

# An Analysis of a Recursive and an Iterative Algorithm for Generating Permutations Modified for Travelling Salesman Problem

Velin Kralev

*Department of Informatics, South-West University "Neofit Rilski", 66 Ivan Michailov Str., Blagoevgrad, 2700, Bulgaria  
E-mail: velin\_kralev@swu.bg*

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**Abstract**— This paper presents the results of a comparative analysis between a recursive and an iterative algorithm when generating permutation. A number of studies discussing the problem and some methods dealing with its solution are analyzed. Recursion and iteration are approaches used in computer programs to implement different algorithms. An iterative approach is the repeated execution of the same source code until a certain end condition is met. On the other hand, a recursive approach uses a recursive function that repeatedly calls itself. This function contains a source code that must be executed repeatedly. Both algorithms presented in this paper can be used to generate permutations of an  $n$  element set. The algorithms are modified so that they can be used to solve the Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP) with a small number of vertices. Several publications that discuss the TSP and some approaches to its solution are also presented. The methodology and the conditions for conducting the experiments are described in details. The obtained results have been analyzed; they show that for the same conditions the iterative algorithm works from of  $2^3$  to  $2^4$  times faster than the recursive algorithm in all the tested input data. Several approaches to optimize the two algorithms in terms of the number of permutations tested when searching a minimal Hamiltonian cycle are presented.

**Keywords**— iterative algorithm; recursive algorithm; travelling salesman problem; computer programming.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

The most important components of a computer program are the algorithms used. This defines the amount of memory used (necessary for storing data structures) as well as the programme's performance (i.e., its effectiveness). Therefore, when developing computer algorithms, it is important to use such methods whereby the memory used is as small as possible and the time to perform computational processes is as short as possible. Research into the development of computer algorithms began many years ago. Exhaustive and systematized research in this field are presented in [1] and [2]. When creating an algorithm to solve a practical problem, first, it is necessary to select a suitable data structure. These data will be stored and processed during the computation process. The approach that will be chosen for modeling and solving the problem will determine how the computation process runs, e.g., recursive or iterative.

A study reveals the preferences of beginner programmers when developing computer algorithms in terms of whether to be recursive or iterative [3]. The results show that the preferences in recent years have been in favor of recursive algorithms. These algorithms are more frequently preferred than the iterative ones. Another study presented in [4] shows that when selecting a relevant approach, the specificity of the

problem should be taken into account. In [5] a method based on incrementalization for transforming the recursion in iteration is proposed. The results show that in most experiments the iterative algorithms used more memory. On the other hand, these algorithms were performed faster. A method for recursion removal is proposed in [6]. Different methods for optimizing memory usage when using recursion are offered in [7]. In addition, similar situations in which nested cycles are used have been taken into consideration. An approach to transforming iterative cycles in recursive methods is presented in [8]. In earlier sources, similar approaches for creating a recursive algorithm based on an iterative process are also presented [9]. The idea of automated transforming of recursive methods in iterative loops may also be a subject of a study.

Iterative and recursive implementations of various algorithms are widely used in many fields of science and practice, such as those presented in [10]–[12]. An intensively investigated field of study is the graph theory. This is a part of discrete mathematics, which has undergone great development over the last few decades and has a huge practical application. In many cases, the description, analysis, and research of real systems is accomplished successfully and comparatively simply with graphs. A graph contains two sets of elements - vertices and edges. Each edge connects a pair of vertices. The ordered pair  $(V, E)$  is called an

undirected graph (G), where:  $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a set of vertices and  $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$  is a set of edges. The V and E sets are finite. Each element  $k \in E$ , ( $k = 1, 2, \dots, m$ ) is an ordered pair  $(v_i, v_j)$ ,  $v_i, v_j \in V$ ,  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ . When the pair of vertices  $(v_i, v_j)$  is ordered, the graph is called directed, and the edges are called arcs. If a function  $f(i, j)$  is given, comparing an integer value to each edge  $(i, j) \in E$ ,  $f(i, j) = f(j, i)$ , the graph is called undirected weighted. If a sequence of vertices  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  is given, such that for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k-1$  is satisfied  $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ , then this sequence is called a path in a directed graph. In the case of an undirected graph, the ordinance of elements in the pair  $(v_i, v_{i+1})$  does not matter. The path where the start and final vertex coincide is called a cycle. A cycle that passes through each edge exactly once is called Eulerian, while a cycle that passes through each vertex exactly once is called Hamiltonian. A graph is called complete when for each pair of vertices there is an edge that connects them, i.e., an edge that is incidentally with them. In [13] more information related to the graphs theory is given: the main ways of presenting these structures in computer programs and a wide variety of algorithms to solve particular problems.

