

Automatic Generation of Efficient String Matching Algorithms by Generalized Partial Computation

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ABSTRACT

This paper shows that Generalized Partial Computation (GPC) can automatically generate efficient string matching algorithms. GPC is a program transformation method utilizing partial information about input data and auxiliary functions as well as the logical structure of a source program. GPC uses both a classical partial evaluator and an inference engine such as a theorem prover to optimize programs. First, we show that a Boyer-Moore (BM) type pattern matcher without the *bad-character heuristic* can be generated from a simple non-linear backward matcher by GPC. This sort of problems has already been discussed in the literature using offline partial evaluators. However, there was no proof that every generated matcher runs in the same way as the BM. In this paper we prove that the problem can be solved starting from a simple non-linear pattern matcher as a source program. We also prove that a Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) type linear string matcher can be generated from a naive non-linear forward matcher by GPC.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

I.2.2 [Programming Techniques]: Automatic Programming – *program transformation*; F.3.2 [Logics and Meaning of Programs]: Semantics of Programming Languages – *partial evaluation*.

General Terms

Algorithms

Keywords

automatic program generation, Boyer-Moore pattern matcher, Knuth-Morris-Pratt pattern matcher, naive pattern matcher

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1. INTRODUCTION

Efficient algorithms are difficult to develop while inefficient ones are easy. This paper shows that some efficient algorithms can be automatically generated from inefficient ones. Automatic generation of an efficient pattern matcher from a naive one, introduced in [7], is a typical problem for partial evaluation [1,2,5,10,14]. Let m be the length of a given pattern and n be the length of a given text. Then the problem can be classified as two problems:

Type 1: Can we generate an $O(n)$ pattern matcher of size $O(m)$ from a naive non-linear matcher and a given pattern?

Type 2: Can we generate an $O(m)$ algorithm from a given matcher that generates an $O(n)$ pattern matcher of size $O(m)$ from a given pattern?

The problems can be rephrased in partial evaluation terms. Let α , pm , t and p be a partial evaluator, pattern matcher, text and pattern, respectively. Let the residual program of x with respect to y be x_y , i.e. $x_y = \alpha(x, y)$. Then we can redefine the above problems as follows:

Type 1: Does $pm_p(t)$ run in $O(n)$ time for any t and is pm_p of size $O(m)$?

Type 2: Does $\alpha_{pm}(p)(t)$ run in $O(m+n)$ time for any p and t ? And is $\alpha_{pm}(p)$ of size $O(m)$?

Apparently, Type 2 problem is more difficult than Type 1 and has never been solved by partial evaluation to the best of authors' knowledge. This paper deals with Type 1 problem and reports that, by Generalized Partial Computation (GPC) [8,9], we can generate (1) a Boyer-Moore (BM) type pattern matcher [3] without the *bad-character heuristic* (the δ_1 table in [3]; see Appendix 1) from a non-linear backward matcher and (2) a Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) matcher from a non-linear forward matcher. Generation of a BM type matcher has been discussed in [2] using off-line partial evaluator. However, there was no proof that every generated matcher runs in the same way as the BM matcher. Here we will show that the problem can be solved starting from a simple non-linear pattern matcher as a source program by on-line partial evaluator. We also prove that every generated matcher runs

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exactly the same way as the BM. Generation of KMP matchers by offline partial evaluator with a correctness proof has been discussed in [1]. Here, we start from a simpler source program than [1] by using online partial evaluator. Appendix 1 explains the BM algorithm following the presentation in [6]. There are many variations of the BM and KMP algorithms. We define (1) a BM matcher as an $O(n)$ time and $O(m)$ size pattern matcher which utilizes the good suffix in Appendix 1 and (2) a KMP matcher as an $O(n)$ time and $O(m)$ size pattern matcher which utilizes the longest matching prefix (LMP) in Fig. 2. This paper assumes that readers are familiar with program transformation [13] and partial evaluation [11].

2. NAIVE BACKWARD MATCHER

Let a given pattern be $p=a_0a_1\dots a_{m-1}$ and a given text be $t=t_0t_1\dots t_{n-1}$. Then the *shortest unmatching suffix* (SUS) of p with respect to t is $a_{k-1}a_k\dots a_{m-1}$ where $a_{k-1}\neq t_{k-1}$ and either (1) $a_j=t_j$ for $0\leq k\leq j\leq m-1$ or (2) $k-1=m-1$ (Fig.1). We say $a_k\dots a_{m-1}$ is the good suffix and t_{k-1} is the bad character. A prefix of p is $a_0\dots a_{m-1-i}$ for $0\leq i\leq m$. The *longest matching prefix* (LMP) of pattern p with respect to t is the longest prefix $a_0\dots a_{m-1-r}$ such that $a_0=t_r, \dots, a_{m-1-r}=t_{m-1}$ for $0\leq r\leq m$ (Fig.1).

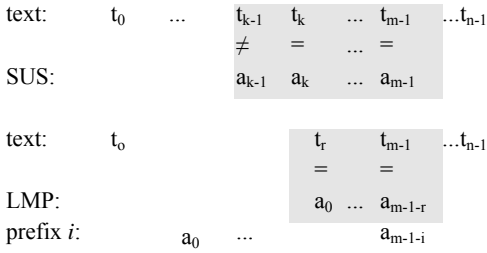


Figure 1. SUS (Shortest Unmatching Suffix) and LMP (Longest Matching Prefix) of a pattern $a_0a_1\dots a_{m-1}$.

