SEE&TELL: Controllable Narrative Generation from Images

Stephanie M. Lukin^{1*} and Sungmin Eum^{1,2*}

¹U.S. Army Research Lab, Adelphi, MD 20783 ²Booz Allen Hamilton stephanie.m.lukin.civ@army.mil, eum_sungmin@bah.com

Abstract

We propose a visual storytelling framework with a distinction between what is present and observable in the visual storyworld, and what story is ultimately told. We implement a model that tells a story from an image using three affordances: 1) a fixed set of visual properties in an image that constitute a holistic representation its contents, 2) a variable stage direction that establishes the story setting, and 3) incremental questions about character goals. The generated narrative plans are then realized as expressive texts using few-shot learning. Following this approach, we generated 64 visual stories and measured the preservation, loss, and gain of visual information throughout the pipeline, and the willingness of a reader to take action to read more. We report different proportions of visual information preserved and lost depending upon the phase of the pipeline and the stage direction's apparent relatedness to the image, and report 83% of stories were found to be interesting.

Introduction

There are many different ways to tell a story. By changing the narrating character or altering the tone, different tellings of the same underlying sequence of events can be realized in a variety of ways (Lönneker 2005). Key in these computational approaches is the ability to distinguish between the story contents, i.e., all the known characters, locations, and possible events in the story world-the fabula (Propp 1968)—and the story telling, i.e., the selection and presentation of information that reflect the desired state of the final story-the sujet (Propp 1968). In this way, the same story world can hold many different tales just waiting to be told. We recognize that this same phenomena is present in images as well; not only are there many ways to tell a story, but many possible stories that can be told from a single image. We posit that this phenomena can be observed in visual storytelling if we re-imagine the *fabula* as a portfolio of story knowledge from the visual affordances in imagery, from which different events can be derived, selected, and generated as an expressive textual telling of a story.



Stage direction: People are lining the streets to see the parade. **Generated Narrative Plan:** The goal of the people is to see the parade. The people will achieve their goal by the people will gather on the street and line up to see the parade. But the people could not achieve their goal if the weather was bad and the parade was cancelled. The weather must be good and the parade must go on.

Generated Expressive Text: The big day had finally arrived! The people gathered in front of the supermarket to see the parade. They all stood in line, chatting and laughing as they waited. If it rained or if there was a flood, they'd miss the parade!

Stage direction: A thief is observing the scene prior to a planned robbery.

Generated Narrative Plan: The goal of the thief is to rob the group of people in the background. The thief will achieve their goal by the thief will steal one of the umbrellas. But if the thief does not have the patience to wait for the right moment. The group of people in the background must move towards the thief. **Generated Expressive Text:** The thief looked in from afar. It was time for the thief to strike. The group was walking down the street, ready for a fun night on the town. The thief had the perfect mission: grab one of their umbrellas, and run away. A fool-proof plan. However, this was a group of people who knew each other well. They knew how to fend for themselves in dire situations. If necessary, they could work together to save their belongings from harm.

Table 1: Two different stage directions (manual input) for a single image, showing different generated narrative plans and expressive texts from our system.

We propose a framework called SEE&TELL that separates the act of 'seeing,' or observing the imagery, and 'telling,' or planning and explaining what is happening or

^{*}Both authors contributed equally to this work

Copyright © 2023, Association for the Advancement of Artificial Intelligence (www.aaai.org). All rights reserved.

what might happen next. Our implementation used a suite of computer vision and natural language generation algorithms that construct a holistic and computational representation of the contents of an image that were seen. From this and a separate input that guides the story's direction (called a stage direction; examples shown in Table 1), our system constructs a narrative plan using incremental question-answering capabilities driven by character goals and motivations (generated narrative plans shown in Table 1). Finally, the plan is embellished into an expressive text using few-shot learning (generated expressive texts in Table 1). The top story features a crowd enjoying the parade, which is what the majority of the people in the image appear to be doing on this rainy day, while the bottom story imagines this as a potential venue for a robbery, with an unknown thief targeting the umbrellas in the crowd. Following prior definitions of creativity as a solution or idea that has significant novelty and practical usefulness (Wallas 1926; Turner 1993), we measure the novelty that the story presents with respect to the image contents, as well as its impact to the reader. We develop new scales in our evaluation instead of relying on existing methodologies to remove the variability in interpreting Likert scales.

The paper contributions are as follows: 1) we propose a narrative-inspired implementation-agnostic framework for visual storytelling; 2) we present our selected implementation using computer vision, natural language generation, and large language models; and 3) we conduct annotation and analysis of 64 generated visual stories that elicit a variety of different possible storylines drawn from the same image, as measured by visual novelty and a reader willingness to read more.