The graphs provide opportunities to formulate and solve complex practical problems effectively in a natural way and in an accessible language. Numerous problems in different fields, both in science and in practice (for example, transport problems, resource allocation problems, search for optimal routes and the location of service centers, problems related to optimal schedules and timetables and many others), can be modeled with graphs and solved with appropriate algorithms [13]. In many cases these problems are linear, which means that they are solved with linear optimization methods. For some problems with large input data, it is necessary to look for efficient algorithms (usually approximated) so that they can be solved for a reasonable time. Solving these problems without a computer and a suitable application would be very difficult except for some cases in which the input data are very small. But even with a computer and appropriate application software, solving some problems would be impossible, or theoretically, it would take a long time, for example years, to find an exact solution [14]. Such are all NP-hard problems in which a solution cannot be found in polynomial time. The methods based on the "backtracking" approach yield good results but only for problems with small input data. For instance, in a complete undirected graph with 25 vertices and  $25 * (25-1) / 2 = 300$  edges, the number of all Hamiltonian cycles (if necessary to be checked) is very large, respectively:  $(25-1)! / 2 = 310\ 224\ 200\ 866\ 620\ 000\ 000\ 000$ . With the capabilities of modern computers, this approach, though possible, is practically inapplicable. Therefore, the interest in developing new or modifying the existing heuristic or approximate algorithms (not only for graphs) is explicable. This helps to find a solution to some "hard" problems for a reasonable time.

The number of practical problems that can be modeled by graphs is big. A problem to find a minimal Hamiltonian cycle in a complete undirected weighted graph will be selected for the present study. This is a combinatorial optimization problem that has been researched very actively in recent years. A detailed description of the Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP) is presented in [15]. Moreover, in

[16] different variants of it are presented. Due to the great practical application of this problem, many algorithms have been created for it. There are two main approaches on the basis of which all algorithms for solving the TSP are developed. The first approach is based on the creation of exact algorithms. These algorithms always find the exact solution, but a lot of computing time is required for their execution. It is recommended that these algorithms be used in small input data (in this case, a small number of vertices in a graph, for instance, up to 20). Examples of such algorithms are presented in [17]–[19]. The second approach is based on the creation of approximate or heuristic algorithms. These algorithms find solutions that are close to optimal or optimal, but this cannot be proven. Most of the developed algorithms for solving TSP are in this category. Examples of such algorithms are presented in [20]–[24].

## II. MATERIAL AND METHOD

This paper presents the results from an experimental study of two algorithms for generating permutations, respectively recursive and iterative [2]. Both algorithms have been modified to be used to search for an exact TSP solution. The analysis of the results aims at determining the way the algorithmic implementation influences on the computation process. For this purpose, both algorithms need to generate the same solutions. The main metrics that will be analyzed are the quality of the solutions found (minimum length of the Hamiltonian cycle) and the execution time (the time required to check all possible Hamiltonian cycles).

Let a set  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$  with  $n$  elements be given. Each sequence (or order) of these elements (without repetition) is called permutation. The set of all possible permutations is denoted with  $P_n$  and its power is marked with  $|P_n|$ , which is equal to  $n!$ . The following recursive relationship can be used to generate permutations: after placing a particular element in position  $k$ , the sequential generation of all possible permutations of the remaining  $n-k$  elements follows. After generating each permutation, the length of a Hamiltonian cycle formed by the sequence of the vertices defined in the current permutation will be calculated.

