A Survey of Machine Narrative Reading Comprehension Assessments

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Abstract

As the body of research on machine narrative comprehension grows, there is a critical need for consideration of performance assessment strategies as well as the depth and scope of different benchmark tasks. Based on narrative theories, reading comprehension theories, as well as existing machine narrative reading comprehension tasks and datasets, we propose a typology that captures the main similarities and differences among assessment tasks; and discuss the implications of our typology for new task design and the challenges of narrative reading comprehension.

1 Introduction

Expository texts that provide facts and information about a topic and narrative texts that present a story are the two main text genres for reading comprehension. From the perspective of cognitive and narrative theories, understanding narratives is a complex process that requires the development of multiple capabilities at the same time, such as story grammar, theory of mind, and perspective-taking [Paris and Paris, 2003]. In NLP research, people have developed linguistic resources and tools for analyzing narrative texts [Bamman, 2020], and evaluation benchmarks on various high-level narrative understanding tasks such as event relation identification [Glavaš *et al.*, 2014], question answering [Kočiskỳ and others, 2018] and story summarization [Chen *et al.*, 2021].

Previous survey papers on machine reading comprehension (MRC) have covered methods, trends [Liu and others, 2019], and datasets [Dzendzik *et al.*, 2021]. However, the state of the art was such that these papers did not need to distinguish between expository texts and narrative texts, which each have unique requirements in comprehension. Thus, the uniqueness of narrative comprehension and the complexity of its evaluation have not been reflected by previous surveys. Over the past few years, the natural language processing (NLP) community has made rapid progress in improving the performance of neural models for machine reading comprehension

(MRC). Combining expository and narrative sources in previous work under the broad umbrella terms of machine narrative reading comprehension has arguably slowed progress in evaluative methods. As each of these tasks aims to assess a specific perspective of narrative understanding, we believe that there is much to gain by studying how they are related and how they are different.

To help bring together the various approaches to assessment and to differentiate the depth and scope of their evaluation of narrative understanding, we propose a typology that synthesizes these different assessments. In our typology we argue that the differences between assessments of machine narrative reading comprehension can be reduced to two informative dimensions:

- Local versus global narrative representation (i.e., the extent of the text stream over which the reader needs to link narrative elements)
- Extent of narrative elements extracted by the comprehension model

These two dimensions can be used to category the existing assessments of machine narrative reading comprehension. Our goal is to clarify the differences and similarities between assessments of narrative machine reading comprehension to help researchers select appropriate assessment tasks to evaluate models of narrative reading comprehension and to shed light on emerging and often overlooked challenges when building machine narrative comprehension tasks.

We organize our paper in the following way: first, we differentiate narrative text and expository text and review the difficulties in understanding narrative texts; second, we illustrate the theoretical foundations of a typology by summarizing the fundamental elements of narratives, scopes of comprehension, and types of existing tasks; next, we review existing narrative machine comprehension datasets; finally, we describe the typology and discuss the research opportunities within each dimension.

2 Background: Narrative vs. Expository

In this section we review the difference between narrative and expository texts, showing the uniqueness of narrative comprehension and by extension the value of this survey.

Narrative and expository texts, as two different discourse genres, have different communicative goals and functions.

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They differ in their principles of linguistic expression and organization. According to Brewer's genre classification system [Brewer, 2017], a narrative text is defined as one in which events that are related causally or thematically occur chronologically. In contrast, expository texts are defined as texts that describe a system or event in terms of its processing or structure. Narratives tend to be agent-oriented with a focus on characters, their actions, and their motivations. Narratives express the development of events within a temporal framework. Expository texts, on the other hand, are topic-oriented; they focus on one or more concepts and express the development of ideas, assertions, and arguments in terms of their logical interrelationships [Britton, 1994].

The role of events in narrative is significantly different from their role in fact-based expository texts of real-world events. Stories are usually longer and have more complicated narrative structures than expository texts, both locally and globally. Furthermore, stories are a creative endeavor in which the causality of real-world events is not hard-coded into narrative event sequences.

