

How Are Idioms Processed Inside Transformer Language Models?

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Abstract

Idioms such as “call it a day” and “piece of cake”, are ubiquitous in natural language. How do Transformer language models process idioms? This study examines this question by analysing three models - BERT, Multilingual BERT, and DistilBERT. We compare the embeddings of idiomatic and literal expressions across all layers of the networks at both the sentence and word levels. Additionally, we investigate the attention directed from other sentence tokens towards a word within an idiom as opposed to in a literal context. Results indicate that while the three models exhibit slightly different internal mechanisms, they all represent idioms distinctively compared to literal language, with attention playing a critical role. These findings suggest that idioms are semantically and syntactically idiosyncratic, not only for humans but also for language models.

1 Introduction

“Why would you put all your eggs in one basket? I can’t wrap my head around it”. Idioms such as “put all one’s eggs in one basket” and “wrap one’s head around” are used frequently in natural conversations. Despite their abundance, much remains to be explored regarding their syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic characteristics, and how they are processed by the human brain as well as NLP models. Recent Transformer-based large language models have demonstrated strong capabilities in a sweep of tasks involving natural language understanding (e.g. [Brown et al. \(2020\)](#)). However, few attempts have been made to understand the inner workings of these language models in terms of idiom processing. In this study, we conduct three experiments to explore the inner workings of transformer language models in idiom processing. Specifically, we investigate the processing of BERT, Multilingual BERT and DistilBERT by comparing the embeddings on the sentence level and on the word level. We also

explore the attention mechanism on idioms compared to literal contexts. We ask three questions:

- How do Transformer language models (LMs) represent idiomatic sentences as opposed to their literal spelt-out counterparts across different layers in the network? For example, “Birds of a feather flock together” versus “People with similar interests stick together”.
- How do LMs represent a word inside an idiom compared to the same word in a literal context? For example, the word “feather” in “Birds of a feather flock together” versus “My parakeet dropped a green feather.”
- How do LMs pay attention to a word inside an idiom compared to a literal context?

1.1 Related Work

The current study is related to linguistic research on idioms, research on the inner workings of BERT, often coined “BERTology”, and more specifically BERT’s processing of idiomatic expressions.

Linguistic theories of idioms: Idioms seem easy to spot but difficult to define. They are conventionalised, affective, and often figurative multi-word expressions used primarily in informal speech ([Baldwin and Kim, 2010](#)). Idioms are non-compositional - their meanings often cannot be predicted based on the words they are composed of ([Nunberg et al., 1994](#)). [Sinclair and Sinclair \(1991\)](#) postulate that humans process idioms by treating them as a “single independent token”.

BERT and BERTology: BERT ([Devlin et al., 2018](#)) is a large Transformer network pre-trained on 3.3 billion tokens of written corpora including the BookCorpus and the English Wikipedia ([Vaswani et al., 2017](#)). Each layer contains multiple self-attention heads that compute attention weights between all pairs of tokens. Attention weights can

078 be seen as deciding how relevant every token is
079 in relation to every other token for producing the
080 representation on the following layer (Clark et al.,
081 2019).

082 Many studies have explored how different
083 linguistic information is represented in BERT
084 (Mickus et al., 2020; Jawahar et al., 2019; Tenney
085 et al., 2019). Jawahar et al. (2019) observed that
086 different layers encode different linguistic informa-
087 tion. Lower layers capture phrase-level informa-
088 tion (i.e. surface features), middle layers capture
089 syntactic information and higher layers capture se-
090 mantic features. Studies disagree on where and
091 how much semantic information is encoded. For
092 example, Tenney et al. (2019) suggests that seman-
093 tics is spread across the entire model. Lenci et al.
094 (2021) found that the uppermost layer in BERT
095 was the worst-performing in downstream tasks. So
096 far, there has been less research on the inner work-
097 ings of DistilBERT (Sanh et al., 2019) and Mul-
098 tilingual BERT (Pires et al., 2019). Most studies
099 focus on comparing performance cross-lingually or
100 in downstream tasks between these models (Ulčar
101 and Robnik-Sikonja, 2021; Wu and Dredze, 2020;
102 Sajjad et al., 2021; Lenci et al., 2021).