When executing the algorithms, some global arrays and variables will be used. They need to be pre-declared, as shown in Fig. 1 (in Delphi language).

```

01 AdjacencyMatrix: array of array of Integer;
02 MarkedVertices: array of Boolean;
03 HamiltonianCycle: array of Integer;
04 MinimumHamiltonianCycle: array of Integer;
05 CycleLength: Integer;
06 MinimumCycleLength: Integer;
07 Counter: Int64;
08 CounterCycles: Int64;
09 CounterBetterCycles: Int64;
10 BestCycleIndex: Int64;
11 StartTickCount: Cardinal;
12 FinishTickCount: Cardinal;

```

Fig. 1 Source code of the global declarations

A recursive algorithm used to search for a minimal Hamiltonian cycle is presented in Fig. 2. This algorithm is based on the generation of permutations and uses the "backtracking" method.

```

01 procedure HamiltonianCycleByRecursion
02 | (Iteration, Position, VertexCount: Integer);
03 var
04 | J: Integer;
05 begin
06 | Inc(Counter);
07 | if ((Iteration = 1) and (Position > 1)) then
08 | begin
09 |   if (Position = VertexCount+1) then
10 |   begin
11 |     Inc(CounterCycles);
12 |     CycleLength := 0;
13 |     for J := 0 to VertexCount-1 do
14 |       CycleLength := CycleLength +
15 |         AdjacencyMatrix[HamiltonianCycle[J]]
16 |           [HamiltonianCycle[J+1]];
17 |     if (MinimumCycleLength > CycleLength) then
18 |     begin
19 |       BestCycleIndex := CounterCycles;
20 |       Inc(CounterBetterCycles);
21 |       MinimumCycleLength := CycleLength;
22 |       for J := 1 to VertexCount do
23 |         MinimumHamiltonianCycle[J] :=
24 |           HamiltonianCycle[J];
25 |     end;
26 |   end;
27 |   Exit;
28 | end;
29 | if (MarkedVertices[Iteration]=True) then Exit;
30 | MarkedVertices[Iteration] := True;
31 | for J := 1 to VertexCount do
32 | begin
33 |   if ((AdjacencyMatrix[Iteration][J] > 0) and
34 |     (J <> Iteration)) then
35 |   begin
36 |     HamiltonianCycle[Position] := J;
37 |     HamiltonianCycleByRecursion
38 |       (J, Position+1, VertexCount);
39 |   end;
40 | end;
41 | MarkedVertices[Iteration] := False;
42 end;

```

Fig. 2 Source code of the recursion based algorithm

This algorithm uses a modification of the Depth-first search (DFS) method. The HamiltonianCycleByRecursion procedure is called recursively (lines 37 and 38) until all Hamiltonian paths starting from a first vertex and passing through all other vertices are generated. Finally, the edge that connects the end with the first vertex is added to this path to form a Hamiltonian cycle. This is done when the condition of line 9 is true. The length of the new Hamiltonian cycle is calculated on lines 13–16. Then, whether this cycle is shorter than the shortest one that has been found so far (line 17) is checked. If this proves true, the current cycle is stored as the shortest one (lines 19–24). The complexity of the algorithm is exponential because it generates all  $(VertexCount-1)!$  Hamiltonian cycles (including those in the opposite direction).

Another algorithm used to search for a minimal Hamiltonian cycle is presented in Fig. 3. This algorithm, however, is based on the generation of permutations using an iterative approach.

