Neural Rule-Execution Tracking Machine For Transformer-Based Text Generation

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Abstract

Sequence-to-Sequence (Seq2Seq) neural text generation models, especially the pre-trained ones (e.g., BART and T5), have exhibited compelling performance on various natural language generation tasks. However, the black-box nature of these models limits their application in tasks where specific rules (e.g., controllable constraints, prior knowledge) need to be executed. Previous works either design specific model structures (e.g., Copy Mechanism corresponding to the rule “the generated output should include certain words in the source input”) or implement specialized inference algorithms (e.g., Constrained Beam Search) to execute particular rules through the text generation. These methods require the careful design case-by-case and are difficult to support multiple rules concurrently. In this paper, we propose a novel module named Neural Rule-Execution Tracking Machine (NRETM) that can be equipped into various transformer-based generators to leverage multiple rules simultaneously to guide the neural generation model for superior generation performance in an unified and scalable way. Extensive experiments on several benchmarks verify the effectiveness of our proposed model in both controllable and general text generation tasks.

1 Introduction

Transformer-based neural language models (LMs), such as GPT/BART [1–3], have led a wave of new trends in natural language generation, producing texts of prominent quality. They are trained roughly on huge amounts of text corpora to reconstruct the full sentences (i.e., next coming tokens and missing text fragments). Despite their success in varieties of NLP tasks, we argue that the black-box nature of these models leads to inefficiently learning to follow constraints and incorporating prior knowledge.

In controllable text generation, most relevant studies [4–6] focus on controlling high-level text attributes (e.g., topic, sentiment) or simply keyword/phrase. More complex fine-grained control constraints such as “generate a sequence of tokens with ‘apple’ in the first sentence which has 15 words and ‘orange’ or ‘oranges’ in the fourth sentence” are less explored. A very recent work [7] reveals that large-scale LMs do not learn to obey the underlying constraints reliably, even in a quite simple constrained generation task (cover all the given keywords without hallucinating new ones). In general text generation, existing works on various tasks reveal the benefit of incorporating task-specific prior knowledge: machine translation [8] (e.g., each source phrase should be translated

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into exactly one target phrase), text summarization \cite{9} (e.g., the lead bias: front loading the most salient information), dialogue generation \cite{10} (e.g., humans tend to repeat entity names or even long phrases in conversation). However, they either need designing specific model architectures (e.g., Coverage Mechanism and Copy Mechanism) or devising well-designed learning objectives (e.g., GSG \cite{11}). These methods require careful design case-by-case and are difficult to combine multiple arbitrary constraints or prior knowledge simultaneously.

Motivated by the above research dilemma, we take the first step towards building an unified framework to handle Fine-grained Control and Prior Knowledge Integration and propose a novel module Neural Rule-Execution Tracking Machine (NRETM)\footnote{Our Source Code can be found in \url{https://github.com/GaryYufei/NRETM}}. Specifically, NRETM is a trainable neural module that can be equipped with transformer-based sequence-to-sequence pre-trained LMs. It can handle constraints in any Predicate Logic Formula, which crucially includes the arbitrarily complicated relations among different control tasks. For example, the above fine-grained constraint can be written as:

\[
(\text{InSen}(\text{apple}, 1) \land \text{Len}(1, 15)) \land (\text{InSen}(\text{orange}, 4) \lor \text{InSen}(\text{oranges}, 4))
\]

To build NRETM, we combat three major challenges: i) modeling the complicated relationships among control tasks and the logic operators (i.e., $\land$, $\lor$) in the constraint expressions; ii) an unified control system is required to execute different control tasks simultaneously and iii), the control signals for different control tasks should be properly aligned with the constraint expressions. NRETM uses the encoder of transformer-based pre-trained sequence-to-sequence LMs to model the relationship between control tasks and the logic operators. NRETM completes different control tasks via non-differential Logic Trackers (empowered by executable programs) in an unified control progress system during the decoding process. Finally, the encoded constraint expressions and control progress signals are combined together in the transformer decoder. NRETM is fine-tuned with the pre-trained LMs (except logical trackers) to follow the control progress signal and predicate logic formula. NRETM reconciles symbolic computing (that has precise logic and numerical calculation capabilities from logic trackers) with neural language generation (that has an exceptional ability of wording and phrasing), which results in both the accurate controllability and the superior generation performance.

For evaluation, we select three representative benchmarks because all of them involve constraints or prior knowledge, allowing us to verify the effectiveness of our proposed NRETM model: ROCStories \cite{12} are five-sentence stories with complicated predicate constraints over the story structure; Commonsense Generation task \cite{13} with the constraints of mentioning all input concepts; TED15 Zh-En document-level machine translation benchmark \cite{14} with prior knowledge of translating input sentences one by one.

Our contributions in this work are three-fold: (1) To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to propose a general framework that incorporates control signal and prior knowledge, formulated as predicate logic constraints, into transformer-based seq2seq text generation models; (2) We train (or fine-tune) the transformer-based seq2seq text generation models to follow the predicate logic constraints (i.e., control signal or prior knowledge) by dynamically updating the rule execution intermediate progress value to the text decoder; and (3) Empirical verification of the effectiveness of the proposed approach on three benchmarks.

2 Approach

This section first formalizes fine-grained content control task, then introduces an overview of proposed NRETM model, followed by diving into details of each component.

2.1 Fine-Grained Content Control

In this work, we focus on fine-grained content control task where the model input consists of predicate logic constraints $x = [x_1, \ldots, x_L] \in \mathcal{X}$ that should be satisfied in the outputs and optional context input $c = [c_1, \ldots, c_L]$. The encoder takes concatenation of $x$ and $c$ (i.e., $[c; x]$) as input. At decoding step $t$, the decoder take $y_{1:t} = [y_1, \cdots, y_t] \in \mathcal{Y}$ as input and generate $y_{t+1}$.
Figure 1: An overview of NRETM. The rounded-angle boxes in the upper row are trainable neural components and the right-angle boxes in the lower row are non-differentiable symbolic components. The predicate logic constraints are modeled as follows: 1) the transformer encoder handles the relationships among the predicates and basic logic operators; 2) Logic Tracker keeps track of the control progress of all predicates simultaneously; 3) the encoded expression and control progress are combined in the transformer decoder to guide NRETM to satisfy the constraints.

2.2 Predicate Logic Constraint

We define predicate $U(a, y)$ as a boolean function that indicates whether output $y$ has satisfied control task $a$ which could be values (e.g., status, total length, stop word counts) or lexicons (e.g., copying particular words/phrases). In this paper, NRETM accepts predicate logic constraints in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF): $(U_1 \lor \cdots \lor U_i) \land \cdots \land (U_k \lor \cdots \lor U_n)$. Each predicate logic constraint includes multiple predicates $U_i$ and basic logic operators (e.g., $\lor$, $\land$ and brackets).

