

Abstract Intent Machines

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Abstract

This paper outlines the abstract mathematical structures that formalize intents and the machines that process them. We provide a hierarchy of progressively more specific structures with the goal of capturing the concept of an abstract intent machine at different levels of abstraction and use these insights to understand different methods for composing/combining/-coordinating these machines.

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Contents

1	Introduction	1
2	Intent Machines as Coalgebras	2
2.1	Intents Discussion	4
2.2	Decomposition	5
2.3	Reputation Discussion	5
2.4	Example: Number Machine	5
3	Barter Exchange preliminaries	8
3.1	Introduction	8
3.2	Resource Model	8
3.3	Bids	9
3.4	Bids implemented by transactions	9
3.5	Bid \Leftrightarrow Intent correspondence	9
3.5.1	Bid examples	9
3.5.2	Bid composition	9
3.6	Roles	9
4	Bid Machines	10
4.1	Auction computed on the controller	10
4.1.1	Controller dependent Bid Machine \Leftrightarrow Intent Machine correspondence	11
4.2	Auctions computed independently of the controller	12
4.2.1	Controller independent Bid Machines \Leftrightarrow Intent Machine correspondence	13
4.3	Composition of Bid Machines	13
4.3.1	Sequential composition	13
4.3.2	Parallel composition	13
5	Appendix	14
5.1	Proof that \mathcal{M} is a monad	14
6	Acknowledgements	15
	References	15

1. Introduction

This paper introduces the notion of an “intent machine” by starting with a maximally abstract definition and progressing to more concrete special cases. This section does not assume what an intent is. This allows later instantiation of intents as a variety of different things. Later in this report, intents will be instantiated as logical formulas that the state must satisfy, and later intents will be instantiated as bids in an auction. There is not necessarily a shared structure behind these instantiations, so this section will treat intents as merely an element of some set that our machine processes at each step. The goal of this section is not to formalize intents, but, rather, the processing of intents. The most abstract version, which we call a batch machine, takes a state, which is just the element of some

set, S , and waits for an input batch B (intuitively, a batch of *intents*) for further processing. The guiding example for a state is that it should contain the total information describing a network in a single instant, though the goal of this section is to treat the subject more abstractly and we will not need to assume any structure on the state for now. Once it receives the batch, it then nondeterministically outputs a new state, along with an output batch produced from the old batch. The prototype instance assumes the output batch is a subset of the input batch that was actually processed, though this is not the case in general. Exactly what batches will be and how they should be processed is not enforced by the most general definition, but it will be enforced by special cases and used as a guiding intuition for the general case.

2. Intent Machines as Coalgebras

We begin with a maximally abstracted view of intent machines as a kind of coalgebra (Jacobs, 2017). We characterize them by their transition function, which will be a coalgebra over the monad \mathcal{M} in [1], parameterized by some notion N of nondeterminism, and a set B of intent batches. If S represents the machine state, we define \mathcal{M} as

$$\mathcal{M}_B^N(S) := (N(S \times B))^B. \quad [1]$$

Any function of type $S \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_B^N(S)$ for a fixed S is a transition function and coalgebra over \mathcal{M}_B^N . \mathcal{M} will denote \mathcal{M}_B^N , wherever N and B are clear from context. The join operation for the monad \mathcal{M} is denoted by $\mu_{\mathcal{M}}$. That \mathcal{M} is a monad is shown in Section 5.1. Other than the standard properties of a monad, we only assume that there is an additional parametrically polymorphic function (Pierce, 2002) called “sample” of type $\forall \alpha. N(\alpha) \rightarrow \alpha$. This function implements a sampling procedure whose details we will not specify.

A machine, itself, is a pair consisting of a current state and a transition function. This is not a full intent machine, so we will call it a “batch machine”, and we will see that full intent machines are a special case of batch machines. Batch machines are themselves variants of Mealy machines (Bonsangue et al., 2008) where we’ve added nondeterminism and forced the inputs and outputs to be the same set, B .

One may wonder why we do not bundle the batch and the state, as we may rewrite the transition function type as the isomorphic $S \times B \rightarrow N(S \times B)$, now a coalgebra over N . This would be an incorrect interpretation, however, as the output batch is not fed back into the machine at each time step, only the state is. That is, given a batch machine, (s, m) , and a stream of batches, $bs : \text{Stream } B$, we may run the machine, producing another stream of batches as an output defined by the following corecursive equation:

$$\text{eval } m \text{ } s \text{ } bs : \text{Stream } B := \text{let } x : S \times B = \text{sample } (m \text{ } s \text{ } (\text{head } bs)) \text{ in } \pi_2 \text{ } x :: \text{eval } m \text{ } (\pi_1 \text{ } x) \text{ } (\text{tail } bs) \quad [2]$$

Where $\pi_1 : A \times B \rightarrow A$ and $\pi_2 : A \times B \rightarrow B$ are the projection functions out of a product.

With this level of abstraction, we may start characterizing the most generic notions of composition. The most obvious stems from the observations that coalgebras over a monad are arrows in a Klesli category, giving rise to a sequential notion of composition, the “Klesli composition” of two machine transition functions. Given two transition functions, m_1 and m_2 of type $S \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(S)$, we may define this notion of composition as follows;

$$m_1 \circ_{\text{Kleisli}} m_2 := \mu_{\mathcal{M}} \circ \mathcal{M}(m_1) \circ m_2 \quad [3]$$

diagrammatically

$$S \xrightarrow{m_2} \mathcal{M}(S) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{M}(m_1)} \mathcal{M}^2(S) \xrightarrow{\mu_{\mathcal{M}, S}} \mathcal{M}(S)$$

Where μ is the multiplication operation of the monad. In practice, what this will do is evaluate the input state on m_2 send the output batch to m_1 . This essentially defines a basic notion of sequential composition. The output will be the output of m_1 .

This notion of composition will be unsatisfactory in general due to the output batch of m_2 being thrown away. In general, we may provide a function to combine output batches, $u : B \times B \rightarrow B$, and generalize Kleisli composition as:

$$m_1 \circ_u m_2 := \lambda s \text{ } b. \mu_N(N(\lambda s_1 \text{ } b_1. N(\lambda s_2 \text{ } b_2. (s_2, u \text{ } b_1 \text{ } b_2))(m_1 \text{ } s_1 \text{ } b_1))(m_2 \text{ } s \text{ } b)) \quad [4]$$

In practice, u will typically be the union of two sets.