We define a generic pattern matcher $gmi(p,t)$. The matcher returns **true** if pattern p is found in text t ; **false** otherwise. The matcher is parameterized with respect to a slide function $slide\#i(p,t)$. The matcher can be controlled by different slide functions. When $slide\#i$ finds a match, it returns 0 and gmi returns **true**. If the slide function finds a mismatch, the matcher slides the pattern $slide\#i(p,t)$ characters to the right and repeats the comparison.

```
gmi(p,t)≡if null(p) then true
else if length(t)<length(p) then false
else (λj.if j=0 then true else gmi(p,nthcdr(j,t)))
      (slide#i(p,t))
```

We use four primitive functions: $last(p,k)$ returns the last k elements in p ; when k is omitted, the default value is 1. $butlast(p,k)$ returns a copy of list p without the last k elements; when k is omitted, the default value is 1. $nthcdr(k,t)$ is equivalent to calling cdr k times in succession with t as the initial argument. $nth(k,p)$ returns k -th element of a list p . Note that the first element of p is $nth(0,p)$.

A naive slide function compares p against t backward from t_{m-1} to t_0 and returns 1 when it finds a bad character. Pattern matcher gml uses $slide\#1$.

```
slide#1(p,t)≡if null(p) then 0
else if matchlast(p,t) then slide#1(butlast(p),t) else 1
where matchlast(p,t)≡(car(last(p)))=nth(length(p)-1,t)
```

2.1 SPECIALIZATION OF THE MATCHER

Specializing gml with respect to a pattern, for example $[A A B]$, our GPC system just unfolds the source program and does not improve the residual program significantly.

Another naive matcher, readers may think, is $bm(p,pat,tex)$ below where $gml(pat,tex)=bm(pat,pat,tex)$:

```
bm(p,pat,tex)≡if null(pat) then true
else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
else if null(p) then true
else if matchlast(p,tex) then bm(butlast(p),pat,tex)
else bm(pat,pat,cdr(tex))
```

Although gml and bm look different, bm can be derived systematically from gml (see Appendix 2 for the derivation). Our GPC system does not generate an efficient residual program when specializing bm with respect to a pattern, either. Therefore, we have to use a little more sophisticated slide function $slide\#2$.

Instead of moving down the text by 1 in case of a mismatch, $slide\#2$ below searches for LMP of p with respect to t . Its value is the distance we must slide pattern p to align the discovered LMP with its counter part in t . If the LMP is $a_0\dots a_{m-1-r}$ in Fig.1, $slide\#2(p,t)=r$ for $0\leq r\leq m$.

```
slide#2(p,t)≡loop2(p,p,t)
loop2(p,pat,t)≡if null(p) then 0
else if matchlast(p,t) then loop2(butlast(p),pat,t)
else slide#2(butlast(pat),cdr(t))+1
```

It is not difficult to see that function gmi is a correct pattern matcher whose complexity is at least $O(mn)$. For example, it takes $km(m-1)/2$ comparisons to check a pattern AB^{m-1} against a text B^{km} .

Examples: LMP's are shaded in both patterns and texts.

- (1) $slide\#2([A A B],[C A A \dots])=1$
- (2) $slide\#2([B A A],[A A A \dots])=3$
- (3) $slide\#2([A B C X X X A B C],[Z B C X X X A B C \dots])=6$
- (4) $slide\#2([A B C X X X A B C],[A B C X X X A Z C \dots])=9$
- (5) $slide\#2([A B Y X C D E Y X],[A Z Y X C D E Y X \dots])=9$
- (6) $slide\#2([A B Y X C D E Y X],[A B Y X C A B Y X \dots])=5$

GPC system generates a non-linear matcher when specializing $slide\#2$ with respect to some pattern including $[A A B]$. For example, the residual program $slide\#2$ with respect to $[A A B]$:

```
slide#2[A A B](t)≡
if B = nth(2, t)
then if A = nth(1, t)
then if A = nth(0, t) then 0 else 3
else 3
else if A = nth(2, t)
then if A = nth(1, t) then 1 else 2
else 3
```

This program runs $O(mn)$ for such a text as $AA\dots A$ where $m=3$ in this case. The reason is that after a mismatch with B , two

successful comparisons with A slide the pattern only by 1. If the else part $\text{if } B = \text{nth}(2, t)$ of $\text{slide\#2}_{[A A B]}$ could be just 1 instead of

```
else if A = nth(2, t)
  then if A = nth(1, t) then 1 else 2
  else 3
```

then the residual program could be $O(n)$. This means that the GPC system conducts too much job at the partial evaluation time. This is a *commission error* [9].

2.2 EASING RULES

To avoid this sort of commission errors, we use the following two *easing rules* of character matching in slide\#2 :

- (1-1) \underline{a}_{k-1} matches any character in p except a_{k-1} .
- (1-2) Every character of text to the left of \underline{a}_{k-1} matches any character in pattern p.

We use **if1** expression to implement the easing idea and define new function slide\#3 based on slide\#2 . Here, **if1** expression is used in a context such as **if1** $p(u)$ **then** e_1 **else** e_0 . The meaning of **if1** is the same as **if** in (1) total evaluation or (2) partial evaluation and $p(u)$ is provable or refutable. However, when $p(u)$ is neither provable nor refutable, the residual program is the residual program of e_1 . See Appendix 3 for more details about conditional expressions for GPC.