Related Work

Visual Storytelling

Visual storytelling has been widely studied, from coconstructing stories by brainstorming and drawing with an agent (Zhang et al. 2022), to selecting or generating a sequence of images that tell a story (Cardona-Rivera and Li 2016; Martens, Cardona-Rivera, and Cohn 2020). In this work, our treatment of visual storytelling involves the generation of a textual story from an image or image sequence. Visual storytelling systems of this sort are commonly composed of neural models trained from large, crowdsourced datasets. These systems often require an input in the form of a title, genre, or single sentence that strives to situate the story in terms of characters, conflict, or style (e.g., in visual storytelling (Yao et al. 2019; Jana 2019; Ji et al. 2022) as well as non-visual neural storytelling systems (Fan, Lewis, and Dauphin 2018; Wang, Durrett, and Erk 2020)). While many of these systems can generate stories similar to the data they were trained on, such as the VIST dataset (Huang et al. 2016), some elements of control are afforded to the neural generation component, rather than a separate planning component, as has been done in traditional non-neural models of non-visual storytelling. Systems such as Mexica (Pérez y Pérez and Sharples 2001), Minstrel (Turner 1993), TaleSpin (Meehan 1977), IPOCL (Riedl and Young 2004), the Virtual Storyteller (Theune et al. 2003), and others can

initiate and complete a story arc comprised of the motivation, fulfillment, and failure of character or author goals. Recent non-visual storytelling work by Castricato et al. attempts to keep a neural generator 'on track' by issuing a series of questions that together form a coherent plot (Castricato et al. 2021). In our approach to follow, we require a sentence to set the direction of the story in order to test a variety of different stories that can be drawn from the same image, and further formulate and shape the story through incremental question-answering.

Researchers have approached visual storytelling by recognizing there are conceptually different mental and algorithmic processes that take place in this multi-modal exercise: perception and explanation. Perception involves observing the image(s) to understand what is being pictured, and explanation is the pulling together of relevant information for any such story (Lukin, Bonial, and Voss 2019). Drawing a hard distinction, however, may only serve to isolate one branch of the process from the other, where the generated plot diverges 'too far' from the image. In an example from Microsoft's Pix2Story system (Jana 2019), we see an example of how the perception component is able to understand the setting as involving one related to food and meals (from the fork, apple, orange, and onion pictured), yet the story diverges from what might have been the expected trajectory: "Over the last bit of meat, I began to eat... On the surface of the water was an emerald green with gold and silver, gold and silver liquid."¹ Recognizing this, practitioners have attempted to establish a relationship between the two sides of perception and generation through fine-tuning (Yu et al. 2021) or using external knowledge to bring together what is pictured with relevant terms or concepts to the story (Hsu et al. 2020; Yang et al. 2019).

Our work seeks to strengthen the motivation behind this distinction and overlap. We posit that all visual storytelling systems must navigate between determining what is pictured and the story to tell, as exemplified by Propp's conceptualization of a *fabula* and *sujet*. We present this framework as a way to unify how practitioners talk about visual storytelling with respect to the storytelling element, formulated upon successful theories that have yet to be applied to visual storytelling in this way.

Evaluating Visual Stories

To reflect the subjective nature of stories and language at large, practitioners of visual storytelling systems are increasingly turning to Likert scales instead of metrics such as BLEU and ROUGE, which are known to discourage diversity and often do not correspond well with human judgment (Sai, Mohankumar, and Khapra 2020). More suitable metrics include those targeted to the problem space, e.g., creativity, relevancy, and interest, as measured by Likert scales (Huang et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2018). Likert scales are not without their own shortcomings, however. Howcroft et al. state that "...the difference between 'very disfluent' & 'dis-

¹URL to image described http://www.cs.toronto.edu/~rkiros/ coco_dev/COCO_val2014_000000472246.jpg. Story excerpt from #14 http://www.cs.toronto.edu/~rkiros/adv_L.html.



Figure 1: SEE&TELL visual storytelling framework.

fluent' is [not] the same as the distance between 'slightly disfluent' & 'slightly fluent' on a 6-point scale" (Howcroft and Rieser 2021) (pg. 1), and thus, scores vary between raters. Likert scales can instead be reinterpreted as a forced-choice or recommendation such that raters do not have different interpretations of the numbers or labels on the scale. Or, instead of using these scales, an objective scoring mechanism can be adapted. For instance, Hu et al. propagate finegrained concepts forward in their visual storytelling pipeline by rewarding concepts more similar to the image (Hu et al. 2020). Their approach, however, focuses only on the preservation of visual information; in our study to follow, we model the introduction of new information and subsequent loss of existing information to study the complete interplay between the image and generated text.

SEE&TELL Visual Storytelling Framework

Based on the differentiation of *fabula* and *sujet*, we similarly outline our visual storytelling framework. Called SEE&TELL, we separate the act of 'seeing,' or observing the environment, from 'telling,' or explaining what is happening or what might happen next (depicted in Figure 1). First, to 'see', and to produce the visual fabula, or set of everything that is happening within the image, we propose that a holistic, computational representation of a SCENE can be formulated by enumerating over the entities and attributes, i.e., visual information, that appear in an image. Entities, or THINGS, can include identification of physical objects, their relative spatial locations, and traits such as color or material. These are elements of the image that can be easily labeled or marked. We additionally identify intangible attributes, what we call the MOOD, to assess elements that contribute to the setting, such as the lighting, the weather, and activities taking place. These unbounded elements are more challenging to capture, and prior works have focused primarily on tangible ones and their spatio-relationships (Cardona-Rivera and Li 2016; Yang et al. 2019).

