

Difficulty of String Analysis, Reachability & Fixpoints

292C

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A simple string manipulation language

- Language syntax

$prog \rightarrow (lstmt)^+$

$lstmt \rightarrow l : stmt$

$stmt \rightarrow v := sexp;$

| if $bexp$ then goto l ;

| goto l ;

| read v ;

| print $sexp$;

| assert $bexp$;

| halt;

$bexp \rightarrow v = sexp \mid bexp \wedge bexp \mid bexp \vee bexp \mid \neg bexp$

$sexp \rightarrow v \mid "c" \mid sexp.sex$

- Example code

1: read x1;

2: read x2;

3: x1 := x1 . "a";

4: x2 := x2 . "a";

3: if (x1 = x2) goto 7;

5: print x1 . x2;

6: halt;

7: print x1;

Reachability problem

- Reachability problem in string programs:
 - Given a string program P and a program state s
 - where a program state s is defined with the instruction label of an instruction in the program and the values of all the variables,
 - determine if at some point during the execution of the program P , the program state s will be reached.
- Reachability problem for string programs is undecidable (even if we allow only 3 string variables)

Counter machines

- Counter machines are a simple and powerful computational model that can simulate Turing Machines.
- A counter machine consists of a finite number of counters (unbounded integer variables) and a finite set of instructions.
- Counter machines have a very small instruction set that includes an increment, a decrement, a conditional branch instruction that tests if a counter value is equal to zero, and a halt instruction.
- The counters can only assume nonnegative values.
- It is well-known that the halting problem for two-counter machines, where both counters are initialized to 0, is undecidable.
- Two counter machines can simulate Turing Machines.

String programs can simulate counter machines

- A string program P with three string variables (X_1, X_2, X_3) can simulate a counter machine M with two counters (C_1, C_2)
- We will use the lengths of the strings X_1, X_2 and X_3 to simulate the values of the counters C_1 and C_2

Where

$$C_1 = |X_1| - |X_3|$$

$$C_2 = |X_2| - |X_3|$$

String programs can simulate counter machines

- M starts from the initial configuration $(q_0, 0, 0)$ where q_0 denotes the initial instruction and the two integer values represent the initial values of counters C1 and C2, respectively.
- The initial state of the string program P will be $(q_0, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$ where q_0 is the label of the first instruction, and the string variables X1, X2, and X3, are initialized to empty string: ε

Translation of counter-machine instructions to string program instructions

Counter machine instruction	String program simulation
inc C_1	$X_1 := X_1.a;$
inc C_2	$X_2 := X_2.a;$
dec C_1	$X_2 := X_2.a; X_3 := X_3.a;$
dec C_2	$X_1 := X_1.a; X_3 := X_3.a;$
if ($C_1 = 0$)	if ($X_1 = X_3$)
if ($C_2 = 0$)	if ($X_2 = X_3$)
halt	halt;

Reachability problem

- Halting problem for counter machines is undecidable
- String programs can simulate counter machines
- Hence, halting problem for string programs is undecidable.
- Hence, reachability problem for string programs is undecidable.

A richer string manipulating language

```
prog → block
block → lstmt+
lstmt → l : stmt
stmt → v := exp;
      | read v;
      | print exp;
      | assert bexp;
      | halt;
      | if (bexp) then {block}
      | if (bexp) then {block} else {block}
      | while (bexp) {block}
exp → sexp | iexp
bexp → sexp = sexp
      | match(sexp, sexp)
      | contains(sexp, sexp)
      | begins(sexp, sexp)
      | ends(sexp, sexp)
      | iexp = iexp | iexp < iexp | iexp > iexp
      | bexp ∧ bexp | bexp ∨ bexp | ¬bexp
iexp → v | n | iexp + iexp | iexp − iexp
      | length(sexp)
      | indexof(sexp, sexp)
sexp → v | "c" | sexp.sexp | sexp* | sexp|sexp
      | replace(sexp, sexp, sexp)
      | substring(sexp, iexp, iexp)
      | charat(sexp, iexp)
      | reverse(sexp)
```

Semantics

$$\text{match}(s, r) \Leftrightarrow s \in \mathcal{L}(r)$$

$$\text{contains}(s, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_1, s_2 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_1 t s_2$$

$$\text{begins}(s, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_1 \in \Sigma^* : s = t s_1$$

$$\text{ends}(s, t) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_1 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_1 t$$