We may generalize this further. If we introduce a function that processes batches based on an output batch, $f : B \times B \rightarrow B$, then we can update the input batch to m_1 instead of giving it a raw copy.

$$m_1 \circ_u^f m_2 := \lambda s \text{ } b. \mu_N(N(\lambda s_1 \text{ } b_1. N(\lambda s_2 \text{ } b_2. (s_2, u \text{ } b_1 \text{ } b_2))(m_1 \text{ } s_1 \text{ } (f \text{ } b \text{ } b_1)))(m_2 \text{ } s \text{ } b)) \quad [5]$$

A typical use case might have f be something like a filtering function, such as the set difference operation. This would allow the second machine to receive only those intents that were not processed by the first machine.

These compositions still enforce a notion of sequential compositionality. Application-wise, we may think of both machines collaborating on the same batch of intents. m_2 does what it can to satisfy the batch, it then updates the state and m_1 does its best to satisfy the same batch given the state change m_2 made. An example where this might be useful is if we have a machine that ignores batches and performs some bureaucratic function, such as flipping a

bit within the state. If we have another machine whose behavior varies based on this bit but does not change it, then Klesli composing the bureaucrat machine with the bit-sensitive machine will create a machine that flips between the two modes of the bit-sensitive machine at each step. Another use case may occur if the batches can be split into two sub-batches, $B \cong B_1 \times B_2$. If we have two machines, one that only works on the B_1 part and another that only works on the B_2 part, then we can use Klesli composition to create a machine that works on the whole B .

We may also combine the underlying states of two machines for a notion of parallel composition. If we have $m_1 : S_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(S_1)$ and $m_2 : S_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(S_2)$, then we can define $m_1 \times_u m_2 : S_1 \times S_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(S_1 \times S_2)$ as

$$m_1 \times_u m_2 := \lambda(s_1, s_2) b. \mu_N(N(\lambda(s'_1, b_1). N(\lambda(s'_2, b_2). (s'_1, s'_2, u b_1 b_2)) (m_2 s_2 b)) (m_1 s_1 b))) \quad [6]$$

While we may not want to enforce a sequential nature to the composition, we may provide separate filtering functions to herd different parts of the batches to different machines. Assuming we have $f_1 : B \rightarrow B_1$ and $f_2 : B \rightarrow B_2$, and further generalize the previous types to $m_1 : S_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_{B_1}^N(S_1)$, $m_2 : S_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_{B_2}^N(S_2)$, and $u : B_1 \times B_2 \rightarrow B$, we may define;

$$m_1 \times_u^{f_1, f_2} m_2 := \lambda(s_1, s_2) b. \mu_N(N(\lambda(s'_1, b_1). N(\lambda(s'_2, b_2). (s'_1, s'_2, u b_1 b_2)) (m_2 s_2 (f_2 b))) (m_1 s_1 (f_1 b))) \quad [7]$$

We may provide a similar composition in the case of coproducts. We may define $m_1 + m_2 : S_1 + S_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}(S_1 + S_2)$ as

$$m_1 + m_2 := [\mathcal{M}(\iota_1) \circ m_1, \mathcal{M}(\iota_2) \circ m_2] \quad [8]$$

where

$$f : X \rightarrow Z, g : Y \rightarrow Z \vdash [f, g] : X + Y \rightarrow Z \quad [9]$$

is the universal property of the coproduct, and $\iota_1 : X \rightarrow X + Y$ and $\iota_2 : Y \rightarrow X + Y$ are the injections/constructors of the coproduct. This form of composition will switch between different machines depending on the form of the context. If \mathbb{B} denotes the type of booleans, then, note that $\mathbb{B} \times S \cong S + S$. Therefore, switching between different machines based on a single bit is a special case of this kind of composition. Since only one machine can run in a given transition, there's no ambiguity or flexibility in terms of handling batch inputs/outputs. However, if there is some way to filter batches B into two different types of batches with $f_1 : B \rightarrow B_1$ and $f_2 : B \rightarrow B_2$, and we can cast batches back into B with $c_1 : B_1 \rightarrow B$ and $c_2 : B_2 \rightarrow B$, then we can use these to split the batches between the different machines with.

$$m_1 +_{c_1, c_2}^{f_1, f_2} m_2 := [\lambda s. N(- \times -)(\iota_1, c_1) \circ m_1(s) \circ f_1, \lambda s. N(- \times -)(\iota_2, c_2) \circ m_2(s) \circ f_2] \quad [10]$$

Where $N(- \times -)$ is a somewhat abusive notation for the bi-functor map turning a pair of functions $A \rightarrow C$ and $B \rightarrow D$ into a function $N(A \times B) \rightarrow N(C \times D)$.

We may ask what it means for two machines to be equivalent. This can be done by relating transition functions to final coalgebras. Given the greatest fixed point of \mathcal{M} , $G_{\mathcal{M}} := \nu X. (N(X \times B))^B$, the final coalgebra is the (isomorphism) coalgebra $\text{fix} : G_{\mathcal{M}} \rightarrow (N(G_{\mathcal{M}} \times B))^B$. What makes it final is the existence of, for any other coalgebra c over the state S , a unique function $\text{beh}_c : S \rightarrow G_{\mathcal{M}}$ identified by the coalgebra homomorphism property;

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \xrightarrow{\text{beh}_c} & G_{\mathcal{M}} \\ c \downarrow & & \downarrow \text{fix} \\ \mathcal{M}(S) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{M}(\text{beh}_c)} & \mathcal{M}(G_{\mathcal{M}}) \end{array} \quad [11]$$

$G_{\mathcal{M}}$ represents the full, branching future history of a machine. It includes all points of interaction, all inputs, all outputs, and all layers of nondeterminism as a single, essentially infinite data structure. It includes exactly and only the observable aspects of a machine's execution. We may use it to define a natural notion of observational equivalence through the notion of behavioral equivalence. That is, we will treat two machines, S_1, c_1 and S_2, c_2 , as "the same machine" if they produce the same behavior, if $\text{beh}_{c_1}(S_1) = \text{beh}_{c_2}(S_2)$.

We may further derive from any particular coalgebra a kind of modal logic (Kupke and Pattinson, 2011). These work by defining a logic of predicates over states. We may have a predicate P , and define, for example, $\Box P$ to mean that P will always hold for the future, $\Diamond P$ to mean that P will eventually hold, etc. Our particular coalgebra complicates this by being both a labeled transition system (due to the inputs at each step) and being probabilistic, though there are existing modal logic constructions for these cases. Such an approach is most useful for characterizing the behavior we want to guarantee about the machine. For example, consider a machine that takes payments per intent, and the size of these payments dictates the effort the machine puts into satisfying intents. Such a statement should be characterizable via an appropriate modal statement. We may be able to give precise probabilities about the likelihood of satisfying an intent depending on the methods used, the intent in question, and payment. The details will heavily depend on the specifics.

