

Major Research Threads in Story Generation, Structure, and Comprehension

Narratology (Narrative Theory in Literary Studies)

Also known as: Narrative theory; structural narratology (in its classical form).

Classification: Humanities – an area of literary theory and criticism (with extensions into film and media studies).

Description: Narratology is the study of narrative and its structure, and how it affects human perception ¹. It emerged from formalist and structuralist analyses of literature in the 20th century. Classical narratology seeks to identify the fundamental components and patterns of stories (e.g. plot structures, character roles) analogous to how grammar describes language ² ³. Early narratologists like **Vladimir Propp** analyzed folktales to derive recurring “functions” (plot units) and roles (such as hero, villain) ⁴. Others, such as **Tzvetan Todorov**, who coined the term *narratologie* in 1969, and **Roland Barthes** and **Algirdas Greimas**, applied structural linguistics and semiotics to narrative ⁵. **Gérard Genette** and **Seymour Chatman** distinguished between *story* (the sequence of events or content, sometimes called *fabula*) and *discourse* (the expression or narrative presentation, sometimes called *sjuzhet*) ⁶. Narratology thus investigates *what* is told and *how* it is told in any narrative medium. Modern narratology has broadened beyond strict formalism to consider cognitive and cultural aspects, but its core remains analyzing narrative form and technique.

Key Terminology: *Story vs. discourse* (story/content versus narrative expression) ⁶; *fabula and syuzhet* (Russian formalist terms for raw events vs. plotted order) ⁷; *narrative plot* (ordered series of events with causality); *narrator* and *narrative voice*; *point of view* (perspective from which story is told) ⁸; *focalization* (who perceives the events in the narrative); *chronotope* (Bakhtin's concept of time-space in narrative) ⁴; *narrativity* (the quality that makes a sequence of events into a story) ⁹. These terms enable precise discussion of how stories are constructed and experienced.

Important Literature:

• Introductory Resources:

- *Narratology* – Wikipedia overview of narrative theory ¹.
- *The Cambridge Introduction to Narrative* by H. Porter Abbott (2002) – Accessible guide to narrative concepts (story, discourse, etc.).
- *Narratology: Introduction to the Theory of Narrative* by Mieke Bal (1985) – A widely used textbook introducing key narratological concepts.

• Seminal Works:

- **Aristotle's *Poetics*** (4th century BCE) – Earliest treatise analyzing dramatic storytelling (beginning, middle, end structure) ¹⁰ .
- **Vladimir Propp's *Morphology of the Folktale*** (1928) – Identified 31 fundamental narrative functions in Russian folk tales, a precursor to structural narratology ⁴ .
- **Tzvetan Todorov's *Grammaire du Décameron*** (1969) – Introduced the term *narratology* and applied structural analysis to literary narrative ¹ .
- **Roland Barthes et al., *Communications journal issue 8 (1966)*** – A landmark structuralist program for narratology, featuring essays by Barthes, Genette, Greimas, Todorov, etc., that set the stage for formal narrative theory ⁵ .
- **Gérard Genette's *Narrative Discourse: An Essay in Method*** (1972, trans. 1980) – A foundational work explaining narrative time (order, duration, frequency) and narrative mood/voice in literary texts ¹¹ .
- **Mikhail Bakhtin's essays** (e.g. *The Dialogic Imagination*, 1975) – Theories of *heteroglossia* and *chronotope* exploring the multiplicity of voices and the shaping of time-space in novels ⁴ .

• Influential Books and Theories:

- **Seymour Chatman's *Story and Discourse*** (1978) – Framework distinguishing *story* (events, existents) and *discourse* (narrative expression), influential in film and literary narrative analysis.
- **Algirdas Greimas' *Structural Semantics*** (1966) and *actantial model* – A semiotic approach defining roles (actants) in narratives (e.g. hero, helper, opponent).
- **Joseph Campbell's *The Hero with a Thousand Faces*** (1949) – Though rooted in comparative mythology rather than formal narratology, Campbell's notion of the **monomyth** or **hero's journey** (a hero's adventure, crisis, and return) became a widely recognized narrative pattern ¹² and influenced story structure discussions across disciplines (see Creative Writing thread).
- **"Handbook of Narratology"** (eds. Hühn et al., 2009) – A reference work covering classical and post-classical narratological concepts.

Relationships to Other Fields: Narratology provides the *language* and conceptual frameworks for analyzing stories that other fields build on. It has influenced **Artificial Intelligence** research on story generation and understanding – early AI story systems drew on formal narrative units (e.g. using Propp's functions or plot grammars). It overlaps with **creative writing and screenwriting** practice: many concepts (plot structure, POV, etc.) are directly applied by writers, albeit in less formal terms. *Post-classical narratology* has embraced insights from cognitive science (see Cognitive Narrative thread) and from social theory (e.g. feminist, postcolonial narratologies), showing interplay with **psychology** and cultural studies. In **interactive media and game design**, narratology informs the structuring of interactive narratives, though game scholars once debated its applicability ("**ludology vs. narratology**" debates on whether games should be analyzed as narratives ¹³). Overall, narratology serves as a foundation that connects to any discipline concerned with the form and function of stories.

Cognitive Science of Narrative Comprehension

Also known as: Narrative cognition; cognitive narratology (when bridging literary theory); story comprehension research; *psychology of reading* (for narrative texts).

Classification: Cognitive Science / Psychology – drawing on cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, and neuroscience.