$\text{slide\#3}(p,t) = \text{loop3}(p,p,t)$

```
loop3(p,pat,t) = if null(p) then 0
  else if matchlast(p,t) then loop3(butlast(p),pat,t)
  else slide#4(butlast(pat),cdr(t))+1
```

$\text{slide\#4}(p,t) = \text{loop4}(p,p,t)$

```
loop4(p,pat,t) = if null(p) then 0
  else if1 matchlast(p,t) then loop4(butlast(p),pat,t)
  else slide#4(butlast(pat),cdr(t))+1
```

If p and t are known, then $\text{slide\#2}(p,t) = \text{slide\#3}(p,t) = \text{slide\#4}(p,t)$. This use of **if1** expression in slide\#4 relaxes the matching criterion of characters and decreases the value of slide\#2 . Note that, for $k=1, \dots, m$ and $m-k+1 \leq j \leq m$, the value of $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{j-2}}(t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$ can be computed without knowing the value of t. Therefore, the residual code for expression $\text{slide\#4}(b_{utlast}(pat), cdr(t))+1$ will always be a value j itself for which $1 \leq j \leq \text{slide\#2}(b_{utlast}(pat), cdr(t))+1$. Therefore, it is safe to slide a pattern for j. This means that the conditional **if1** in slide\#4 does not spoil the correctness of the residual programs in this case.

For example, the residual program $\text{slide\#3}_{[A A B]}$ below takes 1 for text [X Y Z ...] (i.e. $\text{slide\#3}_{[A A B]}([X Y Z \dots])=1$) while $\text{slide\#2}([A A B],[X Y Z \dots])=3$. (This inequality does not happen for the pattern and text combinations in the examples above).

When we specialize slide\#3 with respect to pattern [A A B], the GPC system generates the following residual program.

```
slide#3_{[A A B]}(t) = if B = nth(2, t)
  then if A = nth(1, t)
    then if A = nth(0, t) then 0 else 3
    else 3
  else 1
```

The residual matcher with $\text{slide\#3}_{[A A B]}$ runs in $O(n)$.

For short, we refer this program as 3,3,1. Table 1 shows more residual programs with generation time by our GPC system for example patterns. If we conduct GPC manually, we can get Property 1 below.

Property 1: Residual program of slide\#3 with respect to $p = a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}$ for $m > 0$ is:

```
slide#3_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t) = if a_{m-1} = nth(m-1, t)
  then if a_{m-2} = nth(m-2, t)
    ...
    then if a_1 = nth(1, t) then 0
    then if a_0 = nth(0, t) then 0
    else slide#4_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(a_1 a_2 \dots a_{m-1} \dots) + 1
    else slide#4_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(a_1 a_2 \dots a_{m-1} \dots) + 1
  ...
  else slide#4_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(t_1 \dots t_{m-3} a_{m-2} a_{m-1} \dots) + 1
else slide#4_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(t_1 \dots t_{m-2} a_{m-1} \dots) + 1
```

We abbreviate the residual program by writing the following sequence of numbers:

$\text{slide\#3}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t) = \text{slide\#4}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(a_1 a_2 \dots a_{m-1} \dots) + 1, \dots,$
 $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-2}}(t_1 \dots t_{m-2} a_{m-1} \dots) + 1.$

Note here that each $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{j-2}}(t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$ is a constant. We obtain a specialized version of $\text{gm3}(a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}, t)$ by replacing call $\text{slide\#3}(a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}, t)$ inside gm3 by call $\text{slide\#3}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t)$. We prove in the next section that the new matcher behaves in the same way as the BM matcher. In general, the residual program of slide\#3 with respect to a pattern produced by GPC is equivalent to delta_2 table in [3]. Thus gm3 runs exactly the same way as the BM without the *bad-character heuristic* [6]. See [4] for complexity discussions concerning the BM matcher.

Table 1. Example patterns and generation time

Machine Specification: Pentium III 650MHz, Windows 98SE, Allegro Common Lisp 5.0.1

Pattern	GPC Time (secs)	Number of Theorem Proving	Residual Program
[A A B]	6	54	3, 3, 1
[B A A]	7	57	3, 1, 2
[A B C X X X A B C]	245	721	6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 9, 9, 1
[A B Y X C D E Y X]	275	808	9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 5, 9, 1

3. PROOF

First, we define a new function $\text{slide\#5}(p,t)$ which is the implementation of the good-suffix heuristic of the Boyer-Moore algorithm (Appendix 1). Then we prove $\text{slide\#3}_p(t) = \text{slide\#5}(p,t)$ for any p and t. slide\#5 is not naive because it is the central idea of the BM algorithm. It first tries to find SUS of p with respect to t from the right:

```
text:  t_0 ... t_{k-1} t_k ... t_{m-1} t_{m...} t_{n-1}
      ≠ = ... =
pattern: a_0 ... a_{k-1} a_k ... a_{m-1}
```

Then it calls $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], \text{cdr}(\text{SUS}), a_0 \dots a_{m-2})$ to search string

$\underline{a}_{k-1}a_k \dots a_{m-1}$ in $a_0 \dots a_{m-2}$ from the right and returns r as its value. See the relationship between a text and a pattern below.

```
text:  t0 ...  tk-1 ak ...  am-1 tm...  tn-1
pattern: a0...  ak-1 ak ...  am-1 am-r...am-1
```

However, when $\text{cdr}(\text{SUS})$ is not included in $a_0 \dots a_{m-2}$ then find calls $\text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1}, \text{cdr}(\text{SUS}))$ to find the LMP of $a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1}$ with respect to $\text{cdr}(\text{SUS})$ and returns s as its value. See the relationship between a text and a pattern below.

```
text:  t0          tk-1 ak...  a0...  am-s-1 tm...  tn-1
pattern:          a0...  am-s-1 am-s...am-1
```

The value of find is the distance we must slide pattern p to align the discovered substring with its counter part in t . For example, $\text{find}([E], [Y X], [A B Y X C D E Y])=4$ and $\text{find}([B], [A A], [B A A])= \text{slide\#2}([B A], [A A])=2$.