Semantics

$$t = \text{substring}(s, i, j) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_1, s_2 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_1 t s_2 \wedge |s_1| = i \wedge |t| = j - i$$

$$t = \text{charat}(s, i) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n \in \Sigma : s = s_0 s_1 \dots s_n \wedge 0 \leq i \leq n \wedge t = s_i$$

$$t = \text{reverse}(s) \Leftrightarrow \exists s_0, s_1, \dots, s_i \in \Sigma : s = s_0 s_1 \dots s_i \wedge t = s_i \dots s_1 s_0$$

Semantics

$$(\text{length}(s) = 0 \Leftrightarrow s = \epsilon) \wedge (\text{length}(s) = n \Leftrightarrow \exists c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n \in \Sigma : s = c_1 c_2 \dots c_n)$$

$$(\text{indexof}(s, t) = -1 \Leftrightarrow \neg \text{contains}(s, t)) \wedge$$

$$(\text{indexof}(s, t) = n \Leftrightarrow (\exists s_1, s_2 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_1 t s_2 \wedge |s_1| = n) \\ \wedge (\forall i < n : \neg(\exists s_1, s_2 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_1 t s_2 \wedge |s_1| = i)))$$

Semantics

$$\begin{aligned} r = \text{replace}(s, p, t) \Leftrightarrow & ((\neg \text{contains}(s, p) \wedge r = s) \vee \\ & (\exists s_3, s_4, s_5 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_3 p s_4 \wedge r = s_3 t s_5 \wedge s_5 = \text{replace}(s_4, p, t) \wedge \\ & (\forall s_6, s_7 \in \Sigma^* : s = s_6 p s_7 \Rightarrow |s_6| \geq |s_3|))) \end{aligned}$$

Semantics of a string program

- Semantics of a string program can be defined as a transition system
- A **transition system** $T = (S, I, R)$ consists of
 - a set of states S
 - a set of initial states $I \subseteq S$
 - and a transition relation $R \subseteq S \times S$

Semantics of a string program

- Let L denote the labels of program statements, and assume n string and m integer variables, then the set of states of the string program can be defined as:

$$S = L \times (\Sigma^*)^n \times (\mathbb{Z})^m$$

and the initial state is (where l_1 is the label of the first statement):

$$I = \{\langle l_1, \epsilon, \dots, \epsilon, 0, \dots, 0 \rangle\}$$

Semantics of a string program

- Given a statement labeled l , its transition relation can be defined as a set of tuples:

$$r_l \subseteq S \times S$$

where $(s_1, s_2) \in r_l$

means that executing statement l in state s_1 results in state in s_2

- Then, the transition relation of the whole program can be defined as:

$$R = \bigcup_{l \in L} r_l$$

Post condition function

- Using the transition relation, we can define the post condition function that identifies, given a state which state the program will transition.

$$s_2 = \text{POST}(s_1, l) \Leftrightarrow (s_1, s_2) \in r_l$$

$$s_2 = \text{POST}(s_1) \Leftrightarrow \exists l \in L : s_2 = \text{POST}(s_1, r_l)$$

$$s_2 = \text{POST}(s_1) \Leftrightarrow (s_1, s_2) \in R$$

Computing reachable states

- The set of states that are reachable from the initial states of the program can be defined as:

$$RS = \{s \mid \exists s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n : \forall i < n : (s_i, s_{i+1}) \in R \wedge s_0 \in I \wedge s_n = s\}$$

- Reachable states can be computed using a simple depth-first-search

Computing reachable states with DFS

Algorithm 1 REACHABILITYDFS

```
1:  $Stack := I$ ;  
2:  $RS := I$ ;  
3: while  $Stack \neq \emptyset$  do  
4:    $s := \text{POP}(Stack)$ ;  
5:    $s' := \text{POST}(s)$ ;  
6:   if  $s' \notin RS$  then  
7:      $RS := RS \cup \{s'\}$ ;  
8:      $\text{PUSH}(Stack, s')$ ;  
9:   end if  
10: end while  
11: return  $RS$ ;
```