2.1. Intents Discussion. From here, we can make the definition more specific to clarify the specifics of an intent machine. We set batches to be sets of intents, $B = \mathcal{P}(I)$, the powerset of some type of intent, I . This does not tell us much without knowing what intents are.

We formulate intents as a pair consisting of a transition function and a partial weighted predicate over state transitions. The guiding intuition for this formulation is to separate control from desire. In the prototypical example of an intent, it will express a desire for some resource in exchange for another. The first component expresses a partial state transition where the intent may create/destroy what it has control over. This aids in composing intents. The second component expresses a kind of weighted predicate over transitions. If the transition satisfies the intent, then it returns an element between 0 and 1, representing a kind of utility.

$$I := (S \rightarrow S) \times (S \times S \rightarrow \star \cup [0, 1]) \quad [12]$$

where \star is a singleton set with one element, which we will also call \star . In the case that \star is returned, we consider the intent to be unsatisfied. This specifies the core structure of intents in so far as they are relevant to solving; that is to finding/optimizing transitions that actually satisfy intents. Note that this S should be the same S as the coalgebra is using in practice, although this is not a theoretical requirement. One may have trouble making useful transition function functions if this S differs from that in the coalgebra, and we will assume they are the same for the rest of this section.

The intuition is that the first function is a state transition the intent maker has control over. In a typical example of an intent where someone wants an A for a B, the intent maker has control over the B they want to trade. The transition function would simply delete the B the intent maker has from the state. The state is then unbalanced, giving leeway for changing resources to rebalance. The predicate expresses whether the intent is satisfied by any proposed transitions and, if it is, how satisfied the intent maker is.

We will typically have a solving component, $\text{solver} : S \times \mathcal{P}(I) \rightarrow N(S \times \mathcal{P}(I))$, attempting to find state transition functions that satisfy the intents. This will have the property that, for all $s : S$, $is : \mathcal{P}(I)$, and all s', is' in the support of $\text{solver}(s, is)$

1. $is' \subseteq is$,
2. $\forall i \in is'. \pi_2 i s s' \neq \star$.

This guarantees that any returned transition will satisfy the set of intents the solver claims to be solving.

One question that emerges is the nature of intent composition. The goal of intent composition is to, in some way, simplify a collection of intents into a single intent. The main example is a situation where we have two intents, one expressing a want for a B in exchange for a C, and the other expressing a want for an A in exchange for a B. Between these, we have an A and a B, and we need a C to complete the exchange. If we commit to making this trade, then we can fuse these into a single intent of the form "wants an A for a C". With this understanding in mind, we can motivate compositions.

The transition functions of the intents can be composed directly as functions. The net function will involve both agents executing whatever they have control over.

Composing the predicate requires more thought. We must make a new predicate representing the desires of both intents. We may characterize all relevant notions of composition through a choice of a function $f : (\star \cup [0, 1])^n \rightarrow \star \cup [0, 1]$. We may desire to split this function into a function that handles the \star cases, and a function $f : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$. This is not possible in general, but for many approaches this makes sense. It requires the binary function to cleanly generalize to n-ary versions. This works so long as the operation is associative. There are, ultimately, two canonical ways to handle the \star s. We may always return a \star so long as a single one is present, or we may return a \star only when there is no other option. The former is the obvious choice, as we want the composition to be dissatisfied if either of the composites are. As for the associative, normalization preserving operations, three non-trivial operations that may be considered commonplace are max, min, and multiplication.

Since composition is supposed to characterize a situation where the first party is already satisfied, whatever we choose should be equivalent to the predicate of the second party in the case that the first party is fully satisfied. This reduces the options to either multiplication or min. Further thought will be required to understand what things should be.

To summarize, we can define intent composition as

$$(t_1, p_1) \uparrow (t_2, p_2) := (t_1 \circ t_2, \lambda(s_i, s_o). \text{lift2M} \ast (p_1 (t_2 s_i, s_o)) (p_2 (t_1 s_i, s_o))) \quad [13]$$

We've issued transition functions to the states of each predicate's input state. Each already lives in their own post-execution state. This forces both to live in the same post-execution state.

This idealization may not work in practice. It may be better to have a representation, R , with which we can replace the second component of an intent with $S \rightarrow R$, which takes the current state and returns a proposition representation. We'd also have an evaluation function, $\text{eval} : R \rightarrow S \rightarrow \star \cup [0, 1]$, which takes a representation and a proposed state (filling in the variables of the proposition) and outputs a measure of satisfaction. Alternatively, we could assume that I is an abstract type, and simply assume the existence of a function $\text{compile} : I \rightarrow S \rightarrow R$. This is likely closer to what is needed in reality, as optimizing over black-box functions is not practically possible. We cannot,

for example, take a derivative, or some discrete analog, of a completely black-box function. This would limit us to unstructured optimization algorithms like evolutionary methods or stochastic search. In reality, we should always be able to reason about the stated preferences of the intent, which requires a first-order representation, rather than a black-box function. Such a representation would likely come in the form of an encoding for, for example, a weighted CSP.

2.2. Decomposition. We may ask when decomposition is possible. Generally, to facilitate decomposition in a semantically meaningful way, we need to know a thing or two about intents. Let's consider the case where the state space is decomposable into $S \cong S_1 \times S_2$. We would like to take a transition function of type $m : S \rightarrow N(S \times B)^B$ and turn it into two transition functions of type $m_1 : S_1 \rightarrow N(S_1 \times B_1)^{B_1}$ and $m_2 : S_2 \rightarrow N(S_2 \times B_2)^{B_2}$, respectively. This can be accomplished with two functions, $f_1 : B_1 \rightarrow B$ and $f_2 : B_2 \rightarrow B$, that cast batches for each machine. Additionally, we need functions $r_1 : B \rightarrow B_1$ and $r_2 : B \rightarrow B_2$ to get filter batches only from each machine; without these functions, the return batches of both machines would be the composite output batch. Using these, we'd have

$$m_1 := \lambda s. N(- \times -)(\pi_1, r_1) \circ m(s) \circ f_1 \quad [14]$$

$$m_2 := \lambda s. N(- \times -)(\pi_2, r_2) \circ m(s) \circ f_2 \quad [15]$$

The key question at this point is what f_1 and f_2 should be. Conceptually, they should split batches of intents into sets that care about the different parts of the state. That is, for every batch in the input history, it should be provable that;

$$B \cong \{i \mid \forall s_1, s'_1 \in S_1, s_{2a}, s'_{2a}, s_{2b}, s'_{2b} \in S_2. \pi_2 i((s_1, s_{2a}), (s'_1, s'_{2a})) = \pi_2 i((s_1, s_{2b}), (s'_1, s'_{2b}))\} \quad [16]$$

$$+ \{i \mid \forall s_{1a}, s'_{1a}, s_{1b}, s'_{1b} \in S_1, s_2, s'_2 \in S_2. \pi_2 i((s_{1a}, s_2), (s'_{1a}, s'_2)) = \pi_2 i((s_{1b}, s_2), (s'_{1b}, s'_2))\} \quad [17]$$

that is, each batch should be decomposable into a batch of intents that do not vary based on S_1 , and a batch of intents that do not vary based on S_2 . f_1 would then return the set of first things while f_2 would return the set of second things. This is necessary so that we may interpret each intent as either an intent over just S_1 or S_2 .