The process for 'telling' is twofold and involves planning and generating. To plan, we require a particular story focus. For this, we introduce a stage direction to establish the starting point and main characters. Our usage of the term 'stage direction' is from theater, referring to an "instruction written into the script of a play, indicating stage actions, movements of performers, or production requirements" (Stage Direction. 2018)². Our framework then plans by asking and answering questions that interrogate the information 'seen' and provided in the stage direction. These questions probe at the characters' motivations and challenges in accomplishing them, and in sequence, can follow different dramatic structures, e.g., Aristotelian structure (Aristotle (330 BC) 1997). The answers to these questions form a narrative plan: all the information regarding the plot with respect to the image. The final stage of 'telling' transforms the outline of the narrative plan into an expressive text, the realization of a story telling. This 'tell' module is reminiscent of modular natural language generation systems (Reiter and Dale 2000).

Implementing SEE&TELL

We implemented our proposed framework using a suite of algorithms, manual stage directions, and questions, which all have the ability to be interchanged. Our selected components are described below, and examples shown in Figure 2.

THINGS. We defined THINGS as entity masks, labels, center of mass, depth, and color.

- Entity detector: Detectron2 provided masks, labels, and center of mass (Wu et al. 2019). We used the Large Vocabulary Instance Segmentation (LVIS) model, trained on more than 1,200 instances representative of the 'long tail' of entities (Gupta, Dollar, and Girshick 2019).
- Depth Estimator: K-means clustering was performed over the masks' depths as estimated by DiverseDepth to cluster the entities into the foreground and the background (Yin et al. 2020).
- Color Estimator: Color Thief averaged the pixels within a mask (Dhakar 2020), following Eum et al.'s process (Eum, Han, and Briggs 2020). The resulting HEX value was mapped to a language description from webcolors CSS3_HEX_TO_NAMES.³

MOOD. We defined the MOOD as the location, scene attributes, and a single sentence summary.

- Location Predictor: Places365 predicted the location pictured in an image (Zhou et al. 2017).
- Non-Tangible Attribute Predictor: The Scene Understanding (SUN) predictor identified non-tangible attributes, such as function, action, and ambient lighting (Patterson and Hays 2012; Patterson et al. 2014; Xiao et al. 2016, 2010).
- Summarizer: MMF generated a one-sentence caption describing the image (Singh et al. 2020).

SCENE. We generated a SCENE by compiling the extracted visual information from the THINGS and MOOD into natural language. We used PySimpleNLG⁴, a python port of SimpleNLG (Gatt and Reiter 2009) to create the following:

²Many prior visual and non-visual storytelling works use the term 'prompt,' which serves to prompt the system in its generation. However, with 'prompt' now used as a standard in large language models, we introduce a term more closely tied to storytelling.

³https://pypi.org/project/webcolors/1.3/

⁴https://github.com/bjascob/pySimpleNLG



Figure 2: **SEE&TELL implementation with examples.** System output from the THINGS and the MOOD components are fed into the SCENE description generator. The compositional SCENE is paired with a stage direction and question to generate one part of the narrative plan. This process is repeated for each question. The final narrative plan is assembled, and a few-shot learning paradigm generates an expressive text of that plan.

This is [LOCATION] with [LIGHTING]. It is an [SPATIAL ATTRIBUTES] where [ACTIVITIES] can take place here. Here we see [LIST ENTITIES IN THE FOREGROUND AND THEIR COLOR]. In the background is/are [LIST ENTITIES IN THE BACK-GROUND AND THEIR COLOR]. [SUMMARY].

STAGE DIRECTION. We designed and tested eight different stage directions. One type we call 'spontaneous,' in that it is image-dependent and drawn from impromptu human description of the image from crowdsourced visual storytelling data (Halperin and Lukin 2023). The other seven were fixed, and inspired by visual and non-visual story generation works that utilize a stage direction of sorts. The fixed are listed below, as well as an example of a spontaneous type. In parentheses is a key phrase which is later used to refer each type.

• A secret agent must take down a terrorist mastermind. (Riedl and Young 2005) (agent)

- A Lady of the Court named Jennifer is in love with a knight named Grunfeld. (Turner 1993) (lady)
- The Mage, the Warrior, and the Priest go on an adventure. (Fan, Lewis, and Dauphin 2018) (mage)
- A princess is in love with a man whose values clash with her own. (Pérez y Pérez and Sharples 2001) (princess)
- A robot is looking for an evacuation route after a natural disaster. (Lukin, Hobbs, and Voss 2018) (robot)
- A search and rescue team is looking for a missing person. (Lukin, Hobbs, and Voss 2018) (search)
- A thief is observing the scene prior to a planned robbery. (thief)
- People are lining the streets to see the parade. (Halperin and Lukin 2023) (spontaneous)

QUESTIONS. We designed and tested four questions to serve as the minimum number of points that would conform

to Aristotelian 3-act structure: exposition, rising action, climax, falling action, denouement (the final two elements are combined into a single question). Each question explicitly included the subject(s) mentioned from the stage direction. The questions progressively build upon the results of the prior.

