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Basic Research in Computer Science

BRICS RS-03-20

Ager et al.: Fast Partial Evaluation of Pattern Matching in Strings

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BRICS Report Series

ISSN 0909-0878

RS-03-20

May 2003

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# Fast Partial Evaluation of Pattern Matching in Strings \*

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April 2003

## Abstract

We show how to obtain all of Knuth, Morris, and Pratt's linear-time string matcher by partial evaluation of a quadratic-time string matcher with respect to a pattern string. Although it has been known for 15 years how to obtain this linear matcher by partial evaluation of a quadratic one, how to obtain it *in linear time* has remained an open problem.

Obtaining a linear matcher by partial evaluation of a quadratic one is achieved by performing its backtracking at specialization time and memoizing its results. We show (1) how to rewrite the source matcher such that its static intermediate computations can be shared at specialization time and (2) how to extend the memoization capabilities of a partial evaluator to static functions. Such an extended partial evaluator, if its memoization is implemented efficiently, specializes the rewritten source matcher in linear time.

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\*To appear in the proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2003 Workshop on Partial Evaluation and Semantics Based Program Manipulation (PEPM), San Diego, California, June 7, 2003.

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## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Obtaining a specialized matcher that works in linear time</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Linear-time specialization</b>	<b>5</b>
3.1	Compositional backtracking . . . . .	6
3.2	Strengthening the memoization capabilities of the specializer . .	7
3.3	Specializing the staged matcher in linear time . . . . .	8
<b>4</b>	<b>From Morris-Pratt to Knuth-Morris-Pratt</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>Related work</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>Conclusion and perspectives</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>A</b>	<b>Partial evaluation of staged string matchers</b>	<b>11</b>

## List of Figures

1	A staged quadratic-time string matcher . . . . .	4
2	Sharing of computations with compositional backtracking . . . .	6
3	Compositional backtracking suitable for fast partial evaluation . .	8
4	Backtracking also using one character of negative information . .	9
5	A brute-force quadratic-time string matcher . . . . .	12
6	A specialized linear-time matcher . . . . .	13

## 1 Introduction

For 15 years now, it has been a traditional exercise in partial evaluation to obtain Knuth, Morris, and Pratt’s string matcher by specializing a quadratic-time string matcher with respect to a pattern string [11, 21]. Given a quadratic string matcher that searches for the first occurrence of a pattern in a text, a partial evaluator specializes this string matcher with respect to a pattern and yields a residual program that traverses the text in linear time. The problem was first stated by Yoshihiko Futamura in 1987 [15] and since then, it has given rise to a variety of solutions [2, 3, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, 19, 25, 28, 29, 32, 33].

For 15 years, however, it has also been pointed out that the solutions only solve half of the problem. Indeed, the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher first produces a ‘next’ table in time linear in the length of the pattern and then traverses the text in time linear in the length of the text. In contrast, a partial evaluator does *not* specialize a string matcher in linear time. This shortcoming was already stated in Consel and Danvy’s first report of a solution [10] and it has been mentioned ever since, up to and including Futamura’s keynote speech at ASIA-PEPM 2002 [13].

In this article, we solve the remaining half of the problem.

**Prerequisites:** We expect a passing familiarity with partial evaluation and string matching as can be gathered in Jones, Gomard, and Sestoft’s textbook [21] or in Consel and Danvy’s tutorial notes [11]. In addition, we distinguish between the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher and the Morris-Pratt matcher in that the former uses one character of negative information whereas the latter does not [7]. Our string matchers are expressed in a first-order subset of the Scheme programming language [23]. They are specialized using polyvariant program-point specialization [27], where certain source program points (specialization points) are indexed with static values and kept in a ‘seen-before’ list (i.e., memoized), and residual program points are mutually recursive functions.

In the rest of this article, we use the terms “partial evaluator” and “(program) specializer” interchangeably.