It, of course, may be easier to establish the existence of an m_1, m_2 , such that $m = m_1 \times m_2$, rather than decomposing m directly. This is likely the best way to approach decomposition using \circ and $+$ as well.

2.3. Reputation Discussion. For our purposes, a reputation system is a method to weigh different intents. This allows us to give more or less importance to some intents. If an intent has a higher weight, then this should influence the solver to spend more effort to satisfy the intent.

The simplest way to implement a reputation system is to simply assert the existence of a function $r : I \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. This can be used to scale the desire of each intent.

We may seek to verify certain properties of the reputation system. For example, to ensure one cannot gain priority by spamming intents, we may have a function $\text{id} : I \rightarrow A$, assigning an identity (the type of which I've just called A) to each intent. We may have a theorem stating something like

$$\forall a \in A. \forall s, s' \in S. \left(\sum_{i \mid \text{id}(i)=a \wedge \pi_2 i \ s \ s' \neq *} \pi_2 i \ s \ s' \right) \leq 1 \quad [18]$$

This ensures the most weight a single identity can cause is 1, no matter how many intents they spam. Such identity content is outside the scope of an intent machine, however.

2.4. Example: Number Machine. To clarify this formulation on an example, let's attempt to create an intent machine where the state is just a number, and the intents describe preferences for the transition between numbers.

For practical purposes, the state will necessarily be finite. We will assume that the number is an element of \mathbb{N} , that is, a natural number.

To keep it simple, we will assume we have the same four intents at each step, desiring:

1. The next state should be even.
2. The next state should be odd.
3. The next state should differ by 1 from the last.
4. The next state should be 1 or 2 greater than the last. If 2 greater, full score, if 1 greater, half score, if 0, no score.

So the input stream is just a set of these 4 intents, repeated forever.

We may formalize this as an ILP problem. To demonstrate this, we will use SCIP through Google OR-tools.

```
| from ortools.linear_solver import pywraplp
```

To make boolean variables correspond to our desired propositions, we will use the “Big M” method. For demo purposes, M does not need to be that large;

```
| M = 1000
```

The intents themselves can be formulated as functions that add constraints to the solver. In a more abstract setting, we may think of syntactic encodings of the constraints as R . For demo purposes, the constraints are added to the solver, and it's the booleans linked to the constraints that are returned. The scores are tied to the booleans themselves. We ensure that the total score of the booleans is between 0 and 1. This may not always be obvious as some booleans are exclusive and some are not. For this example, all booleans are exclusive, but, in general, such an encoding may be inefficient. The state, as a constant, is taken in as a constant argument, while a variable for the next state is taken as an argument so all the constraints can talk about the same next state.

```
def even_constraint(last_state, next_state_var, solver):
    n = solver.IntVar(0, solver.infinity(), 'n_even')
    b = solver.BoolVar('b_even')
    solver.Add(next_state_var - 2 * n ≤ M * (1 - b))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - 2 * n ≥ -M * (1 - b))
    return [(b, 1)]

def odd_constraint(last_state, next_state_var, solver):
    n = solver.IntVar(0, solver.infinity(), 'n_odd')
    b = solver.BoolVar('b_odd')
    solver.Add(next_state_var - 2 * n - 1 ≤ M * (1 - b))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - 2 * n - 1 ≥ -M * (1 - b))
    return [(b, 1)]

def two_changes_constraint(last_state, next_state_var, solver):
    b_2_greater = solver.BoolVar('b_2_greater')
    b_1_greater = solver.BoolVar('b_1_greater')
    b_no_change = solver.BoolVar('b_no_change')

    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 2) ≤ M * (1 - b_2_greater))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 2) ≥ -M * (1 - b_2_greater))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 1) ≤ M * (1 - b_1_greater))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 1) ≥ -M * (1 - b_1_greater))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - last_state ≤ M * (1 - b_no_change))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - last_state ≥ -M * (1 - b_no_change))

    return [(b_2_greater, 1), (b_1_greater, 0.5), (b_no_change, 0)]

def one_more_or_less_constraint(last_state, next_state_var, solver):
    b1 = solver.BoolVar('b_one_more')
    b2 = solver.BoolVar('b_one_less')

    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 1) ≤ M * (1 - b1))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state + 1) ≥ -M * (1 - b1))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state - 1) ≤ M * (1 - b2))
    solver.Add(next_state_var - (last_state - 1) ≥ -M * (1 - b2))

    return [(b1, 1), (b2, 1)]
```

These are close to the representation formulation involving R . Each takes, as an initial argument, `last_state`, and produces a representation of the proposition in the form of a Python function that takes a variable representing the next state and a solver, and it returns a list of variables along with its weight. The analog of R in these functions are the various statements added to solver. Due to the stateful nature of ortools, this cannot be made to look exactly like the ideal formulation, but hopefully, the connection is clear enough.