Pre-condition function

$$s_2 \in \text{PRE}(s_1, l) \Leftrightarrow (s_2, s_1) \in r_l$$

$$s_2 \in \text{PRE}(s_1) \Leftrightarrow \exists l \in L : s_2 \in \text{PRE}(s_1, r_l)$$

$$s_2 \in \text{PRE}(s_1) \Leftrightarrow (s_2, s_1) \in R$$

Backward reachability using DFS

Algorithm 2 BACKWARDREACHABILITYDFS(P)

```
1:  $Stack := P$ ;  
2:  $BRS := P$ ;  
3: while  $Stack \neq \emptyset$  do  
4:    $s := POP(Stack)$ ;  
5:   for  $s' \in PRE(s)$  do  
6:     if  $s' \notin BRS$  then  
7:        $BRS := BRS \cup \{s'\}$ ;  
8:        $PUSH(Stack, s')$ ;  
9:     end if  
10:  end for  
11: end while  
12: return  $BRS$ ;
```

Explicit vs. Symbolic reachability analysis

- The DFS algorithms that we showed work on one state at a time. This is called explicit state (or enumerative, or concrete) reachability analysis
- It is not feasible to enumerate each state since state space of a program is exponential in the number of variables
- Symbolic reachability analysis works on sets of states, rather than a single state at a time
- We need to generalize pre and post condition functions so that they work on sets of states

Post and pre condition

$$\text{POST}(P, l) = \{s \mid \exists s' \in P : (s', s) \in r_l\}$$

$$\text{POST}(P) = \{s \mid \exists s' \in P : (s', s) \in R\}$$

$$\text{PRE}(P, l) = \{s \mid \exists s' \in P : (s, s') \in r_l\}$$

$$\text{PRE}(P) = \{s \mid \exists s' \in P : (s, s') \in R\}$$

Symbolic Reachability Analysis

Algorithm 3 REACHABILITYFIXPOINT

```
1:  $RS := I$ ;  
2: repeat  
3:    $RS' := RS$ ;  
4:    $RS := RS \cup \text{POST}(RS)$ ;  
5: until  $RS = RS'$   
6: return  $RS$ ;
```

Algorithm 4 BACKWARDREACHABILITYFIXPOINT(P)

```
1:  $BRS := P$ ;  
2: repeat  
3:    $BRS' := BRS$ ;  
4:    $BRS := BRS \cup \text{PRE}(BRS)$ ;  
5: until  $BRS = BRS'$   
6: return  $BRS$ ;
```

Reachability and fixpoints

- We will demonstrate that reachability analysis corresponds to computing the least fixpoint of a function.
- In order to do that we need to introduce the concept of a lattice

Pre and post condition functions on sets of states

- Given a transition system $T=(S, I, R)$, we define functions from sets of states to sets of states
 - $\mathcal{F} : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$
- For example, one such function is the post function (which computes the post-condition of a set of states)
 - $\text{post} : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$
 - which can be defined as (where $P \subseteq S$):
$$\text{Post}(P) = \{ s' \mid (s, s') \in R \text{ and } s \in P \}$$
- We can similarly define the pre function (which computes the pre-condition of a set of states)
 - $\text{pre} : 2^S \rightarrow 2^S$
 - which can be defined as:
$$\text{Pre}(P) = \{ s \mid (s, s') \in R \text{ and } s' \in P \}$$

Lattices

The set of states of the transition system forms a lattice:

- lattice 2^S
- partial order \subseteq
- bottom element \emptyset (alternative notation: \perp)
- top element S (alternative notation: \top)
- Least upper bound (lub) \cup
(aka join) operator
- Greatest lower bound (glb) \cap
(aka meet) operator

Lattices

In general, a lattice is a partially ordered set with a least upper bound operation and a greatest lower bound operation.

- Least upper bound $a \cup b$ is the smallest element where
 $a \subseteq a \cup b$ and $b \subseteq a \cup b$
- Greatest lower bound $a \cap b$ is the biggest element where
 $a \cap b \subseteq a$ and $a \cap b \subseteq b$

A partial order is a

- reflexive (for all x , $x \subseteq x$),
- transitive (for all x, y, z , $x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq z \Rightarrow x \subseteq z$), and
- antisymmetric (for all x, y , $x \subseteq y \wedge y \subseteq x \Rightarrow x = y$)

relation.

Complete Lattices

2^S forms a lattice with the partial order defined as the subset-or-equal relation and the least upper bound operation defined as the set union and the greatest lower bound operation defined as the set intersection.

