation establishes the ability of the TS approach to be adapted to handle highly complex problems, with practical features disregarded by previous studies of related problems reported in the literature.

Daniels and Mazzola (1992) present a TS method for the flexible-resource flow shop scheduling problem, which generalizes the classic flow shop scheduling problem by allowing job-operation processing times to depend on the amount of resource assigned to an operation. The objective is to determine the job sequence, resource-allocation policy, and operation start times that optimize system performance. The TS method employs a nested-search strategy based on a decomposition of the problem into its three main components (i.e., job sequencing, resource allocation, and operation start times). The procedure was tested on over 1600 problems and is reported to be extremely effective. On 480 problem instances small enough to permit optimal solutions to be identified, the TS approach obtained optimal solutions for over 70% of the test problems, while incurring an average error of 0.3% and a maximum deviation from optimality of 2.5%. On larger problems, comparisons with other heuristic procedures disclosed the TS method was able to find significantly superior solutions. In addition, the authors note the nested TS approach holds considerable promise for efficient implementation in a parallel processing setting.

Dell'Amico and Trubian (1992) apply tabu search to the notoriously difficult job-shop scheduling problem. They develop a *bi-directional* method to find "good" feasible starting solutions. Their procedure alternates between assigning operations at the beginning and at the end of a partial schedule, which contrasts with previous unidirectional List Scheduler algorithms. In addition to starting from a good solution, their TS procedure assigns tabu tenures that are dependent on the search state and are selected from a given range. The range is periodically revised using uniform distributions to determine new upper and lower bounds. A simple intensification strategy is used that recovers the best solution found so far and treats it as the current solution, when a given number of iterations have been performed without improving the best solution. Computational experiments with 53 benchmark problem instances show this TS method is highly robust, in contrast to previously published local-search procedures for this problem. In particular, the TS method outperforms two simulated annealing methods due to Laarhoven, Aarts, & Lentstra (1992) and Matsuo, Juck Suh, & Sullivan (1988) in terms of both solution quality and speed. In addition, Dell'Amico and Trubian establish new best solutions for five out of seven open problems in the literature.

Laguna and Glover (1992) develop a tailored TS method for the solution of a class of single machine scheduling problems with delay penalties and setup costs. This research discloses the usefulness of target analysis as a means of integrating effective diversification strategies within tabu search. The study also establishes the importance of accounting for regional dependencies of good decision criteria. The resulting procedure obtains solutions that uniformly are as good or better than the best previously known solutions over a wide variety of problem instances. For large problems (with 100 jobs) the margin of superiority of the method is more dramatic. (The previously best available heuristic for this class of problems also was a TS procedure, as empirically shown by Laguna, Barnes, and Glover (1991).)

Mooney and Rardin (1992) develop a TS procedure for a special case of the problem of assigning tasks to a single primary resource, subject to constraints resulting from the preassignment of secondary or auxiliary resources. Potential applications of this problem include shift oriented production and manpower scheduling problems and course scheduling, where classrooms may be primary and instructors and students may be secondary resources. This study includes 7 variants of a basic TS procedure. These variants combine the use of deterministic and random candidate list construction, several move selection rules, and strategic oscillation. An index is created to measure the level of diversification that each variant of the method is capable of achieving. Extensive experiments with randomly generated and real data show that the TS variants with strategic oscillation achieve high levels of diversification (as measured by the defined index) while outperforming alternative approaches. The motivation for measuring diversification levels stems from the authors' conjecture that "an algorithm that diversifies the search must cover the search space more or less evenly." As a result of this study, it was found that a simple Iterated Descent approach (see Section 2.3) obtained high diversification levels but performed poorly in terms of solution quality. Therefore, relatively high diversification appears to be a necessary but not a sufficient condition for finding good solutions.

