EmbodiedBERT: Cognitively Informed Metaphor Detection Incorporating Sensorimotor Information

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Abstract

The identification of metaphor is a crucial prerequisite for many downstream language tasks, such as sentiment analysis, opinion mining, and textual entailment. State-of-the-art systems of metaphor detection require training data annotated based on heuristic principles such as Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) and Selection Preference Violation (SPV) (Wilks, 1975; Wilson, 2002). We propose an innovative approach that leverages the cognitive information of embodiment that can be derived from word embeddings, and explicitly models the process of sensorimotor shedding that has been demonstrated as essential for human metaphor processing. We showed that this cognitively motivated module is more effective and can improve the prediction of metaphoricity compared with the heuristic MIP that has been applied previously.

1 Introduction

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Metaphor is a common type of figurative language that allows communicators to express novel construal (Shelley, 1890) and convey a myriad of implicit meanings (Gibbs, 2023). Effective metaphor processing is essential for natural language understanding tasks (Rai and Chakraverty, 2020), such as sentiment analysis, machine translation, and textual entailment. (Bahdanau et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2018; Poria et al., 2016). As a result, NLP researchers have focused on the computational modeling of metaphor, which typically starts with the identification of metaphors.

The state-of-the-art systems of metaphor identification typically rely on two heuristic principles: the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) (Pragglejaz Group, 2007), and Selection Preference Violation (SPV) (Wilks, 1975; Wilson, 2002). MIP identifies metaphors by recognizing that a word's metaphorical meaning differs from its basic, 'more concrete', 'related to bodily action', and 'historically older' meaning. SPV detects metaphors by identifying violations of words' semantic selection preferences in context. The modeling of MIP usually begins with the extraction of basic and contextual representations of target words and then learns their general differences (Li et al., 2023a; Choi et al., 2021), while SPV focuses on the relation between target words and their contexts (Song et al., 2021). Despite their effectiveness, they neglect the cognitive characteristics of metaphor. 042

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Embodied cognition posits that all cognitive acts, including language processing, are rooted in perception and action (Wilks, 1978; King and Gentner, 2022). Psycholinguistic evidence supports that metaphor processing is also embodied (Gibbs et al., 2004; Khatin-Zadeh, 2023), but the contribution of embodiment is dynamic. Specifically, the embodiment level of a metaphorical word often decreases compared to the word's basic meaning due to the structural mapping between the target and source concepts $(Jamrozik et al., 2016)^{1}$. For example, in the metaphorical use of the verb 'drink' in (a), the embodied features of the action 'drink', such as 'consumed by mouth', and 'the object must be liquid' are abstracted away, unlike in its literal use in (b). This abstraction of sensorimotor information is essential for humans to derive a metaphorical sense of 'drink' (to consume a large amount quickly), especially in the early stage of a metaphor (Bowdle and Gentner, 2005).

- (a) The students drink the knowledge.
- (b) The horse drinks the water.

Therefore, we hypothesize that the explicit modeling of embodiment change (sensorimotor shedding) can enhance metaphor detection. To test this, we developed EmbodiedBERT, a metaphor identification system that explicitly models the process of *sensorimotor shedding*. Previous research has

¹See in Appendix for a more detailed explanation of structural mapping theory

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Figure 1: The architecture of EmbodiedBERT includes: two PLM encoders which generates the h_S (representation for [CLS]), $h_{S,t}$ (contextual representation of the target word), h_t (basic representation of the target word); ; a suite of sensorimotor regressors (n = 11) which generate $SM_{S,t}$ (sensorimotor representation of the contextual target) and SM_t (the sensorimotor representation of the basic target); a final binary classification module

integrated sensorimotor information for metaphor identification, but most of them merely use it as word-level feature enrichment without considering the change in embodiment(Bulat et al., 2017; Wan et al., 2023). Compared to general semantic change of word in context (MIP), sensorimotor change offers a more cognitively motivated and precise method for predicting metaphoricity. In our study, we show that our cognitive module is indeed effective for predicting metaphoricity.

2 EmbodiedBERT

2.1 Model architecture

EmbodiedBERT has four main components: two basic encoders for representing the target word's contextual and basic meaning; a suite of sensorimotor regressors that *maps distributional embeddings onto sensorimotor-related dimensions*; linear layers learning the function of MIP_SM (sensorimotor shedding) and SPV, and a final metaphoricity predictor.