$\text{slide\#5}(p,t)=\text{loop5}(p,p,t,[])$

```
loop5(p,pat,t,w)≡if null(p) then 0
  else if matchlast(p,t) then
    loop5(butlast(p),pat,t,append(last(p),w))
  else find(last(p),w,butlast(pat))+1
```

```
find(c,w,p)≡if null(p) then 0
  else if length(w)=length(p) then slide#2(p,w)
  else if w=last(p,length(w)) and
        c≠last(butlast(p),length(w)) then 0
  else find(c,w,butlast(p))+1
```

For the pattern and text combinations in the examples above, slide\#5 takes the same value as slide\#2 . However, $\text{slide\#5}([A A B], [X Y Z \dots])=1$ while $\text{slide\#2}([A A B], [X Y Z \dots])=3$. Theorem 1 below proves that the value of slide\#5 is equal or less than the value of slide\#2 . This means that gm5 or the BM matcher is a correct matcher.

Theorem 1: $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2}) \leq \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-2}, t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$ for $k=1, \dots, m$ and $m-k+1 \leq j \leq m$.

Proof: We prove the theorem by mathematical induction on j .

Base: If $j=m-k+1$ then $\text{length}(a_k \dots a_{m-1})=\text{length}(a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1})$. Therefore, $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1})= \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1}, a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$.

Induction Step: (1) If $a_k \dots a_{m-1} = a_{j+k-1-m} \dots a_{j-2}$ and $a_{j+k-2-m} \neq a_{k-1}$ then $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2})=0$, while $\text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-1}, t_{m-j} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) \geq 0$

(2) If there is a mismatch between $a_k \dots a_{m-1}$ and $a_{j+k-1-m} \dots a_{j-2}$ or $a_{j+k-2-m} = a_{k-1}$, then $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2}) = \text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-3}) + 1 \leq \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-3}, t_{m-j+2} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) + 1 = \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-2}, t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$. Therefore, $\text{slide\#5}(a_0 \dots a_{m-1}, t_0 \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = \text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{m-2}) \leq \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{m-1}, t_0 \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$ \square

It is easy to see that we can make delta_2 table of [3] using function find . Note that find can be computed depending only on p . If we conduct GPC manually, we can get Property 2 below.

Property 2: Residual program of slide\#5 with respect to $p=a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}$ for $m>0$ is:

$\text{slide\#5}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t) \equiv \text{if } a_{m-1} = \text{nth}(m-1, t)$
then if $a_{m-2} = \text{nth}(m-2, t)$

```
...
  then if a0 = nth(0, t) then 0
  else find([a0], a1...am-1, a0...am-2)
...
  else find([am-2], am-1, a0...am-2)+1
  else find([am-1], nil, a0...am-2)+1
≡find([a0], a1...am-1, a0...am-2)+1, ..., find([am-1], nil, a0...am-2)+1.
```

In order to prove that $\text{slide\#3}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t) = \text{slide\#5}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t)$, we prove Theorem 2 below.

Theorem 2: $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{j-2}}(t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = \text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2})$ for $k=1, \dots, m$ and $m-k+1 \leq j \leq m$.

Proof: We prove the property by mathematical induction on j .

Base: (1) If $j=m-k+1$ then $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 \dots a_{j-2}}(a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = \text{slide\#4}(a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1}, a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{m-k-1}, a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-2}, a_k \dots a_{m-1})$ and $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2}) = \text{slide\#2}(a_0 \dots a_{j-2}, a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$.

(2) If $a_k \dots a_{m-1} = a_{j+k-1-m} \dots a_{j-2}$ and $a_{j+k-2-m} \neq a_{k-1}$ then $\text{slide\#4}_{a_0 \dots a_{j-2}}(t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) = 0$ and $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2}) = 0$.

Induction Step: There is a mismatch between $a_k \dots a_{m-1}$ and $a_{j+k-1-m} \dots a_{j-2}$ or $a_{j+k-2-m} = a_{k-1}$. Then $\text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-2}) = \text{find}([a_{k-1}], a_k \dots a_{m-1}, a_0 \dots a_{j-3}) + 1 = \text{slide\#4}_{a_0 \dots a_{j-3}}(t_{m-j+2} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots) + 1 = \text{slide\#4}_{a_0 \dots a_{j-2}}(t_{m-j+1} \dots \underline{a}_{k-1} a_k \dots a_{m-1} \dots)$. \square

Therefore, we can assert that $\text{gm3}_{a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}}(t)$ behaves in the same way as the BM pattern matcher. However, it takes exponential time to generate a matcher by GPC because GPC includes theorem proving. In order to generate a BM matcher in $O(m)$ time, we can self-apply GPC α such as $\alpha(\alpha, \text{slide\#3})(\text{pat}) = \alpha(\text{slide\#3}, \text{pat})$. Since the residual program of $\alpha(\alpha, \text{slide\#3})$, i.e. $\alpha_{\text{slide\#3}}$, may have no overhead concerning theorem proving, we expect $\alpha_{\text{slide\#3}}(\text{pat})$ runs in $O(m)$. The residual program will be an implementation of the BM algorithm. Unfortunately, we have not proved this assertion yet.