Woodruff and Spearman (1992) present a highly innovative TS procedure for production scheduling, addressing a general sequencing problem that includes two classes of jobs with setup times, setup costs, holding costs and deadlines. A TS method is used with insertion moves to transform one trial solution into another. Due to the presence of deadline constraints, not every sequence is feasible. However, the search path is allowed to visit infeasible solutions by a form of strategic oscillation. A candidate list is also used as a means of reducing the computational effort involved in evaluating a given neighborhood. Diversification is achieved by introducing a parameter  $d$  into the cost function. Low values of  $d$  result in the selection of the best available move (with reference to the objective function value) as customarily done in a deterministic tabu search, while high values result in a randomized move selection which resembles a variant of probabilistic tabu search.

The tabu list designed for this approach is based on the concept of hashing functions. The list is composed of two entries for each visited sequence, the cost and the value of a simple hashing function (i.e., a value that represents the ordering of jobs in the sequence). Computational experiments were conducted on simulated data that captured the characteristics of the demand and production environment in a large circuit board plant. For a set of twenty test problems, the average deviation from optimality was 3% and optimal solutions were achieved in seventeen cases. The best solutions were found during searches using  $d$  values other than zero, which supports the contention that long term memory considerations become important in complex problem settings. This study also marks the first application of TS where hashing functions are used to control the tabu structures. A more detailed study on these kinds of functions and their use within the TS framework is given in Woodruff and Zemel (1992).

The first parallel implementation of tabu search to appear in the literature is due to Malek, *et al.* (1989). In this implementation, each child process runs a copy of a serial TS method with different parameter settings (i.e., tabu list size and tabu restrictions). After specified intervals, the child processes are halted and the main process compares their results. The main process then selects the "best" solution found and gives it as the initial solution to all the child processes. The "best" solution is generally the one with the least tour cost, but an alternative solution is passed if the tour has been used before. The tabu data structures are blanked every time that the child process are temporarily stopped. This scheme requires little overhead due to interprocessor communication, and implements an intensification phase around "good" solutions that is not easily reproduced in a serial environment. This research shows the importance of parallel computing in solving large combinatorial optimization problems, and also it illustrates one possibility for exploiting the flexibility of tabu search in this kind of environment. Joining such an approach with the use of stronger move neighborhoods, such as those of Gendreau, Hertz, and Laporte (1991) or of Glover (1991a), may be expected to yield additional improvements.

Chakrapani and Skorin-Kapov (1992) present a parallel implementation on the Connection Machine CM-2 of a TS method for the quadratic assignment problem. The implementation uses  $n^2$  processors, where  $n$  is the size of the problem. A moving gap strategy is used to dynamically

vary the tabu tenure. Additional intensification and diversification are achieved via frequency based memory. The procedure proves to be very effective in term of solution quality. The largest problems that can be currently solved by exact methods are of size  $n = 20$ . The authors' method easily matches all known optimal solutions and also matches best known solutions for additional problems of size up to  $n = 80$ . (These solutions were obtained by a TS procedure due to Taillard (1991).) In addition the study by Chakrapani and Skorin-Kapov reports new best solutions to a set of published problems of size  $n = 100$ . A careful implementation on the Connection Machine, a massively parallel system, proves to be extremely suitable in this context. The increase in time per iteration appears to be a logarithmic function of  $n$ . This study also offers directions for alternative implementations that may be more efficient when solving very large quadratic assignment problems.

Vehicle routing constitutes another important area with many practical applications. Several TS variants and a hybrid simulated annealing / TS approach for the vehicle routing problem under capacity and distance constraints are presented by Osman (1992). The neighborhoods are defined using a so called  $\lambda$ -interchange. The hybrid simulated annealing approach, which uses a nonmonotonic TS strategy for adjusting temperatures, improves significantly over a standard SA. The hybrid approach produces new best solutions for 7 instances in a set of 14 previously published problems. However, this approach exhibits a large variance with regard to solution quality and computational time. The pure TS methods also find 7 new best solutions to problems in the same set, and in addition they maintain a good average solution quality without excessive computational effort. The procedures developed by Osman are easily adapted to the vehicle routing problem with different vehicle sizes.