- 1. What is the goal of [THE SUBJECT]?
- 2. What will [THE SUBJECT] do to achieve their goal?
- 3. What could prevent [THE SUBJECT] from achieving their goal?
- 4. What must happen next in order for [THE SUBJECT] to achieve their goal?

These questions differ from prior visual questionanswering (VQA) tasks where questions can be answered directly from the image, e.g., counting objects or identifying object co-locations (Antol et al. 2015); instead, our questions require commonsense and external knowledge not found in the images. Our framework can inherently control the narrative's complexity and length by adding more questions without compromising the computational load.

NARRATIVE PLAN. We generated narrative plans by sequentially answering the questions, building upon the prior answers. Following recent works that have shown how large language models can both answer questions about direct facts of a news article, as well as imagine the possibilities if something went differently (Summers-Stay, Bonial, and Voss 2021), we utilize GPT-3 to answer our questions. We chain prompts for GPT-3⁵, where each prompt contains the SCENE, stage direction, question, and prior answers. The complete narrative plan is the concatenation of each answer, resulting in a four-sentence text. Below is the GPT-3 template with variables in square brackets, and a "Q/A" prompt, following the prefix prompt approach described in Liu et al. (2021):

Read the description below and answer the question based on what you read. [SCENE]. [STAGE DIRECTION]. [PRIOR NARRA-TIVE PLANS] Q. [QUESTION]. A.

By chaining prompts, GPT-3 answers only one question at a time, allowing it to better focus on the requested generation and mitigate deviations. Below is the GPT-3 prompt filled in with the SCENE, the stage direction (underlined), the chained narrative plan (i.e., the answers to the previous questions, in

italics), and the GPT-3 answer to this question (in **bold**): Read the description below and answer the question based on what you read. This is a stage/outdoor with natural light. It is an open area where congregating and socializing can take place. Here we see an indian red umbrella, a light sky blue plastic bag, a light slate gray umbrella and a light pink umbrella in the foreground. In the background is a dark gray boot. A group of people walking down a street. People are lining the streets to see the parade. *The goal of the people is to see the parade. The goal of the people is to see the parade.* Q. What could prevent the people from achieving their goal?

A. The people could not achieve their goal if the weather was bad and the parade was canceled.

The final narrative plan was the concatenation of all four answers, as shown in Table 1.

EXPRESSIVE TEXTS. We generated expressive texts that realized a particular narrative plan using GPT-3 and a few-shot learning paradigm⁶. Two sets of demonstrations were given to GPT-3, where each demonstration consisted of a narrative plan generated from SEE&TELL, and a story written by an author of this paper to show the type of translation of material from narrative plan to expressive text. We chose a few-shot approach because of the diversity in the narrative plans, and selected one narrative plan with a spontaneous stage direction and another with the 'robot'. We crafted a new GPT-3 prompt following the example below (narrative plan to be converted into expressive text in *italics*):

Narrative Plan: The goal of the robot is to find an evacuation route for the people. The robot will achieve their goal by the robot will find the evacuation route for the people. But the robot could not find the evacuation route for the people. The robot must find the evacuation route for the people.

Expressive Text: The robot was programmed with only one goal in mind: the safety of people. In dire situations, the robot was responsible for scouting out potential evacuation routes. If the robot couldn't secure a route, it would have utterly failed. It makes it its duty to always be on guard.

###

Narrative Plan: The goal of the people is to have fun and enjoy themselves. The people will achieve their goal by they will walk down the street and have fun. But the people are walking down the street. The people must walk down the street and have fun.

Expressive Text: Finally, it was time for fun. The group met up on the street, ready to walk and have fun. The worst thing would be if someone didn't join them, so they made sure everyone came along. They absolutely wanted to celebrate together.

###

⁵We used the davinci model, temperature of 0.5, and top p of 1.

⁶We used the davinci model, temperature of 0.8, and top p of 1.

Narrative Plan: The goal of the princess is to get married to the man she loves. The princess will achieve their goal by use a light pink umbrella. But the princess could not achieve their goal because she did not use a dark red umbrella. The princess must use a dark red umbrella. Expressive Text:

GPT-3 followed the provided pattern and generated the final expressive text section left blank in the template, based on the final narrative plan of the prompt. The expressive text for the template above is shown in Table 1.

Creativity Metrics for Visual Storytelling

We designed evaluation metrics for visual storytelling that eliminated variability in interpreting the scores. To map to the novelty aspect of creativity, we modeled the relationship of new vs. grounded information with respect to the image. Instead of using a 5-point Likert scale, we crafted quantifiable measures that could be scored by trained annotators, and in the future, learned by automated scoring systems. To map to the usefulness aspect of creativity, we selected an 'engagement' application, and designed a scale to measure how effective the stories are at engaging a reader, rather than a generic interest Likert scale.

Visual Novelty

We measured novelty as the consecutive, step-wise preservation, loss, and gain of visual information throughout the visual storytelling pipeline. Figure 3 shows examples of how visual information is passed, lost, and gained through each stage of generation.