The machine itself has essentially the same formulation as the theory; being a function taking a state and a batch of intents, represented as a dictionary mapping constraint names to functions and weights. These weights, which do not appear in the abstract intent machine description, are the output of a hypothetical reputation system dictating how important each constraint is. These will all be 1 for this demo. Note that these are unrelated to the weights returned by the intents themselves. These intents are then called to modify the solver state to include the new constraints. The sum of the booleans scaled by weight is then used as an objective function, and a new state, along with a list of satisfied intents is returned. There's also a 30-second timeout, but the demo takes only microseconds.

```

def machine(state, constraints_dict):
    solver = pywraplp.Solver.CreateSolver('SCIP')
    if not solver:
        raise Exception('SCIP solver not available.')

    solver.SetTimeLimit(30000)

    next_state_var = solver.IntVar(0.0, solver.infinity(), 'next_state_var')

    objective = solver.Objective()
    objective.SetMaximization()

    bool_vars = {} # Dictionary to store solver boolean variables

    for name, (constraint_func, weight) in constraints_dict.items():
        for b, w in constraint_func(state, next_state_var, solver):
            bool_vars[b] = name # Store the constraint name
            objective.SetCoefficient(b, w * weight)

    status = solver.Solve()

    total_objective = objective.Value() # Get the total objective value

    satisfied_constraints = []

    if status in [pywraplp.Solver.OPTIMAL, pywraplp.Solver.FEASIBLE,
        ↪ pywraplp.Solver.ABNORMAL]:
        new_state = next_state_var.solution_value()
        for b in bool_vars.keys():
            if b.solution_value() > 0.5:
                satisfied_constraints.append(bool_vars[b]) # Get the constraint name
        return new_state, satisfied_constraints, total_objective
    else:
        return state, [], total_objective

```

as a usage example, we can put all our constraints into the batch;

```

constraints_dict = {
    'even': (even_constraint, 1),
    'odd': (odd_constraint, 1),
    'two_changes': (two_changes_constraint, 1),
    'one_more_or_less': (one_more_or_less_constraint, 1)
}

```

we can then run

```

new_state, satisfied, total_objective = machine(5.0, constraints_dict)
print(f"New state: {new_state}, Satisfied constraints: {satisfied}, Total Objective:
↪ {total_objective}")

```

getting the output

```

New state: 6.0, Satisfied constraints: ['even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'],
Total Objective: 2.4999999999999996

```

We may then implement a function to actually run the machine on a stream of batches;

```

def run_machine_in_sequence(initial_state, list_of_constraints_dicts):
    current_state = initial_state
    output_states = []
    all_satisfied_constraints = []

    for constraints_dict in list_of_constraints_dicts:
        new_state, satisfied_constraints, total_objective = machine(current_state,
            ↪ constraints_dict)
        output_states.append(new_state)

```



```

    all_satisfied_constraints.append((satisfied_constraints, total_objective))
    current_state = new_state # Update the current state for the next iteration

    return output_states, all_satisfied_constraints

```

This function will repeatedly stream batches from an input list and update the state accordingly. The history of states and satisfied constraints will then be outputted after the list of batches is exhausted. We can see the state evolves over time with

```
run_machine_in_sequence(0, [constraints_dict for x in range(10)] )
```

This is just going to repeat the batch with all 4 intents 10 times. It will output.

```

([1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0],
 [[('odd', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('odd', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('odd', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.4999999999999996),
  [('even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.4999999999999996),
  [('odd', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.5),
  [('odd', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.4999999999999996),
  [('even', 'two_changes', 'one_more_or_less'], 2.4999999999999996)])

```

It never seeks to satisfy the full “two-greater” constraint. Doing so would only gain 0.5 while losing 1 from not satisfying the one-more-or-less constraints. We can, at this point, create arbitrary streams of batches to get more interesting histories, if desired.

3. Barter Exchange preliminaries

3.1. Introduction. One of the goals of Anoma is to enable *barter*, where different users express their preferences for *resource* exchanges, discover counterparties, and execute these exchanges. We will now analyze how we can instantiate intent machines, or approximations thereof, which fulfill the requirements of a resource bartering system.

Before we introduce definitions of different *bid machines*, we first describe *barter double auctions*¹ for the Anoma Abstract Resource machine, which is the type of *barter exchange*² we want to implement.

Specifically in our setting, *agents* express *demands* and *offers* of Anoma *resource* bundles, which are specified by *predicates*, with *solvers* acting as *auctioneers*, matching demand and offer bundles of multiple agents according to a given *mechanism*.

3.2. Resource Model. Let us first introduce a simplified version of the Anoma resource model³ to lay out the objects of interest in the barter. This introduction is reduced to the features relevant to the characterization we wish to analyze here.

- The *set of all possible resources* R is induced by a specific hash function h , containing one resource per element of the codomain of h .
- Resources $r = (k, v, c)$ have the following relevant properties:
 - A *kind* k , which determines sufficient and necessary conditions for creation and consumption of resources of this kind in the form of predicates p over knowledge of resources in R and signatures, which depend on secret information in \mathbb{S} ; $p : \mathcal{P}(R) \times \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{S}) \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$.
 - A *value* v , which can contain arbitrary application data (e.g. a public key of a user controlling a particular resource).
 - A *controller* c , which denotes the controller responsible for this resource (a party who must sign over any creation or consumption of this resource in order for that change to be considered valid).
- *Resources* are the elements of the state S on which a bid machine operates. It consists of the set of created resources $S_+ \subseteq R$ and the set of consumed resources $S_- \subseteq R$ with $S_+ \cap S_- = \emptyset$ and $S = (S_+, S_-)$.
- A resource is added to S_+ by creating it, which is done by instantiating it as a data structure in a way which fulfills conditions stated in the resource kind. One of these requirements could be fulfilling the requirements to consume a resource of the same kind.

¹Tagiew (2009)

²For more background on (robust) barter exchange, see chapter 6 of Glorie (2014)

³Khalniyazova and Goes (2024)

- A resource is moved from S_+ to S_- by consuming it, which is done by fulfilling the requirements in the resource kind. Resources can only be consumed once, and they cannot be moved back to S_+ .
- A *transaction* implements a state transition by consuming and creating sets of resources $TX : S \rightarrow S$.

3.3. Bids. A *bid* is composed of a predicate $p : \mathcal{P}(R) \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$, ranging over bundles of resources, and a utility function $u : R \rightarrow [0, 1] \subset \mathbb{Q}$, for each demand (p_d, u_d) and offer (p_o, u_o) side, as well as a set of resources R_o which can be used to fulfill the offer predicate.⁴ They have the structure:

$$bid = (p_d, u_d, p_o, u_o, R_o) \quad [19]$$

3.4. Bids implemented by transactions. Every bid, p_d, p_o, R_o implies a set of (unbalanced) potential TX s, since only the offer side is given. A set of matching bids, b_i , is where the offer and demand sides of every b_i are met, implying a balanced TX , which can be directly derived from the bid set. Any balanced TX that contains independent subsets of matching bids can be decomposed into smaller TX s corresponding to the independent subsets of matching bids. These smaller independent transactions can all be executed in parallel. We call a set of balanced TX s derived from a set of matching bids a *barter exchange* BX .