Gendreau, Hertz, and Laporte (1991) also develop a TS procedure for vehicle routing, using a somewhat different move neighborhood than used by Osman (1992). Their approach is tested against the previously reigning best solution approaches in the literature, and outperforms all of them in most problems. Interestingly, in spite of the different choice of move neighborhoods, their results are quite closely comparable to those of Osman.

Semet and Taillard (1992) address a difficult version of the vehicle routing problem with many complicating side conditions, including different vehicle types and sizes, different regions, and restricted delivery windows. Their outcomes improve significantly over those previously obtained for those problems, and again demonstrate the ability of tabu search to be adapted to handle diverse real world features.

One of the first TS methods to use more than one tabu list is due to Gendreau, Soriano, and Salvail (1991), which is designed to solve the maximum clique problem in graphs. The method uses add-delete moves to define neighborhoods for the current solutions and a tabu list to store the indexes of the vertices most recently deleted. A second list is used to record the solutions visited during a specified number of most recent iterations. The second list is always active while the first one is only consulted when "augmenting" moves are considered (i.e., moves that increase the size of the current clique). Storing previously visited solutions as part of the tabu structure is unusual

in TS methods, but was achieved in this instance due to cleverly designed data structures to exploit the neighborhood definition. Multiple tabu lists have now become common in many TS applications.

Jaumard, Hansen, and Poggi di Aragao (1991) investigate the problem of determining the consistency of probabilities that specify whether given collections of clauses are true, with extensions to include probability intervals, conditional probabilities, and perturbations to achieve satisfiability. By integrating a tabu search approach with an exact 0-1 nonlinear programming procedure for generating columns of a master linear program, they readily solved problems with up to 140 variables and 300 clauses, approximately tripling both the number of variables and the number of clauses that could be handled by existing alternative approaches. This work is extended in the study of Hansen, Jaumard, and Poggi di Aragao (1992) to address problems arising in expert systems, as in systems for medical diagnosis. Tabu search again is embedded in a column generation scheme to determine optimal changes to sets of rules that incorporate probabilities. The combinatorial complexity of this problem comes from the fact that the number of columns grows astronomically as a function of the number of logical sentences used to define rules. This extended study is able to generate optimal solutions for rule systems containing up to 200 sentences, significantly advancing the size of such problems that previously could be addressed.

The multiconstraint zero-one knapsack problem is studied by Dammeyer and Voß (1992) using a TS method that incorporates tabu restrictions based on the logical structure of the attribute sequence generated. The method is compared against an improved version of a simulated annealing method from the literature specifically designed for these problems, using a testbed of 57 problems with known optimal solutions. The TS and SA methods take comparable time on these problems, but the TS method finds optimal solutions for nearly 50% more problems than simulated annealing (44 problems versus 31). On the remaining problems, deviations from optimality with the TS method were less than 2% in all cases, and less than 1% for all problems except one. Dammeyer and Voß also note that the SA method is very sensitive to the choice of control parameters, which greatly influenced the solution quality. By contrast, they found the TS parameters to be very robust. Similar differences in outcomes are established in the study of quadratic semi-assignment problems by Domschke, Forst, and Voß (1992).

When publishing tabular data, the United States Bureau of the Census must sometimes round fractional data to integer values or round integer data to multiples of a pre-specified base. Data integrity can be maintained by rounding tabular data subject to additivity constraints while minimizing the overall perturbation of the data. Kelly, Golden, and Assad (1992) describe a tabu search procedure with strategic oscillation for solving this NP-hard problem. A lower bound is obtained by solving a network flow programming model and the corresponding solution is used as the starting point for the procedure. Strategic oscillation plays a major role in this TS implementation. The oscillation in this case is around the feasibility boundary. A penalty function is used first to lead the search from the lower bound solution towards the feasible region, by linearly incrementing the penalty for an aggregated measure of constraint violation. Once the procedure reaches feasibility for the first time, the penalty oscillates within a specified period. The

theoretical lower bound value obtained by network optimization (which may not be attainable by any feasible solution) is used to gauge the quality of solutions found. Experiments with 270 simulated problems yield an average deviation from this lower bound of 1.32%. In addition, for 248 three-dimensional tables provided by the United States Bureau of the Census, the deviation from the lower bound was only 0.391%.