4. GENERATION OF KMP MATCHER

Let slide\#6 be a naive slide function which compares p against t from t_0 to t_{m-1} and returns 1 when it finds an unmatched character. This implements a forward pattern matcher gm6 .

```
slide#6(p,t)≡if null(p) then 0
  else if matchhead(p,t) then slide#6(cdr(p),cdr(t)) else 1
where matchhead(p,t)≡(car(p)=car(t)).
```

The following naive matcher nm can be derived systematically from gm6 (the derivation is shown in Appendix 4).

```
nm(p,t,pat,tex)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchhead(p,t) then nm(cdr(p),cdr(t),pat,tex)
  else nm(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))
```

Our GPC system [9] produces a KMP-style $O(n)$ pattern matcher [12] from nm and a given pattern. For example, the residual

program obtained by specializing $nm([A B A B C], t, [A B A B C], t)$ is $N_0(t)$:

```

N0(t) ≡ if length(t)<5 then false
      else if A = car(t) then N1(t) else M1(t)
N1(t) ≡ if B=cadr(t) then N2(t) else M2(t)
N2(t) ≡ if A=cad2r(t) then N3(t) else M3(t)
N3(t) ≡ if B=cad3r(t) then N4(t) else M4(t)
N4(t) ≡ if C=cad4r(t) then true else M5(t)

M1(t) ≡ if length(t)<6 then false else N0(cdr(t))
M2(t) ≡ if A=cadr(t)
      then if length(t)<6 then false else N1(cdr(t))
      else if length(t)<7 then false else N0(cd2r(t))
M3(t) ≡ if length(t)<8 then false else N0(cd3r(t))
M4(t) ≡ if A=cad3r(t)
      then if length(t)<8 then false else N1(cd3r(t))
      else if length(t)<9 then false else N0(cd4r(t))
M5(t) ≡ if A=cad4r(t)
      then if length(t)<7 then false else N3(cd2r(t))
      else if length(t)<10 then false else N0(cd5r(t))

```

In general, Property 3 holds.

Property 3: The residual program of $nm(pat, t, pat, t)$ where $pat=a_0a_1\dots a_{m-1}$ for $m>0$ is $N_0(t)$ below:

```

N0(t) ≡ if length(t)<m then false
      else if a0 = car(t) then N1(t) else M1(t)
Nk(t) ≡ if ak=cadkr(t) then Nk+1(t) else Mk+1(t) for 0<k<=m-1
Nm(t)≡true

```

where $M_k(t)$ is one of the following two cases for $0\leq i(k), i_2(k), 0<k\leq m$ and $i_1(k)+j_1(k)=i_2(k)+j_2(k)=k$:

```

(1) if length(t)<m+j1(k) then false else Ni1(k)(cdi1(k)r(t))
(2) if ak=cadkr(t)
      then if length(t)<m+j1(k) then false else Ni1(k)(cdi1(k)r(t))
      else if length(t)<m+j2(k) then false else Ni2(k)(cdi2(k)r(t))

```

The proof of property 3 is omitted. Later we prove a similar property (Theorem 3). $N_0(t)$ is an $O(n)$ pattern matcher if we assume that functions $cad^k r(t)$ and $length$ are computed in constant time. Although the size of the program can be $O(2m)$ because of case (2) above, $N_0(t)$ is a KMP matcher. In order to get KMP matchers of size m by partial computation, we define a new naive matcher $nm1$. Here, **if2** expression is used in $nm2$ in a context such as $e(u)\equiv\text{if2 } p(u) \text{ then } e_1 \text{ else } e_0$. The meaning of **if2** is the same as **if** in (1) total evaluation or (2) partial evaluation and $p(u)$ is provable or refutable. However, when $p(u)$ is neither provable nor refutable, the partial evaluation is terminated. The residual program is $e(u)$ itself (see Appendix 3).

```

nm1(p,t,pat,tex) ≡ if null(pat) then true
      else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
      else if null(p) then true
      else if matchhead(p,t) then nm1(cdr(p),cdr(t),pat,tex)
      else nm2(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))

```

```

nm2(p,t,pat,tex) ≡ if null(pat) then true
      else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
      else if null(p) then true
      else if2 matchhead(p,t) then nm2(cdr(p),cdr(t),pat,tex)
      else nm2(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))

```

Here, nm , $nm1$ and $nm2$ are the same except that $nm2$ uses **if2**. The residual program obtained by specializing $nm1([A B A B C], t, [A B A B C], t)$ is $N_0(t)$:

```

N0(t) ≡ if length(t)<5 then false
      else if A=car(t) then N1(t) else M1(t)
N1(t) ≡ if B=cadr(t) then N2(t) else M2(t)
N2(t) ≡ if A=cad2r(t) then N3(t) else M3(t)
N3(t) ≡ if B=cad3r(t) then true else M4(t)
N4(t) ≡ if C=cad4r(t) then true else M5(t)

M1(t) ≡ if length(t)<6 then false else N0(cdr(t))
M2(t) ≡ if length(t)<6 then false else N0(cdr(t))
M3(t) ≡ if length(t)<8 then false else N0(cd3r(t))
M4(t) ≡ if length(t)<8 then false else N0(cd3r(t))
M5(t) ≡ if length(t)<7 then false else N2(cd2r(t))

```

In general, Theorem 3 holds.