Narrative and expository texts also imply different perspectives on the nature of understanding. Human readers process narratives in order to create explanation-based coherence. Narrative processing is concerned with understanding the organization of events in the story [Wolfe and Woodwyk, 2010]. Readers often make inferences based on general world knowledge to explain how aims, events, actions, and outcomes in stories are related. These inferences represent links between narrative events, connections to readers' existing knowledge, and predictions about what will happen next [Wolfe and Woodwyk, 2010]. Expository processing is more concerned with the activation and integration of relevant prior knowledge into the discourse representation. The understanding of expository texts is often characterized by readers' attempts to construct a coherent representation of concepts extracted from the text content.

3 Background: A Survey of Task Formats for Assessments of Narrative Compression

Because narrative reading comprehension is a special category of MRC, it has also traditionally been assessed using traditional MRC tasks. However, text genre plays an important role in comprehension. Most traditional MRC tasks focus on expository texts, so these forms of assessment may not be appropriate for assessing reading comprehension of narrative texts. In this section we summarize the traditional MRC task formats that have been applied to narrative comprehension, and analyze the advantages and disadvantages of its application to reading comprehension of narrative texts.

Cloze Test takes a snippet of the original text with some pieces (usually entities) masked as blanks, with the goal of filling these blanks from a list of candidates. Examples of cloze tests for narrative comprehension assessments include BookTest [Bajgar et al., 2016], and [Ma et al., 2018]. However, when building on short snippets, the cloze tests is known to prone to mostly local inference but not much reasoning and commonsense knowledge, as pointed by studies in the NLP community suggested [Chen et al., 2016].

Question Answering (QA) is widely considered to be a generalized task format for MRC. However, given the challenge of having human annotate large-scale questions, creating a QA dataset to accurately assess certain reading skills can be quite difficult. Lengthy narratives make this problem even more difficult, as good assessment questions, especially those that require global information, usually require crowd workers to read and achieve a thorough understanding of long stories. This difficulty makes existing benchmarks mainly have questions on local snippets [Yang and Choi, 2019], short stories [Richardson et al., 2013; Xu and others, 2022], with the only exception of [Kočiský and others, 2018]. Therefore, more attention could beneficially be paid to carefully designed task formats by experts beyond QA, for efficient assessment of narrative reading skills.

Summarization has a main focus on plot line understanding. There has been considerable recent interest in evaluating a model's understanding of stories via summarization, e.g., NovelChapters [Ladhak et al., 2020], BookSum [Kryściński et al., 2021] and Screen-Sum [Chen et al., 2021]. Intuitively, summarization requires a deep understanding of the global information of a story, to enable generation of story summaries. These tasks provide difficult challenges to existing machine reading models. However, summarization tasks also have a significant drawback insofar as there are many factors beyond reading skills involved in generating a good summary, such as generating long narrative texts. As a result, summarization is not a pure measure of reading comprehension.

Fundamental Language Annotation Tasks refers to standard NLP tasks from syntactic to semantic analysis that provide bases for narrative understanding as well. Standard NLP tasks are hence extended to the narrative domain, including part-of-speech (POS) tagging and named entity recognition (NER) about location, time, and character names, event detection, and coreference resolution [Bamman et al., 2019].

Story-Level Classification refers to a wide range of tasks with the format of classification, which requires the information collected across the whole story. One example is the prediction of characters' personality types by reading the original stories [Flekova and Gurevych, 2015].

4 A Survey of Theories of Narrative Elements

Narrative stories contain consistent structural elements, but these elements have been divided and defined in a variety of ways. In this section we review key theories that describe and analyze narrative elements.

Theories in Social Science According to research on situation models, humans pay attention largely to spatial and event related information in a narrative. In a typical story, each event is indexed according to its time period, its location, the main characters it involves, its causal relationship to earlier events, and its relevance to the protagonist's goals. The reader then determines whether an index must be updated for the next encountered story event according to any of these situational dimensions [Zwaan et al., 1995].