## 5. Connections with Other Procedures and Conclusions

Relationships between tabu search and other procedures like simulated annealing and genetic algorithms provide a basis for understanding similarities and contrasts in their philosophies, and for creating potentially useful hybrid combinations of these approaches. We offer some speculation on preferable directions in this regard, and also suggest how elements of tabu search can add a useful dimension to neural network approaches.

*Simulated Annealing.* The contrasts between simulated annealing and tabu search are fairly conspicuous, though undoubtedly the most prominent is the focus on exploiting memory in tabu search that is absent from simulated annealing. The introduction of this focus entails associated differences in search mechanisms, and in the elements on which they operate.

Accompanying the differences directly attributable to the focus on memory, and also magnifying them, several additional elements are fundamental for understanding the relationship between the methods. We consider three such elements in order of increasing importance.

First, tabu search emphasizes scouting successive neighborhoods to identify moves of high quality, as by candidate list approaches of the form described in Section 3. This contrasts with the simulated annealing approach of randomly sampling among these moves to apply an acceptance criterion that disregards the quality of other moves available. (Such an acceptance criterion provides the sole basis for sorting the moves selected in the SA method.) The relevance of this difference in orientation is accentuated for tabu search, since its neighborhoods include linkages based on history, and therefore yield access to information for selecting moves that is not available in neighborhoods of the type used in simulated annealing.

Next, tabu search evaluates the relative attractiveness of moves not only in relation to objective function change, but also in relation to factors of influence. Both types of measures are significantly affected by the differentiation among move attributes, as embodied in tabu restrictions and aspiration criteria, and in turn by relationships manifested in recency, frequency, and sequential interdependence (hence, again, involving recourse to memory). Other aspects of the state of search also affect these measures, as reflected in the altered evaluations of strategic oscillation, which depend on the direction of the current trajectory and the region visited.

Finally TS emphasizes guiding the search by reference to multiple thresholds, reflected in the tenures for tabu-active attributes and in the conditional stipulations of aspiration criteria. This may be contrasted to the simulated annealing reliance on guiding the search by reference to the



single threshold implicit in the temperature parameter. The treatment of thresholds by the two methods compounds this difference between them. Tabu search varies its thresholds nonmonotonically, reflecting the conception that multidirectional parameter changes are essential to adapt to different conditions, and to provide a basis for locating alternatives that might otherwise be missed. This contrasts with the simulated annealing philosophy of adhering to a temperature parameter that only changes monotonically.

Hybrids are now emerging that are taking preliminary steps to bridge some of these differences, particularly in the realm of transcending the simulated annealing reliance on a monotonic temperature parameter. A hybrid method that allows temperature to be strategically manipulated, rather than progressively diminished, has been shown to yield improved performance over standard SA approaches, as noted in the work by Osman (1992) cited in Section 4. A hybrid method that expands the SA basis for move evaluations also has been found to perform better than standard simulated annealing in the study by Kassou (1992). Consideration of these findings invites the question of whether removing the memory scaffolding of tabu search and retaining its other features may yield a viable method in its own right. A foundation for doing this by a "tabu thresholding method" is described in (Glover, 1992a), and is reported in a study of graph layout and design problems by Verdejo and Cunqueiro (1992) to perform more effectively than the previously best methods for these problems.