## 2 Obtaining a specialized matcher that works in linear time

The essence of obtaining a linear-time string matcher by partial evaluation of a quadratic-time string matcher is to ensure that backtracking is carried out at specialization time. To obtain this effect, one can either rewrite the matcher so that backtracking only depends on static data (such a rewriting is known as a *binding-time improvement* or a *staging transformation* [27]) and use a simple partial evaluator [4, 10], or keep the matcher as is and use a sophisticated partial evaluator [13, 29, 32]. In this article, the starting point is a staged quadratic-time matcher and a simple memoizing partial evaluator, such as Similix, where specialization points are dynamic conditionals or dynamic functions [6].

```

(define (main pattern text)
  (match pattern text 0 0))
(define (match pattern text j k)
  (if (= (string-length pattern) j)
      (- k j)
      (if (= (string-length text) k)
          -1
          (compare pattern text j k))))
(define (compare pattern text j k)
  (if (equal? (string-ref pattern j) (string-ref text k))
      (match pattern text (+ j 1) (+ k 1))
      (let ([s (rematch pattern j)])
        (if (= s -1)
            (match pattern text 0 (+ k 1))
            (compare pattern text s k)))))
(define (rematch pattern i)
  (if (= i 0)
      -1
      (letrec ([try (lambda (jp kp)
                     (if (= kp i)
                         jp
                         (if (equal? (string-ref pattern jp)
                                      (string-ref pattern kp))
                             (try (+ jp 1) (+ kp 1))
                             (try 0 (+ (- kp jp) 1))))))]
        (try 0 1))))

```

Figure 1: A staged quadratic-time string matcher

- `main` is the matcher's entry point which directly calls `match`.
- `match` checks whether matching should terminate, either because an occurrence of the pattern has been found in the text or because the end of the text has been reached. If not, `compare` is called to perform the next character comparison. For simplicity, we assume that `string-length` works in constant time; otherwise, we would compute the lengths once and pass them as parameters.
- `compare` checks whether the `j`th character of the pattern matches the `k`th character of the text. If so, `match` is called to match the rest of the pattern against the rest of the text. If not, `rematch` is called to backtrack based on the part of the pattern that did match the text.
- `rematch` backtracks based on a part of the pattern. It returns an index corresponding to the length of the longest proper prefix that is also a suffix of the given part of the pattern. If such a prefix does not exist it returns `-1`. The returned index corresponds to the index returned by the Morris-Pratt failure function [1]. The local recursive function `try` finds the length of the longest proper prefix of the pattern that is also a suffix by successively trying each proper prefix.

Figure 1 displays a staged matcher similar to the ones developed in the literature [1, 4, 10, 21] (see Appendix A for a more complete picture). Matching is done naively from left to right. After a mismatch the pattern is shifted one position to the right and matching resumes at the beginning of the pattern. Since we know that a prefix of the pattern matches a part of the text, we use this knowledge to continue matching using the pattern only. This part of matching performs backtracking and is done by the `rematch` function. The matcher is staged because backtracking only depends on static data. The key to linear-time string matching is that backtracking can be precomputed either into a lookup table as in the Morris-Pratt matcher or into a residual program as in partial evaluation.

If a specializer meets certain requirements, specializing the matcher of Figure 1 with respect to a pattern string yields a linear-time matcher that behaves like the Morris-Pratt matcher. Specifically, the specializer must compute static operations at specialization time and generate a residual program where dynamic operations do not disappear, are not duplicated, and are executed in the same order as in the source program.

### 3 Linear-time specialization

As already shown in the literature [1, 17], each specialized version of a staged matcher such as that of Figure 1 has size linear in the length of the pattern. For two reasons, however, specialization does not proceed in time linear in the length of the pattern. The first reason is that for every position in the pattern, the specializer blindly performs the backtracking steps of the staged quadratic matcher. These backtracking steps are carried out by static functions which are not memoization points and whose results are not memoized. But even if the results were memoized, the backtracking steps would still be considered unrelated because of the index that caused the mismatch. The second reason is connected to an internal data structure of the specializer. Managing the seen-before list, which is really a dictionary, as a list is simply not fast enough.