2.3 Neural Rule-Execution Tracking Machine

NRETM can be equipped into transformer-based sequence-to-sequence LMs. Figure 1 illustrates an overview of our neural rule-execution tracking machine (NRETM). To enable LMs to follow predicate logic constraints, it is essential to 1) model the complicated relationships among predicates and basic logic operators; 2) control multiple predicates (i.e., control tasks) in the constraints simultaneously; 3) combine the control signals with the predicate logic constraint expressions. For 1), we treat the whole constraint expressions as natural language sentences and feed it into the transformer encoder. For 2), we propose a set of unified control signals that can be used to dynamically describe the step-wise execution progress of different predicates. For 3), we represent the control signals as relative position embedding and align them with encoded constraints expressions in the transformer decoder.

2.3.1 Encoding Predicate Logic Constraints

Given predicate logic constraint expression $x = [x_1, \ldots, x_{l_x}]$ where $x_i$ either corresponds to a predicate $U_i$ or a basic logic operator, we feed $x$ into the transformer encoder. Due to the tokenization strategies of pre-trained LMs, each $x_i$ may be tokenized into a continuous token sequence. $x$ is tokenized into $t = [t_1, \ldots, t_{l_t}]$ where $l_t \geq l_x$ and there exists one-to-one mapping $m(t_i) = x_j$. We use $h^e$ to denote the encoder output of $x$. As pre-trained LMs is trained with significant amount of natural language sentences, it should encode complicated sequential relationships within the constraints expressions.

2.3.2 Mentoring Control Progress

Specialized controlling components (e.g., Constrained Beam Search [15] and Copy Mechanism [10]) can only be used for limited control tasks. To enable unified controlling system, we propose to complete control by mentoring control progress. We describe the control progress of different predicates using an unified control state system. Each predicate $U_i$ has a corresponding Logic Tracker $Q_{U_i}(y)$, which is a non-differentiable executable program (i.e., written by Python) and takes
current generated outputs and returns one progress state at each generation step, formulated as follows:

\[
Q_{U_i}(y) = \begin{cases} 
S_0 & U_i \text{ is } \emptyset \\
S_1 & U_i \text{ is not triggered in } y \\
(S_2, V) & U_i \text{ is in progress in } y \\
S_3 & U_i \text{ is satisfied in } y 
\end{cases}
\]  

(1)

where State S0 always is assigned to non-predicate \( \emptyset \) (i.e., basic logic operators in the constraint expression); State S1 means the tracking for predicate \( U_i \) is not triggered in \( y \). For example, when controlling the stop word counts of the second sentence, the Logic Tracker returns S1 when the LMs are generating the first sentence; State S2 means predicate \( U_i \) is in progress and \( V \) is the optimal intermediate value that allows fine-grained tracking. For example, in generation length control, \( V \) could be total target length minus the current length informing pre-trained LMs the number of words left to satisfy the constraint; State S3 means \( U_i \) is satisfied in \( y \). In short, Logic Tracker unifies different predicates by returning the same set of control signals.

**Global Or-Clause Update:** Each Logic Tracker traces the execution progress of its corresponding predicate \( U_i \) independently. This independent tracing strategy works well in the And-Clause because all involved predicates are required to reach State S3. However, only a subset of predicates are required to reach State S3 in the Or-Clause. Our preliminary experiment shows that the independent tracing strategy trains the model not to complete the constraints. To solve this issue, we propose to update the status of all predicates in the same Or-Clause to State S3 when one of the predicates reach State S3. This forces all predicates finish themselves in State S3 and improves the constraint satisfaction ratio in the Or-Clause.

**Control Progress Matrix:** Given the predicate logic constraint expressions \( t = [t_1, \ldots, t_l] \), we further define Control Progress Matrix \( S \) to align the predicates with their control progress signals returned by Logic Trackers:

\[
S = [C(t, \epsilon); C(t, y_1); \cdots; C(t, y_t)]
\]

(2)

\[
C(t, y_i) = [v(t_1, y_i); \cdots; v(t_l, y_i)]
\]

(3)

where \( \epsilon \) is the empty string at first decoding step. \( S \) is a two-dimensional matrix where each row describes the control progress of all tokens in \( t \) at a single decoding step and each column describes the control progress of a single token in \( t \) along all decoding steps. Recall that basic logic operators in predicate logic constraint expressions do not require control progress tracking. Each cell \( S_{i,j} \) in \( S \) is formulated as:

\[
S_{i,j} = v(t_i, y_{j-1}) = \begin{cases} 
Q_{\emptyset}(y) & m(t_i) = x_k \text{ and } x_k \text{ is a basic logic operator} \\
Q_{U_q}(y) & m(t_i) = x_k \text{ and } x_k \text{ is a predicate } U_q 
\end{cases}
\]

(4)

**Example:** In Figure 2, we are given three logic constraints, a) copy “car”; b) the stop word ratio of the output should be 0.5 and c) the length of second sentence should be 6. The basic logic operators \& are assigned with S0. Length control and Stop Word Ratio maintain intermediate values (e.g., the residual Length and Stop Word Ratio). The length control is assigned with S1 when generating the first sentence because it will only be triggered in the second sentence. Copy control does not have intermediate values and its State are updated from S2 to S3 only when the corresponding words (at step 10 in our example) appear in the \( y_{1:t} \).
Control Progress Matrix Encoder: Control Progress Matrix $S$ aligns the results from Logic Tracker with the encoded predicate logic constraint expressions. However, $S$ is a non-differentiable symbolic matrix with each cell $S_{i,j}$ being discrete symbol S0 to S3 combined with additional numbers (i.e., V). As the encoder has already captured the inter-relationship in the predicate logic constraints, we only model each cell $S_{i,j}$ independently. To support various types of predicates, we treat $S_{i,j}$ as a string and encode it using a single-layer transformer-based encoder $\text{ShallowEncoder}$ which shares the same vocabulary and word embeddings as the pre-trained LMs:

$$h^s_{ij} = \text{ShallowEncoder}(S_{i,j})$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$\bar{h}^s_{ij} = \text{MeanPooling}(h^s_{ij})$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

where $h^s_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^{l_s \times d}$, $\bar{h}^s_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $l^s_{ij}$ is the length of the tokenized $S_{i,j}$ and $d$ is the hidden size of $\text{ShallowEncoder}$. We use $\bar{h}^s$ to denote the neural representation of whole $S$.

2.3.3 Combining Predicate Logic Constraint with Control Progress Matrix

Finally, we combine the encoded Predicate Logic Constraints $h^c$ with the encoded Control Progress Matrix $\bar{h}^s$ in the transformer-based pre-trained LMs. Injecting $h^c$ into the transformer encoder would result in encoder content re-computation at each decoding step and stop the standard parallel training for transformer-based decoders. In addition, as Control Progress Matrix incrementally increases as the decoding goes on, it is reasonable to equip $\bar{h}^s$ into the transformer decoder. Given the encoder output $h^c$, decoder input $y_{:,t}$, the probability of the next token $y_{t+1}$ can be calculated by:

$$h^d_{ij} = \text{KV}(W^c_i y_{:,t}, W^c_k \bar{h}^s_{ij}, W^c_v y_{:,t})$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

$$p(y_{t+1} | x_{t:d}, y_{1:t}) = \text{softmax}(W_o a_{t+1})$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

where $a_{t+1} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_c}$ is the hidden state at step $t$ with $d_c$ the hidden size, and $W_o \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times d_c}$. Both KV and CrossKV are the standard key-value self-attention described in [16]. In the CrossKV which takes $h^d_{ij}$ and $h^c$ as input, the resulting attention score matrix has the same size as $S$, making CrossKV suitable to incorporate our Control Progress Matrix.

