

# Modeling Tension in Stories via Commonsense Reasoning and Emotional Word Embeddings

Anonymous ACL submission

## Abstract

Dramatic tension is crucial for generating interesting stories. This paper aims to model dramatic tension from a story text using neural commonsense-reasoning language models and emotional word embeddings. We also propose a method of converting a categorical emotion word into a numerical value. The evaluation results using human-annotated stories demonstrate that our proposed method is promising in predicting tension development in a story.

## 1 Introduction

Tension is a feeling of tightness, anxiety, uncertainty, and stress, as opposed to the feeling of relaxation. Dramatic tension is a nervous feeling created while reading a book or watching a movie. In psychology, experiencing tension is associated with both negative and positive emotions. Tension, as a negative experience similar to stress, is not desirable. But it can also serve as “a major motivator to engage in certain activities” and thus be a positive experience (Lehne and Koelsch, 2015). Dramatic tension in a narrative keeps the reader engaged in the story by generating questions about the story’s outcome (Bal, 2017).

Tension aroused from a conflict is innately associated with a closure, since a conflict is resolved by achieving a closure (Abbott, 2008). The lack of closure in a narrative results in “suspense” - “an emotion or state of mind arising from a partial and anxious uncertainty about the progression or outcome of an action” (Prince, 2003), which is, along with surprise, central to interesting and successful narratives (Abbott, 2008; Hoeken and Vliet, 2000). Freytag (1863) proposed a pyramidal structure of a story that entertains the reader. A story forms a triangle, with tension escalating up to peak of the triangle, reaching a climax, then declining toward the story’s resolution.

Despite the importance of tension in a story, few studies have researched the computational aspects

of tension. To the best of our knowledge, this paper is a first attempt to automatically calculate the dramatic tension elicited from reading a story text. While dramatic tension in general refers to the reader’s tension, it can also be aligned with the character’s tension when the two following conditions are met. First, the reader needs to empathize with the characters or to care about them. Second, there is no or little discrepancy between the knowledge of the reader and the characters. In this paper, we focus on the type of dramatic tension that is aligned with the character’s tension. Our contributions are as follows.

- We present a framework that measures tension using a commonsense language model and NLP techniques.
- We propose a method to convert a set of categorical emotion terms into a scalar representing tension using a word embedding model and an affective computing theory.
- We empirically evaluate our framework and demonstrate its utility in measuring dramatic tension.

## 2 Related Work

Dramatic tension has served as a guide for generating an intriguing plot in Interactive Storytelling (IS) fields such as Façade (Mateas and Stern, 2003) and IDTension (Szilas, 2003), based on the Aristotelian dramatic arc. Specifically, various attempts have been made in planning-based approaches to create dramatic tension. For instance, a story’s tension arcs are formalized by defining the reader’s knowledge about a clue in a “riddle” plot (Barros and Musse, 2008), and clichés-based dilemma is employed to add dramatic tension (Barber and Kudenko, 2007). In Ware et al. (2014), both external and internal conflicts deliver tension.

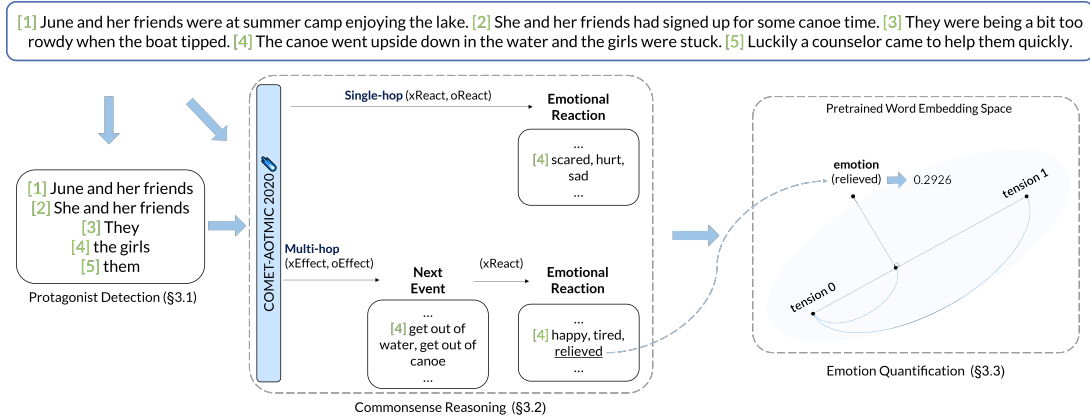


Figure 1: The overall framework of our tension modeling approach. First, we identify a protagonist in a story. Then, using the commonsense reasoning model, we infer the protagonist’s emotional reaction to a given event. Finally, each emotion reaction is projected to a pre-trained word embedding space, then we compute its tension.