In order to achieve linear-time specialization the matcher must be rewritten such that the backtracking steps become related, the memoization capabilities of the specializer must be extended to handle static functions, and the implementation of the memoization must be efficient.

**Terminology:** For the purpose of analysis, *static backtracking* is a mathematical function that takes a string—a *problem*—and returns a (possibly empty) prefix of that string—the *solution*—such that the solution is the longest proper prefix of the problem that is also a suffix of the problem. A *subproblem* is a prefix of a problem. A *computation* is the computational steps involved in applying static backtracking to a given problem. Given a pattern, *backtracking at position  $i$*  is the computation where the problem is the prefix of length  $i$  of the pattern.

### 3.1 Compositional backtracking

We relate backtracking at different positions by expressing the backtracking compositionally, i.e., by expressing a solution to a problem in terms of solutions to its subproblems. Backtracking is performed by the `rematch` function and we rewrite it so that it becomes recursive and unaware of its context (thus avoiding continuations or the index that originally caused a mismatch).

Figure 2 illustrates how to express backtracking compositionally and how it enables sharing of intermediate computations at specialization time. For the pattern `abacababb`, the backtracking at positions 3, 7, and 8 are the computations

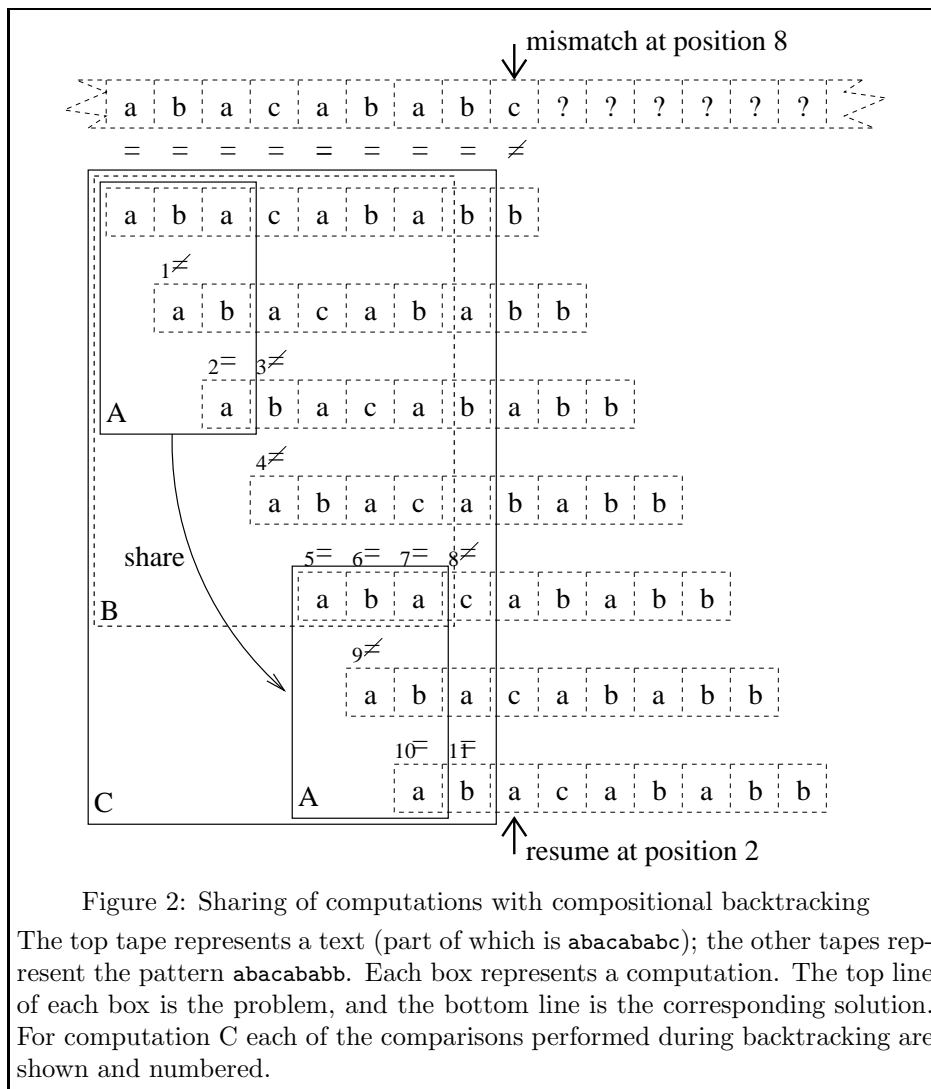


Figure 2: Sharing of computations with compositional backtracking

The top tape represents a text (part of which is `abacababc`); the other tapes represent the pattern `abacababb`. Each box represents a computation. The top line of each box is the problem, and the bottom line is the corresponding solution. For computation C each of the comparisons performed during backtracking are shown and numbered.



marked with A, B, and C, respectively. In general, backtracking at position  $i$  is always the first part of backtracking at position  $i+1$ , and ideally the solution to the first computation can directly be extended to a solution to the second one.

Let us consider what to do if the solution cannot be extended. The solution given by computation B, `aba`, is an example of this, since comparison 8 fails and therefore `abac` is not the solution to computation C. However, the solution `aba` is by definition the longest proper prefix of `abacaba` that is also a suffix. Since the solution `aba` is a prefix, it is also a subproblem, namely the problem of computation A, and since it is a suffix, part of the continued backtracking (comparisons 9 and 10) is identical to computation A. Computation A can therefore be *shared*. In the same manner as before, we try to extend the solution given by computation A, `a`, to the solution to computation C. In this case the solution can be extended to `ab`.