Control Progress Matrix as Relative Position: Inspired by [17] which incorporates token relative positions into the self-attention module, we propose to inject Control Progress Matrix as the “relative positions” between encoder output $h^c$ and current decoder input $y_{:,t}$ in the cross-attention (Eq. 8) module. Following this approach, we linearly project each $h_{ij}$ into Control Progress Matrix key $h^f_k = W^f_k \cdot h_{ij}^s + b^f_k$ and Control Progress Matrix Value $h^v_k = W^v_k \cdot h_{ij}^s + b^v_k$. All transformer decoder layers share the same representations. Eq. 8 is changed to:

$$a_{t+1} = R(W^d_q H^d_{ij}, W^d_k H^c, W^d_v H^v, h^k, h^v)$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

where $\mathbb{R}^{l_c \times t \times d}$ and $R$ is the Self-Attention function with relative position, defined as follows:

$$R(q, k, v, m^k, m^v) = \sum_{i=1}^{l_c} a_{i,j} (v_i + m^v_{i,j})$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where $a_{i,j} = \text{Softmax}(e_{i,j})$ and $e_{i,j} = q_{ij}^T (k_i + m^k_{i,j})^T d^{-1/2}$.

2.4 Why NRETm Could Satisfy Constraints

A powerful implicit compulsion comes from the combined force of two aspects: 1) before generating the EOS token (i.e., End-Of-Sequence Token), all the predicate constraints should be satisfied. As demonstrated in Fig[2][#fig:results] all elements in Control Progress Matrix are set to “satisfied” (i.e., S3) at EOS position; 2) The pre-trained LMs are trained to generate text with limited length. Such a soft way of combining symbolic operators (good at logical and mathematical calculations) and neural operators (good at wording and phrasing) can retain their respective strengths to the utmost extent.

2.5 What If NRETm Fails to Satisfy Constraints

NRETm does not forces the pre-trained LMs to execute the hard constraints on the text decoder explicitly, but instead, provides Control Progress Matrix as input features describing rule execution
We test our proposed NRETM which has \( L = 2 \). To expand a new predicate, users only need to implement the corresponding Logic Trackers, which returns S1-S3 and intermediate values, via executable programs.

### 2.6 The Generalization Ability of NRETM

The generalization ability of NRETM comes from two aspects: 1) NRETM can construct new constraints via combining pre-trained predicates with basic logic operators in arbitrarily complicated ways; 2) To expand a new predicate, users only need to implement the corresponding Logic Trackers, which returns S1-S3 and intermediate values, via executable programs.

### 3 Experiment

We test our proposed NRETM on the controllable text generation and general text generation tasks. For controllable text generation, we verify NRETM on the complex fine-grained control instructions in the ROCStories Benchmark \([12]\). Further, we test NRETM on the general text generation tasks, commonsense generation and document-level machine translation, to show that NRETM can efficiently integrate prior knowledge into seq2seq models towards superior generation performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate Logic Constraint</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>CSR</th>
<th>RL</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>B1</th>
<th>B2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \land_{i=1}^4 \text{InSen}(w_i, p_i) )</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \neg \text{InSen}(w_1, p_1) ) \land \text{InSen}(w_2, p_2) \land \text{InSen}(w_3, p_3) \land \text{InSen}(w_4, p_4) ) \land \text{InSen}(w_5, p_5) \land \text{Len}(y^{p_i}, l_{p_i}) \land \text{Len}(y^{p_i}, s_{p_i}) \land \text{SWC}(y^{p_i}, s_{p_i}) \land \text{Order}(w_i, s_{w_i+1})</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.1 Controllable ROC Stories

ROCStories is a corpus of five-sentence stories that capture a rich set of causal and temporal commonsense relations between daily events. Following \([18]\), we extract key phrases from the ground-truth stories. In this experiment, we design multiple predicate logic constraints to inform NRETM about the stories to be generated and verify if NRETM can follow these constraints exactly.

**Predicate Logic Formulation** As shown in table 1, five constraints with increasing difficulties are used: (1) Generate a story with storyline \( w_1 \) in the \( p_i \)th sentence. (2) Generate a story with an ordered storyline \( w_1, \ldots, w_4 \). (3) Generate a story with storyline \( w_5 \) in the \( p_i \)th sentence which has \( l_{p_i} \) words \((i = 1, 2)\). (4) Generate a storyline \( w_i \) in the \( p_i \)th sentence which has \( l_{p_i} \) words or \( s_{p_i} \) stop words and \( w_2 \) in the \( p_2 \)th sentence that does not mention \( w_3 \). (5) Generate a storyline \( w_i \) in the \( p_i \)th sentence which has \( l_{p_i} \) words or \( s_{p_i} \) stop words \((i = 1, 2)\).

**Baselines and Metrics** Both baseline and NRETM use T5-Base model \([19]\). We report Constraints Success Ratio (CSR), the ratio of stories that completely satisfy the given constraints. We additionally report ROUGE-L (RL), BERT-Score (BS), BLEU-1/4 (B1/4) to show the generated stories quality.

**Main Results** As shown in Table 1 in all five predicate logic constraints, compared to the T5 model, the NRETM model achieves higher Constraint Success Ratio and maintains a similar level of ROUGH-L, showing that the NRETM model can be flexibly controlled without loss of generated text quality.
Table 2: Experiment Results on Commonsense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>BS</th>
<th>B1</th>
<th>B4</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>Seen</th>
<th>Novel</th>
<th>ALL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T5-Base</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>159.4</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>92.9</td>
<td>90.1</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Base + NRETM (P_c)</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>163.8</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Base + NRETM (\hat{P}_c)</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>167.7</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>99.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>170.3</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large + NRETM (P_c)</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>74.3</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>173.4</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>97.8</td>
<td>96.9</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large + NRETM (\hat{P}_c)</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>175.3</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>99.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Base + G</td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>110.7</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large + NEUROLOGIC</td>
<td>94.8</td>
<td>73.2</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>169.7</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KGBART [23]</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>168.3</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>98.6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The gap in CSR between the T5 and NRETM model is moderate in the first two constraints with simple token permutations. However, the success ratio of T5 model drops significantly given constraints that requires long-range numerical tracking (e.g., sentence length and the count of stop words).

### 3.2 Commonsense Generation

COMMONGEN is a generation benchmark dataset target explicitly test machines for the ability of generative commonsense reasoning. Given a set of common concepts the task is to generate a coherent sentence describing an everyday scenario using these concepts.