Story structure theories explore the functional elements of a narrative. For example, "story scheme" refers to a set of expectations about the internal structure of a story that facilitates encoding and retrieval. Syntactic categories include setting, event, change-of-state, emotion, desire, action, plan and subgoal [Rumelhart, 1975]. Gordon Bower proposed rules to clarify the structure of stories and the process of human understanding. The first rule defines that a story consists of a setting, a theme, a plot, and a resolution, and they usually appear in that order. The second rule is that the setting consists of the characters, as well as the place and time of the story. The third rule is that the theme of a story consists of the main objectives of the main characters [Guthrie, 1977].

In education research, story elements including main character, setting (i.e., time and location), problem, attempted solution, and ultimate solution are often used to assess students' narrative comprehension [Garner and Bochna, 2004]. [Paris and Paris, 2003] classified story elements into implicit and explicit . Specifically, five explicit (i.e., setting, character, initiating event, problem, and outcome resolution) and five implicit (i.e., character feelings, character dialogue, causal inference, prediction, and theme) text relations. Experiments showed that children develop schemata about the settings, actions, and events described in narratives [Coté *et al.*, 1998]

NLP Theories The NLP community draws on a range of social science theoretical perspectives on narrative to form evaluation tasks, so it may have value to place these perspectives within an organized theoretical structure that can be applied to these practical machine evaluation tasks.

Most NLP studies mainly follow only the event-centric perspective and highlight causal chains, plans, and goals as important components of comprehending stories. But recent works have started to consider a more comprehensive view of narrative understanding. [Dunietz *et al.*, 2020] suggested four overlapping clusters of questions for narrative comprehension, extending from events to agents' reactions to the events, which correspond to the four elements highlighted in [Zwaan *et al.*, 1995]. The question templates include the three common types in previous NLP studies such as spatial questions, temporal questions and causal questions, plus an additional type of motivational questions such as, "*how do agents' beliefs, desires, and emotions lead to their actions*".

[Piper *et al.*, 2021] linked computational work in NLP to narrative theoretical frameworks and proposed a working definition of narrativity. The definition emphasized the audience interaction between narrative features and audience interactions with feature level interactions. They proposed eight elements that must be present in order to form a narrative: teller, mode of telling, recipient, situation, agent, one or more sequential actions, potential object, spatial location, temporal specification, and rationale. As will be shown in Section 5, their defined elements have overlaps to our typology. However, their work aims at a general-purposed definition of narratives, while ours focuses on the narrative story structures; thus we cover several important elements missed in their work. Also, similar to the reviewed theories from social science, their defined elements follow a different granularity, thus is less well-aligned to assessment tasks in the NLP field.

	Event	Character	Setting	Functional Structure
Global	**NarrativeQA** [Kočiský and others, 2018] event structure	**TVSG** [Sang *et al.*, 2022] character persona understanding		[Papalampidi *et al.*, 2020] Screenplay summarization
Local	**ESTER** [Han *et al.*, 2021] event relation understanding	**LiSCU** [Brahman *et al.*, 2021] character identification over summarative texts	**LitBank** [Bamman, 2020] location NER	**TRIPOD** [Papalampidi *et al.*, 2019] turning point detection

Table 1: A typology for evaluating narrative machine understanding

5 Our Proposed Assessment Typology

We synthesize the existing assessment tasks on narrative reading comprehension into a two-dimentional typology that considers (i) the scope of texts required to solve the tasks; and (ii) the target narrative elements to be assessed. Compared to the categorizations discussed in Section 4, our typology is tailored for NLP research and makes a clearer distinction among NLP tasks than prior work. Specifically, the types in our typology can be well aligned to the focuses of existing NLP datasets. Table 1 illustrates our typology and the representative tasks for each category.