In short, the key observation is that the solution given by computation B is equal to the problem in computation A, and therefore computation A can be shared *within* computation C. The solution to static backtracking on a given problem can therefore be expressed in terms of solutions to static backtracking on subproblems.

By expressing backtracking compositionally, we obtain the staged matcher displayed in Figure 3, which is suitable for fast partial evaluation. The `rematch` function has been rewritten to use a local recursive function, `try-subproblem`, that tries to extend the solutions to subproblems to a full solution. The backtracking part of the matcher now allows sharing of computations.

## 3.2 Strengthening the memoization capabilities of the specializer

Despite the further rewriting, the specializer is still not able to exploit the compositional backtracking. The reason is that the specializer only memoizes at specialization points. Since specialization points are dynamic conditionals or dynamic functions, and the recursive backtracking is purely static, the specializer does not memoize the results.

What is needed is *static memoization*, where purely static program points are memoized and used within the specialization process itself. The results of purely static functions should be cached and used statically to avoid redoing past work. In the partial evaluator, static memoization is then essentially the same as the usual—dynamic—memoization. As usual with tabulation techniques, the requirements imposed on both types of memoization are that initialization, insertion and retrieval can be done in constant time (amortized). For the string matchers presented in this article these requirements can be met by a dictionary that uses a (growing) hash-table and a collision-free hash function based on the pattern and the index into the pattern. To avoid rehashing the pattern at all memoization points, we must remember hash values for static data. In general, more advanced hashing mechanisms would be needed and the time complexities of initialization, insertion and retrieval would be weakened from constant time to expected constant time.

```

(define (main pattern text) ...)           ;;; as in Fig.1
(define (match pattern text j k) ...)      ;;; as in Fig.1
(define (compare pattern text j k) ...)    ;;; as in Fig.1

(define (rematch pattern i)
  (if (= i 0)
      -1
      (letrec ([try-subproblem
                 (lambda (j)
                   (if (= j -1)
                       0
                       (if (equal? (string-ref pattern j)
                                    (string-ref pattern (- i 1)))
                           (+ j 1)
                           (try-subproblem (rematch pattern j))))))]
        (try-subproblem (rematch pattern (- i 1))))))

```

Figure 3: Compositional backtracking suitable for fast partial evaluation

Compared to Figure 1, `rematch` has been rewritten to allow sharing of computations. It calls itself recursively to find the solution to the immediate subproblem. The local recursive function `try-subproblem` then tries to extend the solution to the immediate subproblem to a solution to the original problem. If the solution cannot be extended, `rematch` is called to find the next candidate solution.