**Predicate Logic Formulation** The input is an unordered set of \(n\) concepts \(x = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^{n}\). From the expectation of COMMONGEN, one easily obtained prior knowledge is that each \(x_i\) must appear in output \(y\). The corresponding predicate logic constraint \(P_c\) is:

\[
P_c = \land_{i=1}^{n} (\text{Copy}(x_i))
\]

where \(y\) will appear by default, for the sake of brevity, we have omitted \(y\) in predicate Copy. Another prior knowledge comes from the observation that generating \(y\) requires giving the correct morphological inflections of the concept word rather than copy its original form. Let \(\tilde{x}_i = \{\tilde{x}_i^j\}_{j=1}^{|\tilde{x}_i|}\) denote all inflections of \(x_i\), \(y\) covers concept \(x_i\), if at least one of \(\{\tilde{x}_i^j\}_{j=1}^{k}\) appears. The constraint \(\hat{P}_c\) is:

\[
\hat{P}_c = \land_{i=1}^{n} (\lor_{j=1}^{|\tilde{x}_i|} \text{Copy}(\tilde{x}_i^j))
\]

**Baselines and Metrics** We experiment with T5-Base and T5-Large. We equip NRETM into the T5-Large and T5-Base model to incorporate \(P_c\) and \(\hat{P}_c\) respectively (+ NRETM \(P_c\) (+ NRETM \(\hat{P}_c\)). Grid Beam Search (GBS) \[20\] (+ G) is a well-designed decoding method that ensures the generation model satisfies the lexical constraints. We only apply GBS to the T5-Base model due to the memory constraint. Following the suggestions in \[13\], we use CIDEr \[21\] and SPICE \[22\] to automatically assess the quality of generated texts. We calculate constraint satisfaction for all constraints (ALL), novel constraints (Novel) and seen constraints (Seen).

**Main Results** Table 2 shows that the NRETM model improves the constraint satisfaction over the baselines for all cases, achieving close to 100% (i.e., 99.5% and 99.2%). While GBS achieves perfect constraint satisfaction (i.e., 100%), doing so significantly degrades the output text quality (more than 50 CIDEr), indicating the necessity integrating prior knowledge in training rather than inference. In addition, both prior knowledge \(P_c\) and \(\hat{P}_c\) have a positive effect on our model, improving our T5-large baseline by 3.1 and 5.0 CIDEr score, respectively. Finally, our T5-Large + NRETM \(\hat{P}_c\) model outperforms the previous state-of-the-art result \[23\], which integrates the ConceptNet \[24\] into the BART model, suggesting that our incorporated task-specific prior knowledge could be as powerful as knowledge from large-scale hand-crafted corpus. All of the above shows how potential it is to find a method that could execute multiple rules effectively.
3.3 Document-Level Machine Translation

Document-level machine translation tasks is a general text generation task, where the goal is to translate segments of text (up to an entire document). Following [14], we use TED15 Zh-En (from IWSLT 2014 and 2015 [25, 26]) as training and validation set and 2010-2013 TED as the test set.

Predicate Logic Formulation

The input is an ordered set of \(n\) sentences in the source language that form a document \(x = \{x^i\}_{i=1}^n\), the expected output is a translated document \(y = \{y^i\}_{i=1}^n\) in the target language. We observed that neural model is prone to sentence correspondence confusion (the \(i\)th sentence in source document is translated as the \(j\)th sentence in target document) when doing document-level translation. To alleviate this problem, we propose incorporating Doc-mBART25 with prior knowledge: each source sentence should be translated only once. It is formulated as:

\[
\text{TranslatedOnce}(x^i) = \begin{cases} 
2 & \theta(y_t) > i \\
1 & \theta(y_t) = i \\
0 & \theta(y_t) < i 
\end{cases} \tag{12}
\]

where \(\theta(\cdot)\) returns the line number of \(y_t\) in \(y\), as \(t\) is monotonic during generation, the status only set to be 2 once. To trace the sentence translation progress, we add an additional End-Of-Sentence token at the end of each sentence to the training data. Once \(\text{NRETM}\) finishes the \(i\)th sentence (generating an end-of-sentence token) in the decoder, we assume that the \(i\)th sentence in the encoder has been translated. The predicate logic constraint \(P_c\) of this task can be formulated as:

\[
P_c = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n (\text{TranslatedOnce}(x^i))
\]

Baselines and Metrics

We combine our \(\text{NRETM} P_c\) component with the Doc-mBART25 model proposed in [3] which is a state-of-the-art multilingual pre-trained language model. We compare this model with the state-of-the-art non-pretraining and pretraining approaches, including HAN (Hierarchical Attention Networks) [14], Doc-mBART25 and Sen-mBART25 proposed in [3]. When implementing our model, we use the same pre-processing method, blocks segmentation strategy and beam search setting as [3]. TED15 Zh-En provides sentence-to-sentence translation from Chinese to English. We use both document-level (d-BLEU) and sentence-level (s-BLEU) to measure the similarities between generated target document and the source document. We also report Sentence Aligned Ratio (SAR), the ratio of source and target documents with the same sentence count, to show the effectiveness of our control over this translation prior knowledge.

Main Results

Table 3 shows that the \(\text{NRETM} P_c\) component helps the Doc-mBART25 model to better capture the sentence-level corresponding relationship between the source and target documents. In particular, sentence-level alignment ratio is improved from 98.7% to 100%. The improvement in s-BLEU (+ 1.1 BLEU) also confirms that our final Doc-mBART25 + \(\text{NRETM} P_c\) model learns to translate sentences based on the sentence order in source documents.

3.4 Discussion

Updating Progress in Encoder

In Sec 2.3.3, we incorporate the Control Progress Matrix as relative position embeddings in the decoder. To show the importance of this design choice, we conduct an ablation study in Table 4 where the row of Control Progress Matrix is concatenated with the encoder output. We find that updating the rule execution progress information with the encoder output contributes little to improve the CSR. This shows that simply extracting rule execution intermediate values is not enough. This could be because the encoder that encodes the rule execution intermediate values cannot effectively broadcast this information into text decoders.

\[\text{NRETM} P_c\] Robustness

The above experiment results are based on the perfect training data. In this section, we explore the effect of training data noise. We corrupt the training data by replacing the input commonsense keywords with a random sampled one under the probability 5%, 10%, 15%, 25%, and 50% (Validation and Test Split remain unchanged). As shown in Table 5 in all noise levels,
NRETM successfully achieves higher constraint coverage (i.e., Cons) and CIDEr score than the T5 baseline model, showing that NRETM is robust to the training data noise. It is worthwhile to note that the main goal of NRETM is to incorporate constraints that are satisfied by the training data into transformer-based seq2seq text generators. It is reasonable to assume that in practice, the noise level should be relatively low (e.g., 0% - 10%).

Table 5: NRETM performance on Commonsense Test Split under different noise levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noise</th>
<th>0%</th>
<th>5%</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>15%</th>
<th>25%</th>
<th>50%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
<td>C Cons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>170.3</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>169.5</td>
<td>93.7</td>
<td>167.1</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>175.3</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>169.5</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>167.1</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Novel Sentence Index Experiment. MR for Mention Ratio.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>CSA</th>
<th>MR</th>
<th>RL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T5</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>97.7</td>
<td>98.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Inference Time On Commonsense Generation Task Test Split (in minutes).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Baseline +NRETM +GBS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T5-Large</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zero-Shot Execution In Table 1, we show that the pre-trained language model T5 cannot handle complicated and fine-grained constraints even after fine-tuning. Here, we further demonstrate that NRETM model is capable to handle zero-shot rule execution. We train the T5 and NRETM model to only mention keywords in the 3rd, 4th and 5th sentence and test these models to mention keywords in the first and second sentence of the whole story. As shown in Table 6, although both T5 and NRETM model mention most of the keywords (95.7% and 98.3% respectively) in the generated story, the T5 model only mention 19.7% of keywords in the correct sentence and the NRETM model makes 97.7% of keywords correct. This is because the T5 model cannot recognize the novel sentence index (i.e., the first and second) during the generation. The logic tracker helps the NRETM model to generalize to handle these cases.