078 Different schemes are proposed to annotate story  
 079 tension in diverse narrative media. For text stories,  
 080 Li et al. (2018) presents 360 annotated short stories  
 081 using ten categories of a dramatic arc. Yoon et al.  
 082 (2019) suggests a machine-assisted annotation pro-  
 083 cedure to label tension development with TED talk  
 084 videos. Specifically, Kybartas et al. (2021) explores  
 085 tension space based on Ryan’s possible world theo-  
 086 ry (Ryan, 1991) in an emergent narrative game.

087 Dramatic tension arouses suspense, making the  
 088 reader anticipate some notable events to unfold.  
 089 Wilmot and Keller (2020) proposes a hierarchical  
 090 language model for modeling narrative suspense  
 091 by computing two types of unexpectedness - sur-  
 092 prise in hindsight and uncertainty reduction look-  
 093 ing forward. Several recent studies, in similar con-  
 094 text, present unsupervised methods to learn and de-  
 095 tect event salience in narratives, using pre-trained  
 096 language models (Otake et al., 2020; Wilmot and  
 097 Keller, 2021).

### 098 3 Our Method

099 Our framework consists of three stages: (1) protag-  
 100 onist detection; (2) commonsense reasoning; and  
 101 (3) emotion quantification, as illustrated in Figure 1.

#### 102 3.1 Protagonist Detection

103 In the protagonist detection stage, we identify all  
 104 the entities mentioned in a story using a corefer-  
 105 ence resolution model. Following Brahman and  
 106 Chaturvedi (2020)’s system, we regard the entity  
 107 mentioned the most as the protagonist of the story.  
 108 For each sentence, we examine whether it contains  
 109 a protagonist or not, in order to determine the rela-  
 110 tion type (xReact or oReact) for commonsense

reasoning.

#### 112 3.2 Commonsense Reasoning

113 In this study, we measure dramatic tension based  
 114 on the protagonist’s emotional reaction. To infer  
 115 the emotional reaction, we utilize commonsense  
 116 reasoning transformer model, which was trained  
 117 on external knowledge bases such as ATOMIC-  
 118 2020 (Hwang et al., 2021). The reasoning model  
 119 provides two relations, xReact and oReact;  
 120 xReact infers the emotion of the sentence’s sub-  
 121 ject, and oReact infers the emotion of its object  
 122 (or the other). We infer with the xReact relation  
 123 when a sentence contains a protagonist; otherwise,  
 124 we use the oReact relation for reasoning. We  
 125 infer the protagonist’s emotional reaction via the  
 126 following one-hop and two-hop of reasoning.

#### 127 Single-hop: Reaction based on the current 128 event

129 First, this method focuses on the current event in a  
 130 story. We directly infer the emotion of the protag-  
 131 onist elicited from the current story sentence. We  
 132 generate up to 3 emotions for each sentence, and  
 133 exclude ‘none’ or empty results for further process-  
 134 ing.

#### 135 Multi-hop: Reaction based on the next event

136 We hypothesize that a reader’s tension may arise in  
 137 anticipation of an action or event that will follow  
 138 the current event. We use commonsense reasoning  
 139 with the xEffect and oEffect relations to infer  
 140 a follow-up sentence that is likely to occur as a  
 141 result of the current sentence. Then, we use only  
 142 the xReact relation to extract the emotion, as a

143 reaction to the next predicted event that occurs to  
144 the protagonist.

### 145 3.3 Emotion Quantification

146 The commonsense reasoning step produces the pro-  
147 tagonist’s emotional reactions as categorical terms  
148 such as happy, sad, frustrated, and angry. In order  
149 to estimate the tension value, we need to interpret  
150 them as numerical values. Therefore, we propose  
151 a novel method that computes an affect score of  
152 a word when two base vectors are given using a  
153 pre-trained word embedding model.

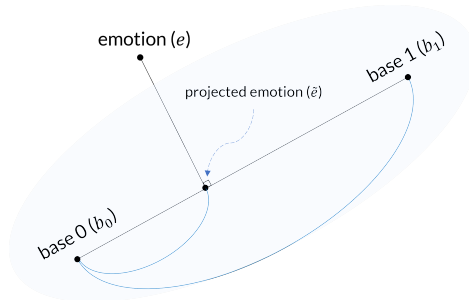


Figure 2: Converting an categorical emotion word into a scalar representation using a pre-trained word embedding model and projection.