Figure 3: **Preservation, loss and gain of visual information.** Explicit and implicit preservation are annotated in red and green, respectively. Losses are crossed out, and gains are highlighted in yellow.

Preservation is the forward propagation of visual information in the SEE&TELL framework. In Figure 3, outlined in a red box, we see that street was present in the SCENE and appeared again in the narrative plan, and that parade in the stage direction appeared in the narrative plan, and again in the expressive text. Loss is the dropping of visual information such that is does not propagate forward in the framework. A number of visual information present in the SCENE in Figure 3 did not appear in the narrative plan, including a light sky blue plastic bag and dark gray boot (crossed out in the figure). Finally, gain is the introduction of new visual information not present in the immediate prior text in the framework. We note that no new information was introduced in the narrative plan in this example, but that supermarket and chatting and laughing⁷ were introduced in the expressive text (highlighted in yellow in the figure).

We further observed that while some pairs were word-forword overlaps, e.g., *street*, others used similar terms implied to be related, for example, *umbrella*, *weather*, and *flood*. Both explicit and implicit matches (represented as red and green boxes in the figure respectively) were considered.

We model preservation, loss, and gain by first defining SC, SD, NP, and ET as the sets of visual information contained in the SCENE, stage direction, narrative plan, and expressive text respectively. The preservation-ratio from SCENE to narrative plan ($SC \rightarrow NP$) is defined as the overlap of visual information in SC and NP, divided by the total visual information in SC:

$$preserve_{SC \to NP} = \frac{|SC \cup NP|}{|SC|} \tag{1}$$

The loss ratio from $SC \rightarrow NP$ is defined as the visual information in SC that do not appear in NP, divided by the total visual information in SC:

$$loss_{SC \to NP} = \frac{|SC - NP|}{|SC|} \tag{2}$$

The gain-ratio from SCENE and stage direction to narrative plan $(SC, SD \rightarrow NP)$ is defined as the visual information that appear in NP yet do not appear in SC or SD, divided by the total visual information in NP:

$$gain_{SC,SD \to NP} = \frac{|(NP - SC)| + |(NP - SD)|}{|NP|} \quad (3)$$

Using the same formula for preservation and loss, we compute $preserve_{SD \rightarrow NP}$ and $loss_{SD \rightarrow NP}$ for stage directions and narrative plans, and $preserve_{NP \rightarrow ET}$ and $loss_{NP \rightarrow ET}$ for narrative plans and expressive text. We additionally compute $gain_{NP \rightarrow ET}$ for gains in the expressive text from the narrative plan.

Reader Engagement

To measure reader engagement, we create a forced categorical choice to better align responses by raters across a number

⁷While *congregating and socializing* did appear in the SCENE, because these concepts were not carried over into the narrative plan, they then counted as novel concepts in the expressive text.

of stories. The following definition is provided to situate the rater prior to giving their score: "A story world is comprised of characters, actions, and plot progression. Please give your rating based on the content of the narrative you read, rather than the delivery (i.e., grammar, spelling, word choice)." The rater is then shown an expressive text with matching image on a computer screen, and is given three options from which they must select one:

- "The storyworld is interesting. I would take action to read more, e.g., click or scroll to the next page."
- "The storyworld is somewhat interesting, but I wouldn't go out of my way to read more."
- "The storyworld is NOT interesting at all."

Annotation and Experimentation

To develop a high reliability for annotating the visual novelty metrics, six images from the VIST dataset (Huang et al. 2016) were used to generate six stories from SEE&TELL, and were doubly annotated by authors of this paper for explicit and implicit pairs between the SC and NP sets as described above. Four rounds of adjudication were conducted until a high consensus was reached. Interannotator agreement was computed using Krippendorff's α (Krippendorff 1980), and were $\alpha = 0.92$ and $\alpha = 0.82$ for explicit and implicit pairs respectively, representing high agreement.

After the final revision of the annotation guidelines, a new set of eight images from the VIST dataset were run through SEE&TELL for each of the eight stage directions, resulting in 64 unique stories. The visual novelty annotation was conducted by one of the same annotators involved in the development of the schema, and the reader engagement was conducted by a single volunteer with a degree in linguistics.

Analysis and Discussion

Preservation, Loss, and Gain of Visual Information

We report the total visual information per set and averaged across all 64 stories as follows: |SC| = 10.3, |SD| = 1.8, |NP| = 3.0, |ET| = 4.5. Using Equations 1- 3, we compute the preservation, loss, and gain-ratios and report them as percentages in Table 2. We observe that across all stories, 90% of the visual information in the SCENE was lost and did not appear in the subsequent narrative plan ($loss_{SC \rightarrow NP}$). While this number might seem high for a system designed for *visual* storytelling, we acknowledge that no such baseline exists for the average or 'ideal' percentage of preservation or loss from an image to a narrative plan. Having it now, we can begin to understand the range of values observed, and unpack the interpretations.