Meaning Representation We use two roberta-base models (Liu et al., 2019) from Hugging Face ² as the backbone encoder. Given a sentence $S = \{w_1, \ldots, w_n\}$, the first encoder outputs a set of contextualized embeddings $\{h_S, h_{S,1}, \ldots, h_{S,t}, \ldots, h_{S,n}\}$, where h_S stands for the global meaning of S and $h_{S,t}$ stands for the target's contextual meaning. To extract the target's basic meaning, we input the target word with special tokens into another encoder, resulting in the basic meaning embedding h_t .

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The meaning representations were input into two linear functions: SPV and MIP_SM. Firstly, **SPV** aims to learn to contrasts a word's contextual meaning with the meaning of its global context. It takes the concatenation of h_S and $h_{S,t}$ and learns their difference through the linear function.

MIP_SM transforms the encoder outputs before the concatenation operation to reflect the specific change in embodiment-related dimensions. It takes an additional step to map distributional word embeddings onto these embodiment-related dimensions. Specifically, we perform such a mapping for both h_t and $h_{S,t}$, to generate SM_t (basic sensorimotor embedding) and $SM_{S,t}$ (contextual sensorimotor embedding). Next, we concatenate the derived SM_t with h_t , and $SM_{S,t}$ with $h_{S,t}$ and input them to another linear function MIP_SM. (See the next section for further details).

Binary classification Finally, the output hidden vectors from SPV and MIP_SM are concatenated together and fed into a linear layer followed by a sigmoid function to predict the likelihood of a target being metaphorical (Eq.1). We minimize the binary cross entropy (Eq.2) and update model parameters via back propagation.

$$\hat{y} = \sigma \left(W^T \left(h_{SPV} \bigoplus h_{MIP_{SM}} \right) + b \right)$$
(1)

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i log \hat{y_i} + (1 - y_i) log (1 - \hat{y_i})$$
(2)

2.2 Sensorimotor regressors

We obtained embodiment-related information as 138 inputs for MIP SM by mapping distributional em-139 beddings onto sensorimotor-related embeddings 140 (Chersoni et al., 2020). There are 11 sensorimotor 141 dimensions related to humans' embodied experi-142 ence of the physical world, including: Auditory, 143 Gustatory, Olfactory, Visual, Tactile, Interoceptive, 144 Hand_Arm, Foot_Leg, Head, Mouth, and Torso. A 145 word is assigned a value for each dimension which 146 reflects how strongly the concept embodied by the 147 word is experienced by the respective sensor or af-148 fector (Lynott et al., 2020). We trained 11 mapping 149 regressors that can automatically deduct these val-150 ues for each word from a word's BERT embedding 151 layer (layer 0). Each of the 11 regressors is a neural 152 network mapping a 768-dimension embedding to a single dimension float (two fully connected hidden 154

²https://huggingface.co/FacebookAI/roberta-base

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3 Experiments

details are in the Appendix.

3.1 Dataset

We used VUA-20 (Leong et al., 2020) for model training, and VUA-18 (Leong et al., 2018) and VUA-verb for zero-shot transfer testing. Moreover, to examine our model's generalizability to non-VUA datasets, we also tested our model on MOH (Mohammad et al., 2016) and Trofi (Birke and Sarkar, 2006) in a zero-shot transfer setting ³. For all the datasets, we adopted the existing split of train, dev, test.

layers of the size of 384 and 192 respectively, both

activated by ReLU). The training and evaluation

3.2 Baseline models

For a thorough comparison, we selected six baseline models:

MELBERT (Choi et al., 2021) also uses roberta-base as basic encoder, and incorporates SPV and MIP for metaphoricity prediction. EmbodiedBERT differs from it by substituting MIP with MIP_SM.

SGNN (Wan et al., 2023) simply incorporates sensorimotor information as word-level feature enrichment. It concatenates words' GloVe embeddings and sensorimotor values from Lancaster Sensorimotor norm as input for a recurrent neural network for metaphoricity prediction.

MrBERT (Song et al., 2021) explores the relations between metaphorical verbs and their various contexts, and predicts whether relations are likely to be metaphorical.

MisNet (Zhang and Liu, 2022) implements MIP and SPV with different encoding and feature concatenation strategies.