This algorithm generates iteratively all permutations of  $(VertexCount-1)$  elements – formed by the vertex indexes, respectively, 2, 3, ..., VertexCount. After generating the next Hamiltonian path (composed of vertices 1, 2, ..., VertexCount), the edge  $(VertexCount, 1)$  is added to it. Since the explored graphs are complete, such an edge certainly exists.

```

01 procedure HamiltonianCycleByIteration
02 | (VertexCount: Integer);
03 var
04 | LeftPos, RightPos, Temp: Integer;
05 | Terminated, NewPermutation: Boolean;
06 begin
07 | for Temp := 0 to VertexCount-1 do
08 |   HamiltonianCycle[Temp] := Temp + 1;
09 | HamiltonianCycle[VertexCount] := 1;
10 | CounterCycles := 1;
11 | MinimumCycleLength := 0;
12 | for Temp := 0 to VertexCount-1 do
13 |   MinimumCycleLength := MinimumCycleLength +
14 |     AdjacencyMatrix[HamiltonianCycle[Temp]]
15 |       [HamiltonianCycle[Temp+1]];
16 | BestCycleIndex := 1;
17 | CounterBetterCycles := 1;
18 | for Temp := 0 to VertexCount do
19 |   MinimumHamiltonianCycle[Temp] :=
20 |     HamiltonianCycle[Temp];
21 | Terminated := False;
22 | repeat
23 |   Inc(Counter);
24 |   NewPermutation := False;
25 |   LeftPos := VertexCount;
26 |   while (LeftPos > 0) do
27 |   begin
28 |     Inc(Counter); Dec(LeftPos);
29 |     RightPos := VertexCount;
30 |     while (RightPos > LeftPos) do
31 |     begin
32 |       Inc(Counter); Dec(RightPos);
33 |       if (HamiltonianCycle[LeftPos] <
34 |         HamiltonianCycle[RightPos]) then
35 |       begin
36 |         Temp := HamiltonianCycle[LeftPos];
37 |         HamiltonianCycle[LeftPos] :=
38 |           HamiltonianCycle[RightPos];
39 |         HamiltonianCycle[RightPos] := Temp;
40 |         Inc(LeftPos);
41 |         RightPos := VertexCount - 1;
42 |         while (LeftPos < RightPos) do
43 |         begin
44 |           Inc(Counter);
45 |           Temp := HamiltonianCycle[LeftPos];
46 |           HamiltonianCycle[LeftPos] :=
47 |             HamiltonianCycle[RightPos];
48 |           HamiltonianCycle[RightPos] := Temp;
49 |           Inc(LeftPos);
50 |           Dec(RightPos);
51 |         end;
52 |       Inc(CounterCycles);
53 |       CycleLength := 0;
54 |       for Temp := 0 to VertexCount-1 do
55 |         CycleLength := CycleLength +
56 |           AdjacencyMatrix
57 |             [HamiltonianCycle[Temp]]
58 |               [HamiltonianCycle[Temp+1]];
59 |       if (MinimumCycleLength > CycleLength) then
60 |       begin
61 |         BestCycleIndex := CounterCycles;
62 |         Inc(CounterBetterCycles);
63 |         MinimumCycleLength := CycleLength;
64 |         for Temp := 1 to VertexCount do
65 |           MinimumHamiltonianCycle[Temp] :=
66 |             HamiltonianCycle[Temp];
67 |       end;
68 |       NewPermutation := True; Break;
69 |     end;
70 |   end;
71 |   if ((LeftPos=1) and (RightPos=1)) then
72 |   begin Terminated := True; Break; end;
73 |   if NewPermutation then Break;
74 | end;
75 | until (Terminated);
76 end;

```

Fig. 3 Source code of the iterative based algorithm



The coordinates of the vertices are shown in Table I. These are the screen coordinates of the centers of the vertices. The abbreviations of the columns in Table I are as follows: V – vertex number; X – the x coordinate of the vertex, and Y – the y coordinate of the vertex.

TABLE I  
THE COORDINATES OF THE VERTICES OF THE  $K_{15}$  GRAPH

V	X	Y	V	X	Y	V	X	Y
1	100	143	6	196	23	11	210	331
2	41	31	7	96	325	12	85	81
3	44	261	8	300	232	13	324	78
4	246	139	9	255	73	14	320	301
5	249	275	10	141	265	15	165	80

Both algorithms use an adjacency matrix –  $A[\text{VertexCount}][\text{VertexCount}]$ . When there is an edge  $(u, v)$  between two vertices, for example  $u$  and  $v$ , then  $A[u][v] > 0$ , or, otherwise,  $A[u][v] = 0$ . Each element  $A[u][v] > 0$  is equal to the length of the edge  $(u, v)$ . The adjacency matrix of the  $K_{15}$  graph is shown in Table II.