5.1 Meaning Representation Scope of a Narrative

Forming adequate representations of narrative elements and the development of structural knowledge of the relations among elements are crucial for successful comprehension. One of the most well-established reading comprehension models, the Construction-Integration (CI) model [Kintsch, 1988], illustrates that a reader's representation can be based upon microstructure or macrostructure. Microstructure is driven by the local structure of the narrative (e.g., individual scenes), while macrostructure is driven by the global or hierarchical structure of the narrative (e.g., the entire story). The microstructure includes the reader's local inferences, but does not connect larger scale elements of the narrative. The hierarchical macrostructure requires the reader to infer the global organization of the narrative by connecting multiple microstructure elements [McNamara and Magliano, 2009].

Past research has indicated the existence of a significant amount of evaluation of local representation such as recognizing relations between characters [Chen and Choi, 2016] and narrative scene detection [Delmonte and Marchesini, 2017]. However, only a few assessments has been developed that require global representation. These assessments include direct evaluation of a skill through a specific task, such as predicting personality types to assess character understanding, and indirect evaluation of a skill embedded in a task, such as identifying characters based on their dialogue, which requires an implicit theory of mind. The rows of table1 shows tasks requiring global or local representation .

5.2 Target Narrative Element

Based on narrative theories, in this section we classify the target of existing machine narrative reading comprehension assessments into fundamental narrative elements: event, character, setting, and functional structure.

Event In narrative theories, an event is actually an implicit element. An "event" implies the occurrence of a transforma-

tion, while the more atomic idea of "activity" entails agents; when agents act, they must have motivations and be attempting to solve problems. Motivations may or may not be made explicit in the narrative. Agents may face challenges or they may be involved in some type of conflict [Ryan, 2007]. This means that when one discusses the events based on these theories they are actually talking about a structure containing several elements with different components.

In NLP, however, the scope of narrative event is often construed much more narrowly than the implicit event - typically more on the level of an activity. For example, an event has been defined as "a tuple of a frame (most simply a verb) and its participants" [Chambers and Jurafsky, 2008]. This definition of events as (verb) frames usually lies on a lower-level compared to the customary definition people usually refer to in daily lives. The latter is usually a sequence of the former "events" under the same theme. While the NLP events are usually on the sentence- or paragraph-level, the customary usage of events can refer to a scene or even a whole plotline.

In this survey, in order to propose a typology that is more applicable to a range of assessment tasks, when we refer to events we follow both the material. Therefore the scope of the event element include a hierarchy from people's actions, the various changes in nature, to the customary events; and moreover the relations and structures of the above events. The first column of Table 1 shows cases of event related assessments.

Character Characters are agents such as people, animals, and other creatures in a story. A character-centered perspective seeks to understand the characters that make up the story such as understanding the characters' roles, goals, relationships, emotions, and personality. Character identification and personality prediction are character-related assessments.

Setting Previous work has usually defined setting as the physical universe in which action takes place [Piper *et al.*, 2021]. However, in narrative, settings can also be historical and contemporary contexts, which are used to set the mood and shape the subjective atmosphere. Subjective atmosphere is not a one-time description, but is perceived and understood by the reader through various descriptive elements throughout the text.

Functional Structure Functional structure refers to an abstract representation of the different contributions of higher level aspects of a narrative to its intended function [Zan, 1983]. Functional structure is conceptually similar to a grammar that focuses on function rather than content. The primary distinction between functional structure and scripts is that the scripts contain events from the narrative whereas functional structure are made up of phases in a story arc. Turning point detection is an example of understanding functional structure.

6 Organizing Assessments in Our Typology

In this section we review existing assessment benchmarks according to our typology. The datasets are organized according to the narrative elements and summarized in Table 2, with the categories along the two dimensions discussed in texts.

6.1 Event-Centric

Historically, the representation and identification of events and their participants in NLP have focused on the domain of news, including early evaluation campaigns such as seminal datasets ACE2005 [Walker *et al.*, 2006] and other resources that necessitate event identification as a prerequisite for other tasks such as temporal ordering or factuality judgments. In narrative understanding event-centric research covers a broader topics.