To understand what these scores mean, we recall what is happening in SEE&TELL at this stage in the framework: GPT-3 has generated a narrative plan that answered the supplied questions. GPT-3 was also given a description of the SCENE and the stage direction to use as background knowledge for determining the answer. In doing so, it was picking the visual information from what it was given that best help it answer the question. Therefore we can claim that on average, 10% of visual information in the SCENE $(preserve_{SC \rightarrow NP})$ correspond more highly to answering the questions than the other 90%.

A range of $preserve_{SC \rightarrow NP}$ scores across stage direction is observed, ranging from a low of 2% in the 'lady' stage direction, to the 'spontaneous' stories having the highest percent of 23% This makes intuitive sense, as the 'spontaneous' stage direction is directly tied to the image itself, and is more likely to contain SCENE references that better help GPT-3 answer the question about that stage direction. For other scenarios, such as the 'lady,' neither a 'Lady of the Court' nor 'knight' nor their immediate mental associations (e.g., a castle, a horse, etc.) are apparent in the images, and thus the SCENES are less likely to contain visual information for GPT-3 to answer the question.

The opposite trend is exhibited for $loss_{SD \to NP}$. Here, on average, there was only a 15% loss from stage direction to narrative plan. We recall that the characters from the stage direction GPT-3 was given also appear in the questions. Therefore, to answer the question, GPT-3 is more likely to include visual information from the stage direction in its answer, including the characters, and a preserve_{SD \rightarrow NP} of 85% suggests that GPT-3 is generating answers as we expect. Most of the stories have a 100% preservation-ratio, with the 'robot' stories scoring the lowest at 65%. We may interpret here that the visual information included in stage directions is not unilaterally incorporated by GPT-3 in answering questions; some visual information may be more challenging to incorporate than others. We take from these analyses that the stage direction is a stronger influence on GPT-3 for answering the questions than the SCENE, yet there is still a range preserved from the scene.

When looking at $loss_{NP\to ET}$, we observe an average of 11%. At this point in the pipeline, GPT-3 is being told to transform a narrative plan into an expressive text, where the examples matched a number of visual information. An average $preserve_{NP\to ET}$ of 89% suggests that GPT-3 is again doing as it is instructed.

To unpack the gain-ratios, we understand that when moving from SCENE and stage direction to narrative plan, GPT-3 is still answering the question, and deciding that some elements of the story world were unknown but necessary, and novelly introduced to fit the answer. We observe a gain of 16% in $gain_{SC,SD\to NP}$, representing a subset of visual information GPT-3 decided was important in answering the question but was not given in the SCENE or stage direction. When moving from narrative plan to expressive text, GPT-3 is learning from few-shot demonstrations to embellish the narrative plan. A $gain_{NP\to ET}$ of 63% suggests that it is indeed following those instructions to add more detail to the expression of the story.

Willingness to Read More

The three right-most columns in Table 2 show the rater engagement scores. Of the 64 stories, 31% were scored as being interesting where the rater was willing to take action to read more (IntTakeAct), 52% were scored as being somewhat interesting but not willing to take action to read more (IntNoAct), and the remaining 17% were scored as being uninteresting and unwilling to reading more (NoInt). While

	$SC \rightarrow NP$		$SD \rightarrow NP$		$NP \rightarrow ET$		$SC,SD \rightarrow NP$	$NP \rightarrow ET$	Engagement with ET		
	Preserve	Loss	Preserve	Loss	Preserve	Loss	Gain	Gain	IntTakeAct	IntNoAct	NoInt
all	10%	90%	85%	15%	89%	11%	16%	63%	31%	52%	17%
agent	5%	95%	100%	0	91%	9%	0	59%	50%	38%	13%
lady	2%	98%	100%	0	74%	26%	40%	33%	13%	75%	13%
mage	9%	91%	100%	0	100%	0	18%	80%	38%	50%	13%
princ.	9%	91%	71%	29%	83%	17%	8%	67%	0	38%	63%
robot	5%	95%	65%	35%	90%	10%	5%	57%	38%	38%	25%
spont.	23%	77%	77%	23%	100%	0	6%	81%	13%	88%	0
search	10%	90%	100%	0	91%	9%	6%	59%	25%	63%	13%
thief	16%	84%	100%	0	86%	14%	28%	69%	75%	25%	0

Table 2: Average preservation, loss, and gain-ratios, and usefulness statistics across 64 SEE&TELL stories. The first column represents which stage direction was used to generate the story.

the majority of responses fall in the middle of the scale, we recall that this scale is not a 1-3 Likert scale where the interpretation of the middle score can be interpreted by raters and experimenters differently. The middle score on our scale states that the stories were somewhat interesting. Therefore, 83% of our generated expressive texts were deemed to be of some interest to the reader, while for the top 31%, the reader would have gone out of their way to read more.