### 3.3 Specializing the staged matcher in linear time

Given these efficient memoization capabilities, the rewritten matcher can be specialized in linear time. Each of the linear number of residual versions of `compare` and `match` can clearly be generated in constant time. We therefore only have to consider specializing the `rematch` function.

Since `rematch` always calls itself recursively on the immediate subproblem and all results are memoized, we only need to ensure that backtracking with respect to the largest problem, i.e., backtracking at position `i`, where `i` is the length of the pattern, is done in linear time. Recursive calls and returns take linear time. For a given subproblem at `j`, however, `try-subproblem` may be unfolded up to `j` times. Unfolding only occurs more than once if the solution to the subproblem cannot be extended to a full solution, that is, if the `j`-1st character causes a mismatch. Therefore, the additional time spent in all calls to `try-subproblem` is proportional to the overall number of mismatches during backtracking. Since backtracking is just (staged) brute-force string matching, the number of mismatches is clearly no greater than the length of the pattern.

Generating the residual versions of the `rematch` function can therefore also be done in linear time and the entire specialization process takes linear time.

## 4 From Morris-Pratt to Knuth-Morris-Pratt

The Morris-Pratt matcher and the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher differ in that the latter additionally uses one character of negative information [7]. Therefore, the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher statically avoids repeated identical mismatches by ensuring that the character at the resume position is *not* the same as the character at the mismatch position.

Extending the result to the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher is not difficult. The only caveat is that we cannot readily use backtracking at position  $i$  in backtracking at position  $i+1$ , because with negative information the solution at  $i$  is *never* a part of the solution at  $i+1$ . Instead, we observe that the solution to the simpler form of backtracking where the negative information is omitted—Morris-Pratt backtracking—is indeed *always* a part of the solution.

```
(define (main pattern text) ...)           ;;; as in Fig.1
(define (match pattern text j k) ...)      ;;; as in Fig.1
(define (rematch pattern i) ...)          ;;; as in Fig.3

(define (compare pattern text j k)
  (if (equal? (string-ref text k)
              (string-ref pattern j))
      (match pattern text (+ j 1) (+ k 1))
      (let ([s (rematch-neg pattern j)])
        (if (= s -1)
            (match pattern text 0 (+ k 1))
            (compare pattern text s k))))))

(define (rematch-neg pattern i)
  (if (= i 0)
      -1
      (let ([j (rematch pattern i)])
        (if (equal? (string-ref pattern j)
                    (string-ref pattern i))
            (rematch-neg pattern j)
            j))))))
```

Figure 4: Backtracking also using one character of negative information

Compared to Figure 3, a wrapper function `rematch-neg` for `rematch` has been added. `compare` calls `rematch-neg` instead of `rematch`. `rematch-neg` calls `rematch` to compute the solution to Morris-Pratt backtracking. It then checks whether this solution is also a solution to Knuth-Morris-Pratt backtracking by performing an extra character comparison. If the solution to Morris-Pratt backtracking is not a solution to Knuth-Morris-Pratt backtracking (the character comparison fails) `rematch-neg` calls itself recursively to compute the solution.

The matcher in Figure 4 uses this observation. Based on Morris-Pratt backtracking as embodied in the `rematch` function of Figure 3, the `rematch-neg` function computes the solution to Knuth-Morris-Pratt backtracking. If both `rematch` and `rematch-neg` are statically memoized, evaluating them for all positions at specialization time can be done in linear time.