Running Efficiency We compare the inference time (in minutes) for NRETM on the test split of commonsense generation task in Table 7. All models use the beam search decoding algorithm with beam size 5. Adding NRETM components to T5-Base and T5-Large approximately double the inference time. While the Grid Beam Search (GBS) algorithm uses a much longer inference time. Compared to existing constrained decoding approaches, NRETM uses much less computational costs.

4 Related Work

NRETM is mainly related to two lines of research work in text generation: constrained decoding and prior knowledge integration.

Constrained Decoding Early work in constrained decoding can be traced back to dual decomposition and lagrangian relaxation [27, 28]. These works focus on sequence labelling and parsing problems where the solution space is relatively small, compared to text generation tasks. Research efforts in text generation tasks [29, 31] involve controllable generation methods where the generators are trained on text data with the labeled target attributes. CTRL [3], PPLM [6] and CoCon [32] are recent approaches that built on the transformer-based large-scale pretrained LMs, they pay more
attention on controlling high-level attributes, phrases and keywords. \[33, 34\] propose to trace the control task progress in the text generation decoder. \[33\] treats the control signal as training loss in memory network and \[44\] treats the control signal as additional input features. \[35\] controls the text generation outputs via mentoring the output gradient. However, these work only focus on specific controlling tasks such as phrases copying and generation length. While \textsc{Nretm} focuses on controlling text generation to follow arbitrary logical constraints, leading to a fine-grained control. They can be seen as special cases of \textsc{Nretm}. Recently, GDC \[36\] permits to specify both pointwise and distributional constraints over the target LMs. Very recently, \textsc{Neurologic} \[7\] was proposed to generate fluent text while satisfying complex lexical constraints (in a predicate logic form). There are three main differences between \textsc{Nretm} and \textsc{Neurologic}: 1) \textsc{Neurologic} only provides control constraints over the text generators. Instead, \textsc{Nretm} is a general framework that provides control constraints (e.g., copy or not copy words) and prior knowledge (e.g., translating sentences one by one). \textsc{Neurologic} can be viewed as a special case of \textsc{Nretm}; 2) \textsc{Neurologic} is an inference-only algorithm that only controls the model to generate or avoid specific words or phrases at decoding time; while \textsc{Nretm} fine-tunes the pre-trained transformer-based seq2seq text generators with the predicate logic constraints; 3) \textsc{Neurologic} only supports the “copy” predicate (i.e., to generate or not to generate specific words or phrases), while \textsc{Nretm} is a general framework that supports various control predicates. \textsc{Nretm} supports 6 kinds of logic operators in this paper, and it is also possible for users to expand new logic operators.

**Prior Knowledge Integration** Existing efforts \[37–41\] to incorporate prior knowledge into sequence-to-sequence framework either resort to modifying model architectures, including adding external memory components, specialized decoding method or designing training objectives, including minimum risk training. These methods usually can only support to inject one narrow type of knowledge into the neural models. To the best of our knowledge, we first attempt to formalize the prior knowledge integration in seq2seq generation as text generation that conforms to predicate logic constraints.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we propose a unified controllable generation framework that leverages predicate logic constraints to implement efficient complex fine-grained control and scalable prior knowledge integration. We explore and compare two controllable strategies: dynamic tracking and static strategy, and show that the proposed dynamic tracking mechanism significantly outperforms the static ones. Empirical results on three benchmarks indicate that \textsc{Nretm} could achieve accurate control and exhibits a superior generation ability over different tasks. Pre-trained models have been the dominant paradigm in natural language processing, and researchers resort to massive data and large-scale models to improve performance. We unify the rules used in various tasks into the form of predicate logic, provide the possibility to pretrain models on massive rules. In the future, we will explore pre-training large-scale neural rule-execution machine with massive rules and data.

**Broader Impact**

Our work proposes a unified and scalable approach to efficiently perform fine-grained controllable text generation and incorporate multiple prior knowledge for superior text generation performance. This work uses story generation, machine translation, commonsense generation as applications to verify the effectiveness. However, while our proposed method achieves promise performance on several benchmarks, deployment of our method in the real world requires a careful analysis of potential societal benefits and harms (e.g., the harms associated with furthering negative stereotypes against certain vulnerable groups). The potential ethical issues include: powerful language models might be used to generate abuse, faked or misleading content in the news or on social media; they might pose safety concerns if they are used to generate harassing or hateful materials. In order to mitigate these risks, it is possible to use AI systems to fight against misleading content and harassing material. However, as discussed in previous work \[42, 43\], mitigating these risks could be an extremely complex socio-technical problem that many are working to understand and solve.
Acknowledgement

We thank anonymous reviewers for their insightful suggestions to improve this paper.

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References


Appendix

In this Appendix, we provide more details and examples for our proposed $\text{NRETM}$ models. A.1 provides the case study for three evaluation tasks. A.2 provides the definitions of six predicates used in this paper. A.3 provides some more analysis about predicate logic constraint and state flag as well as the actual state flag matrix used in the Commonsense Generation task (Sec 3.2) and Document-level Machine Translation task (Sec 3.3). A.4 provides more results regarding the controllable ROCStories Generation Experiments (Sec 3.1). Finally, A.5 provides implementation details of our models.

5.1 Case Study

In this case study, we select representative examples from our T5 baseline and $\text{NRETM}$ models. The Logic expression is the actual predicate logic constraints that we use in the model. The Input expression is the actual string that we feed into the T5 model simply because T5 vocabulary does not include $\land$, $\lor$, and $\neg$.