TABLE II  
THE ADJACENCY MATRIX OF  $K_{15}$  GRAPH

V\V	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	0	127	131	146	199	154	182	219	170	129	218	64	233	271	91
2	127	0	230	232	321	155	299	328	218	254	344	67	287	388	133
3	131	230	0	236	205	282	82	258	283	97	180	185	334	279	218
4	146	232	236	0	136	126	239	108	67	164	195	171	99	178	100
5	199	321	205	136	0	258	161	67	202	108	68	254	211	76	212
6	154	155	282	126	258	0	318	233	77	248	308	125	139	304	65
7	182	299	82	239	161	318	0	224	298	75	114	244	336	225	255
8	219	328	258	108	67	233	224	0	165	162	134	263	156	72	203
9	170	218	283	67	202	77	298	165	0	223	262	170	69	237	90
10	129	254	97	164	108	248	75	162	223	0	95	192	262	183	187
11	218	344	180	195	68	308	114	134	262	95	0	280	277	114	255
12	64	67	185	171	254	125	244	263	170	192	280	0	239	322	80
13	233	287	334	99	211	139	336	156	69	262	277	239	0	223	159
14	271	388	279	178	76	304	225	72	237	183	114	322	223	0	270
15	91	133	218	100	212	65	255	203	90	187	255	80	159	270	0

All elements in the matrix (except those in the main diagonal) have a value other than 0 because the graphs under consideration are complete. Also, the adjacency matrix is symmetrical (relative to its main diagonal) in these graphs. The element values are calculated from the coordinates of each pair of vertices and are equal to the Euclidean distance between these vertices.

### B. Experimental Conditions

The experimental conditions are the following: PC with 64-bit Operating System Windows 10 Pro, x64-based processor and hardware configuration: Processor: Intel (R) Core (TM) i7-4712MQ CPU at 2.30 GHz; RAM: 8GB DDR3.

### C. Experimental results

In Table III, the main properties of the studied graphs are shown. These properties are as follows: the graph

abbreviation – G, the number of the vertices –  $|V|$ , the number of the edges –  $|E|$ , the number of the Hamiltonian cycles –  $(|V|-1)!/2$ , and the number of the cycles that are to be verified –  $(|V|-1)!$ .

TABLE III  
THE MAIN PROPERTIES OF THE GRAPHS

G	$ V $	$ E $	$( V -1)!/2$	$( V -1)!$
$K_{10}$	10	45	181 440	362 880
$K_{11}$	11	55	1 814 400	3 628 800
$K_{12}$	12	66	19 958 400	39 916 800
$K_{13}$	13	78	239 500 800	479 001 600
$K_{14}$	14	91	3 113 510 400	6 227 020 800
$K_{15}$	15	105	43 589 145 600	87 178 291 200

The minimum Hamiltonian cycles that were generated by both algorithms for all studied graphs are shown in Fig. 6 – Fig. 11.