Description: This thread investigates how people understand, mentally represent, and recall stories. It treats a narrative as information that must be processed by the mind – asking what cognitive operations and knowledge structures enable comprehension of story events, characters, and causal plots. Researchers in the 1970s–1980s proposed that humans use *schemas* or *story grammars* to make sense of narrative structure ¹⁴ ¹⁵. A *story grammar* models the typical parts of a story (setting, initiating event, goal, attempt, outcome, etc.) and their order, analogous to how grammar rules structure sentences. For example, Rumelhart (1975) and Thorndyke (1977) formulated grammars that could parse simple folk tales, and found readers expect certain structured patterns (like an initiating problem followed by attempts and resolution) ¹⁶. Such cognitive models help explain how readers track plots and infer missing details. Story comprehension requires drawing **inferences** – readers fill in gaps using world knowledge and scripts (e.g. understanding that if a character went to a restaurant, they likely ordered and ate, even if not explicitly stated). Roger Schank and Robert Abelson's **script theory** (1977) introduced the idea that we rely on stereotyped event sequences (scripts) for common situations to understand stories ¹⁷ ¹⁸. If a story deviates from the expected script, readers notice and update their understanding. Comprehension is also an *active* process: readers form mental models of the story world, track character goals, and predict outcomes, continually updating their hypotheses.

As part of cognitive science, this field also examines **memory for narrative** – people tend to remember stories better than random information because narratives provide meaningful structure. Researchers like van Dijk & Kintsch (1983) studied how story coherence and cohesion affect memory. There is also growing neuroscience interest in narrative: brain imaging shows distinct activation patterns when people are engrossed in a narrative, reflecting how the brain segments and integrates story events (some speak of a “story network” in the brain). Overall, this field treats story processing as a window into higher-order cognition (e.g. reasoning about others’ intentions, known as Theory of Mind, is often exercised when understanding characters).

Key Terminology: *Story schema* (an abstract mental framework of narrative structure) ¹⁹; *story grammar* (formal rules modeling narrative structure) ¹⁶; *scripts* (knowledge structures of typical event sequences, used to infer unstated information) ¹⁷ ¹⁸; *inference* (the reader's derivation of implicit facts, e.g. inferring cause-effect or character motivations); *causal chain* (the cause-and-effect linkage of events that readers track); *narrative coherence* (the degree to which a story's parts logically connect); *Theory of Mind* (ability to attribute mental states to characters, important for comprehension of their actions); *suspense and curiosity* (affective-cognitive states that guide expectation during reading).

Important Literature:

- **Foundational Studies:**
- **Story Grammar models (1970s):** e.g. *Rumelhart* (1975) and *Thorndyke* (1977) – earliest formal models of narrative structure in cognitive terms ²⁰ ¹⁹. They treated stories like well-formed sequences that readers expect, and experimentally showed that deviations affect comprehension and recall.
- **Schank & Abelson's *Scripts, Plans, Goals, and Understanding* (1977)** – Seminal book proposing that understanding narratives (and everyday events) relies on “scripts” (e.g. a restaurant script) and outlining how people fill in omitted details using script knowledge ¹⁷ ¹⁸. Though an AI-oriented work, it heavily influenced cognitive psychology's view of event understanding.
- **Trabasso & van den Broek (1985):** Research on causal connections in stories, showing that events central to the causal network are better remembered (introducing methods to map story causality as understood by readers).

- **Kintsch's *Strategies of Discourse Comprehension*** (1983, with Teun van Dijk) – A comprehensive theory of text comprehension (including narrative), proposing multiple levels of representation (surface text, propositional textbase, and situation model for the story world). It highlights how readers build a situation model (a mental simulation of the narrative) and the importance of coherence.

- **Key Concepts and Later Research:**

- **Narrative Inference & Emotions:** Studies on how readers infer characters' goals and emotions (e.g. Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso 1994 – framework of inference generation during reading). These show that even young children's story understanding correlates with their ability to make inferences about motives and outcomes ²¹.
- **"Narrative Transportation" theory** – Green & Brock (2000) introduced the concept of *transportation*, describing the mental absorption into a story. When readers are "transported," they experience focused attention, emotional engagement, and vivid imagery, often leading them to adopt beliefs consistent with the narrative ²². This model has driven research into the **experiential aspects** of narrative (see below and Narrative Psychology).
- **Neuroscience of Stories:** e.g. *Raymond Mar* and colleagues' work on how reading fiction engages social-cognitive processes (and can improve empathy), and *neuroimaging studies* (e.g. 2008 study by Speer et al.) showing brain regions tracking narrative events and characters' locations/goals ("neural substrates of narrative comprehension" ²³). Such work connects cognitive narratology with biology.
- **Cognitive Narratology (post-2000):** A cross-disciplinary extension of narratology, championed by scholars like David Herman and Manfred Jahn, which explicitly asks how narrative meaning is constructed in the mind. It echoes questions from cognitive science: "*How do humans make sense of stories, and use stories as sense-making instruments?*" ⁹. This approach links formal narrative elements to cognitive processes (e.g. how the concept of a narrator relates to theory-of-mind abilities).