Table 8: Generated examples of the T5 and $\text{NRETM}$ model for the story generation task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task 1: Story Generation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Input expression:** | InSen(walking around, 2) & InSen(school yard, 2) |
| **Logic expression:** | InSen(walking around, y) ∧ InSen(school yard, y) |
| **T5:** | I went to the park today. I was walking around the school yard. I saw a squirrel in the yard. I saw a squirrel in the yard. I took a picture of the squirrel. |
| **NRETM:** | Sam was playing in the yard. He was walking around in the school yard. He saw a squirrel in the yard. He ran into the squirrel. Sam was able to retrieve the squirrel. |

| **Input expression:** | InSen(waitressing job, 3) & (Len(3, 16) || StopWordCount(3, 8)) & (not InSen(tenacity, 3)) & InSen(talent agent, 4) |
| **Logic expression:** | InSen(waitressing job, y) ∧ (Len(y, 16) ∨ StopWordCount(y, 8)) ∧ (¬ InSen(tenacity, y)) ∧ InSen(talent agent, y) |
| **T5:** | Sarah had a crush on a girl named Sarah. Sarah’s crush was Sarah’s boyfriend. Sarah’s boyfriend had a waitressing job and Sarah had a crush on Sarah. Sarah’s boyfriend was a talent agent. Sarah’s crush was Sarah’s boyfriend. |
| **NRETM:** | Sarah wanted to be a chef, but she didn’t have the money to make a living. She applied for a waitressing job but she didn’t get a job at all. Sarah was approached by a talent agent. Sarah was hired and now she is a chef. |

| **Input expression:** | InSen(longest grocery trip, 1) & Len(1, 12) & InSen(line forever, 4) & Len(4, 9) |
| **Logic expression:** | InSen(longest grocery trip, y) ∧ Len(y, 12) ∧ InSen(line forever, y) ∧ Len(y, 9) |
| **T5:** | Sam was on the longest grocery trip of his life. He was so hungry he couldn’t wait to get to the store. When he got to the store he had to wait in line forever. Sam had to wait in line forever for his next grocery trip. |
| **NRETM:** | I was on the longest grocery trip I ever went on. I had to wait in line for a long time. When I got there the line was long. I had to wait in line forever again. I was so glad I finally got to the store |

| **Input expression:** | InSen(could buy one, 2) & (Len(2, 13) || StopWordCount(2, 6)) & InSen(would work, 4) & (Len(4, 10) || StopWordCount(4, 7)) |
| **Logic expression:** | InSen(could buy one, y) ∧ (Len(y, 13) ∨ StopWordCount(y, 6)) ∧ InSen(would work, y) ∧ (Len(y, 10) ∨ StopWordCount(y, 7)) |
| **T5:** | I needed a new computer. I asked my mom if I could buy one. She said yes. I asked her if it would work for me. She said yes |
| **NRETM:** | I needed a new computer. I went to the store to see if I could buy one. I went to the store to buy a computer. I found a computer that would work for me. I bought the computer and was very happy. |
Table 9 shows selected examples in Controllable ROCStories Generation task. This task is to show the controllability of our proposed NRETM model. Sentences in red are the ones being controlled. In the first story, the T5 baseline model produces a short sentence and misses the order of storyline "stupid" which should appear after generating the storyline "hated". While our NRETM model successfully completes all storylines in order. In the second story, the NRETM model controls the story generation in a more coherent way than the T5 baseline model. Although both baseline and NRETM model successful incorporate all given storylines, the T5 baseline model inconsistently generates "school yard" just after generating the "park". On the contrary, in the story generated by the NRETM model, Sam consistently stays in the "yard". In the third story, the length and stop word control force the NRETM model to generate sentences with more details, while the T5 baseline simply repeats information from previous sentences. The NRETM model successfully generates eight stop words in the third sentence, whereas the baseline model only generates six stop words (highlighted via underline). In addition, the generated story from the NRETM model has more rational plots than the one from the T5 model. In the fourth story, the length of the first and fourth sentences are controlled to be 12 and 9. The outputs of NRETM model successfully obey these control constraints while the baseline model generates 11 and 13 tokens for the first and fourth sentences. In the last story, the second sentence generated by the NRETM model successfully generates six stop words (highlighted via underline). For this task, we are more concerned about the expression rate of predicate logic control constraints than the quality of the generated story. In addition to the case study, we have shown more quantitative analysis, and please refer to Sec. A.4 for details.

Table 9: Generated Example of the T5 and NRETM model in the Commonsense Generation task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task 2: Commonsense Generation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logic expression:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NRETM:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 shows selected examples from our T5 baseline and NRETM models in the Commonsense Generation task. Concepts that are missed in the baseline model outputs are in red. Words in blue are the key difference between the output of baseline and NRETM model. Note that we omit the synonyms for simplicity. Full Examples for this task can be found in Sec. A.3. Although the baseline model can correctly complete many Copy operations, it fails when the input combination is not commonly seen. For example, “explain” and “knife” in the first example. The baseline model also generates meaningless sentence when the inputs are complicated concepts combination in the second example.
In addition, the baseline model cannot handle the case where some input concepts share the same prefix, such as “groom” and “groomsman” in the forth example. The baseline model seems to merge these morphologically similar input concepts into a single concept and only mentions one of them in the outputs. Whereas the NRETM model successfully completes all of Copy operations.

Table 10 shows selected examples from our T5 baseline and NRETM models in document-level machine translation. In the first case, the mT5 baseline model produces duplicated sentences (“what happens when co2 emissions go up”, in red). As a consequence, it fails to translate a few important chunks in the source sentences (see in Blue). This may due to the fact that the mT5 baseline model cannot handle long input documents well. While our NRETM model translates all source sentences into fluent English. Sentences in Green are missed by the baseline model but successfully translated by the NRETM model with the help of the predicate translateOnce. In the second case, the baseline model skips the important word “exchange” (see underline in the Input expression) in its translated text (highlighted in red). The NRETM model accurately translates this sentence (highlighted in blue). This shows that the NRETM model is more focused on the current sentence than the T5 baseline model.

Table 10: Generated Example of the mT5 and NRETM model for document-level machine translation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task 3: Document-level Machine Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong> 当前二氧化碳的排放量将导致温度上升，温度的升高将引起一系列非常严重后果。比如对天气的直接影响，或对生态系统的间接影响。生态系统无法应对剧烈变化的结果就是生态系统的全面崩溃。二氧化碳排放增加和温度升高究竟成怎样的关系？两者间的正反馈效应为何？这中间有一些不确定因素，但不多。至于全球变暖的具体负面影响有多严重，这无法完全确定，但肯定极其严重。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Input expression:</strong> 我是跟着50个去往贾拉拉巴德战役的反叛者乘坐卡车一起来的。当时我19岁，是一名年毕业于佛罗里达州杰克逊维尔的素食主义者兼冲浪爱好者。我用我的黑色匡威的低邦鞋换了一双棕色的皮拖鞋，并且对着我看不太清的政府的坦克发了一枚火箭。这是我第一次到阿富汗。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2 Definition of Predicates

Figure 3 to 8 show the six kinds of predicates, including InSen, Order, Copy, TranslatedOnce, Len and StopWordCount, used in our framework. The code in figures is the pseudo code of the logical operator (i.e., executable programs), in which y refers to $y_t$, $y_i$ is $y'$, state is the default state status $q^k_{it}$ and $i_val$ is the additional intermediate values $q^k_{it}$. In our experiments, all of these logical operators are implemented using the Python programming language, and their source codes are not directly visible to the neural text generators. They only communicate with the neural text generators using the state flags. All predicates have State 0, indicating unfinished status and State 2, indicating finished status. As discussed in Sec 2.4, State 1 is an optional predicate-specific state. We will introduce the definition and role of State 1 for each of the above predicate if it exists in the captions.