Theorem 3: Let the residual program of $nm1(a_k\dots a_{m-1}, cd^k r(t), pat, t)$ with respect to $pat=a_0a_1\dots a_{m-1}$ and $t=a_0\dots a_{k-1}t_k\dots t_{n-1}$ be $N_k(t)$ for $0\leq k\leq m$ for $m\leq n$. Then the following three properties hold:

- (1) $N_0(t) \equiv \text{if } length(t)<m \text{ then false}$
 else if $a_0=t_0$ **then** $N_1(t)$ **else** $M_1(t)$
 $N_k(t) \equiv \text{if } a_k=t_k \text{ then } N_{k+1}(t) \text{ else } M_{k+1}(t)$
 for some $M_{k+1}(t)$ for $0\leq k<m-1$.
- (2) $N_m(t)\equiv\text{true}$.
- (3) $M_k(t)\equiv \text{if } length(t)<m+j(k) \text{ then false else } N_{i(k)}(cd^{j(k)}r(t))$
 for some $0\leq i(k), j(k)<m, 0<k\leq m$ such that either $i(k)+j(k)=k-1$ or $j(k)=k$ and $i(k)=0$.

Proof: We conduct GPC manually.

- (1) $N_k(t) \equiv \{\text{residual program of } nm1(a_k\dots a_{m-1}, cd^k r(t), pat, t)\}$
 ≡ if $a_k=t_k$ **then**
 {residual program of $nm1(a_{k+1}\dots a_{m-1}, cd^{k+1} r(t), pat, t)$ }
 else {residual program of $nm2(pat, cdr(t), pat, cdr(t))$ }

≡ if $a_k=t_k$ **then** $N_{k+1}(t)$ **else** $M_{k+1}(t)$ (by folding)

where $M_{k+1}(t)\equiv\{\text{residual program of } nm2(pat, cdr(t), pat, cdr(t))\}$. Although the same discussion as above holds for $N_0(t)$, we put a redundant if clause in front of $N_0(t)$ for a technical reason. \square

- (2) $N_m(t)\equiv\{\text{residual program of } nm1(nil, cd^m r(t), pat, t)\}=\text{true}$ \square

- (3) $M_{k+1}(t)\equiv\{\text{residual program of } nm2(pat, cdr(t), pat, cdr(t))\}$
 where $t = a_0\dots a_{k-1} t_k\dots t_n$ and t_k is any character not equal to a_k , i.e. \underline{a}_k .

(from (1))
≡ if $length(t)<m+j(k+1) \text{ then false}$
 else {residual program of **if2** $a_{i(k+1)}=t_k$ **then** $nm2(a_{i(k+1)+1}\dots a_{m-1}, t_{k+1}\dots t_n, pat, cd^{i(k+1)+1} r(t))$ **else** $nm2(pat, cd^{i(k+1)+1} r(t), pat, cd^{j(k+1)+1} r(t))$ } for some $i(k+1)$ and $j(k+1)$. See the relationship between a text and a pattern below. This is because $nm2$ shifts the pattern to the right until t_k is compared with some character, say $a_{i(k+1)}$ in the pattern. Therefore, the number of the shift is $j(k+1)=k-i(k+1)$ and $i(k+1)+j(k+1)=k$.

text:	$a_0\dots$	$\underline{a}_{j(k+1)}\dots$	a_{k-1}	$t_k\dots$	$t_{m-1}\dots t_{n-1}$
		=		?	
pattern:	$a_0\dots$	$a_{i(k+1)-1}$	$a_{i(k+1)}\dots$		

- (3.1) If $a_{i(k+1)}=t_k$ is neither provable nor refutable, then $M_{k+1}(t)\equiv\text{if } length(t)<m+j(k+1) \text{ then false}$
 else $nm2(a_{i(k+1)}\dots a_{m-1}, t_k\dots t_n, pat, cd^{i(k+1)} r(t))$ (by folding)
 ≡ if $length(t)<m+j(k+1) \text{ then false}$
 else {residual program of $nm1(a_{i(k+1)}\dots a_{m-1}, t_k\dots t_n, pat, cd^{i(k+1)} r(t))$ } (by folding)
 ≡ if $length(t)<m+j(k) \text{ then false else } N_{i(k+1)}(cd^{i(k+1)} r(t))$
 (by definition)

(3.2) If $a_{i(k+1)}=t_k$ is refutable, then
 $M_{k+1}(t) \equiv \text{if } \text{length}(t) < m+j(k+1) \text{ then false}$
 $\text{else } \{\text{residual program of } nm2(\text{pat}, cd^{j(k+1)+1}r(t), \text{pat}, cd^{j(k+1)+1}r(t))\}$
 $\equiv \text{if } \text{length}(t) < m+j1(k+1) \text{ then false}$
 $\text{else } nm2(a_{i1(k+1)} \dots a_{m-1}, t_k \dots t_n, \text{pat}, cd^{j1(k+1)}r(t))$
for some $i1(k+1) < i(k+1)$ and $j1(k+1) = k-i1(k+1)$ or $k+1$. This is because $nm2$ shifts the pattern again to the right until t_k is compared with some character, say $a_{i1(k+1)}$ in the pattern. See the relationship between a text and a pattern below. Therefore, $i1(k+1) < i(k+1)$ and the number of the shift is $j1(k+1) = k-i1(k+1)$ except when $a_0 = \dots = a_{i1(k+1)} = a_k$. In this case, $j1(k+1) = k+1$ and $i1(k+1) = 0$.