Engagement greatly varied by stage direction, with the 'thief' stories having 75% of stories score IntTakeAct, yet the 'princess,' having 63% score NoInt. The rater provided free-text responses with their scores, and commented on whether or not the story "fit" the picture, revealing that that may have been tied to their scoring. For example, for the top story in Table 1, the rater scored it as IntNoAction and wrote *The story fit the picture, but was not enthralling.* For the bottom story in the same table, the rater scored it Int-TakeAct and wrote *Ominous as to who the thief could be in the picture.*

Conclusions and Future Work

This paper presented SEE&TELL as a visual storytelling framework that separated 'seeing' from 'telling' and implemented a question-answering and few-shot approach to generate stories. Our evaluation revealed that our system preserves 10% of visual information from SCENE to narrative plan, and that 16% and 63% of the visual information in the narrative plan and expressive text respectively are novelly generated and embellished by GPT-3. Eighty three percent of the expressive texts were deemed interesting, with 31% being engaging.

Our visual novelty scores provided a baseline for the next step in this research to explore if preservation, loss, and gainratios can be methodologically altered and subsequently compared in order to examine what stories with different ratios look like. Of particular interest, is the correlation of these stories with rater scores to examine the interplay between visual novelty and usefulness, especially when determining if the 10% preservation-ratio we achieved in narrative plan and 89% in expressive text are the 'right' amount of preservation or not. Furthermore, we can explore if there is a 'breaking point' at which too much or little new visual information is deemed as boring or irrelevant, and what questions and how many may contribute to changes in scores. A comparison across a number of visual storytelling systems is planned for uncovering effective strategies for generating both engaging and relevant stories.

References

Antol, S.; Agrawal, A.; Lu, J.; Mitchell, M.; Batra, D.; Zitnick, C. L.; and Parikh, D. 2015. VQA: Visual Question Answering. In *ICCV*, 2425–2433.

Aristotle (330 BC). 1997. The poetics. Dover, New York.

Cardona-Rivera, R.; and Li, B. 2016. PLOTSHOT: Generating discourse-constrained stories around photos. In *AIIDE*, volume 12, 2–8.

Castricato, L.; Frazier, S.; Balloch, J.; Tarakad, N.; and Riedl, M. 2021. Automated Story Generation as Question-Answering. *arXiv:2112.03808*.

Dhakar, L. 2020. Color Thief. https://github.com/lokesh/ color-thief.

Eum, S.; Han, D.; and Briggs, G. 2020. SomethingFinder: Localizing Undefined Regions Using Referring Expressions. In *CVPR Workshops*.

Fan, A.; Lewis, M.; and Dauphin, Y. 2018. *Hierarchical Neural Story Generation*. ACL.

Gatt, A.; and Reiter, E. 2009. SimpleNLG: A Realisation Engine for Practical Applications. In *ENLG*, 90–93.

Gupta, A.; Dollar, P.; and Girshick, R. 2019. LVIS: A Dataset for Large Vocabulary Instance Segmentation. In *CVPR*. IEEE.

Halperin, B.; and Lukin, S. 2023. Envisioning Narrative Intelligence: A Creative Visual Storytelling Anthology. In *CHI*. ACM.

Howcroft, D. M.; and Rieser, V. 2021. What happens if you treat ordinal ratings as interval data? Human evaluations in NLP are even more under-powered than you think. In *EMNLP*, 8932–8939. Online and Punta Cana, Dominican Republic: ACL.

Hsu, C.-C.; Chen, Z.-Y.; Hsu, C.-Y.; Li, C.-C.; Lin, T.-Y.; Huang, T.-H.; and Ku, L.-W. 2020. Knowledge-enriched visual storytelling. In *AAAI*, volume 34, 7952–7960.

Hu, J.; Cheng, Y.; Gan, Z.; Liu, J.; Gao, J.; and Neubig, G. 2020. What makes a good story? Designing composite rewards for visual storytelling. In *AAAI*, volume 34, 7969–7976.

Huang, T.-H.; Ferraro, F.; Mostafazadeh, N.; Misra, I.; Agrawal, A.; Devlin, J.; Girshick, R.; He, X.; Kohli, P.; Batra, D.; et al. 2016. Visual storytelling. In *NAACL*, 1233– 1239.

Jana, T. 2019. Pix2Story: Neural storyteller which creates machine-generated story in several literature genre. https://azure.microsoft.com/en-us/blog/pix2story-neuralstoryteller-which-creates-machine-generated-story-inseveral-literature-genre/.

Ji, Z.; Xu, Y.; Cheng, I.; Cahyawijaya, S.; Frieske, R.; Ishii, E.; Zeng, M.; Madotto, A.; Fung, P.; et al. 2022. VScript: Controllable Script Generation with Audio-Visual Presentation. *arXiv:2203.00314*.

Krippendorff, K. 1980. *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. Sage publications.

Liu, P.; Yuan, W.; Fu, J.; Jiang, Z.; Hayashi, H.; and Neubig, G. 2021. Pre-train, prompt, and predict: A systematic survey of prompting methods in natural language processing. *arXiv:2107.13586*.

Lönneker, B. 2005. Narratological knowledge for natural language generation. In *ENLG*.

Lukin, S. M.; Bonial, C.; and Voss, C. R. 2019. Visual Understanding and Narration: A Deeper Understanding and Explanation of Visual Scenes. *arXiv:1906.00038*.