In fact, $(2^S, \subseteq, \emptyset, S, \cup, \cap)$ is a complete lattice since for each set of elements from this lattice there is a least upper bound and a greatest lower bound.

Also, note that the top and bottom elements can be defined as:

$$\perp = \emptyset = \cap \{ y \mid y \in 2^S \}$$

$$\top = S = \cup \{ y \mid y \in 2^S \}$$

This definition is valid for any complete lattice.

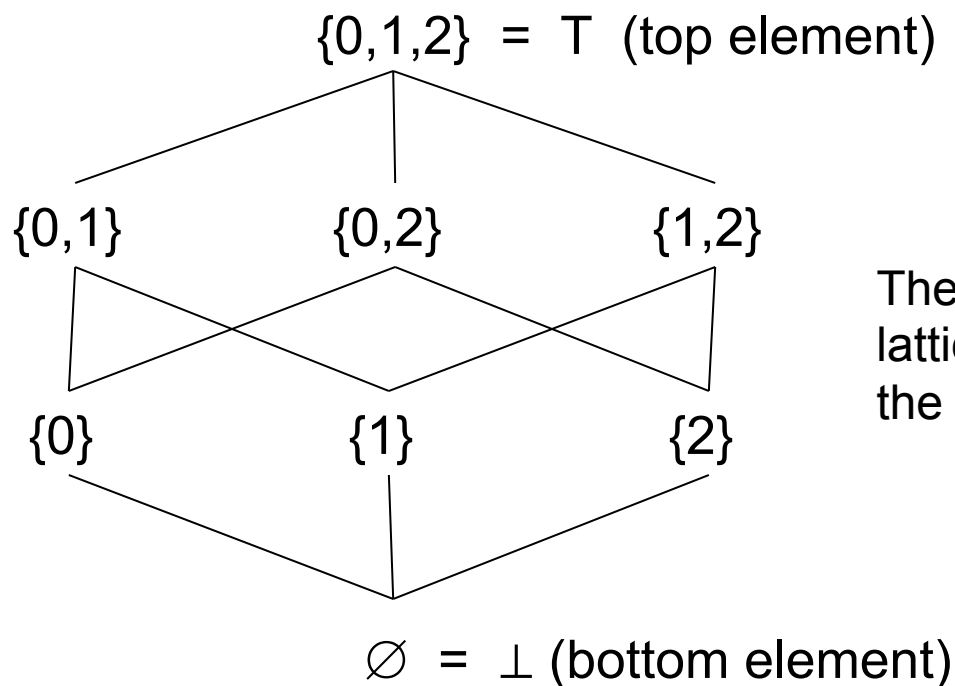
An Example Lattice

$\{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{1,2\}, \{0,1,2\}\}$

partial order: \subseteq (subset relation)

bottom element: $\emptyset = \perp$ top element: $\{0,1,2\} = T$

lub: \cup (union) glb: \cap (intersection)



The Hasse diagram for the example lattice (shows the transitive reduction of the corresponding partial order relation)

What is a Fixpoint (aka, Fixed Point)

Given a function

$$\mathcal{F} : D \rightarrow D$$

$x \in D$ is a fixpoint of \mathcal{F} if and only if $\mathcal{F}(x) = x$

Reachability

Let $RS(I)$ denote the set of states reachable from the initial states I of the transition system $T = (S, I, R)$

In general, given a set of states $P \subseteq S$, we can define the reachability function as follows:

$$RS(P) = \{s_n \mid s_n \in P, \text{ or there exists } s_0s_1\dots s_n \in S, \\ \text{where for all } 0 \leq i < n \ (s_i, s_{i+1}) \in R, \text{ and } s_0 \in P \}$$

We can also define the backward reachability function BRS as follows:

$$BRS(P) = \{s_0 \mid s_0 \in P, \text{ or there exists } s_0s_1\dots s_n \in S, \\ \text{where for all } 0 \leq i < n \ (s_i, s_{i+1}) \in R, \text{ and } s_n \in P \}$$