text:	$a_0 \dots$	$a_{j1(k+1)} \dots$	a_{k-1}	$t_k \dots$	t_{m-1}	\dots	t_{n-1}
		= ...	=	?			
pattern:	$a_0 \dots$	$a_{i1(k+1)-1}$	$a_{i1(k+1)}$	\dots			

Therefore,

$M_{k+1}(t) \equiv \text{if } \text{length}(t) < m+j1(k) \text{ then false}$
 $\text{else } \{\text{residual program of } nml(a_{i1(k+1)} \dots a_{m-1}, t_k \dots t_n,$
 $\text{pat}, cd^{j1(k+1)}r(t))\}$ (by folding)
 $\equiv \text{if } \text{length}(t) < m+j1(k) \text{ then false else } N_{i1(k+1)}(cd^{j1(k+1)}r(t))$
(b by definition)

Since t_k has only a negative information such as " t_k is not a_k ", $a_{i(k+1)}=t_k$ can not be provable. \square

text:	t_0	\dots	t_{k-1}	$t_k \dots$	t_{m-1}	\dots	t_{n-1}
			=	\neq			
pattern:	a_0	\dots	a_{k-1}	$a_k \dots$	a_{m-1}		

text:	t_0	$a_r \dots$	a_{k-1}	$t_k \dots$	t_{m-1}	\dots	t_{n-1}
		=	=				
LMP		$a_0 \dots$	a_{k-1-r}				

Figure 2: Text, pattern and LMP (Longest Matching Prefix) of a pattern $a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1}$.

$N_0(t)$ is an $O(n)$ pattern matcher if we assume that functions $cad^k r(t)$ and length are computed in constant time. Therefore, $N_0(t)$ is a KMP matcher. Note that $i(k) \leq \Pi[k]$ holds where Π is the prefix function in the chapter 34 of [6]. The prefix function computes the length of LMP in Fig. 2 when the first unmatching character appears at the k -th position in a given text. For example, $\Pi[k]$ for pattern [A B A B C] is $\Pi[0]=0, \Pi[1]=0, \Pi[2]=0, \Pi[3]=1, \Pi[4]=2$ while $i(0)=i(1)=i(2)=i(3)=0, i(4)=2$. The difference comes from (3.2) of Theorem 3 where $N_0(t)$ uses information that t_k is not equal to $a_{i(k+1)}$. This guarantees that $N_0(t)$ is a bit more efficient than the KMP matcher shown in [6]. For example, $N_0([A B A C A A A A])$ does 5 character-comparisons while the matcher in [6] does 6.

Since partial evaluation preserves the semantics of a source program in this case (i.e. neither **if0** nor **if1** appear in the source program), we do not have to prove the correctness of the residual program. However, it takes exponential time to generate a KMP matcher by GPC because GPC includes theorem proving. We believe that this problem can be solved using a self applicable GPC just like in the BM case.

5. CONCLUSION

We have proven that both BM and KMP pattern matchers can be generated from simple non-linear pattern matchers by GPC (Generalized Partial Computation). The next task is to show that the generation time can be $O(m)$ if we use a self applicable GPC α such as $\alpha(\alpha, \text{slide}\#3)(\text{pat}) = \alpha_{\text{slide}\#3}(\text{pat})$. Since the residual program $\alpha_{\text{slide}\#3}$ may have no overhead concerning theorem proving, we expect $\alpha_{\text{slide}\#3}(\text{pat})$ runs in $O(m)$.

6. REFERENCES

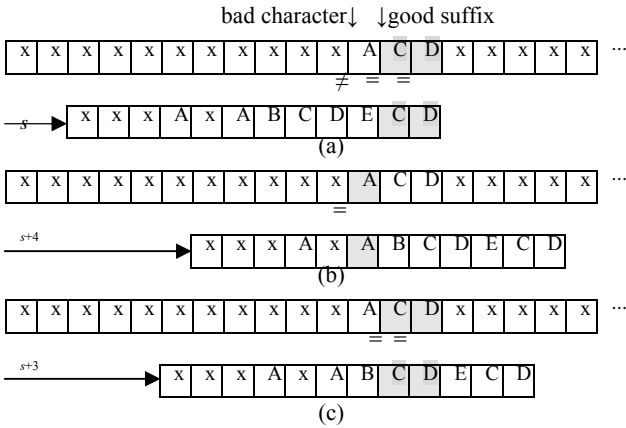
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APPENDIX 1

An illustration of the Boyer-Moore heuristics based on Figure 34.11, page 878 of [6].

(a) Matching the pattern **xxxAxABCDECD** against a text by comparing characters in a right-to-left manner. The shift s is invalid; although a “good suffix” **CD** of the pattern matched correctly against the corresponding characters in the text (matching characters are shown shaded), the bad character **A**, which didn’t match the corresponding character **E** in the pattern, was discovered in the text.

(b) The bad-character heuristic (δ_{1i} table in [3]) proposes moving the pattern to the right, if possible, by the amount that guarantees that the bad text character will match the rightmost occurrence of the bad character in the pattern. In this example, moving the pattern 4 positions to the right causes the bad text character i in the text to match the rightmost **A** in the pattern, at position 6. If the bad character doesn’t occur in the pattern, the pattern may be moved completely past the bad character in the text. If the rightmost occurrence of the bad character in the pattern is to the right of the current bad character position, then this heuristic makes no proposal.



(c) With the good-suffix heuristic (δ_{2i} table in [3]), the pattern is moved to the right by the least amount that guarantees that any pattern characters that align with the good suffix **CD** previously found in the text will match those suffix characters. In this example, moving the pattern 3 positions to the right satisfies this condition. Since the good suffix heuristic proposes a movement of 3 positions, which is smaller than the 4-position proposal of the bad character heuristic, the Boyer-Moore algorithm increases the shift by 4.