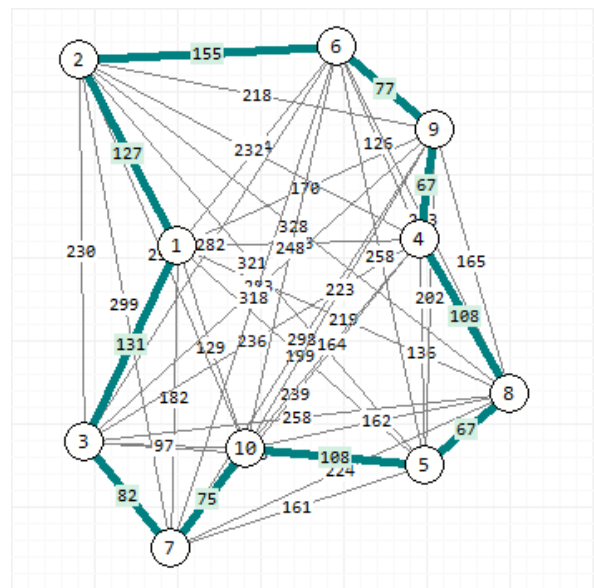


Fig. 6  $K_{10}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

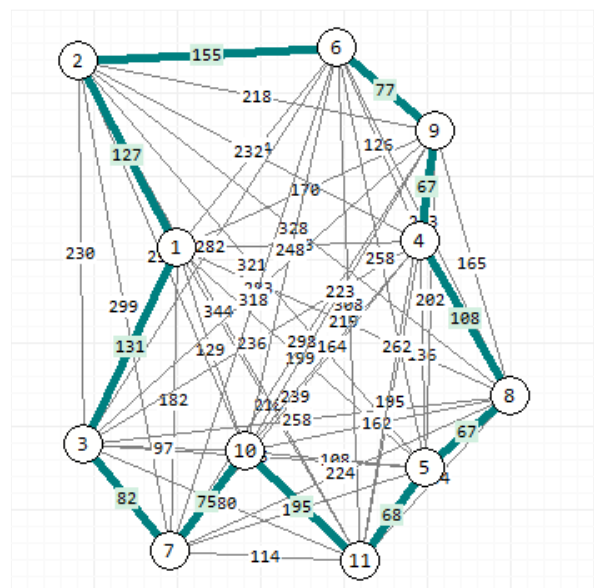


Fig. 7  $K_{11}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

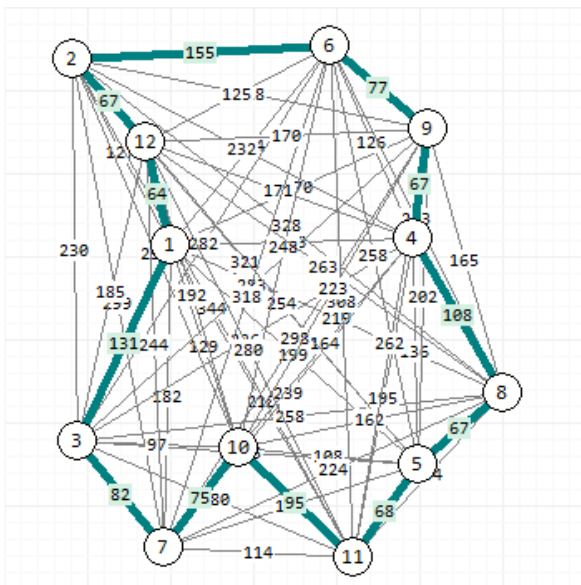


Fig. 8  $K_{12}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

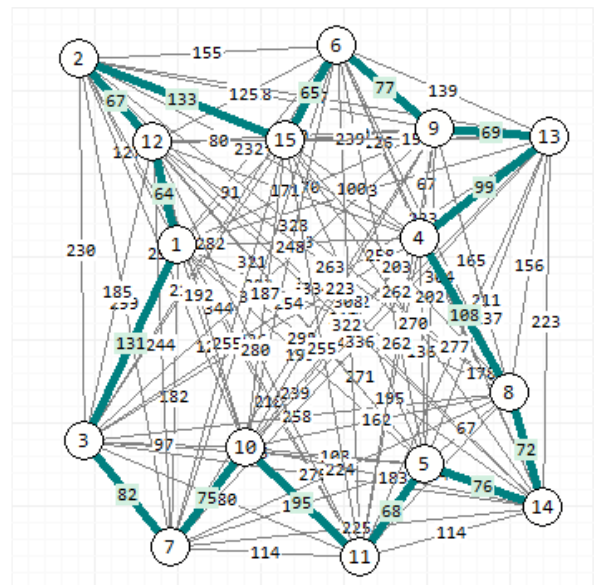


Fig. 11  $K_{15}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

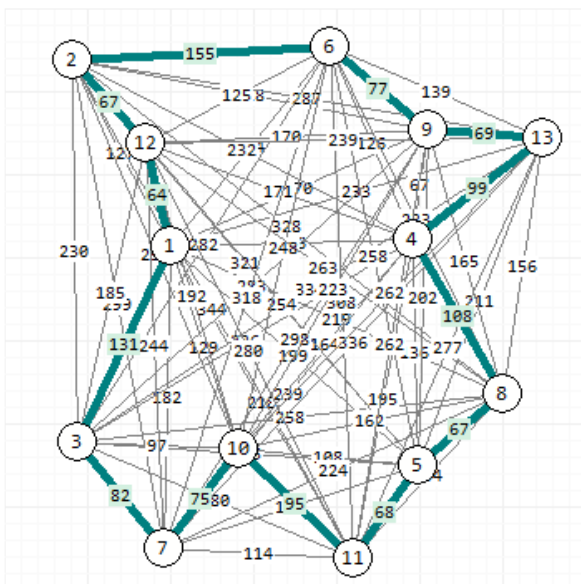


Fig. 9  $K_{13}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

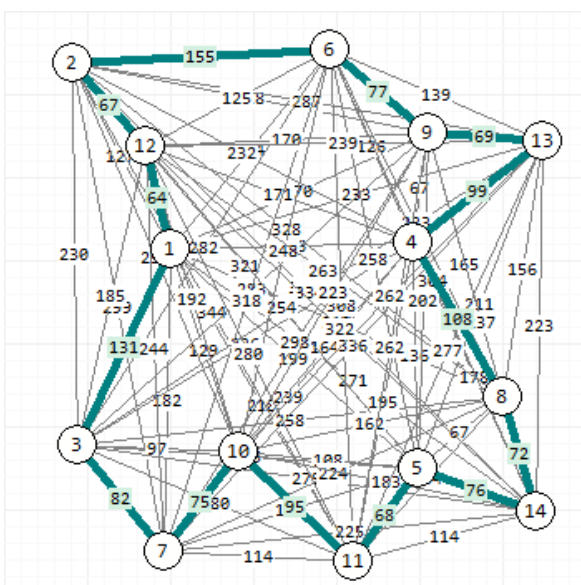


Fig. 10  $K_{14}$  minimal Hamiltonian cycle

The results of the recursion based algorithm for input data  $K_{10} - K_{15}$  are shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV  
THE RESULTS OF THE RECURSION BASED ALGORITHM

G	Better Cycles	Recursive Calls	Time (ms)	Cycle Length
$K_{10}$	23	8 877 691	219	997
$K_{11}$	34	98 641 011	2 281	1 052
$K_{12}$	37	1 193 556 233	27 938	1 056
$K_{13}$	42	15 624 736 141	356 672	1 157
$K_{14}$	47	220 048 367 319	5 215 391	1 238
$K_{15}$	52	3 312 775 065 600	79 940 943	1 281

Table V shows the results from the iterative based algorithm for input data  $K_{10} - K_{15}$ .

TABLE V  
THE RESULTS OF THE ITERATIVE BASED ALGORITHM