Relationships to Other Fields: This cognitive approach overlaps with **narratology** in the subfield known as *cognitive narratology*, which uses cognitive theories to deepen narratological analysis ⁹. It also has mutual influence with **AI research**: many ideas about schemas and scripts were co-developed in early AI (knowledge representation) and cognitive psychology. AI story-understanding systems in the 1970s–80s (like Schank's and Dyer's programs) were essentially computational models of human narrative comprehension ¹⁷. Conversely, cognitive scientists draw on AI metaphors ("mental scripts", etc.) to describe human comprehension. The *experience* side of narrative (transportation, emotion) connects to **media psychology and communication research** (e.g. studies of how narratives persuade or engage audiences). There is also a link to **education**: understanding story structure is key in reading education and developmental psychology (children's story comprehension is a major research area ²¹), and narrative is used in teaching and knowledge transfer. Cognitive narrative research provides insights that inform **writers** and **designers** on how audiences might process and respond to story content (for instance, pacing revelations for suspense because we know readers form and update expectations). In sum, this field stands at the intersection of psychology, brain science, and narrative art, explaining *why* stories have the cognitive impact they do.

Narrative Psychology (Stories, Identity, and Experience)

Also known as: Narrative approaches in psychology; the storied self; narrative therapy (in counseling practice, related concept).

Classification: Psychology (Personality, Social, Clinical) – an approach in psychological science and practice focusing on personal narratives and meaning-making.

Description: Narrative psychology conceives human beings as *storytelling creatures* and examines how the stories we tell (and believe) about our lives shape our identity, relationships, and perceptions of the world ²⁴ ²⁵ . Unlike cognitive narrative science (which often deals with comprehension of **fictional** or given stories), narrative psychology is often about **self-narratives** and life stories: how people construct their own life experiences into narratives and the psychological functions of those narratives. It operates on the premise that much of human experience is encoded in narrative form (*"human activity and experience are filled with meaning and stories, rather than logical formulations,"* as Sarbin put it ²⁴). Thus, to understand a person, narrative psychologists analyze the stories the person tells about themselves and their world.

Key investigators like **Theodore R. Sarbin** (who coined the term "narrative psychology" in 1986) argued that narrative should be a new root metaphor for psychology, replacing mechanistic models ²⁶ . **Jerome Bruner**, in *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds* (1986), contrasted *narrative* modes of thought with paradigmatic (logical-scientific) modes, emphasizing that narrative thinking (story-making) is fundamental to how we make sense of reality ²⁷ . In Bruner's view, narratives allow us to organize our experience of time, agency, and morality – essentially, to construct *meaning*. Another pillar of this field, **Dan P. McAdams**, developed a *life story model of identity*: he posits that by late adolescence, individuals begin to form an internalized and evolving story of their life that provides unity and purpose, integrating their past, present, and imagined future. McAdams and others have shown that certain narrative themes (e.g. redemption – overcoming adversity to a positive end) correlate with greater well-being, and that how one narrates key life events (a trauma, a success, etc.) has implications for mental health ²⁸ ²⁹ .

Narrative psychology also informs *psychotherapy* through **narrative therapy** and similar approaches, where clients are encouraged to re-story their experiences (e.g. reframing a personal narrative of defeat into one of resilience). Culturally, this field examines how group identities are formed by shared narratives (for instance, national or ethnic identity stories). It has a qualitative bent – often collecting personal narratives via interviews or written accounts and analyzing their structure and content for insight into the narrator's psyche and social context ³⁰ ³¹ .

Key Terminology: *Life story* (an individual's narrative understanding of their own life) ²⁵ ; *narrative identity* (the aspect of identity formed by an autobiographical story) ²⁵ ; *redemptive vs. contaminative story* (McAdams's terms for narratives that turn bad into good vs. good into bad outcomes); *agency and communion* (common thematic dimensions in life stories – does the story emphasize individual achievement or relationships?); *narrative coherence* (how well a life story makes a consistent, meaningful whole); *meaning-making* (how people derive lessons or insights from events through storytelling). In narrative therapy: *re-authoring* (changing one's personal story), *dominant narrative* (the prevailing story one lives by, possibly imposed by society), etc.

Important Literature:

• Foundational Works:

- **Theodore Sarbin (1986)** – *Narrative Psychology: The Storied Nature of Human Conduct* ²⁶ . This edited volume was a manifesto asserting that human behavior is best understood through narratives. It framed the idea that people *think* in story form and that psychology should study those stories.
- **Jerome Bruner's *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds* (1986)** – Distinguished between logical scientific thinking and narrative thinking, elevating the latter as crucial for how we construct reality. Bruner argued stories are about *meaning* not just facts, coining the idea that narrative provides a form of “knowledge” of its own.
- **Dan McAdams' “Life Story” research:** e.g. *“The Stories We Live By”* (1993) and *“The Redemptive Self”* (2006). McAdams introduced methods for collecting life narratives and analyzing their themes. He identified common patterns (like redemption sequences) and demonstrated how these relate to personality and development ²⁸ .
- **Paul Ricoeur's *Time and Narrative* (Vol.1-3, 1984–88)** – Though a philosopher, Ricoeur's work bridged into narrative psychology by exploring how narrative configures our experience of time and identity, famously stating that *“selfhood is a narrative identity.”*
- **Applications and Extensions:**
 - **Narrative Therapy:** *“Narrative Means to Therapeutic Ends”* by Michael White & David Epston (1990) – introduced narrative therapy in counseling, illustrating how reinterpreting one's story can be healing. Though clinical, it's grounded in the idea that our *self-narratives* can be edited.
 - **Cultural Narratives:** *“The Remembered Self”* by Jefferson Singer & Peter Salovey (1993) – examines how personal memories are organized narratively and how culture influences those narratives. Also, cross-cultural studies (e.g. how East Asian vs. Western autobiographical narratives differ in focus on collective vs. individual, demonstrating culture's role in narrative identity).
 - **Empirical Personality Research:** McAdams, since the 1990s, and others have developed coding systems to quantify aspects of narratives (e.g. agency, coherence) and linked narrative styles to traits like resilience or empathy. For example, having a *coherent* life narrative is associated with higher well-being.
 - **Narrative and Memory:** Autobiographical memory research by psychologists like *Autumn Beals* and *Robyn Fivush*, showing how parents and children jointly construct narrative memories, which shape the child's developing self-concept and emotional understanding.