APPENDIX 2

We show that $bm(p,pat,txt)$ can be derived systematically from gml and $slide\#1$.

```

gml(pat,txt)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(txt)<length(pat) then false
  else (λj.if j=0 then true else gml(pat,nthcdr(j,txt)))
    (slide#1(p,txt))

```

```

slide#1(p,t)≡if null(p) then 0
  else if matchlast(p,t) then slide#1(butlast(p),t) else 1

```

Generalizing pat in $slide\#1(pat,txt)$, we define a new function $bm(p,pat,txt)$ where $gml(pat,txt)=bm(pat,pat,txt)$.

```

bm(p,pat,txt)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(txt)<length(pat) then false
  else (λj.if j=0 then true else gml(pat,nthcdr(j,txt)))
    (slide#1(p,txt))
≡{distribution of
  (λj.if j=0 then true else gml(pat,nthcdr(j,txt)))
  over if-then-else of slide#1(p,txt)}
≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(txt)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchlast(p,txt) then bm(butlast(p),pat,txt)
  else gml(pat,txt)
≡{folding}
≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(txt)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchlast(p,txt) then bm(butlast(p),pat,txt)
  else bm(pat,pat,txt)

```

Therefore,

```

bm(p,pat,txt)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(txt)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchlast(p,txt) then bm(butlast(p),pat,txt)
  else bm(pat,pat,txt)

```

APPENDIX 3

There are four types of conditional expressions **if**, **if0**, **if1** and **if2** for GPC. All the expressions have the same meaning in total evaluation. However, they have different meanings in GPC and **if0**, **if1** and **if2** are used to protect commission errors. A commission error means generation of inefficient programs caused by too much partial evaluation [9].

Let $e(u)$ be an expression and i be an environment. Then, $gpc(e(u),i)$ stands for a residual program of GPC of $e(u)$ with respect to i .

- (1) When $e(u)≡if p(u) then e_1(u) else e_0(u)$, then $gpc(e(u),i)$ is:
 - (1-1) $gpc(e_1(u),i∩p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is provable from i .
 - (1-2) $gpc(e_0(u),i∩¬p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is refutable from i .
 - (1-3) **if** $p(u)$ **then** $gpc(e_1(u),i∩p(u))$ **else** $gpc(e_0(u),i∩¬p(u))$ if otherwise.
- (2) When $e(u)≡if0 p(u) then e_1(u) else e_0(u)$, then $gpc(e(u),i)$ is:
 - (2-1) $gpc(e_1(u),i∩p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is provable from i .
 - (2-2) $gpc(e_0(u),i∩¬p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is refutable from i .
 - (2-3) $gpc(e_0(u),i)$ if otherwise.
- (3) When $e(u)≡if1 p(u) then e_1(u) else e_0(u)$, then $gpc(e(u),i)$ is:
 - (3-1) $gpc(e_1(u),i∩p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is provable from i .
 - (3-2) $gpc(e_0(u),i∩¬p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is refutable from i .
 - (3-3) $gpc(e_1(u),i)$ if otherwise.
- (4) When $e(u)≡if2 p(u) then e_1(u) else e_0(u)$, then $gpc(e(u),i)$ is:
 - (4-1) $gpc(e_1(u),i∩p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is provable from i .
 - (4-2) $gpc(e_0(u),i∩¬p(u))$ if $p(u)$ is refutable from i .
 - (4-3) $e(u)$ itself if otherwise.

Note that uses of **if0** and **if1** change the semantics of residual programs. Therefore, we have to prove the correctness of residual programs when we use **if0** or **if1** expressions in source programs.

APPENDIX 4

We show that $nm(p,t,pat,tex)$ can be derived systematically from $gm6$ and $slide\#6$.

```
gm6(pat,tex)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else (λj.if j=0 then true else gm6(pat,nthcdr(j,tex)))
    (slide#6(pat,tex))
```

```
slide#6(p,t)≡if null(p) then 0
  else if matchhead(p,t) then slide#6(cdr(p),cdr(t)) else 1
```

Generalizing pat and tex in $slide\#6(pat,tex)$, we define a new function $nm(p,t,pat,tex)$ where $gm6(pat,tex)=nm(pat,tex,pat,tex)$.

```
nm(p,t,pat,tex)≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else (λj.if j=0 then true else gm6(pat,nthcdr(j,tex)))
    (slide#6(p,t))
≡{distribution of
  (λj.if j=0 then true else gm6(pat,nthcdr(j,tex)))
  over if-then-else of slide#6(p,t)}
≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchhead(p,t)
```

```
  then (λj.if j=0 then true else gm6(pat,nthcdr(j,tex)))
    (slide#6(cdr(p),cdr(t)))
  else gm6(pat,cdr(tex))
≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchhead(p,t)
  then (λj.if j=0 then true else gm6(pat,nthcdr(j,tex)))
    (slide#6(cdr(p),cdr(t)))
  else nm(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))
≡{folding}
≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchhead(p,t) then nm(cdr(p),cdr(t),pat,tex)
  else nm(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))
```

Therefore,

```
nm(p,t,pat,tex) ≡if null(pat) then true
  else if length(tex)<length(pat) then false
  else if null(p) then true
  else if matchhead(p,t) then nm(cdr(p),cdr(t),pat,tex)
  else nm(pat,cdr(tex),pat,cdr(tex))
```