*Genetic Algorithms.* Genetic algorithms offer a somewhat different set of comparisons and contrasts with tabu search. GAs are based on selecting subsets (usually pairs) of solutions from a population, called parents, and combining them to produce new solutions called children. Rules of combination to yield children are based on the genetic notion of crossover, which consists of interchanging solution values of particular variables, together with occasional operations such as random value changes. Children that pass a survivability test, probabilistically biased to favor those of superior quality, are then available to be chosen as parents of the next generation. The choice of parents to be matched in each generation is based on random or biased random sampling from the population (in some parallel versions executed over separate subpopulations whose best members are periodically exchanged or shared). Genetic terminology customarily refers to solutions as chromosomes, variables as genes, and values of variables as alleles.

By means of coding conventions, the genes of genetic algorithms may be compared to attributes in tabu search, or more precisely to attributes in the form underlying the residence measures of frequency based memory. Introducing memory in GAs to track the history of genes and their alleles over subpopulations would provide an immediate and natural way to create a hybrid with TS.

Some important differences between genes and attributes are worth noting, however. Differentiation of attributes into *from* and *to* components, each having different memory functions, do not have a counterpart in genetic algorithms. This results because GAs are organized to operate without reference to moves (although, strictly speaking, combination by crossover can



be viewed as a special type of move). Another distinction derives from differences in the use of coding conventions. Although an attribute change, from a state to its complement, can be encoded in a zero-one variable, such a variable does not necessarily provide a convenient or useful representation for the transformations provided by moves. Tabu restrictions and aspiration criteria handle the binary aspects of complementarity without requiring explicit reference to a zero-one  $x$  vector or two-valued functions. Adopting a similar orientation (relative to the special class of moves embodied in crossover) might yield benefits for genetic algorithms in dealing with issues of genetic representation, which currently pose difficult questions (see, e.g., Liepens and Vose (1990)).

A domain where a genetic interpretation of tabu search ideas seems possible concerns the use of vocabulary building approaches, as described in Section 3. Vocabulary units may suggestively be given the alternate name of "genetic material." By this means, such units may be viewed as substrings of genes, created by a process that selectively extracts them to establish a substring pool. As elements are accumulated from different sources within such a pool, and progressively reintegrated (to form *phrases* and *sentences* by vocabulary processes), a genetic parallel may be conceived of incorporating substring templates to guide construction of new genes.

Perhaps the use of such evolving substring pools, as opposed to the exclusive focus on parents and children, would prove useful in genetic algorithms. But there are limiting factors, since the TS processes for creating vocabulary are based on conscious and strategic reconstruction, and hence do not much resemble genetic processes. To preserve the genetic metaphor, one may imagine relying on *intelligent enzymes*, operating as special subroutines to cut out appropriate components and then recombine them according to systematic principles. If this is not stretching analogy too far, the outcome may qualify as an interesting hybrid of the GA and TS approaches.

A contrast to be noted between genetic algorithms and tabu search arises in the treatment of context, i.e., in the consideration given to structure inherent in different problem classes. For tabu search, context is fundamental, embodied in the interplay of attribute definitions and the determination of move neighborhoods, and in the choice of conditions to define tabu restrictions. Context is also implicit in the identification of amended evaluations created in association with longer term memory, and in the regionally dependent neighborhoods and evaluations of strategic oscillation.

At the opposite end of the spectrum, GA literature characteristically stresses the freedom of its rules from the influence of context. Crossover, in particular, is a *context neutral* operation, which assumes no reliance on conditions that solutions must obey in a particular problem setting, just as genes make no reference to the environment as they follow their instructions for recombination (except, perhaps, in the case of mutation). Practical application, however, generally renders this an inconvenient assumption, making solutions of interest difficult to find. Consequently, a good deal of effort in GA implementation is devoted to developing "special crossover" operations that compensate for the difficulties created by context, effectively reintroducing it on a case by case basis. The related branch of evolutionary algorithms does not rely on the narrower genetic orientation, and hence does not regard the provision for context as a

deviation (or extra-genetic innovation). Still, within these related families of approaches, there is no rigorous dedication to exploiting context, as manifested in problem structure, and no prescription to indicate how solutions might be combined to systematically achieve such exploitation, with the exception of special problems, such as the traveling salesman problem (as in the work of Whitley, Starkweather and Shaner 1991).