Relationships to Other Fields: Narrative psychology is distinct in focusing on *personal* and *experiential* stories, but it interacts with other narrative research. It shares with **cognitive narrative science** an interest in how stories are processed, but here the “stories” are often self-told ones; the fields converge in areas like how memory and cognition support life storytelling. It also complements **narratology**: narrative theorists in literature talk about how narratives *mean* things to audiences, while narrative psychologists examine how narratives *mean* things to the storytellers themselves (for instance, narratology might analyze the structure of a memoir, while narrative psychology might study how writing that memoir affected the author's identity). In **professional writing and media**, narrative psychology's insights into what makes stories resonate with human motivations and values can inform storytellers aiming to create relatable, emotionally impactful narratives. Additionally, in **social sciences** and **history**, a narrative perspective has gained traction (e.g. “narrative sociology” or oral history) – acknowledging that people's recounting of events (from personal life to national history) is shaped by narrative form. Finally, narrative psychology's emphasis on multiple interpretations and constructed meaning dovetails with **postmodern literary theory** and **cultural studies**, which view truth as narrative-dependent. In summary, narrative psychology places the *human*

experiencer at the center, reminding all other fields that behind every story – whether generated by an AI or analyzed in a novel – is a mind trying to make sense of life through narrative.

Computational Story Generation (Artificial Intelligence)

Also known as: Automated story generation; narrative AI; computational narratology (in the context of modeling narrative via algorithms); story generation in *computational creativity*.

Classification: **Artificial Intelligence / Computer Science** – specifically within Natural Language Generation, AI planning, and creative computing.

Description: This field aims to create algorithms and systems that can **generate narratives** – usually fictional stories – automatically or with minimal human input. In other words, it asks: *Can a computer be an author?* Automated story generation has been a pursuit in AI since at least the 1970s, as it touches on core AI challenges: representing world knowledge, modeling characters' goals and actions, using language creatively, and even simulating human-like imagination ³². To tell a coherent story, an AI must “know” about the world (for causality and plausibility), understand narrative structure (what makes a story satisfying or logically sound), and often model a reader's expectations (so it can reveal information dramatically). Early approaches used symbolic AI techniques, often treating story generation as a **planning problem**: the AI would *plan* a sequence of character actions that fulfill some narrative goal (e.g. a happy ending or a particular plot twist). A classic example is the system **TALE-SPIN** by James Meehan (1977), often cited as the first intelligent story generator ³³ ³⁴. TALE-SPIN was built on logical *conceptual dependency theory* and *scripts* (from Schank's cognitive theories) to have characters pursue goals and produce simple fables (sometimes with unintentional, humorous outcomes when the AI's “common sense” failed) ³⁴ ³⁵. Subsequent systems like **Lebowitz's Universe** (1980s) generated soap-opera style plots using a library of plot schemas and a hierarchical planner ³⁶. Another notable system, **MINSTREL** (Scott Turner, 1993), case-based and creativity-driven, could invent Arthurian legend stories by blending past story cases. These symbolic systems often explicitly encoded narrative theories (e.g., functions of characters, or Campbell's hero's journey steps) into code.

In the 2010s, with advances in machine learning and especially deep learning, the field shifted toward **neural story generation**. Neural language models (like RNNs and later Transformers) learned to continue stories by statistically modeling large corpora of text ³⁷. This led to AI that can produce impressively fluent narrative text. For instance, OpenAI's **GPT-2** and **GPT-3** (2019–2020) showed the ability to generate paragraphs of fiction that read coherently on a local level. However, purely neural approaches have challenges with global coherence and plotting – they may wander or contradict themselves because they generate word-by-word without an explicit high-level plan ³⁸ ³⁹. To address this, current research often combines planning or control with neural generators (“*controllable neural story generation*” ⁴⁰). For example, a system might first generate a rough outline or sequence of events, then use a neural model to flesh it out into fluent text, thereby maintaining better coherence. Researchers also explore representations like event sequences or story graphs that the AI can use to guide the narrative logically before rendering it in language ⁴¹ ³⁹.

Applications of story generation range from serious to entertainment: **digital storytelling** for education and training (e.g. generating scenario-based learning exercises), **game design** (generating dynamic game plots or dialog), and creative tools that help human writers (co-writing partners). Story generation research also provides insight into *narrative intelligence*: by attempting to make AI that *creates* stories, we test whether the AI understands concepts deeply (if it doesn't grasp cause and effect or psychology, its stories

reveal those gaps ⁴² ⁴³). A long-term “grand challenge” often cited is an AI that could write a novel or movie that audiences genuinely enjoy – a goal still far off, but incrementally approached with improving technology.

Key Terminology: *Story generator* (any program or algorithm that produces narratives) ³² ; *plot generator*; *narrative planning* (using AI planning algorithms to construct story events) ⁴⁴ ; *story world* (the domain of characters, settings, and facts the AI operates in); *drama management* (techniques to adjust a story in interactive contexts – overlaps interactive narrative field); *coherence* (logical consistency of the generated story); *character model* (AI’s representation of a character’s traits and goals); *narrative knowledge* (knowledge about narrative tropes or structures encoded in the system); and in neural approaches, terms like *language model*, *prompt* (the initial text or input given to guide generation), *conditional generation*, etc. A notable concept is **narrative intelligence** – broadly, an AI’s ability to *understand* and *tell* stories, encompassing generation and comprehension.