BasicBERT (Li et al., 2023b) also proposes a new variant MIP, which can better model the meaning discrepancy between target word in context and its basic meaning. Compared with their model, EmbodiedBERT offers a cognitively motivated measure of contextual meaning change.

FrameBERT (Li et al., 2023a) also attempts to leverage external knowledge base FrameNet. It augments word embedding with self-trained FrameNet embedding for modelling MIP and SPV.

	Model	Prec	Rec	F1
X711A 10	MrBERT	82.7	72.5	77.2
	MelBERT	80.1	76.9	78.5
	MisNet	80.4	<u>78.4</u>	79.4
V UA-10	FrameBERT	82.7	75.3	78.8
	BasicBERT	79.5	78.5	<u>79.0</u>
	SGNN	76.7	75.5	76.1
	EmbodiedBERT	80.6	76.9	78.7
	MrBERT	-	-	-
	MelBERT	75.9	69.0	72.3
	MistNet	-	-	-
V UA-20	FrameBERT	79.1	67.7	<u>73.0</u>
	BasicBERT	73.3	73.2	73.3
	SGNN	-	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	73.6	<u>72.2</u>	72.9
	MrBERT	80.8	71.5	75.9
	MelBERT	<u>78.7</u>	72.9	75.7
VIIA work	MisNet	78.3	<u>73.6</u>	75.9
v UA-verb	FrameBERT	-	-	-
	BasicBERT	-	-	-
	SGNN	-	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	76.3	76.2	76.3

Table 1: Evaluation of metaphor identification systems on VUA datasets. **Bold** indicates the best, <u>underline</u> indicates the second best

For all the baseline models, we directly obtain the performance of these baselines from the previous publications.

3.3 Implementation

We finetuned the hyperparameters with grid search. We increased our learning rate from 0 to 4e-5 during the first two epochs and gradually decreased it. We used the dropout rate of 0.2. The final model was trained with a batch size of 50 by three epochs, using Adam optimizer. We adopted precision, recall and f1-score as matrix for automatic evaluation. The final model's performance was obtained by averaging the results of five runs with random seeds. The experiments have been run on two NVIDA GeForce RTX 3090 GPUs, with a total of 48GB memory.

3.4 Results and discussion

Table 1 shows the automatic evaluation of our system compared with the baseline systems for metaphor detection in terms of precision, recall and f1 score.

VUA datasets For VUA-18, EmbodiedBERT achieves the forth best f1 score, while outperforming MelBERT, MrBERT and SGNN. For

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³Both MOH and Trofi contain exclusively verb metaphors, with the minor difference that the sentences in Trofi are generally longer than those in MOH.

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VUA-20, our system still outperforms MelBERT, but lags behind FrameBERT and BasicBERT. In terms of VUA-verb, our system achieves 0.79%, 0.79% and 0.53% performance gains compared with MelBERT, MisNet and MrBERT. The consistent improvements over MelBERT in all three datasets show that modelling sensorimotor change (MIP_SM) is indeed effective for predicting metaphoricity, considering the major difference between EmbodiedBERT and MelBERT is the substitution of MIP by MIP_SM. Also, our system achieves the best performance in verb metaphor detection (VUA-verb), which validates that sensorimotor shedding is indeed an important aspect of verb metaphor processing, during which verbs are become semantically mutable to derive a metaphorical meaning (King and Gentner, 2022; Jamrozik et al., 2016).

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Break-down analysis by POS When breaking down the VUA-18 dataset by Part-of-speech (POS), we find that EmbodiedBERT surpasses all other systems except MisNet in verb metaphors (f1 = 76.9, 1.3% gain over MelBERT)⁴, while achieving the second best in adjective (f1 = 68.0) and third best in adverb categories (f1 = 72.5). Our system does not work well for noun metaphors (f1 = 69.5) (see details in the Appendix). It remains unclear why the modelling of sensorimotor change does not help improve the detection of noun metaphor, a category that should have also demonstrated obvious sensorimotor changes as predicted by the Structural Mapping Theory.