Reachability \equiv Fixpoints

Here is an interesting property

$$RS(P) = P \cup \text{post}(RS(P))$$

we observe that $RS(P)$ is a fixpoint of the following function:

$$\mathcal{F} y = P \cup \text{post}(y) \text{ (we can also write it as } \lambda y . P \cup \text{post}(y)\text{)}$$

$$\mathcal{F} (RS(P)) = RS(P)$$

In fact, $RS(P)$ is the least fixpoint of \mathcal{F} , which is written as:

$$RS(P) = \mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \mu y . P \cup \text{post}(y)$$

(μ means least fixpoint)

Reachability \equiv Fixpoints

We have the same property for backward reachability

$$\text{BRS}(P) = P \cup \text{pre}(\text{RS}(P))$$

i.e., $\text{BRS}(P)$ is a fixpoint of the following function:

$$\mathcal{F} y = P \cup \text{pre}(y) \text{ (we can also write it as } \lambda y . P \cup \text{pre}(y)\text{)}$$

$$\mathcal{F} (\text{RS}(P)) = \text{RS}(P)$$

In fact, $\text{BRS}(P)$ is the least fixpoint of \mathcal{F} , which is written as:

$$\text{BRS}(P) = \mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \mu y . P \cup \text{pre}(y)$$

$$RS(P) = \mu y . P \cup RS(y)$$

- Let's prove this.
- First we have the equivalence $RS(P) = P \cup \text{post}(RS(P))$
 - Why? Because according to the definition of $RS(P)$, a state is in $RS(P)$ if that state is in P , or if that state has a previous state which is in $RS(P)$.
 - From this equivalence we know that $RS(P)$ is a fixpoint of the function $\lambda y . P \cup \text{post}(y)$ and since the least fixpoint is the smallest fixpoint we have:

$$\mu y . P \cup \text{post}(y) \subseteq RS(P)$$

$$RS(P) = \mu y . P \cup RS(y)$$

- Next we need to prove that $RS(P) \subseteq \mu y . P \cup RS(y)$ to complete the proof.
- Suppose z is a fixpoint of $\lambda y . P \cup RS(y)$, then we know that $z = P \cup RS(z)$ which means that $RS(z) \subseteq z$ and this means that no state that is reachable from z is outside of z .
- Since we also have $P \subseteq z$, any path that is reachable from P must be in z .

Hence, we can conclude that $RS(P) \subseteq z$.

Since we showed that $RS(P)$ is contained in any fixpoint of the function $\lambda y . P \cup RS(y)$, we get

$$RS(P) \subseteq \mu y . P \cup RS(y)$$

which completes the proof.

Monotonicity

- Function \mathcal{F} is monotonic if and only if, for any x and y ,
 $x \subseteq y \Rightarrow \mathcal{F} x \subseteq \mathcal{F} y$

Note that,

$\lambda y . P \cup \text{post}(y)$

$\lambda y . P \cup \text{pre}(y)$

are monotonic.

For both these functions, if you give a bigger y as input you will get a bigger result as output.

Monotonicity

- One can define non-monotonic functions:

For example: $\lambda y . P \cup \text{post}(S - y)$

This function is not monotonic. If you give a bigger y as input you will get a smaller result.

- For the functions that are non-monotonic the fixpoint computation techniques we are going to discuss will not work. For such functions a fixpoint may not even exist.
- The functions we defined for reachability are monotonic because we are applying monotonic operations (like post and \cup) to the input variable y .
- Set complement – is not monotonic. However, if you have an even number of negations in front of the input variable y , then you will get a monotonic function.

Least Fixpoint

Given a monotonic function \mathcal{F} , its least fixpoint exists, and it is the greatest lower bound (glb) of all the reductive elements :

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \bigcap \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$$

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \cap \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$$

- Let's prove this property.
- Let us define z as $z = \cap \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$

We will first show that z is a fixpoint of \mathcal{F} and then we will show that it is the least fixpoint which will complete the proof.

- Based on the definition of z , we know that:

for any y , $\mathcal{F} y \subseteq y$, we have $z \subseteq y$.

Since \mathcal{F} is monotonic, $z \subseteq y \Rightarrow \mathcal{F} z \subseteq \mathcal{F} y$.

But since $\mathcal{F} y \subseteq y$, then $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq y$.

I.e., for all y , $\mathcal{F} y \subseteq y$, we have $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq y$.