Important Literature:

- **Historical Milestones:**

- **Meehan, *TALE-SPIN* (1977):** A pioneering story generation program. Documented in Meehan’s dissertation *The Metanovel* (Yale, 1976) and later articles. TALE-SPIN’s legacy includes the idea that story generation can be treated as characters taking actions to meet goals, and it illustrated challenges (e.g. the infamous “mis-spun tale” where a character starves because the system lacked a script for getting food ³⁵).
- **Lebowitz, *Universe* (1985):** Produced ongoing soap opera stories. Notable for separating a character generator (to create a rich cast with relationships) and a plot generator that used hierarchical planning schemas ⁴⁵ . Showed how author knowledge could be encoded as reusable plot “schemes.”
- **Turner, *MINSTREL* (1993):** Used case-based reasoning and creativity heuristics (“transformational creativity”) to invent new stories by adapting old ones. It introduced the idea of *evaluative heuristics* to ensure stories meet certain “interestingness” criteria.
- **Façade (Mateas & Stern, 2005):** While primarily an interactive drama, Façade was a landmark in story generation for interactive media. It included a drama manager and character AI that generated dramatic beats in real-time – often cited in both the interactive narrative and story generation communities for its architectural innovations.
- **Riedl & Young (2010), *Narrative Planning*:** Introduced algorithms like *IPOCL* (*Intent-driven Partial Order Causal Link planner*) which not only plans events to achieve plot goals but ensures character actions appear intentional and explainable (characters have believable intentions). This merged AI planning with narrative theory (the concept of character believability).
- **Najjar et al. (2019) / *AI Dungeon* (2019):** A more recent event – AI Dungeon, a text-based adventure powered by GPT-2 (and later GPT-3), brought neural story generation to a mass audience, letting users dynamically co-create text adventures. It demonstrated the strengths and pitfalls of large language model storytelling (fluid dialogue, but sometimes incoherent plots), spurring research into better control of neural storytellers.

- **Surveys and Textbooks:**

- **“An Introduction to AI Story Generation” – Mark Riedl (2021)** ³² : A comprehensive primer outlining the evolution of the field, from symbolic planners to neural networks, and the key research challenges (world modeling, plot coherence, etc.).
- **“Story Generation” (chapter in *Handbook of Computational Creativity*, 2019)**: Summarizes approaches and systems up to late-2010s, including evaluation methods for generated stories.
- **Marie-Laure Ryan’s *Possible Worlds, Artificial Intelligence, and Narrative Theory* (1991)**: An early examination of how AI approaches and narrative theory intersect, though somewhat theoretical, bridging literary concepts with the idea of story generation.
- **Proceedings of the International Conference on Interactive Digital Storytelling (ICIDS) and Workshop on Computational Models of Narrative**: Ongoing venues publishing cutting-edge research in narrative generation, including both theoretical models and practical systems.
- **Recent Advances:**
 - **Large Language Models (LLMs) for Storytelling**: Research papers by e.g. Angela Fan et al. (Facebook, 2018) on hierarchical story generation (first generate a summary, then elaborate) ⁴⁶ ; See also the *Plug-and-Play Language Model* (2019) for steering LLMs. These works try to mitigate the “fancy babbling” problem of unconstrained neural models ³⁹ by giving them planning or guiding constraints.
 - **Interactive Story Generation**: e.g. *Williams et al. (2021)* on combinatorial generation for text games, See also work on **procedural narrative** in game design (mix of human-designed and algorithmic story content).

Relationships to Other Fields: Computational story generation draws heavily from **narrative theory and cognitive science** for inspiration. Many systems explicitly encode concepts from narratology (such as separating fabula and *sjuzhet*, ensuring a story has exposition, conflict, resolution) and cognitive psychology (e.g. modeling character plans and reader expectations to produce coherent narratives ⁴³ ⁴⁷). There is a natural synergy with the **interactive storytelling** field (next section), especially in sub-areas like *drama management* and *emergent narrative*, where AI must generate story events in response to user actions. In the context of **professional writing**, while early story generators were academic curiosities, modern AI storytellers (like GPT-based tools) are starting to be used by novelists and scriptwriters as brainstorming aids – thus blurring the line between human and machine creativity in industry. Computational narratology (the analysis side) also complements generation: for instance, projects that analyze large collections of stories (using NLP) can inform how to better generate new ones. Ethical and philosophical overlaps exist with **narrative psychology**: if AI can generate convincing personal narratives, what does that mean for authenticity? And how might auto-generated stories affect human imagination and consumption? In summary, AI story generation is both a consumer of narrative research (using theories from other fields as design goals) and a contributor – by forcing formalization of narrative structure, it can even yield new insights that echo back to narratology and cognitive science about the nature of stories.

Interactive Digital Storytelling and Narrative Design

Also known as: Interactive storytelling; interactive narrative; digital interactive narrative (DIN); narrative design (in game development); interactive drama.

Classification: Computing and Media Arts – a multidisciplinary field spanning human-computer interaction, game design, and narrative theory. (In industry, *narrative design* is a role in video game development; academically, interactive digital storytelling is studied in computer science and media labs.)