**Predicate** | **Description**
--- | ---
**InSen($x_i, y^k$)** | If a phrase $x_i$ exists in the $k^{th}$ sentence in $y$

```python
def InSen(x, y_i, y):
    t = len(y)
    s = ySen_count()
    if s == i and x not in y:
        state = 1
    elif s == i and x in y:
        state = 2
    else:
        state = 0
    return state
```

Figure 3: The definition of predicate InSen. The State 1 starts when the text generators start to generate $k^{th}$ sentence. This informs the model that it is possible to mention $x_i$ in the outputs.

**Predicate** | **Description**
--- | ---
**Order($x_i, x_j$)** | If phrase $x_i$ is before $x_j$ in the decoded sequence $y$

```python
def Order(x_a, x_b, y):
    x_a_s = y.IndexOf(x_a)
    x_b_s = y.IndexOf(x_b)
    if x_a in y and x_b not in y:
        state = 1
    elif x_a in y and x_b not in y and x_a_s < x_b_s:
        state = 2
    else:
        state = 0
    return state
```

Figure 4: The definition of predicate Order. The State 1 starts when the previous element $x_a$ has already been mentioned in the outputs. This informs the model to mention $x_b$ next.

**Predicate** | **Description**
--- | ---
**Copy($x_i$)** | If the decoded sequence $y$ contains phrase $x_i$

```python
def Copy(x, y):
    if x in y:
        state = 2
    else:
        state = 0
    return state
```

Figure 5: The definition of predicate Copy. There is no State 1 in the definition of Copy because there is no “partial copy” status.
Figure 6: The definition of predicate TranslatedOnce. The State 1 starts when \(i^{th}\) sentence is being translated. This informs the model should pay attention to which source sentence.

![Predicate Table Example](image_url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TranslatedOnce((x^t))</td>
<td>If the (t^{th}) sentence in the source be translated only once</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
def TranslatedOnce(x_i, y):
s = y.sen_count()
if s > 1:
    state = 2
elif s = 1:
    state = 1
else:
    state = 0
return state
```

Figure 7: The definition of predicate Len. The State 1 starts when the text generator starts to generate \(i^{th}\) sentence. We also explicitly inform the model of how many tokens are remaining for the current sentence. So they have State 1 with additional information \(i_{val}\). Figure 9 shows the actual state matrix of this predicate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Len((y^i, l), y)</td>
<td>If the length of (l^{th}) sentence in (y) is 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
def Len(y_i, l, y):
t = len(y)
s = y.sen_count()
s_pos = y_i.start_position()
if s = 1:
    state = 1; i_val = 1 - (t-s_pos)
elif s > 1 and len(y_i) = 1:
    state = 2; i_val = 0
elif s > 1 and len(y_i) /= 1:
    state = 0; i_val = (l-len(y_i))
elif s < 1:
    state = 0; i_val = 1
return (state, i_val)
```