## 5 Related work

The Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher has been reconstructed many times in the program-transformation community since Knuth’s own construction (he obtained it by calculating it from Cook’s construction [24, page 338]). Examples of the methods used are Dijkstra’s invariants [12], Bird’s recursion introduction and tabulation [5], Takeichi and Akama’s equational reasoning [33], Colussi’s Hoare logic [9], and Hernández and Rosenblueth’s logic-program derivation [18].

Bird’s recursion introduction and tabulation is our closest related work. Bird derives the Morris-Pratt matcher from a quadratic time stack algorithm using recursion introduction. The recursive failure function he derives is essentially the same as the `rematch` function of Figure 3. Bird then tabulates the failure function to obtain the linear time preprocessing phase of the Morris-Pratt matcher.

Takeichi and Akama’s equational reasoning is our second closest related work. By hand (i.e., without using a partial evaluator), they transform a quadratic-time functional string matcher into the linear-time Morris-Pratt matcher. As part of the transformation, they isolate a function equivalent to the Morris-Pratt failure function. Using partial parameterization and memoization data structures, this function is tabulated in time linear in the size of a pattern string, thereby obtaining the Morris-Pratt matcher.

## 6 Conclusion and perspectives

We have shown how to obtain all of Knuth, Morris, and Pratt’s linear-time string matcher by partial evaluation of a quadratic-time string matcher with respect to a pattern string. Obtaining a linear-time string matcher by partial evaluation was already known, but obtaining it in linear time was an open problem.

To this end, we have rewritten the staged matcher so that its backtracking is compositional, thereby enabling sharing of computations at specialization time. We have also identified that the sharing of dynamic computations as achieved with the traditional seen-before list [21] is not enough; static computations must also be shared. The concepts involved—staging, i.e., binding-time separation, and sharing of computations as in dynamic programming—have long been recognized as key ones in partial evaluation [3, 26]. They are, however, not sufficient to obtain linear-time string matchers in linear time. In addition, the static computations must be shared by memoization, and both the static and the dynamic memoization mechanisms must be efficient. Static memoization in itself is no silver bullet: a program must be (re)written so that static computations can

be shared—which still requires some degree of insight from the programmer; otherwise, as usual with tabulation techniques, memoization is just a waste of resources.

Independently of partial evaluation, we can also consider the staged matchers by themselves. To this end, we can express them as functional programs with memo-functions, i.e., in some sense, as fully lazy functional programs. These programs, given efficient memoization capabilities, are the lazy-functional equivalent of the Morris-Pratt and Knuth-Morris-Pratt imperative matchers. (Holst and Gomard as well as Kaneko and Takeichi made a similar observation [19, 22].) In particular, these programs work in linear time.

Finally, we would like to point out that the Knuth-Morris-Pratt matcher is not an end in itself. Fifteen years ago, this example was used to show that partial evaluators needed considerable power (be it polyvariant program-point specialization or generalized partial computation) to produce efficient specialized programs. It gave rise to the so-called KMP test [30, 31]. What our work shows today is that a partial evaluator needs even more power (static memoization and efficient data structures) to operate efficiently. Such an efficient partial evaluator remains to be implemented.

**Acknowledgments:** We are grateful to Julia Lawall for many useful comments. This article has also benefited from the anonymous reviewers’ comments. This work is supported by the ESPRIT Working Group APPSEM II (<http://www.appsem.org>).

## A Partial evaluation of staged string matchers

We provide a more complete view of partial evaluation of staged string matchers (see also Section 2). The fundamental starting point is always a brute-force quadratic-time string matcher, such as the one in Figure 5. The corresponding ending point is always a specialized linear-time string matcher, such as the one in Figure 6, which is specialized to match the pattern `abac`. Here, the specialized matcher behaves exactly like the Morris-Pratt matcher for the pattern `abac`.