Description: This thread of research and practice is about narratives that are not fixed linear sequences, but can change based on user input. In **interactive storytelling**, the storyline is *not predetermined* – the author provides a framework (setting, characters, possible events), and the story unfolds uniquely according to the user's choices or actions ⁴⁸. Examples include narrative video games, choose-your-own-adventure books, interactive fiction, and virtual reality story experiences. The core challenge is marrying the freedom of interactivity (where a player/reader can influence the course of events) with the coherence and meaning of a crafted story. Researchers seek methods to generate or manage narrative in real-time, ensuring that whatever path the user takes results in a satisfying story arc. This often involves an AI component called a **drama manager** (or narrative manager) that monitors the narrative progress and can introduce or adjust events to maintain plot structure or dramatic tension ⁴⁹. Characters in interactive narratives are typically controlled by autonomous agents with their own behaviors, so their interactions with the player produce emergent story events. Successful interactive narrative systems make these agents *behave "human"* and respond believably to the user while the drama manager ensures the overall experience still feels like a story (with rising action, climax, etc.) ⁵⁰.

Academic research in this area took off in the 2000s, with projects like **Façade** (an interactive drama released in 2005 where the player improvises dialog with a bickering couple in real-time) demonstrating that unscripted, dramatic interactions are possible. Techniques include **branching story graphs** (pre-authored choice points) as well as more AI-driven approaches (procedural generation of events). A well-known problem is the **narrative paradox**: the tension between player freedom and authorial control over the story's quality. If you give the user too much freedom, the story may lack structure or meaning; too little, and it's not truly interactive. Modern approaches try to strike a balance, e.g. by *adapting* the story around player actions (instead of completely free play).

In the video game industry, **narrative design** refers to the practice of crafting the game's story, lore, and how it's delivered through gameplay. Narrative designers draw on traditional storytelling but must think in terms of *player agency*, *branching outcomes*, *multiple story paths*, and environmental storytelling (story told through game world details). For instance, RPGs (role-playing games) often employ quest systems that allow players to experience story events in variable order; narrative design ensures these still make sense whichever way they're encountered.

Key Terminology: *Branching narrative* (story with multiple paths or endings); *choose-your-own-adventure (CYOA)* (a format with explicit choice points); *interactive fiction* (often text-based story games where player types commands); *game narrative vs. story* (distinguishing the player's actual path — the *experienced narrative* — from the broader story possibilities); *agency* (the player's ability to effect meaningful change in the story world); *drama manager* (an AI component that adjusts story events in response to the player to preserve narrative flow) ⁴⁹; *emergent narrative* (story that arises from simulation and player interaction, not predefined); *ludology vs. narratology* (a debate in game studies on whether games should be understood through gameplay mechanics or narrative terms – now largely settled with a middle ground acknowledging both). In industry: *scripting* (writing interactive dialogue), *quest design*, *dialog trees*, etc., are common terms.

Important Literature and Examples:

- **Pioneering Work:**
- **Brenda Laurel's *Computers as Theatre* (1991):** Early vision of applying dramatic principles to human-computer interaction, viewing the computer as a stage and the user as an actor – influential for conceptualizing interactive drama.

- **Michael Mateas & Andrew Stern, *Façade* (2005):** The first true interactive drama. Academic papers by Mateas (e.g. "Interactive Drama, Art and Artificial Intelligence", 2002) outline the architecture: autonomous characters + a drama manager. *Façade* itself (released as a game) is often cited as a milestone showing that users could have a natural language conversation with characters and influence a story's outcome dynamically.
- **Chris Crawford's *Interactive Storytelling* (book, first ed. 2004):** Written by a game industry veteran, this book articulates challenges and strategies for interactive story systems, including Crawford's own attempt at a story engine (*Storytron*). It's a cornerstone from a practitioner's perspective, classifying forms of interactivity and advocating for the potential of story games.
- **Joseph Bates (1992), "Virtual Reality, Art, and Entertainment":** Introduced the term *interactive drama* and the concept of "*Oz Project*" which experimented with AI-driven characters in a story world, laying groundwork for later systems.

- **Academic Conferences/Texts:**

- **International Conference on Interactive Digital Storytelling (ICIDS):** Annual conference (since 2008) bringing together research from computer science and digital humanities on interactive narrative systems, user experiences, and design principles. Its proceedings cover a range of global projects (from Western text-adventures to interactive narrative in other cultural contexts).
- **Journal "Interactive Storytelling"** (and older, *Cybertext* theories by Espen Aarseth): Academic threads analyzing not just technology but the aesthetics and user experience of interactive narratives.
- **Marie-Laure Ryan's *Narrative as Virtual Reality* (2001):** Discusses immersion and interactivity in new media narratives, offering a theoretical framework for understanding how digital narratives differ from traditional ones (introducing concepts like *narrative immersion* vs *interactivity*).
- **Henrik Schønau-Fog's player experience studies (2011–2015):** Empirical research into how players perceive interactive story coherence and their sense of agency, informing design guidelines.

- **Industry and Design:**

- **Branching Story Games:** Classics like "*Choose Your Own Adventure*" books (1970s–80s) and gamebooks, which were early attempts at interactive narrative (albeit in print). They demonstrated non-linear storytelling to a broad audience and inspired digital equivalents.
- **Bioware RPGs (e.g. *Mass Effect*, *Dragon Age*, 2000s):** Often cited in narrative design circles for complex branching narratives and player-driven story outcomes. Postmortems and design talks from these games' writers (e.g. at GDC – Game Developers Conference) serve as practical literature on managing branching complexity while keeping narrative impact.
- **Indie interactive narrative games:** Such as *Her Story* (2015) or *Undertale* (2015), which experimented with non-linear storytelling and player choice in innovative ways, generating discussion (and sometimes academic analysis) on narrative structure.
- **Transmedia and Hypertext:** Janet Murray's *Hamlet on the Holodeck* (1997) – a visionary book on the future of narrative in cyberspace – touches on interactive narrative. Also the earlier hypertext fiction movement (e.g. Michael Joyce's *Afternoon, a story*, 1987) which was more literary but laid groundwork for non-linear digital storytelling.