Figure 8: The definition of predicate StopWordCount. The State 1 starts when the text generator starts to generate \(i^{th}\) sentence. We also explicitly inform the model of how many stop words are remaining for the current sentence. So they have State 1 with additional information \(i_{val}\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>StopWordCount((y^i, s))</td>
<td>If the count of stop words in (y^i) equaltos</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```python
def StopWordCount(y_i, s, y):
t = len(y)
s = y.sen_count()
s_pos = y_i.start_position()
if s = 1:
    state = 1; i_val = s - (stop_count(y[s_pos:t]))
elif s > 1 and stop_count(y_i) = s:
    state = 2; i_val = 0
elif s > 1 and stop_count(y_i) /= s:
    state = 0; i_val = (l-stop_count(y_i))
elif s < 1:
    state = 0; i_val = s
return (state, i_val)
```
5.3 Predicate Logic Constraint and State Flag

As the predicate logic constraints \( M \) used in our framework could support arbitrary formats (i.e., predicates can be in any combination with logical words), a key challenge is mapping each state flag in the state matrix to the corresponding predicate in the logic expression. To tackle this challenge, we treat the predicate logic constraints (as “Logic expression” in tables of Sec. A.1) as the extra input (as “Input expression” in tables of Sec. A.1) to the encoder of sequence-to-sequence (S2S) transformer-based text generators. In addition, we encode the state flags using a shallow transformer-based encoder with the same architecture. With the help of both positional embeddings in two modules, \( \text{NRETM} \) could align the state flags in state matrix with predicates in logic expression to achieve successful control. For the state flag \( q_{it} \), it keep tracks of the dynamic progress of all predicates during text generation. Therefore, we only put the current progress of each predicate in \( q_{it} \) and encode it using a shallow rule transformer encoder. For \( M \) with \( n \) predicates \( D = \{U_i\}_{i=1}^{n} \), \( q_{it} \) is the concatenation of \( \{q_{k_{it}}\}_{k=1}^{n} \), where \( q_{k_{it}} \) is the concatenation of default state status \( \hat{q}_{k_{it}} \) and optional intermediate values \( \bar{q}_{k_{it}} \).

\[
\hat{q}_{k_{it}} = \begin{cases} 
N & \text{variables of } U_k \text{ do not contain } x_i \\
0 & U_k \text{ is not satisfied} \\
1 & U_k \text{ is in progress} \\
2 & U_k \text{ is satisfied}
\end{cases}
\] (13)

To show the importance of our proposed rule-execution tracking module, our baseline models also have access to the predicate logic constraints in their encoders in all of our evaluation tasks. The baseline model and our \( \text{NRETM} \) model have the same amount of input information and only differ in whether equipped with the above rule-execution tracking module.

In Table 1, Sec 3.1, we control the length of arbitrary sentence for ROCStories generation. Figure 9 shows a minimal example of controlling the length of the second sentence. \( \hat{q}_{k_{it}} \) is in status 0 when the model is generating the first sentence. As the model finishes the first sentence (i.e., after generating “!”), \( q_{k_{it}} \) is updated to “1 5” (see the definition of predicate \( \text{Len} \) in Figure 7). The \( \hat{q}_{k_{it}} \) is finally updated to status 2 when finishing this sentence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Flag Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Len(2, 5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9: The State Matrix for controlling the length of the second sentence. The yellow cell indicates the status update.

We further show the actual state matrix used in the Commonsense Generation and the document-level machine translation task in Figure 10 and 11 respectively. In both tasks, the number of \( q_{k_{it}} \) is linear to the number of input concept words or the number of input source sentences. In our implementation, we compress \( q_{k_{it}}^{1} \) and \( q_{k_{it}}^{2} \) if they satisfy the following two conditions:

- \( U_{k_1} \) and \( U_{k_2} \) are the same predicate.
- the variables of \( U_{k_1} \) and \( U_{k_2} \) are disjoint or the “in progress” period of \( U_{k_1} \) and \( U_{k_2} \) are not overlapped.

After the above compression, the length of \( \{q_{k_{it}}^{k}\} \) in the Commonsense Generation task and Document-level Machine Translation task becomes one.
### State Flag Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Χ</th>
<th>Y&lt;sub&gt;τ&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>smoke</th>
<th>blowing</th>
<th>from</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>pipe</th>
<th>EOS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy(smoke)</td>
<td>O N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copy(blow)</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
<td>N O N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copy(pipe)</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
<td>N N N O N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
<td>N N N N N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 10:** The State Matrix for the Commonsense Generation task. In this task, the status is updated once the keywords or phrases are fully mentioned in the outputs.

### State Flag Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hello</th>
<th>Everyone</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>is</th>
<th>the</th>
<th>spirit</th>
<th>of</th>
<th>human</th>
<th>EOS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>大</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>家</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>好</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>1 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
<td>2 N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>语</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>言</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>是</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>人</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>类</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>之</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>魂</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N O</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
<td>N 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>translateOnce(1)</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>translateOnce(2)</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td>N N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 11:** The State Matrix for the Document-level Machine Translation. The yellow cell indicates the status update. In this task, the status is updated once one sentence is finished.
5.4 More Results for Controllable ROCStories Generation Experiment

In this section, we conduct more analysis in Table 11 and 12 for the rules with relatively low Constraint Success Ratio (CSR) in Table 1, Sec. 3.1 (Controllable ROCStories Generation Experiment). Specifically, they are:

- \( R_1 = \text{InSen}(w^1, y^i) \land \text{InSen}(w^2, y^j) \land \text{Len}(y^i, l_i) \land \text{Len}(y^j, l_j); \)
- \( R_2 = (\neg \text{InSen}(w^3, y^j)) \land (\text{Len}(y^i, l_i) \lor \text{StopWordCount}(y^i, s_i)) \land \text{InSen}(w^1, y^i) \land \text{InSen}(w^2, y^j); \)
- \( R_3 = (\text{Len}(y^i, l_i) \lor \text{StopWordCount}(y^i, s_i)) \land (\text{Len}(y^j, l_j) \lor \text{StopWordCount}(y^j, s_j)) \land \text{InSen}(w^1, y^i) \land \text{InSen}(w^2, y^j) \)

The full CSR for \( R_1, R_2 \) and \( R_3 \) is relatively low in Table 1, Sec 3.1. As all of them involve length and stop word control, we are interested in how accurate they are when they are allowed to make small control errors. We calculate Constraint Success Ratio with errors \( \pm 1 \) and \( \pm 2 \) in Table 11.

Under errors \( \pm 1 \), the CSR of NRETM model is significantly improved. In \( R_3 \), the CSR of the NRETM model is improved from 35.9% to 64.4%. In three rules, the NRETM model is 20% - 30% higher than the T5 baseline model. Under errors \( \pm 2 \), among all three rules, the lowest CSR for the NRETM model is 82.1%. The NRETM model can still improve the CSR of baseline model by 6% to 11%. Note that \( \pm 2 \) is a relatively large error gap in ROCStories dataset because each sentence only has, on average, 7.3 stop words. This explains the smaller CSR gap between the NRETM and T5 baseline model in the CSR \( \pm 2 \) setup. In summary, the NRETM model reasonably completes this controllable text generation task.

Table 11: Constraint Success Ratio with total length and stop word count errors \( \pm 1 \) and \( \pm 2 \).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#R</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>CSR (±0)</th>
<th>CSR (±1)</th>
<th>CSR (±2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>89.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>97.0</td>
<td>98.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>89.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRETM</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>82.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We further break the CSR into predicate level in Table 12. The NRETM model achieves consistently higher CSR in all predicates than the T5 baseline model. Specifically, both T5 baseline and NRETM model achieve near-perfect performance in the predicate InSen. We believe that this is due to effect of the large-scale pre-training in the T5 model. The length control Len is more challenging than InSen. The NRETM model achieves around CSR 90%, while the baseline model only achieves CSR 38%. This shows that simply feeding the target length to the S2S encoder cannot properly control the output text length. When using the logical word \( \lor \) in \( R_2 \) and \( R_3 \), the CSR for Len is around 50 - 60%. Unlike \( R_1 \) where the model is always trained to satisfy predicate Len, in \( R_2 \) and \( R_3 \), only 67% of the training data satisfy predicate Len. The predicate StopWordCount is even more challenging: the NRETM model only achieves 43.2% and 28.6% CSR in \( R_2 \) and \( R_3 \), respectively. This may because the models have to distinguish between stop word tokens and non-stop word tokens.
Table 12: Predicate-Level Constraint Success Ratio. InS: InSen; L: Len; SWC: StopWordCount;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>InS($w_1, y^i$)</th>
<th>InS($w_2, y^j$)</th>
<th>L($y^i, l_i$)</th>
<th>L($y^j, l_j$)</th>
<th>SWC($y^i, s_i$)</th>
<th>SWC($y^j, s_j$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R₁</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>99.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRET5</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>99.3</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>91.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R₂</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRET5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R₃</td>
<td>T5</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NRET5</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.5 Implementation Details For Each Evaluation Task

In this section, we will introduce the implementation details of all our evaluation tasks. In our experiments, we use three different pre-trained language models, T5-base, T5-Large and MBart-Large. We use the implementation of huggingface transformers\footnote{https://github.com/huggingface/transformers} We modify their decoder models to integrate our state matrix and use their provided model weights in our experiment. We only additional introduce the State Matrix Encoder. It is a one-layer transformer encoder. Its hidden size equals to the dimension of each head in the pre-trained transformer-based language models. The size of its FFN layer is 256. The number of its heads is 4.

**Controllable ROCStories Generation** We first use RAKE algorithm (implemented by https://github.com/csurfer/rake-nltk) to extract storyline (i.e., key words and phrases) from the ground-truth stories. In the ROCStories dataset, each story has 5 sentences. For extracted storylines, we can easily find their original sentence index and ordering. We can also extract total length and stop word counts from each sentence in the ground-truth stories. We use these information to construct the training rules. For rules with only logic $\land$, we simply use these extracted ground-truth information as the predicate logic constraint. For rules with logic $\lor$ (e.g., $R_2$ and $R_3$ in A.4), we create all cases with equal proportion in the training data. For example, for clause $\text{Len}(y^i,l_i) \lor \text{StopWordCount}(y^i,s_i)$, we create 33% of the training data only satisfy $\text{Len}(y^i,l_i)$, 33% of the training only satisfy $\text{StopWordCount}(y^i,s_i)$ and the remaining training data satisfy both of them. We can assign fake value for $l_i$ or $s_i$ for the above data argumentation. To improve the generalization of our pre-trained model, we freeze the parameters in the Self-Attention module and Feed-Forward Layers in each layer of the T5 decoder. This parameters freezing technology is applied to both T5 baseline models and the NRETM models in all of our experiments. We use constant learning rate $5e^{-5}$ and batch size 32 for this experiment.

**Commonsense Generation** In the Commonsense Generation task, we first use NLTK toolkit to expand each input concept with all of its possible inflected forms, including plurals and different tenses. We further search the mention position of each input concept, including all of its inflected forms, on its corresponding ground-truth references. With this mention position, we can construct the state matrix shown in Figure 10 by putting Status 2 after this mention position and Status 0 before this mention position. We use the same model and training setup in the Controllable ROCStories Generation task. We use constant learning rate $5e^{-5}$ and batch size 48 for this experiment.

**Document-level Machine Translation** In the document-level Machine Translation, we split each documents into 2 - 4 trucks. Following the fine-tune setup in the original MBart paper, we use learning rate $3e^{-5}$. But we use batch size 8 and total training step 80k for our experiment.