Event Detection The dataset literary events [Sims *et al.*, 2019] identifies events that are depicted as actually happening. In other words, events that are asserted to be real. Their events includes activities, achievements, accomplishments, and changes of state as being events. Event triggers in this dataset is limited to verbs, adjectives, and nouns. Like the standard event detection tasks, these problems can usually be solved in local contexts, even on the sentence-level.

Event Relation The majority of new event-centric tasks in the NLP field focus on the prediction of a relation between two events, with both events provided and described in the narrative texts. The relationships considered include the causal and conditional relationships [Mirza and Tonelli, 2014; Lal *et al.*, 2021]; temporal relationships, which define the relationship between two events in terms of time, or between one event and a specific time point, such as tomorrow, as covered by the recent TORQUE [Ning *et al.*, 2020] dataset.

Another relationship is the inclusiveness between a main event and one of its sub-events. Note that this is different from the larger scope of "events" as discussed in Section 5.2 and will be surveyed in the *Customary Event Hierarchy* section, because the main events with larger scopes appear in the texts as well. HiEve [Glavaš *et al.*, 2014] is one such example on news stories. It represents the stories as event hierarchies — directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) of event mentions with edges denoting spatiotemporal confinement between events. The relationship of spatiotemporal confinement shows that one event is a component of another.

Finally, some datasets include multiple types of relationships. For example, RED [O'Gorman *et al.*, 2016] annotates causal and sub-event relations jointly. ESTER [Han *et al.*, 2021] proposed five types of event semantic relations: causal, sub-event, coreference, conditional and counterfactual. Event schema was proposed to learn high-level representations of complex events and their entity roles from unlabeled narrative text [Chambers, 2013]. As all these datasets assume the appearance of event mentions in local contexts, the relationships can always be identified with local inference.

Event Precedence Several studies have looked at constructing sequences of events and modeling the linear order of occurrences. The trend of using scripts in narrative understanding started by the proposing of narrative event chain [Chambers and Jurafsky, 2008]. The authors proposed an assessment called the narrative cloze test, designed to predict the absence of an event based on all other events in the script. Later the scope of event chains was expended by

Dataset	Task Format	Narrative Source	Targeted Story Elements			
			Event	Character	Setting	Functional Structure
MCTest [Richardson et al., 2013]	multi-choice	children stories	✓	✓		
CBT [Hill et al., 2015]	cloze test	children stories	✓			
LAMBADA [Paperno et al., 2016]	language model	literature	✓			
literary events [Sims et al., 2019]	event trigger detection	literature	✓			
HiEve [Glavaš et al., 2014]	event relation detection	news stories	✓			
TORQUE [Ning et al., 2020]	event relation detection	news stories	✓			
TellMeWhy [Lal et al., 2021]	multi-choice	short fictions	✓			
MCScript [Ostermann et al., 2018]	multi-choice	daily narratives	✓			
ROCStories [Mostafazadeh et al., 2016]	multi-choice	short stories	✓			
NarrativeQA [Kočiskỳ and others, 2018]	free-answering QA	movie scripts, literature	✓	✓	✓	
FriendsQA [Yang and Choi, 2019]	extractive QA	TV show scripts	✓	✓	✓	
NovelChapters [Ladhak et al., 2020] / **BookSum** [Kryściński et al., 2021]	summarization	literature	✓			
SumScreen [Chen et al., 2021]	summarization	TV show scripts	✓			
[Flekova and Gurevych, 2015]	classification	literature		✓		
[Chen and Choi, 2016] / [Chen et al., 2017]	coref resolution	TV show scripts		✓		
LiSCU [Brahman et al., 2021]	cloze test	paired (literature, character) summaries		✓		
[Massey et al., 2015]	relation detection	literature		✓		
TVSG [Sang et al., 2022]	character guessing	TV show scripts		✓		
[Bamman et al., 2019]	coref resolution	literature			✓	
TRIPOD [Papalampidi et al., 2019]	turning points identification	movie scripts				✓
CompRes [Levi et al., 2020]	classification	news stories				✓
[Ouyang and McKeown, 2014]	classification	personal experience				✓