The chief method by which modern genetic algorithms and their cousins handle structure is by relegating its treatment to some other method. That is, genetic algorithms combine solutions by their parent-children processes at one level, and then a descent method takes over to operate on the resulting solutions to produce new solutions. These new solutions in turn are submitted to be recombined by the GA processes. In these versions, pioneered by Mühlenbein, Gorges-Schleuter, and Krämer (1988) and also advanced by Davis (1991) and Ulder, *et al.* (1991), genetic algorithms already take the form of hybrid methods. Hence there is a natural basis for marrying GA and TS procedures in such approaches. But genetic algorithms and tabu search also can be joined in a more fundamental way.

Specifically, tabu search strategies for intensification and diversification are based on the following question: how can information be extracted from a set of good solutions to help uncover additional (and better) solutions? From one point of view, GAs provide an approach for answering this question, consisting of putting solutions together and interchanging components (in some loosely defined sense, if traditional crossover is not strictly enforced). Tabu search, by contrast, seeks an answer by utilizing processes that specifically incorporate neighborhood structures into their design.

Augmented by historical information, neighborhood structures are used as a basis for applying penalties and incentives to induce attributes of good solutions to become incorporated into current solutions. Consequently, although it may be meaningless to interchange or otherwise incorporate a set of attributes from one solution into another in a wholesale fashion, as attempted in recombination operations, a stepwise approach to this goal through the use of neighborhood structures is entirely practicable. This observation, formulated from a slightly different perspective in Glover (1991c), provides a basis for creating *structured combinations* of solutions that embody desired characteristics such as feasibility. The use of these structured combinations makes it possible to integrate selected subsets of solutions in any system that satisfies three basic properties. Instead of being compelled to create new types of crossover to remove deficiencies of standard operators upon being confronted by changing contexts, this approach addresses context directly and makes it an essential part of the design for generating combinations. (A related manifestation of this theme is provided by the path relinking approach of the Section 3.) The current trend of genetic algorithms seems to be increasingly compatible with this perspective, particularly in the work by Mühlenbein (1992), and this could provide a basis for a significant hybrid combination of genetic algorithm and tabu search ideas. In addition, we note that Mühlenbein likewise has indicated the relevance of incorporating TS types of memory in GAs.

*Neural Networks.* Neural networks have a somewhat different set of goals than tabu search, although some overlaps exist. We indicate how tabu search can be used to extend certain neural net conceptions, yielding a hybrid that may have both hardware and software implications.

The basic transferable insight from tabu search is that memory components with dimensions such as recency and frequency can increase the efficacy of a system designed to evolve toward a desired state. We suggest there may be merit in fusing neural network memory with tabu search memory as follows. (A rudimentary acquaintance with neural network ideas is assumed.)

Recency based considerations can be introduced from tabu search into neural networks by a *time delay feedback loop* from a given neuron back to itself (or from a given synapse back to itself, by the device of interposing additional neurons). This permits firing rules and synapse weights to be changed only after a certain time threshold, determined by the length of the feedback loop. Aspiration thresholds of the form conceived in tabu search can be embodied in inputs transmitted on a secondary level, giving the ability to override the time delay for altering firing thresholds and synaptic weights. Frequency based effects employed in tabu search similarly may be incorporated by introducing a form of cumulative averaged feedback.

Time delay feedback mechanisms for creating recency and frequency effects also can have other functions. In a problem solving context, for example, it may be convenient to disregard one set of options to concentrate on another, while retaining the ability to recover the suppressed options after an interval. This familiar type of human activity is not a customary part of neural network design, but can be introduced by the time dependent functions previously indicated. In addition, a threshold can be created to allow a suppressed option to "go unnoticed" if current activity levels fall in a certain range, effectively altering the interval before the option reemerges for consideration. Neural network designs to incorporate those features may directly make use of the TS ideas that have made these elements effective in the problem solving domain.