154 First, we set a pair of affective words ( $b_0, b_1$ ) to  
155 form the base vector. Given the emotional reaction  
156 of the protagonist  $e$  and the pair of base words  $b_0$   
157 and  $b_1$ , we embed them into the pre-trained word  
158 embedding space. Then, we compute the scalar pro-  
159 jection of the embedding vector of  $e$  onto the line  
160 between the embedding vectors of  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ . We  
161 compute the scalar value of  $e$  as the length of the  
162 projected vector  $\tilde{e}$  onto the vector connecting the  
163 embedding vectors of  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ , setting the value of  
164  $b_0$  to 0 and the value of  $b_1$  to 1. Figure 2 illustrates  
165 the process of projecting emotional words, formul-  
166 ated as  $\frac{\|(e-b_0) \cdot (b_1-b_0)\|}{\|b_1-b_0\|^2}$ . We can combine multiple  
167 base vectors by averaging them. Drawn from affec-  
168 tive computing theories, we choose the pair of base  
169 words with opposite meanings to one another, refer-  
170 ring to the Plutchik (1980b)’s wheel of emotions  
171 and 2D emotion wheels models (Plutchik, 1980a).

## 172 4 Experiments

### 173 4.1 Dataset

174 We use the ROC stories (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016)  
175 corpus for the experiment. We use the winter 2017  
176 set which has 52,665 stories. Each story consists  
177 of five sentences containing everyday events that  
178 are causally and temporally related. We select 200

179 stories from the corpus to build a dataset for tension  
180 modeling. We recruited a total of 39 crowdsourcing  
181 workers via Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT), as-  
182 signing five annotators per story. Since numerical  
183 ratings among different people can be arbitrary, we  
184 asked them to annotate the changes in their level of  
185 tension (i.e., less tense, more tense, or no change)  
186 as the story unfolds. The gold label for each sen-  
187 tence of a story is determined by majority voting  
188 among the five annotators. More information for  
189 our annotation is described in Appendix A.

### 190 4.2 Implementation Details

191 We use the end-to-end neural coreference model  
192 provided in the AllenNLP library<sup>1</sup> for protagonist  
193 detection. We use the COMET-ATOMIC 2020  
194 BART model (Hwang et al., 2021) for common-  
195 sense reasoning. For emotion projection, we uti-  
196 lize a pre-trained emotional NumberBatch (Seyed-  
197 itabari et al., 2019) which is an emotional word em-  
198 bedding of NumberBatch, incorporating emotional  
199 constraint into the base word embedding. For mod-  
200 eling tension change, we determine ‘more tense or  
201 less tense’ if the difference between the tension in-  
202 ferred from reading the previous sentence and that  
203 inferred from the current sentence is greater than  
204 or equal to 0.2; otherwise, we determine that there  
205 is no change in tension between the two sentences.

### 206 4.3 Results

207 In our evaluation, we utilize the following two sim-  
208 ple baselines since no previous works on modeling  
209 tension are available.

- 210 • **Freytag’s Pyramid** - Freytag’s Pyramid theo-  
211 rizes that a good story forms a triangle, where  
212 dramatic tension slowly escalates from the  
213 story’s beginning up to the climax, followed  
214 by a steep downward slope up to its end. We  
215 refer to the pattern of tension escalating up to  
216 the fourth sentence and de-escalating at the  
217 fifth sentence as in Freytag’s Pyramid.
- 218 • **Gaussian Distribution** - Adopting the view  
219 in (Lin and Riedl, 2021) regarding a story arc  
220 as Gaussian Distribution when tension rises  
221 up to the story’s middle and declines towards  
222 the end, we consider the pattern of two con-  
223 secutive escalating tension followed by two  
224 consecutive declining tension as in the Gaus-  
225 sian Distribution.

<sup>1</sup><https://github.com/allenai/allennlp>

Methods with base words		Accuracy	Macro-F1
Baseline	Freytag’s Pyramid	39.37	35.47
	Gaussian Distribution	36.19	30.04
Single-hop	sadness ↔ joy	<b>53.36</b>	<b>49.44</b>
	surprise ↔ anticipation	46.46	33.91
	disgust ↔ trust	51.12	45.36
	sadness, disgust ↔ joy, trust	<b>53.92</b>	<b>50.23</b>
	tense ↔ calm	42.72	19.98
	alarmed ↔ relaxed	48.32	38.15
	afraid ↔ satisfied	52.43	47.83
Multi-hop	sadness ↔ joy	47.76	45.53
	surprise ↔ anticipation	46.46	30.50
	disgust ↔ trust	47.39	41.47
	sadness, disgust ↔ joy, trust	47.95	46.23

Table 1: The overall results of evaluating the single-hop and multi-hop reasoning combined with different pairs of base words. For comparison with baselines, we employ Freytag’s Pyramid and Gaussian Distribution.

Table 1 shows the overall accuracy and macro-f1 scores using the the ROC dataset annotated with tension development. The overall results indicate that the single-hop reasoning method outperforms the multi-hop method. We obtain the highest accuracy of 53.92 and F1 of 50.23 applying the single-hop reasoning with multiple emotions as the base words (i.e., ‘sadness’, ‘disgust’ ↔ ‘joy’, ‘trust’). This suggests that dramatic tension arises more from the current event than the event expected to occur. We obtain the second best performance with using the pair of ‘sadness’ and ‘joy’ as base words. We experimented combining multiple pairs of base words, but did not obtain a better result.