Table 2: Popular evaluation datasets of machine narrative reading comprehension.

jointly learning event relations and their participants from un-labeled corpora. [Ostermann et al., 2018] is another dataset assessing the understanding of script knowledge in narrative, with the task format of question answering. Another task that belongs this category is story cloze, e.g., ROCStories [Mostafazadeh et al., 2016], which requires to choose the correct ending for a story from the given endings.

Customary Event Hierarchy A largely ignored type of reading comprehension skill is the understanding of the customary events, which usually correspond a whole scene or plotline of the local NLP events. The problem is thus recognizing the themes of these "large" events, as well as identifying their inner structures, i.e., how they are constructed from the "small" NLP events.

On this direction, the available assessments are limited: [Delmonte and Marchesini, 2017] identified naremes which is the smallest unit of narrative structure. [Mikhalkova and others, 2020] annotated main components of a storyline. However, some general-purposed assessment tasks consist of small portions of such problems. For example, the NarrativeQA dataset [Kočiskỳ and others, 2018] may question the information of an event that has a scope across multiple paragraphs, as analyzed by [Mou et al., 2021]. The summarization tasks [Ladhak et al., 2020; Kryściński et al., 2021] are another good example of this, since generating a chapter-level summary naturally requires to understand the event hierarchy and describe the upper-level events in concise texts.

6.2 Character-Centric

The task of coreference resolution for story characters [Chen and Choi, 2016; Chen et al., 2017] focuses on identifying the characters mentioned in multiparty conversations. The goal of these tasks is to resolve the coreference of pronouns and character-indicating nominals (*e.g.*, *you* and *Mom*) in dialogues of the character names that appear in the local context. It also covers linking a named entity (*e.g.*, *Ross*) to the character. LiSCU [Brahman et al., 2021] is a dataset that contains summaries of literary works as well as summaries of the characters that appear in them. The authors propose two tasks: character recognition as a cloze test and the generation of character descriptions. Both the aforementioned datasets require the understanding of characters' "facts" (i.e., their participated events over short spans), thus can be mainly resolved within local contexts.

There are also tasks encouraging understanding characters in global contexts. Inter-character relationship is a tradition for understanding narrative characters which is related to social network theories. [Massey et al., 2015] created a dataset of manually annotated relationships between characters in literary texts. Another character-centric task is to guessing characters by reading the stories [Sang et al., 2022]. The task requires to comprehend the original long stories that contain the character's verbal and non-verbal narratives; hence needs a global representation of the narrative.

6.3 Setting-Centric

Existing assessment of understanding setting in narratives mainly focus on the time and place of a story. It often answers the questions about when and where. Modeling settings naturally requires the identification of locations. named entity recognition of locations is the typical task for psychical setting related tasks. [Bamman et al., 2019] covered instances that related to location-related NER and coreference resolu-

tion in long documents. However, for the understanding of the more challenging setting cases such as historical and contemporary backgrounds, which require global representation in the narrative, there is no benchmark available.

6.4 Functional-Structure-Centric

Functional structure focuses on the functions of narrative fragments. There are two line of functional structure research. For short narratives, based on William Labov's theory of narrative analysis [Labov and Waletzky, 1997], [Ouyang and McKeown, 2014] detected complicating actions, CompRes [Levi *et al.*, 2020] identified complication, resolution, and Success in news articles, [Saldias and Roy, 2020] disentangled narrative clause types. For long narratives, TRIPOD [Papalampidi *et al.*, 2019] analyzed plot structure by identifying "turning point". The existing benchmarks examine the global representation of narrative structures, however, the hierarchical functions that facilitate the building of event-scene-plot-narrative still need further exploration.