Break-down analysis by genre Meanwhile, when dividing the VUA-18 dataset by genre, our system outperforms all other systems in academic writings (f1 = 84.2, 0.4% gain over MelBERT) and achieves the second best in news (f1 = 78.6, 1.8%gain over MelBERT), which are both formal genres. Meanwhile, our system ranks the third best in terms of conversation (f1 = 69.9) and fiction (f1 = 75.3) (see details in the Appendix). This is relatively surprising, for we originally hypothesized that modelling sensorimotor shedding will help detect more novel metaphors which often appear in conversation and fiction, for conventional metaphors (close to literal use) are less likely to show contextual change in embodiment (Bowdle and Gentner, 2005).

Transfer to non-VUA datasets We also tested

our system's transferability to non-VUA datasets, like TroFi and MOH-X, and the overall results are shown in the following table. In general, our system is relatively inferior compared with other systems in terms of zero-shot transfer ability towards non-VUA datasets (MOH-X: f1 = 78.2; TroFi: f1 = 61.5) (see details in the Appendix).

Case analysis We reveal how the integration of sensorimotor shedding can help the model reduce both false positives and false negatives. Specifically, we compared our model's predictions for VUA20-test with the predictions of MelBERT. For the reduction of false positives, EmbodiedBERT does not identify literal phrases with a minimal sensorimotor change as metaphor. For example, in the phrase 'MODERN trams, as most continental Europeans know, neither shake nor rattle, nor do they roll.', 'shake' and 'rattle' are supposed to be literal description of the tram's movement, but MELBERT predicts them to be metaphor. For the reduction of false negatives, our system is more skilled at identifying embodiment-based metaphors. For example, it can successfully identify visual metaphors like 'hazy' in 'a poet's sense of other people's very hazy', which represents cognitive incapacity by visual haziness (see more examples in the Appendix).

4 Conclusion

In this study, we contribute a novel system for metaphor detection EmbodiedBERT, which explicitly models the change in sensorimtor information of metaphorical words. The performance improvements over systems using MIP (general meaning change in context) shows that the cognitiveinformed MIP_SM is indeed a promising predictor of metaphoricity. Based on our results, we envision that the incorporation of embodiment information cannot only benefit metaphor detection, but also many other language understanding tasks that require embodied experience. Therefore, a promising direction is to distill embodiment knowledge from large language models trained on multimodal inputs and apply the distilled knowledge to downstream architecture designs.

Limitations

There are some limitations to be addressed in the318future research. First, the modelling of sensorimo-319tor change highly depends on the representations of320basic meaning and contextual meaning of the target321

⁴Note that the verb metaphors in the break-down analysis only come from VUA-18, while VUA-verb is the mixture of data from both VUA-18 and VUA-20.

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word. We currently used the output by feeding single word into encoder to represent basic meaning, but a more precise of basic meaning representation will be beneficial, which has begun to be investigated by many researchers (e.g. Li et al. (2023a), Zhang and Liu (2022)).

Second, we currently used a relatively simple method to derive contextual and basic sensorimotor representation. We envision that a more sophisticated way of integrating sensorimotor change will not only improve the performance on existing datasets, but could also be beneficial for increasing the system's transfer ability to detect novel metaphors in new datasets.

Finally, compared with BERT, recent large language models presumably contain more embodiment knowledge due to more sufficient training and more diverse inputs, which could be a more ideal source for deriving embodiment representation.

Acknowledgments

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A Appendix

A.1 Structural Mapping Theory

Structure mapping theory (Gentner, 1983) aims to offer a general way of accounting for conceptual analogy, of which metaphor is a specific category. It proposes that any kind of analogy involves two processing stages: structural alignment and projection. To process analogies, human begin to take two entities in an analogy into comparison and structurally align their corresponding properties. The alignment process observes three principles: one-to-one mapping, parallel connectivity, and systematicity. Sensorimotor features of the source concept which fail to connect to the aligned system due to the violation of the principles will be shed away from source representation, and thus cannot be projected to the target representation.

A.2 Text representation

We used the byte-pair encoding (BPE) to tokenize S. Following Choi et al. (2021), we used the position embedding to distinguish target word and its local context. Also, following Su et al. (2020), after adding special tokens [CLS] and [SEP] to the beginning and the end of S, we utilized the part of speech (POS) information of the target word by appending its POS after [SEP]. Finally, we fed the element-wise addition of BPE token embedding, position embedding and segment embedding of S as input into the first encoder.