Tabu search strategies that introduce longer term intensification and diversification concerns are also relevant to neural network processes. As a foundation for blending these approaches, it is useful to adopt an orientation where a collection of neurons linked by synapses with various activation weights is treated as a set of attribute variables which can be assigned alternative values. Then the condition that synapse  $j$  (from a specified origin neuron to a specified destination neuron) is assigned an activation weight in interval  $p$  can be coded by the assignment  $y_j = p$ , where  $y_j$  is a component of an attribute vector  $y$  as identified in the discussion of attribute creation processes in Section 2.5.1. A similar coding identifies the condition under which a neuron fires (or does not fire) to activate its associated synapses. As a neural network process evolves, a sequence of these attribute vectors is produced over time. The association between successive vectors may be imagined to operate by reference to a neighborhood structure implicit in the neural architecture and associated connection weights. There also may be an implicit association with some (unknown) optimization problem, or a more explicit association with a known problem and set of constraints. In the latter case, attribute assignments (neuron firings and synapse activation) can be evaluated for efficacy by transformation into a vector  $x$ , to be checked for feasibility by  $x \in X$ . (We maintain

a distinction between  $y$  and  $x$  since there may not be a one-one association between them.)

Time records identifying the quality of outcomes produced by recent firings, and identifying the frequency particular attribute assignments produce the highest quality firing outcomes, yield a basis for delaying changes in certain weight assignments and for encouraging changes in others. The concept of influence, in the form introduced in tabu search, should be considered in parallel with quality of outcomes.

Attribute creation and vocabulary building strategies as discussed in Section 3 have a significant potential for contributing to the issue of adaptive network design. An element notably lacking in neural networks at present is a systematic means to generate *concepts*, as where a chess player evolves an ability to detect and treat a particular configuration (class of positions) as a single unit. Vocabulary building yields a direct way to generate new units from existing ones. Applied to neural networks, such a process may operate to find embedded configurations of states that correspond to good firing outcomes, and assemble them into larger units. More particularly, starting with a set of previous firing states and weightings, represented by assignments in which  $y$  ranges over a set  $Y(S)$ , attribute creation processes can be used to identify and integrate significant components (subvectors). Copying and segregating these components permits associated neural connections to be treated as hardwired, i.e., locked in. This corresponds to treating the unit as a single new attribute. Activating the unit (as by setting  $y_j = p$  for appropriate  $j$  and  $p$ ) thus automatically activates the full associated system of firings. The duplication of components of  $y$  segregated from the original structure permits the "original components" to continue to evolve without the hardwiring limitation. This occurs in the same way that created attributes in vocabulary building processes exist side by side with separate instances of the attributes that gave rise to them.

As noted in Table 1 of Section 4, elements of tabu search have already been incorporated into neural networks in the work of de Werra and Hertz (1989) and Beyer and Ogier (1991). These applications, which respectively treat visual pattern identification and nonconvex optimization, are reported to significantly reduce training times and increase the reliability of outcomes generated. In addition, TS principles also have been integrated into a special variant of neural networks making use of constructions called ghost images in (Glover, 1991b).

The preceding observations suggest that TS concepts and strategies offer a variety of fruitful possibilities for creating hybrid methods in combination with other approaches. Beyond this, many opportunities exist to expand the frontiers of tabu search itself. We have undertaken to point out some of the areas likely to yield particular benefits. As shown in Section 4, TS appears to be opening the door to new advances in many settings, encompassing production scheduling, routing, design, network planning, expert systems, and a variety of other areas. Tabu search methods present opportunities for future research both in developing new applications and in creating improved methodology. The exploration of these realms may afford a chance to make a useful impact on the solution of practical combinatorial problems.

## Acknowledgement

This work was supported in part by the Joint Air Force Office of Scientific Research and Office of Naval Research Contract No. F49620-90-C-0033 at the University of Colorado.

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