7 Discussion

7.1 Implication of the Typology

Our survey suggests future improvements: First, while many datasets exist on event-centric assessments, the tasks for the other elements are relatively limited, especially for setting-centric and functional-structure-centric assessments. It will be helpful to conduct comprehensive analysis of which narrative elements should be considered in the specific tasks and develop assessments accordingly.

Second, even for existing benchmarks, it is important to conduct analyses of which sub-tasks and reading comprehension skills present the greatest challenges. Additionally, it is helpful to highlight overlooked distinctions of assessment used in existing narrative understanding tasks. In many narrative assessments the scope of meaning representation and types of inference are not well differentiated. For example, although both character name linking and character identification are character-centric narrative understanding, character identification requires pragmatic inference and global representation, character name linking usually requires propositional inference and local representation.

Finally, in narrative comprehension, the understanding module of different elements could interact with each other, which calls for assessments of joint understanding. For example, understanding characters and event can be jointly used for understanding the progression of narratives [Phelan, 1989]. By comparison, existing benchmarks that cover multiple elements in Table 2 usually have individual elements assessed by disjoint sub-sets of instances.

7.2 Current and Future Challenges

Narrative texts such as novels and even most short stories, are substantially longer than texts studied in conventional machine comprehension tasks and have more complicated narrative structures both locally and globally. Although there are some attempts to address these challenge, methods to accurately and efficiently handle long narrative input data remains a challenge for narrative comprehension. To encourage machine narrative reading comprehension, more carefully designed tasks that require the global inference are helpful.

Additionally, a necessary step toward narrative understanding is pragmatic inference which is the interpretive process through which readers must reconcile the differences between literal and intended meaning of texts. The incorporation of commonsense knowledge is one way to fill this gap. For example, the script knowledge [Shank and Abelson, 1977] can help models to complete the omitted sub-processes of a main event depicted in a story and social commonsense, e.g., [Rashkin *et al.*, 2018], can help to reveal people's stereotypical intentions beneath the textual descriptions of their actions and dialogues. Though specific commonsense inference tasks have been designed to encourage the study of such knowledge, incorporating it into the end tasks of machine narrative reading comprehension remains challenging.

Moreover, the expressions of narrative texts, such as argument, lyricism, and illustration; the narrative sequence, such as flashback, interpolation, and supplementary narrative; the viewpoint of the narration, such as first person, second person, and third person; the expressions of narrative texts, such as symbolism as well as desire to raise and lower; discursive forms such as dialogue and monologue may influence the difficulty of the task. A more detailed analysis of the input narrative text would help in the design of the task.

Furthermore, despite some reading skills and narrative sources that have been covered by existing datasets, there are still some missing assessments. One example is the understanding of the intentions of speakers, which play an essential role in stories, especially in dramatic scripts. However, there exist few assessment datasets on understanding the intentions in dialogues and how they would push forward the story progressions. This missing assessment limits the models from dealing with dialogues and non-dialogues in a different but cooperative manner.

Finally, text genre and inference types could be different dimensions of reading comprehension. In this survey we did not discuss the types of inference in depth, but we noticed that there are many more tasks available for propositional inferences than for pragmatic inferences. Pragmatic is an important dimension for both narrative and expository texts. While in narrative texts, it is more often authors hide deep meanings under the surface. More pragmatic inference tasks need to be designed in the future.

8 Conclusion

We present a typology that synthesizes the different assessment tasks in machine narrative reading comprehension. By making connections between cognitive theories, narrative theories and existing research in NLP, we hope to bring together findings in these different areas and to clarify the key aspects, overlooked distinctions and suggest major research challenges that will help drive the empirical study of machine narrative reading comprehension forward. Rather than attempting to solve the definition that brings all perspectives together, we encourage researchers to think carefully about the narrative elements that their model focus on, the scope of meaning representation they want to assess, and phenomena

they want to apply their model.

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