G	Better Cycles	Iterations by Loops	Time (ms)	Cycle Length
$K_{10}$	23	3 025 967	31	997
$K_{11}$	34	30 259 771	250	1 052
$K_{12}$	37	332 857 608	2 797	1 056
$K_{13}$	42	3 994 291 441	35 031	1 157
$K_{14}$	47	51 925 788 909	467 781	1 238
$K_{15}$	52	726 961 044 923	6 762 694	1 281

Table IV and Table V show the results of both algorithms. The columns are as follows: "G" – the abbreviation of the graph; "Better Cycles" – the number of the better cycles found in the search process; "Recursive Calls" – the number of recursive calls; "Iterations by Loops" – the number of iterations made by the iterative algorithm; "Time (ms)" – the execution time (in milliseconds) of the corresponding algorithm; "Cycle Length" – the length of the minimal Hamiltonian cycle (in pixels).

The results show that the found minimal Hamiltonian cycles are the same for both algorithms. This provides

grounds to analyze the values in the column "Time (ms)" that shows the execution time of both algorithms.

The influence of the number of vertices on the execution time for both algorithms is shown in Fig. 12.

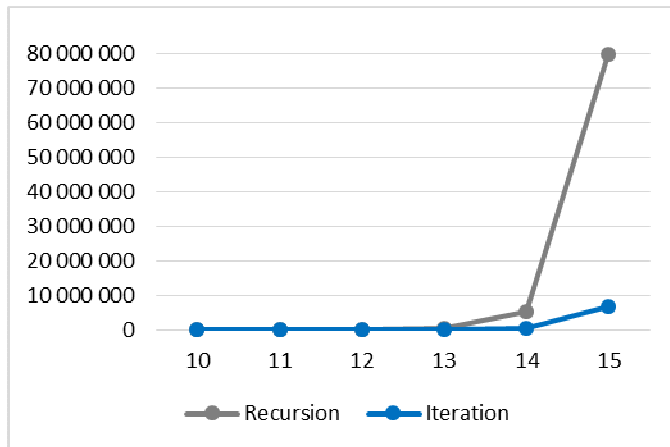


Fig. 12 Influence of the number of vertices (the x-axis) on the execution time (the y-axis in milliseconds) for both algorithms (for all input data)