3.5. Bid \Leftrightarrow Intent correspondence. The above is compatible with our definition for Intents I , [12], as follows:

- The set of TX s implied by p_d, p_o, R_o from a single *bid* is a transition function: $t : S \rightarrow S := s \mapsto s''$
- p_d, p_o imply a predicate $p = p_d \wedge p_o$ which rejects any transition which is incompatible with the above t : $p : S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$
- u_d, u_o give a weighting $w(x) = u_d(x) + u_o(x)$ (renormalized) for the state transitions compatible with t , not rejected by p : $w : S \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$

Putting them all together, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} bid &= (t, \lambda s. \text{ if } p(s) \text{ then } w(s) \text{ else } \star), \\ bid &: (S \rightarrow S) \times (S \times S \rightarrow \star \cup [0, 1]) \end{aligned} \quad [20]$$

3.5.1. Bid examples. The predicates on both sides can be used to specify offer/demand pairs of arbitrary bundles of resources, for example:

- Single resources on both sides
- Dependent bundles, e.g. if an agent wants a resource of kind A only if they can acquire one of kind B or C at the same time

The demand and offer predicate together specify a set of accepted state transitions, with the utility function ranking them. Outside of satisfying the predicates, the auction mechanism M executed by the auctioneer can be chosen freely.

3.5.2. Bid composition. Multiple bids can be composed into a single bid, for example like this:

$$bid_{1 \wedge 2} = ((p_{d1} \wedge p_{d2}), (u_{d1} + u_{d2}), (p_{o1} \wedge p_{o2}), (u_{o1} + u_{o2}), (R_{o1} \cup R_{o2})) \quad [21]$$

With $u_i + u_j \Rightarrow u_i(x) + u_j(x)$. More complex dependencies of bids can be expressed via predicates, e.g. "The offer from bid_1 is only valid if the demand from bid_2 is fulfilled in the same TX or BX ."

3.6. Roles. We also have the following roles:

- A group of *Agents*, which submit bids $b = \{bid_1, \dots, bid_n\}$ to an auctioneer.
- One or several *Auctioneers*⁵, which receive the bids containing offer and demand sides and select matching subsets of these, with the side constraint that offers and demands from a single bid must belong to the same subset, maximizing a given metric. From this, we derive a barter exchange BX and submit it to the controller for ordering. The auctioneer can submit BX containing a single TX as soon as a matching set of bids is found, or wait until it has processed it more or all of the batch of bids, submitting a larger BX .
- One⁶ *Controller*, which manages state and orders submitted BX candidates. Time is sliced by discrete *ticks*, during which BX candidates are arranged in a partial order, by order of submission to the controller, depending on some ordering mechanism. The end of the current tick and the beginning of the next is delineated by the executor performing a state update.

⁴If predicates and utility functions are not rolled into one, we gain flexibility: e.g., a user could state predicates that get satisfied, with the utility of the new state still being zero.

⁵these auctioneers act as solvers

⁶For now, we assume all resources share the same controller, so only a single one is used. In general, a controller is only responsible for the subset of state containing resources which reference it.

- One *Executor*, which executes candidate *BXs*. This is done by applying the state updates contained in the ones which are valid at execution time, as well as computing and publishing a cumulative state update. Details of this behavior are determined by an execution mechanism *E*.

4. Bid Machines

Let us now introduce two types of bid machines: a restricted one, which instantiates an intent machine directly, and a more general one, which does not. The case distinction we need to make depends on when and where the auctions are computed.

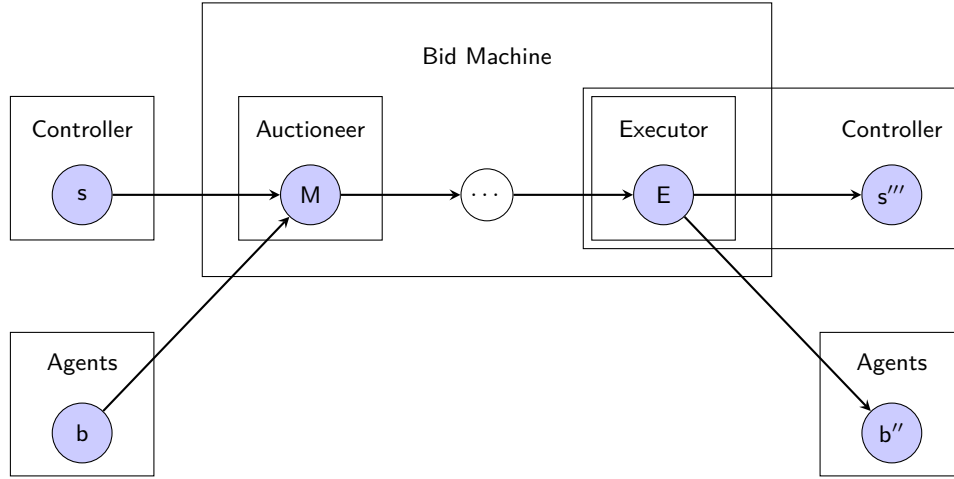


Fig. 1: External bid machine interface, internal decomposition details omitted.

We have the following objects:

- *s*, the state of the underlying resource machine prior to the auction
- *b*, a batch of bids by the agents
- *M*, the concrete auction mechanism which determines the selection of *b'*
- *b'*, the subset of bids chosen by an auctioneer
- *BX* a set of *TXs* derived from *b'*
- *s'*, the state after auction computation (only in controller-dependent case)
- *s''*, the state prior to execution
- *E*, the execution mechanism, which determines details of the state update, implemented by *BX*
- *s'''*, the new state after *s''* was updated by *E*
- *b''*, the subset of *b'* which was not taken into account when updating to the new state *s'''*, i.e. the bids contained in failed *TXs*

The **bid machine is defined by *M* and *E***, both of which are determined by governance from layers above.

M implements a bartering auction over bids, its specific parameters determining its properties, e.g., regarding robustness or the choice of metric to maximize. *E* implements an execution mechanism for barter exchanges, with its parameters determining how execution and selection between conflicting *BX* are handled. Both of the above can depend on reputation-tracking relationships between agents, auctioneers, and controllers.

4.1. Auction computed on the controller. Let us start with a restricted setting, in which the auction is computed on the controller, which means the auctioneer and executor have access to the current state of the system at all times.