This implies that, $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq \cap \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$,

and based on the definition of z , we get $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq z$

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \cap \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$$

- Since \mathcal{F} is monotonic and since $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq z$, we have $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{F} z) \subseteq \mathcal{F} z$ which means that $\mathcal{F} z \in \{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$.
Then by definition of z we get, $z \subseteq \mathcal{F} z$
- Since we showed that $\mathcal{F} z \subseteq z$ and $z \subseteq \mathcal{F} z$, we conclude that $\mathcal{F} z = z$, i.e., z is a fixpoint of the function \mathcal{F} .
- For any fixpoint of \mathcal{F} we have $\mathcal{F} y = y$ which implies $\mathcal{F} y \subseteq y$
So any fixpoint of \mathcal{F} is a member of the set $\{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$ and z is smaller than any member of the set $\{ y \mid \mathcal{F} y \subseteq y \}$ since it is the greatest lower bound of all the elements in that set.
Hence, z is the least fixpoint of \mathcal{F} .

Computing the Least Fixpoint

The least fixpoint $\mu y . \mathcal{F} y$ is the limit of the following sequence (assuming \mathcal{F} is \cup -continuous):

$$\emptyset, \mathcal{F} \emptyset, \mathcal{F}^2 \emptyset, \mathcal{F}^3 \emptyset, \dots$$

\mathcal{F} is \cup -continuous if and only if

$$p_1 \subseteq p_2 \subseteq p_3 \subseteq \dots \text{ implies that } \mathcal{F} (\cup_i p_i) = \cup_i \mathcal{F} (p_i)$$

If S is finite, then we can compute the least fixpoint using the sequence $\emptyset, \mathcal{F} \emptyset, \mathcal{F}^2 \emptyset, \mathcal{F}^3 \emptyset, \dots$. This sequence is guaranteed to converge if S is finite and it will converge to the least fixpoint.

Computing the Least Fixpoint

Given a monotonic and union continuous function \mathcal{F}

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i (\emptyset)$$

We can prove this as follows:

- First, we can show that for all i , $\mathcal{F}^i (\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$ using induction

for $i=0$, we have $\mathcal{F}^0 (\emptyset) = \emptyset \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$

Assuming $\mathcal{F}^i (\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$

and applying the function \mathcal{F} to both sides and using monotonicity of \mathcal{F} we get: $\mathcal{F} (\mathcal{F}^i (\emptyset)) \subseteq \mathcal{F} (\mu y . \mathcal{F} y)$

and since $\mu y . \mathcal{F} y$ is a fixpoint of \mathcal{F} we get:

$$\mathcal{F}^{i+1} (\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$$

which completes the induction.

Computing the Least Fixpoint

- So, we showed that for all i , $\mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$
- If we take the least upper bound of all the elements in the sequence $\mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)$ we get $\bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)$ and using above result, we have:

$$\bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$$

- Now, using union-continuity we can conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}(\bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)) &= \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)) = \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^{i+1}(\emptyset) \\ &= \emptyset \cup \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^{i+1}(\emptyset) = \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset) \end{aligned}$$

- So, we showed that $\bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)$ is a fixpoint of \mathcal{F} and $\bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$, then we conclude that $\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \bigcup_i \mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset)$

Computing the Least Fixpoint

If there exists a j , where $\mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset) = \mathcal{F}^{j+1}(\emptyset)$, then

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset)$$

- We have proved earlier that for all i , $\mathcal{F}^i(\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$
- If $\mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset) = \mathcal{F}^{j+1}(\emptyset)$, then $\mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset)$ is a fixpoint of \mathcal{F} and since we know that $\mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset) \subseteq \mu y . \mathcal{F} y$ then we conclude that

$$\mu y . \mathcal{F} y = \mathcal{F}^j(\emptyset)$$

RS(P) Fixpoint Computation

$RS(P) = \mu y . P \cup RS(y)$ is the limit of the sequence:

$\emptyset,$

$P \cup \text{post}(\emptyset),$

$P \cup \text{post}(P \cup \text{post}(\emptyset)) ,$

$P \cup \text{post}(P \cup \text{post}(P \cup \text{post}(\emptyset)))$

, ...

which is equivalent to

$\emptyset, P, P \cup \text{post}(P) , P \cup \text{post}(P \cup \text{post}(P)) , \dots$

RS(P) Fixpoint Computation

$RS(P) \equiv$ states that are reachable from $P \equiv P \cup \text{post}(P) \cup \text{post}(\text{post}(P)) \cup \dots$