Fig. 12 shows that the execution time of both algorithms increases exponentially with the increase of the number of the vertices. Additionally, the execution time of the recursive algorithm is significantly longer than the iterative algorithm (for the same input data).

Fig. 13 shows a chart of the data versus the execution time for both algorithms (the y-axis is transformed into a logarithmic one with base 2).

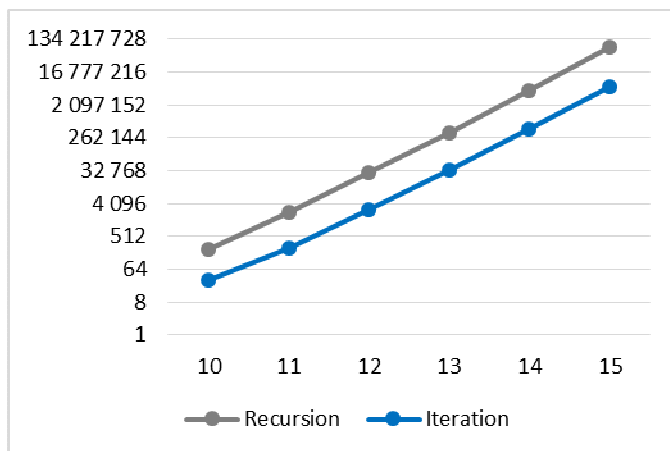


Fig. 13 Influence of the number of vertices (the x-axis) on the execution time (the y-axis in a logarithmic scale with base 2) for both algorithms

After transforming the y scale into a logarithmic one (with base 2), it can be seen that the delay of the recursive algorithm compared to that of the iterative one is within the range of  $2^3$  to  $2^4$  times (in milliseconds). This ratio is kept almost constant for all input data sets. The results show that under the same conditions (identical input data and operations), the iterative variant of this process compared to the recursive one is executed several times faster. This gives some idea of the nature of the computation process when it is modeled recursively or iteratively. The extra time for executing the recursive algorithm is due to the fact that additional computer instructions are executed at each recursive call. These instructions allocate and release

additional memory for the new copies of all local variables (which are used by the recursive function). In the iterative algorithm, this process is executed by a counter and a transition instruction (to organize a cyclic process). This peculiarity in the realization of the two processes leads to the great difference in their execution time.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a comparative analysis between two algorithms for generating permutations but modified to find a minimal Hamiltonian cycle in complete undirected weighted graph was made. Both algorithms (respectively recursive and iterative) generate all permutations of  $n$  numbers, where  $n$  equals to the number of vertices in a given graph. For each generated permutation the Hamiltonian cycle length is calculated. This cycle is obtained after passing through each vertex of a graph in a sequence determined by the order of the numbers in the current permutation. The results obtained from both algorithms are identical both for the generated permutations and for the formed Hamiltonian cycles with minimum length. The difference between the two algorithms is the time for their execution. It was experimentally found out that the recursive algorithm is executed several times more slowly (in the order of  $2^3$  to  $2^4$  times) than the iterative algorithm.

In this study, TSP results are used to analyze the performance of both algorithms. Moreover, these results reveal that the solution to the TSP with exact methods (although it is possible) is not applicable for graphs with many vertices. There are approaches, such as branch-and-bound and others, that can reduce the number of the Hamiltonian cycles that are formed. However, for complete undirected weighted graphs with more than 50 vertices these approaches are not applicable. Therefore, for TSP with large complete graphs (e.g., with thousands of vertices) approximate methods should be used. Taking into consideration the results obtained in this study, one can suggest that if these methods can be implemented algorithmically by an iterative process, then, it must be chosen leaving aside the recursive one.

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