In this setting, *M* and *E* each instantiate an intent machine on their own:

$$\begin{aligned} M(s, b) &= (s', \emptyset) \\ E(s'', \emptyset) &= (s''', b'') \end{aligned} \quad [22]$$

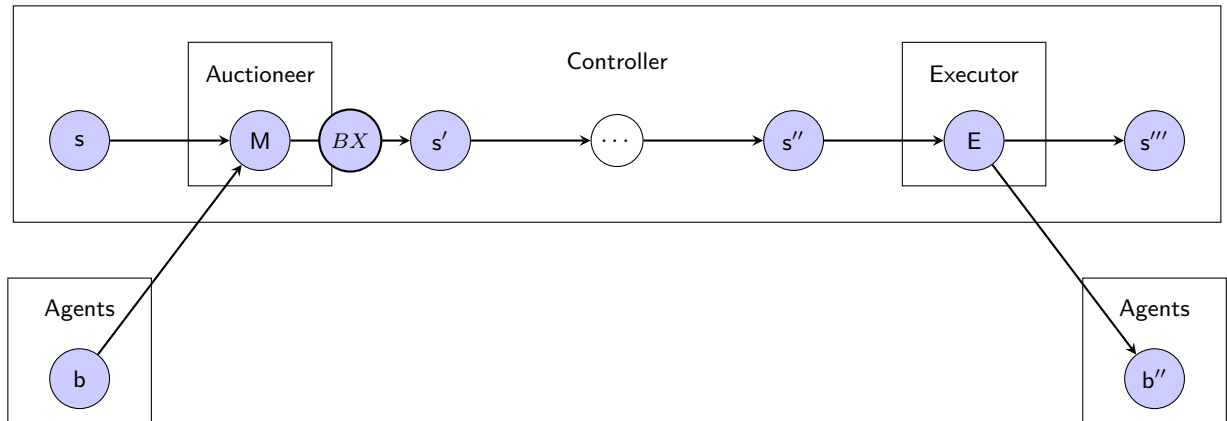


Fig. 2: Information flow in a controller-dependent Bid Machine.

4.1.1. Controller dependent Bid Machine \Leftrightarrow Intent Machine correspondence. To instantiate an intent machine according to our definition in [1], the composition needs to happen in the following way:

Auctioneer:

- reads b
- reads s
- computes matching b' , according to M
- adds b' to the state, not touching any other part of s
- outputs s' as computed above, and an empty batch

Executor:

- ignores its input batch
- reads the state s'' which includes b'
- deletes b' from the state
- executes according to E , updating the state to s'''
- outputs b'' , containing all bids which were not included in BX

Controller:

- only a single one exists
- implements the roles of auctioneer and executor
- If the computation of M and execution with E happen during the same tick, with M being computed at post-ordering time, then $s' = s''$. This is the recommended setup. If M is computed a previous tick, state might have changed for reasons outside of this bid machine between s' and s'' .

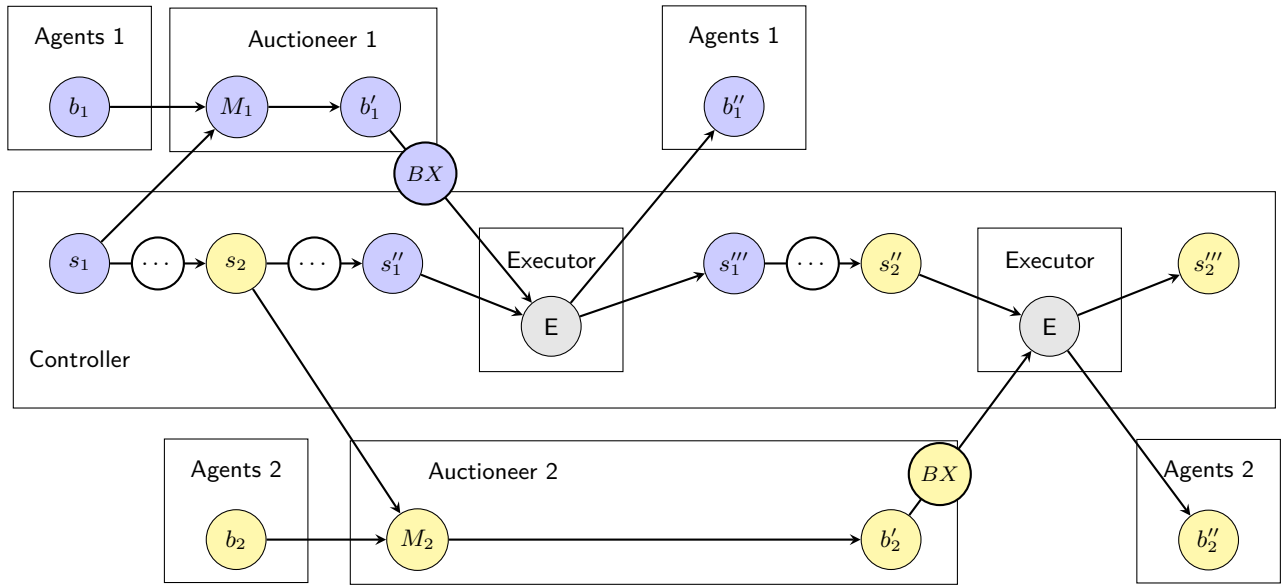


Fig. 3: Information flow of interleaved controller independent Bid Machines.

4.2. Auctions computed independently of the controller. In the given context, none of the entities M , E , or any individual bid machine instantiate an intent machine.

$$\begin{aligned} M(s, b) &= (\emptyset, b') \\ E(s'', b') &= (s''', b'') \end{aligned} \quad [23]$$

In Figure 3, we can see two off-controller auctions A_1 with $\{b_1, b'_1, b''_1, M_1, s_1, s'_1, s''_1, s'''_1\}$ and A_2 with $\{b_2, b'_2, b''_2, M_2, s_2, s'_2, s''_2, s'''_2\}$, sharing the same, single executor and E , which runs on a single controller⁷.

Auctioneers:

- read $b_{1,2}$
- read $s_{1,2}$
- compute matching $b'_{1,2}$, according to $M_{1,2}$
- output $b'_{1,2}$ including derived TXs as computed above and no state

Executor:

- reads $b'_{1,2}$
- reads the state $s'_{1,2}$
- orders any BXs derived from incoming bids including $b'_{1,2}$
- executes BX , according to E updating the state to $s'''_{1,2}$
- outputs $b''_{1,2}$, containing all bids which were not included in execution and $s'''_{1,2}$

Controller:

- only a single one exists
- implements the only executor
- at all points marked with \dots , arbitrary things can happen to the state due to other transactions being executed
- Interleaved operation is the most general case, but if $s'_1 = s'_2$ when b_1 and b_2 are submitted, both auctions happen during the same tick. Then b'_1 and b'_2 are both taken into account when ordering BXs . After execution $s'''_1 = s'''_2$.