Lukin, S. M.; Hobbs, R.; and Voss, C. R. 2018. A pipeline for creative visual storytelling. *arXiv:1807.08077*.

Martens, C.; Cardona-Rivera, R. E.; and Cohn, N. 2020. The visual narrative engine: A computational model of the visual narrative parallel architecture. In *Conference on Advances in Cognitive Systems*.

Meehan, J. R. 1977. TALE-SPIN, An Interactive Program that Writes Stories. In *IJCAI*, volume 77, 91–98.

Patterson, G.; and Hays, J. 2012. SUN Attribute Database: Discovering, Annotating, and Recognizing Scene Attributes. In *CVPR*.

Patterson, G.; Xu, C.; Su, H.; and Hays, J. 2014. The SUN Attribute Database: Beyond Categories for Deeper Scene Understanding. *IJCV*, 108(1-2): 59–81.

Pérez y Pérez, R.; and Sharples, M. 2001. MEXICA: A computer model of a cognitive account of creative writing. *JE*-*TAI*, 13(2): 119–139.

Propp, V. I. 1968. *Morphology of the folktale*. University of Texas Press.

Reiter, E.; and Dale, R. 2000. *Building natural language generation systems*. Cambridge University Press.

Riedl, M. O.; and Young, R. M. 2004. An intent-driven planner for multi-agent story generation. In *Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems, International Joint Conference on*, volume 2, 186–193. IEEE Computer Society.

Riedl, M. O.; and Young, R. M. 2005. Open-World Planning for Story Generation. In *IJCAI*, 1719–1720. Citeseer.

Sai, A. B.; Mohankumar, A. K.; and Khapra, M. M. 2020. A survey of evaluation metrics used for NLG systems. *arXiv:2008.12009*.

Singh, A.; Goswami, V.; Natarajan, V.; Jiang, Y.; Chen, X.; Shah, M.; Rohrbach, M.; Batra, D.; and Parikh, D. 2020. MMF: A multimodal framework for vision and language research. https://github.com/facebookresearch/mmf.

Stage Direction. 2018. Collins Dictionary. Accessed November 14, 2022 [Online]. HarperCollins.

Summers-Stay, D.; Bonial, C.; and Voss, C. 2021. What Can a Generative Language Model Answer About a Passage? In *Workshop on Machine Reading for Question Answering*.

Theune, M.; Faas, S.; Nijholt, A.; and Heylen, D. 2003. The virtual storyteller: Story creation by intelligent agents. In *TIDSE*, volume 204215, 116.

Turner, S. R. 1993. *Minstrel: a computer model of creativity and storytelling*. University of California, Los Angeles.

Wallas, G. 1926. *The Art of Thought*, volume 10. Harcourt, Brace.

Wang, S.; Durrett, G.; and Erk, K. 2020. *Narrative interpolation for generating and understanding stories.* arXiv:2008.07466.

Wang, X.; Chen, W.; Wang, Y.-F.; and Wang, W. Y. 2018. *No metrics are perfect: Adversarial reward learning for visual storytelling*. ACL.

Wu, Y.; Kirillov, A.; Massa, F.; Lo, W.-Y.; and Girshick, R. 2019. Detectron2. https://github.com/facebookresearch/detectron2.

Xiao, J.; Ehinger, K. A.; Hays, J.; Torralba, A.; and Oliva, A. 2016. Sun database: Exploring a large collection of scene categories. *IJCV*, 119(1): 3–22.

Xiao, J.; Hays, J.; Ehinger, K. A.; Oliva, A.; and Torralba, A. 2010. Sun database: Large-scale scene recognition from abbey to zoo. In *CVPR*, 3485–3492. IEEE.

Yang, P.; Luo, F.; Chen, P.; Li, L.; Yin, Z.; He, X.; and Sun, X. 2019. Knowledgeable Storyteller: A Commonsense-Driven Generative Model for Visual Storytelling. In *IJCAI*, volume 3, 7.

Yao, L.; Peng, N.; Weischedel, R.; Knight, K.; Zhao, D.; and Yan, R. 2019. Plan-and-write: Towards better automatic storytelling. In *AAAI*, volume 33, 7378–7385.

Yin, W.; Wang, X.; Shen, C.; Liu, Y.; Tian, Z.; Xu, S.; Sun, C.; and Renyin, D. 2020. DiverseDepth: Affine-invariant Depth Prediction Using Diverse Data. *arXiv:2002.00569*.

Yu, Y.; Chung, J.; Yun, H.; Kim, J.; and Kim, G. 2021. Transitional adaptation of pretrained models for visual storytelling. In *CVPR*, 12658–12668.

Zhang, C.; Yao, C.; Wu, J.; Lin, W.; Liu, L.; Yan, G.; and Ying, F. 2022. StoryDrawer: A Child–AI Collaborative Drawing System to Support Children's Creative Visual Storytelling. In *CHI*. ACM.

Zhou, B.; Lapedriza, A.; Khosla, A.; Oliva, A.; and Torralba, A. 2017. Places: A 10 million Image Database for Scene Recognition. *TPAMI*.