A.3 Training and evaluation of sensorimotor regressors

To train the regressors, we adopted Lancaster Sensorimotor Norm (Lynott et al., 2020), which contains contains 11-dimension sensorimotor information for 2,9000 English words. Meanwhile, we used word embedding from BERT embedding layer as input (Devlin et al., 2019). The size of overlapping vocabulary of Lancaster Sensorimotor Norm and BERT vocabulary is 11,402, and we split it into training and testing with the ratio of 8:2. We used mean squared error as criterion for calculating loss and adopted Adam optimizer for parameter updating. Our initial learning rate was 0.001 and was gradually decreased by the factor of 0.1 with the patience of 10. We performed 5-fold crossvalidation and used early stopping to save the best model based on the loss on validation set. For evaluation, we used Pearson correlations of models'
predicted values with human rating. Overall, the
relatively high correlations suggest that our regressors can reliably deduct sensorimotor information
from word embeddings.

Dimension	BERT
auditory	0.76
gustatory	0.78
haptic	0.79
interoceptive	0.81
olfactory	0.75
visual	0.72
foot_leg	0.74
hand_arm	0.73
head	0.61
mouth	0.73
torso	0.69
by-word	0.88

POS	Model	F1	Prec	Rec
ADJ	MelBERT	64.4	<u>69.4</u>	60.1
	MisNet	67.0	68.8	65.2
	SGNN	70.8	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	<u>68.0</u>	70.9	65.3
	MelBERT	74.6	80.2	<u>69.7</u>
ADV	MisNet	<u>73.3</u>	76.4	70.5
	SGNN	65.4	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	72.5	<u>79.5</u>	66.6
NOUN	MelBERT	<u>70.7</u>	<u>75.4</u>	<u>66.5</u>
	MisNet	70.6	74.4	67.2
	SGNN	73.2	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	69.5	76.0	64.0
VERB	MelBERT	75.1	74.2	75.9
	MisNet	77.6	77.5	77.6
	SGNN	76.2	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	<u>76.5</u>	<u>76.1</u>	76.9

Table 2: Correlations of sensorimotor prediction with human judgement. **Bold** indicates the best, <u>underline</u> indicates the second best.

Dataset	Model	F1	Prec	Rec
	MelBERT	62.0	53.4	74.1
	MrBERT	<u>72.9</u>	73.9	72.1
TroFi	MisNet	-	-	-
	FrameBERT	74.2	<u>70.7</u>	78.2
	EmbodiedBERT	61.5	52.5	<u>74.6</u>
МОН-Х	MelBERT	79.2	79.3	79.7
	MrBERT	84.2	<u>84.1</u>	85.6
	MisNet	83.4	84.2	84.0
	FrameBERT	<u>83.8</u>	83.2	84.4
	EmbodiedBERT	78.2	76.4	81.1

Table 3: Zero-shot transfer to non-VUA datasets. **Bold** indicates the best, <u>underline</u> indicates the second best.

Table 4: POS-specific evaluation of different systems.Bold indicates the best, <u>underline</u> indicates the second best.

Genre	Model	F1	Prec	Rec
Acad	MelBERT	<u>83.9</u>	<u>85.3</u>	82.5
	MisNet	83.8	85.1	82.5
	SGNN	76.5	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	84.2	86.8	<u>81.7</u>
Conv	MelBERT	<u>70.9</u>	70.1	71.7
	MisNet	71.9	71.8	72.0
	SGNN	65.5	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	69.9	<u>70.3</u>	69.5
Fict	MelBERT	<u>75.4</u>	<u>74.0</u>	76.8
	MisNet	76.0	74.5	77.5
	SGNN	69.0	-	-
	EmbodiedBERT	75.3	73.7	<u>77.0</u>
News	MelBERT	77.2	81	73.7
	MisNet	79. 7	<u>82.6</u>	77.0
	SGNN	74.4	-	-
	EmbodiedX	<u>78.6</u>	83.0	<u>74.7</u>

Table 5: Genre-specific evaluation of different systems. Acad: academic; Conv: conversation; Fict: fiction. **Bold** indicates the best, <u>underline</u> indicates the second best.

True	EB	MB
0	0	1
0	0	1
0	0	1
0	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	0
1	1	0
1	1	0
1	1	0
1	1	0
	Irue 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Irue EB 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Table 6: Case analysis: reduction of false positives and negatives by EmbodiedBERT (EB) compared with MelBERT (MB). **Bold** indicates the target word.