Relationships to Other Fields: Interactive narrative is a natural converging point of **AI, narratology, and creative practice**. It uses AI techniques from story generation for dynamic plot creation, and it relies on narratological insight to evaluate whether an interactive experience still has a recognizable story shape. This field directly engages **professional writers and game designers** – for example, narrative designers often consult narrative theory when structuring branching plots, and collaborate with AI programmers to script content that an AI can recombine. There's a feedback loop: game narratives have prompted new narratology (e.g. theories of "ergodic literature" by Aarseth that account for reader choice), and narratology has provided vocabulary like "*fabula vs. syuzhet*" to describe the difference between the underlying story web and the actual path taken by a player. Interactive storytelling research also connects to **user experience psychology** – understanding how interactive stories affect engagement, identification, and emotional response (some researchers study if agency enhances a player's emotional investment or perhaps diminishes the *surprise* element of a guided plot). In the commercial sphere, techniques from interactive narrative research inform **emerging media** like virtual reality storytelling and interactive cinema, where filmmakers and technologists collaborate. Finally, it's worth noting the global aspect: interactive narratives appear in various cultures (from Japanese visual novels to Western RPGs), and research sometimes looks at cultural preferences in interactive story structure. Overall, this field stands at the crossroads of technology and storytelling art, drawing from and contributing to all other narrative threads: it requires the *computational* prowess of AI story generation, the *structural understanding* from narratology, and the *audience-centric focus* of psychology to succeed in crafting engaging participatory stories.

Creative Writing and Story Craft (Professional Storytelling Techniques)

Also known as: Story development; dramaturgy (in theater, focusing on dramatic structure); screenwriting theory (for film/TV); fiction writing craft.

Classification: Creative Arts / Professional Practice – knowledge and techniques used by writers, screenwriters, and storytellers; often part of liberal arts (creative writing programs, film schools) rather than a formal academic science, though it has scholarly analysis in fields like film studies.

Description: This thread refers to the practical and theoretical understanding of how to *construct a good story* as practiced by novelists, playwrights, screenwriters, and other storytellers. It is less about research experiments or formal models, and more about **guidelines, archetypes, and frameworks** that have proven effective in storytelling. Over centuries, storytellers have developed a repertoire of principles (some almost formulas, others more abstract) for engaging an audience. For example, the idea of a **beginning, middle, and end** dates back to Aristotle's *Poetics*, which argued that a tragedy should be a complete action with a clear start, a middle causing a change, and an end resulting in resolution ⁵¹ ⁵². In modern times, this evolved into the popular **three-act structure** widely used in screenwriting: Act I (Setup), Act II (Confrontation), Act III (Resolution) ⁵³. Screenwriting teacher **Syd Field**, in 1979, explicitly formalized the three-act paradigm and introduced terms like *plot points* – significant turning points that bridge acts (e.g. the inciting incident, mid-point climax, etc.) ⁵⁴ ⁵⁵. This structure is taught as a foundational model for writing film scripts, ensuring that the story has proper setup of context, escalating conflicts, and a satisfying climax and conclusion.

Another hugely influential framework in story craft is **The Hero's Journey** (or *monomyth*), derived from Joseph Campbell's comparative mythology. Campbell identified a universal pattern where a hero ventures from the ordinary world into an adventure, faces a decisive crisis, and returns transformed with newfound

knowledge or power ¹² . This pattern – which includes stages like Call to Adventure, Mentor, Trials, Abyss, Return, etc. – was later popularized in Hollywood by Christopher Vogler’s memo *A Practical Guide to The Hero with a Thousand Faces* and book *The Writer’s Journey* (1992). It became a go-to template for adventure and fantasy narratives (famously, *Star Wars* was influenced by Campbell’s ideas). While not every story follows the hero’s journey, it gave writers a language for archetypal roles (Mentor, Trickster, etc.) and plot beats.

Within creative writing and dramaturgy, there are many other models and terms: **Freytag’s Pyramid** (Gustav Freytag, 1863) describes a five-act dramatic structure with exposition, rising action, climax, falling action, and dénouement ⁵⁶ . This is essentially an expansion of Aristotle’s beginning-middle-end with more nuance on rising and falling tension. **Chekhov’s gun** (playwriting principle that every element introduced should be necessary to the story) and **Show, don’t tell** (advice to dramatize rather than narrate plainly) are examples of craft wisdom passed to writers. The field also studies **genres** and their story conventions – e.g. a mystery story’s structure of clues and red herrings, a romance’s typical beats, or the “meet-cute” trope. In essence, this thread is where theory meets **craft**: It’s about the techniques authors use to reliably create engaging content, based on both tradition and analysis of what resonates with audiences.