103 **Idiom processing in Language Models:** Stud-
104 ies are becoming increasingly engaged with the
105 challenge of idiom representation in language mod-
106 els (Socolof et al., 2021; Garcia et al., 2021b;
107 Dankers et al., 2022). Nedumpozhimana and Kelle-
108 her (2021) investigated how BERT recognises id-
109 ioms, suggesting that the indicator is found both
110 within the expression and in the surrounding con-
111 text. Madabushi et al. (2021) explored how various
112 input features (e.g. the effect of different prob-
113 lem setups - zero-shot, one-shot, and few-shot)
114 affect LMs’ ability to represent idioms. Both stud-
115 ies analyse the aggregated embeddings in the final
116 layer, and do not investigate how representations
117 vary across different layers. Garcia et al. (2021a)
118 probed the representation of noun compounds in
119 LMs, varying in compositionality, in order to assess
120 the retention of idiomatic meaning. Our paper fol-
121 lows a similar paradigm but includes an attention
122 analysis. Finally, Dankers et al. (2022) analysed
123 idiom processing for pre-trained neural machine
124 translation Transformer models from English to
125 seven European languages and found that when the
126 model produces a non-literal (intended) translation
127 of the idiom, the encoder processes idioms more as
128 single lexical units compared to literal expressions.

2 Experiments 129

To look into the black box of how LMs process id- 130
iomatic language, we conducted three experiments 131
to assess sentence embeddings, word embeddings 132
and attention across all layers of the networks. 133

2.1 Dataset 134

We utilised the idioms from the EPIE dataset (Sax- 135
ena and Paul, 2020) to obtain a list of 838 English 136
idioms that occur frequently in language. We then 137
created sentences for the following conditions: for 138
each idiom, we created (1) a sentence containing 139
that idiom, (2) a spelt-out sentence expressing the 140
same idiom in literal language, and (3) two unrel- 141
ated literal sentences containing a key-word from 142
the idiom (for experiment 2). An example of a 143
datapoint¹: 144

- **Idiom :** under the weather 145
- **Idiom sentence :** I’m feeling under the 146
weather today. 147
- **Spelt-out meaning:** I’m feeling unwell today. 148
- **Unrelated literal sentence 1:** Today’s 149
weather is nice. 150
- **Unrelated literal sentence 2:** The weather is 151
meant to change at 10am today. 152

2.2 Experiment 1: Idiom versus Spelt-out 153 sentence embedding analysis 154

Experiment 1 investigates how sentence embed- 155
dings of idiomatic sentences evolve across layers. 156

2.2.1 Methods and Results 157

To embed the sentences, we used the Python li- 158
brary Transformers from Hugging Face (Wolf 159
et al., 2020). We used the medium-sized BERT 160
model (BERT-base-uncased), Multilingual BERT 161
(BERT-base-multilingual-uncased), and Dis- 162
tilBERT (distilBERT-base-uncased). The first 163
two models contain 12 layers and 12 attention 164
heads, while DistilBERT contains 6 layers and 12 165
attention heads. Let \mathcal{S} denote the dataset of all (id- 166
iom, and spelt-out) sentence tuples (in the notations 167
below we represent idiom sentences with s_i , and 168
spelt-out sentences with s_s). 169

We determine whether an LM’s representation 170
of an idiom sentence is similar to its spelt-out coun- 171
terpart using two metrics: 172

¹The entire dataset is released with the paper.

- **Metric 1:** the *raw cosine similarity* $\phi(s_i, s_s) = \frac{s_i \cdot s_s}{\max(\|s_i\|_2, \|s_s\|_2, \epsilon)}$ computed for all $(s_i, s_s) \in \mathcal{S}$.
- **Metric 2:** the *cosine similarity ranking* computed for all (s_i, s_s) with $(s_i, s_s) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S}$.

The raw cosine similarity in Metric 1 indicates how close an idiom and spelt-out pair is in the embedding space, while the similarity *ranking* in Metric 2 determines the quality of an embedding in capturing semantic nuances compared to controls (all other non-counterpart spelt-out sentences). A close idiom and spelt-out pair relative to controls should converge to a rank close to 0. The reasoning is that when an idiomatic sentence s_i is compared against all spelt-out sentences s_s in the dataset, its spelt-out counterpart should be the most similar in semantic content.