⁷The roles of Agents 1+2, as well as Auctioneers 1+2 *could* in practice be implemented by the same entities.

- Full mutual bid disclosure: All auctioneers disclose each other all bids received during the current tick.
- No mutual disclosure.

The second axis is **selection of bids** to search over, with the following bounding cases:

- Full selection cooperation: All auctioneers coordinate the selection of bids to search over.⁹
- No selection cooperation: Every auctioneer selects bids independently.

The third axis is the **choice of mechanism M** , which is applied to the set of bids, to search for BX s:

- Full mechanism cooperation: All auctioneers coordinate on the mechanism(s) used.¹⁰
- No selection cooperation: Every auctioneer selects bids independently.

For simplicity of the following diagram, we assume b_1, b_2 , have been read from the agents in the beginning and b'_1, b'_2 are reported to the agents in the end. Further, let $\dot{b}_i \subseteq b_i$ be the bids an agent shares with another.

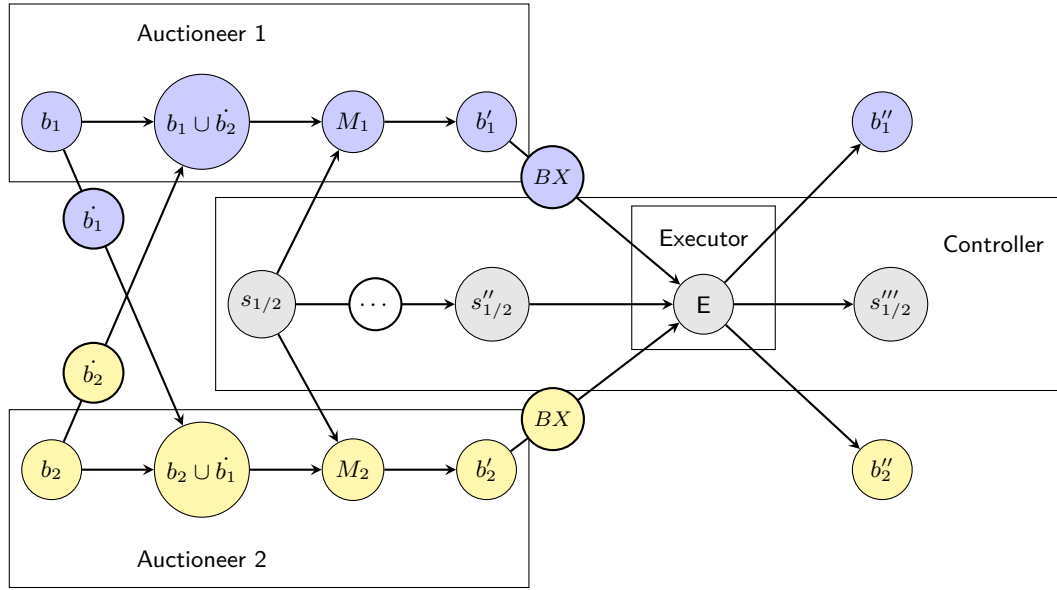


Fig. 5: Information for bid sharing in parallel composition.

The following holds:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{b}_1 = b_1 \wedge \dot{b}_2 = b_2 &\Rightarrow b_1 \cup \dot{b}_2 = b_2 \cup \dot{b}_1 \\ M_1 = M_2 &\Rightarrow b'_1 = b'_2 \end{aligned} \quad [25]$$

How computational cooperation will function in detail will be the subject of another publication. Broadly, the choices range from trusting a single party with computation, potentially verifying the correctness of the results where possible, or running a distributed computation between (a subset of) the auctioneers.

To improve the guarantees for bid sharing, instead of sending them directly to the auctioneers, they could be ordered by the controller, adding a side constraint to all bids that any resource from R_o can only be used if controller signatures are present. This would give guarantees against insertion or censorship of bids submitted to the verified set by the auctioneers during a single round. This can be done in the on-controller and off-controller auction settings.

5. Appendix

5.1. Proof that \mathcal{M} is a monad. It may not be obvious that \mathcal{M} is, indeed, a monad. To prove this, we must define a notion of monad return and monad bind satisfying the monad laws,

- return $a \gg= h \equiv h \ a$

⁹This does not necessarily mean agreeing on a single set, to search together. They could, e.g. agree on a partition and search individually, but the fact that it is coordinated is relevant.

¹⁰They could either pick one mechanism and trust one auctioneer to execute it, potentially verifying the result. Other options are to execute a single mechanism in some distributed fashion, or coordinate on mechanisms each party independently executes.

- $m >>= \text{return} \equiv m$
- $(m >>= g) >>= h \equiv m >>= (\lambda x. g \ x >>= h)$

We are forced by the types of the operators to have the following implementations;

- $\text{return } a := \lambda b. \text{return}_M(a, b)$
- $a >>= f := \lambda b. a \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). f \ x \ b)$

With these definitions, we can verify the laws with equatorial reasoning.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{return } a >>= h &= \lambda b. (\lambda b. \text{return}_M(a, b)) b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b \\
 &= \lambda b. \text{return}_M(a, b) >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b \\
 &= \lambda b. (\lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b)(a, b) \\
 &= \lambda b. h \ a \ b \\
 &= h \ a
 \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 m >>= \text{return} &= \lambda b. m b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). (\lambda a \ b. \text{return}_M(a, b)) \ x \ b \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). \text{return}_M(x, b) \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M \text{return}_M \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b \\
 &= m
 \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (m >>= g) >>= h &= \lambda b. (\lambda b. m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). g \ x \ b)) \ b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b \\
 &= \lambda b. (m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). g \ x \ b)) >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). (\lambda(x, b). g \ x \ b)(x, b) >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b) \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). (g \ x \ b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b)) \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). (\lambda b. g \ x \ b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b) \ b) \\
 &= \lambda b. m \ b >>=_M (\lambda(x, b). (\lambda x \ b. g \ x \ b >>=_M \lambda(x, b). h \ x \ b) \ x \ b) \\
 &= m >>= (\lambda x. g \ x >>= h)
 \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

This proves that \mathcal{M} is, indeed, a monad.

6. Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Isaac Sheff for valuable discussions and feedback on the implementation of controllers and details of the distributed state machine, Yulia Khalniyazova for feedback on both reading experience and finding a simplified but still correct model of the Anoma Resource Machine, Artem Gureev for making sure the abstract notions make sense through formalization efforts, Christopher Goes for helping clarify how the different components integrate across different levels of abstraction, and Jonathan Prieto-Cubides for copy-editing assistance.

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