Key Terminology: *Plot* (the sequence of causally connected events in a story) ⁵⁷ ; *subplot* (secondary sequence of events); *character arc* (the inner change a character undergoes over the story); *protagonist* and *antagonist* (main character vs. opposition); *inciting incident* (the event that sparks the main conflict) ⁵⁸ ; *climax* (the peak of conflict/tension, where the main question is answered); *dénouement/resolution* (the wrapping up after the climax); *act* (a major division of a narrative, e.g. three-act structure) ⁵⁹ ; *beat* (a smaller unit of story, often a single emotional moment or event – commonly used in screenwriting to mark plot beats or a beat sheet); *scene* (a unit of action in one setting/continuous time); *foreshadowing* (hinting at later events); *payoff* (a satisfying result of an earlier setup); *point of view* (first-person, third-person limited, omniscient, etc., indicating who narrates and what is known – important in prose writing). In screenwriting specifically: *screenplay format*, *storyboard*, *treatment* (a prose summary of the plot ⁶⁰), *pitch* (presentation of a story idea), *spec script*, etc.

Important Literature:

- **Classic and Influential Guides:**
- **Aristotle’s *Poetics*** – The oldest surviving work of dramatic theory, foundational for concepts like unity of action and catharsis. Still quoted for “a whole has a beginning, middle, and end” ⁵² .
- **Lajos Egri’s *The Art of Dramatic Writing* (1946):** Influential in playwriting and screenwriting, emphasizing well-defined character motivations (a premise drives the story). Egri focuses on conflict and how characters’ opposing goals create drama.
- **Syd Field’s *Screenplay: The Foundations of Screenwriting* (1979)** – Essentially codified the three-act structure for Hollywood. He defined the Setup (Act I), Confrontation (Act II), Resolution (Act III) model and the concept of Plot Point I and II at the act breaks ⁵³ . This book became a standard text in film schools.
- **Robert McKee’s *Story: Substance, Structure, Style, and the Principles of Screenwriting* (1997):** A widely read masterclass in narrative structure and scene construction, from a Hollywood perspective. McKee discusses everything from structuring scenes to character design and thematic depth, and his seminars have influenced countless writers.
- **Christopher Vogler’s *The Writer’s Journey* (1992, rev. ed. 2007):** Adapted Campbell’s monomyth into a practical guide for screenwriters, mapping the hero’s journey stages to modern film examples (e.g.

The Lion King). This made the hero's journey practically a *lingua franca* in story rooms – though sometimes critiqued for encouraging formula.

- **Blake Snyder's *Save the Cat!* (2005):** A more recent (and somewhat controversial) screenwriting beat-sheet formula, breaking a Hollywood film story into 15 beats at specific page counts. Widely used in commercial film writing for its simplicity (e.g. the “Save the Cat” moment means give the hero a likable action early on).
- **Academic and Analytical Works:**
 - **Freytag's *Technique of the Drama* (1863):** where Freytag outlined his pyramid of five-part dramatic arc. This was an analysis of classical and Shakespearean drama that became a teaching tool for story structure ⁵⁶ .
 - **Joseph Campbell's *The Hero with a Thousand Faces* (1949):** As mentioned, while Campbell was not advising writers per se, the analytical model of the hero's journey became incredibly influential on story crafting. It bridged folklore scholarship and creative practice ¹² .
 - **Narrative and Genre Studies:** E.g. *Northrop Frye's Anatomy of Criticism* (1957) – identified archetypal story modes (comedy, tragedy, romance, irony) in literature, which indirectly guided writers in understanding genre expectations; *John Truby's The Anatomy of Story* (2007) – a modern script doctor's 22-step outline for organic storytelling, offering an alternative to three-act structure and focusing on moral arcs and character webs.
 - **Film Theory & Criticism:** Books like “*Narration in the Fiction Film*” by David Bordwell (1985) analyze how films tell stories (e.g. distinctions of plot vs. story akin to narratology but with cinematic focus). Such works, while analytical, influence filmmakers' awareness of narrative techniques (Bordwell and Thompson also discuss four-act structures in classic Hollywood ⁶¹).
 - **Educational Resources:** Countless writing workshops and manuals exist; notable global perspectives include *Bharata Muni's Natyashastra** (an ancient Indian treatise on drama, focusing on emotional aesthetics “*rasa*”) and modern adaptations of non-Western story principles, though these are less mainstream in Western practice.

Relationships to Other Fields: The professional craft of storytelling both draws from and feeds into more formal research. **Narratology** often codified what practitioners intuitively knew – for example, the concept of *focalization* in narratology parallels what writers consider as choosing the narrative POV. Conversely, when narratologists examine literature or film, they often describe patterns (like three-act structure or hero's journey archetypes) that were first articulated in writer's terms. **Cognitive science** and reader/viewer research can validate or explain why certain techniques work (e.g. why a three-act structure might align with how audiences emotionally process a story, or why showing and not telling engages the imagination – likely because it prompts viewers to infer and thus invest cognitively). **AI story generation** sometimes encodes these industry techniques: for instance, an AI might be programmed with a template of rising action and climax inspired by Freytag, or use a library of tropes from screenwriting paradigms. The creative writing perspective also emphasizes **audience experience**, linking with **narrative psychology** – good storytellers aim to elicit emotions and convey themes that resonate, essentially anticipating the psychological impact of narrative choices (for example, knowing that a redemption arc can be very satisfying to audiences). Finally, in **interactive storytelling**, narrative design is essentially the application of these age-old principles in a new medium – requiring understanding of traditional story structure but also flexibility for player agency. In summary, the craft perspective is where theory gets applied: it is informed by academic insights (knowingly or not) and its “success criteria” (audience engagement, clarity, emotional

power) provide a real-world testbed for theories about story structure and effect. It ensures that all the other threads remain connected to the age-old question: *What makes a story compelling?* 22 12

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