As it happens, specializing the brute-force quadratic matcher using a simple memoizing partial evaluator, such as Similix, does *not* yield a linear-time matcher (only a linear-sized one). One way to overcome this problem is to rewrite or *stage* the quadratic matcher such that backtracking only depends on static data and therefore can be computed by the partial evaluator. However, partial evaluation then takes quadratic time, because the overall workload has not been reduced—only moved.

This work describes how to actually reduce the workload by further rewriting the staged matcher (Figure 3) and by enhancing the memoization capabilities of the partial evaluator (see Section 3).

```

(define (main pattern text)
  (main pattern text 0 0))

(define (match pattern text j k)
  (if (= (string-length pattern) j)
      (- k j)
      (if (= (string-length text) k)
          -1
          (compare pattern text j k))))

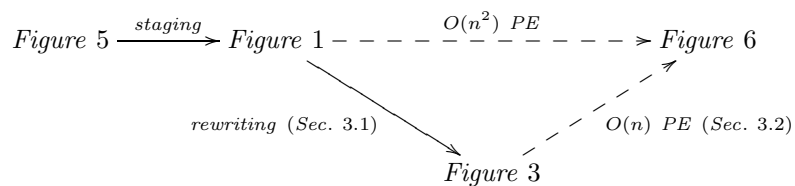
(define (compare pattern text j k)
  (if (equal? (string-ref pattern j)
              (string-ref text k))
      (match pattern text (+ j 1) (+ k 1))
      (match pattern text 0 (+ (- k j) 1))))

```

Figure 5: A brute-force quadratic-time string matcher

- `main` is the matcher's entry point which directly calls `match`.
- `match` checks whether matching should terminate, either because an occurrence of the pattern has been found in the text or because the end of the text has been reached. If not, `compare` is called to perform the next character comparison. Again, for simplicity, we assume that `string-length` works in constant time.
- `compare` checks whether the  $j$ th character of the pattern matches the  $k$ th character of the text. If so, `match` is called to match the rest of the pattern against the rest of the text. If not, the whole pattern and the corresponding part of the text are restored, the text position is incremented by one character, and `match` is called to restart matching.

Pictorially, the situation is as follows:



The matchers in Figures 1, 3, and 5 perform the exact same sequence of character comparisons; they differ only in *where* they fetch the text characters during backtracking.

```

(define (mainabac text)
  (match0 0))
(define (match0 text k)
  (if (= (string-length text) k)
      -1
      (compare0 text k)))
(define (compare0 text k)
  (if (equal? #\a (string-ref text k))
      (match1 text (+ k 1))
      (match0 text (+ k 1))))
(define (match1 text k)
  (if (= (string-length text) k)
      -1
      (compare1 text k)))
(define (compare1 text k)
  (if (equal? #\b (string-ref text k))
      (match2 text (+ k 1))
      (compare0 text k)))
(define (match2 text k)
  (if (= (string-length text) k)
      -1
      (compare2 text k)))
(define (compare2 text k)
  (if (equal? #\a (string-ref text k))
      (match3 text (+ k 1))
      (match0 text (+ k 1))))
(define (match3 text k)
  (if (= (string-length text) k)
      -1
      (compare3 text k)))
(define (compare3 text k)
  (if (equal? #\c (string-ref text k))
      (- (+ k 1) 4)
      (compare1 text k)))

```

Figure 6: A specialized linear-time matcher

The connection to the matchers in Figures 1, 3, and 5 is:

- For all strings `text`,  
 $(\text{main}_{\text{abac}} \text{ text}) = (\text{main} \text{ "abac"} \text{ text})$ .
- For all strings `text`, integers `k`, and  $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ,  
 $(\text{match}_i \text{ text } k) = (\text{match} \text{ "abac"} \text{ text } i \text{ } k)$ .
- For all strings `text`, integers `k`, and  $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ ,  
 $(\text{compare}_i \text{ text } k) = (\text{compare} \text{ "abac"} \text{ text } i \text{ } k)$ .

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