#### 4.4 Case Study

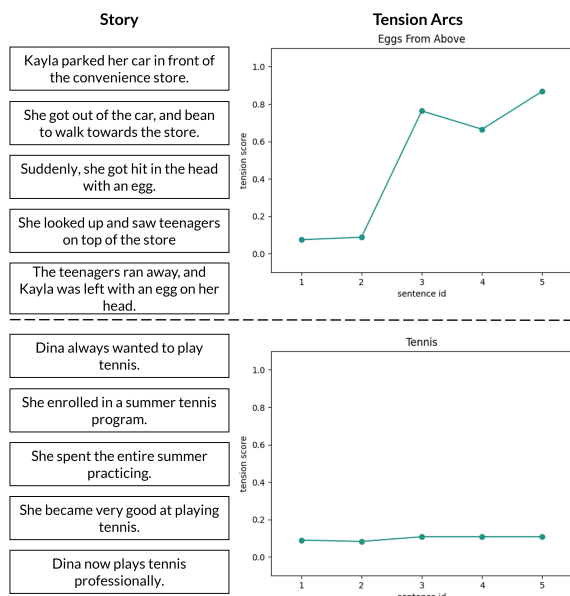


Figure 3: Two case studies from ROC Corpus.

Figure 3 shows successful examples of tension graphs generated using two stories in the ROC-Stories corpus. The upper graph shows that our method produces high tension values at the third and the fifth sentence where the protagonist is hit by an egg and leaves when the perpetrators ran away. In the latter case where all the workers reported ‘no change’ throughout the story, the generated tension does not alter significantly.

## 5 Conclusion

This paper presents a commonsense reasoning based approach for modeling dramatic tension, which is crucial to storytelling. To this end, we propose a computation method to convert emotion terms into a scalar using word embeddings and projection. We carried out evaluations with crowdsourced annotations using ROCStories as the source data. The evaluation results show that our proposed method outperforms simple static baselines in predicting tension development in a story. Our tension modeling can contribute to analyzing story structures and patterns (Reagan et al., 2016). Furthermore, this work can be used for applications such as authoring assistant tools to evaluate the quality of a story or to manage the user experience in interactive storytelling applications.

However, our current system is limited in that the reasoning model employed in this study does not consider previous context in reasoning, therefore, incorrect emotions can be inferred depending on the context of a story. We expect that our method will perform better when context-aware reasoning is provided.

## Ethical and societal implications

Our paper describes a framework to model tension in short stories. This work can contribute to developing a simple contents filter by capturing high tension. The dataset used in our work is limited to the story domain, and does not have any privacy concerns. The annotation procedure also does not contain any privacy concerns, and the annotated data are not published.

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 397 *Crowdsourced Annotations for NLP*, pages 39–47,  
 398 Hong Kong. Association for Computational Linguis-  
 399 tics.

400 **A Tension Annotation**

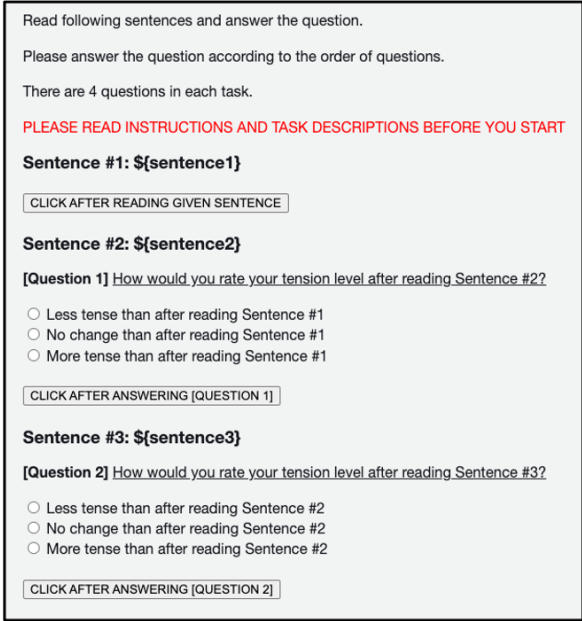


Figure 4: A screenshot of the annotation procedure in Amazon Mechanical Turk

401 We conducted a tension annotation using Ama-  
 402 zon Mechanical Turk. Figure 4 shows a screenshot  
 403 of the annotation procedure. We allocated five min-  
 404 utes for each task and rewarded \$0.6 for each HIT.  
 405 We held a qualification test to check out understand-  
 406 ing the narrative tension. After the qualification  
 407 test, we received consent to use curated data for  
 408 our research. All data are anonymized. A total of  
 409 39 workers participate in our annotation.