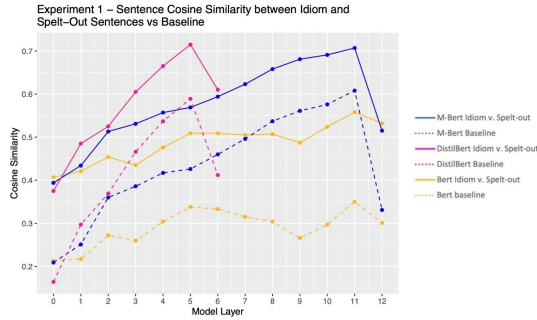


Figure 1: Experiment 1 - Sentence Cosine similarity of Idiom and Spelt-out sentence pairs

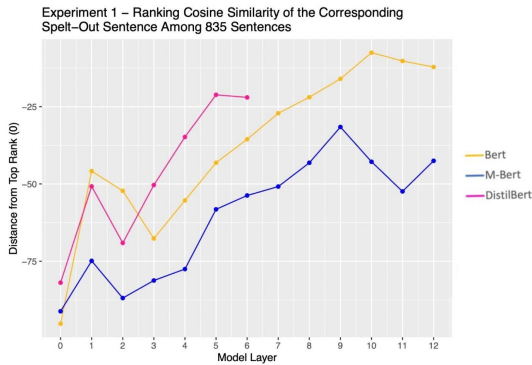


Figure 2: Experiment 1 - Similarity ranking, where we plot the similarity *ranking* of the spelt-out counterpart - the closer to zero, the more similar the spelt-out counterpart is to the idiom sentence compared to controls.

The results are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2. Overall, the cosine similarity² between idiom

²We concatenated the activations of all sentence tokens into a single flattened vector. In order to calculate the co-

sine similarity between two sentences of different lengths, we pad the shorter sentence in each pair with [PAD] so that the two have the same number of tokens. We calculate the cosine similarity between each idiom sentence and its spelt-out counterpart. As a baseline, we calculate the cosine similarity between an idiom sentence and a random spelt-out sentence. In all cases, we report the mean cosine similarity.

sentence and its spelt-out counterpart is higher than the random baseline for all three models. For all three models and for every layer in each model, there was a significant difference (all p-values < 0.001) in sentence cosine similarity. Moreover, the t-values increased in deeper layers, which shows that these layers better processed semantic similarities between idioms and their spelt-out counterparts, supporting our hypothesis that the semantic meaning of idioms is captured in deeper layers of BERT.

Among the three LMs, the patterns of DistilBERT and Multilingual BERT most resemble each other, with similarity rising steadily, peaking on the penultimate layer, and dropping on the last layer. In order to evaluate if the LMs represent a literal spelt-out sentence to be *more* similar to random controls, we evaluated a similarity *ranking* metric.

2.3 Experiment 2: How does the embedding of a word within an idiom change compared to the same word in a literal context

The pair ranking results (Figure 2) show that similarity ranking reaches the highest point in mid to late layers for all 3 LMs, peaking at layer 10 for BERT, at layer 9 for Multilingual BERT and at layer 5 (penultimate layer) for DistilBERT.

Experiment 2 investigates how *word* embeddings change for words in idiomatic versus literal contexts. To do this, we see how the the cosine similarity of the embedding of a word inside an idiom versus in a literal context changes across layers, and compare that with a baseline cosine similarity where the word appears in two literal contexts.

Dataset: For each idiom sentence we manually created two unrelated literal sentences which contain a word from the associated idiom. For example, idiom sentence: *Don't beat around the [bush]*. Unrelated literal sentences: (1) *There's a small [bush] in the garden*, and (2) *The dog jumped over the [bush]*. Target word: “bush”.

Methods and Results: We identified the index of the target word after the sentences were tokenised, and retrieved the embedding for this word across

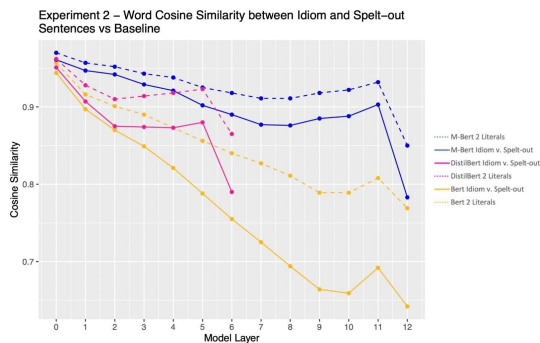


Figure 3: Experiment 2 - Cosine similarities of word embeddings between idiomatic and literal uses of the word

all layers for the idiom sentence and the two unrelated literal sentences. We calculated the cosine similarity for the word embedding (1) between idiom and literal contexts and (2) between the two literal contexts as a baseline.

Figure 3 shows that for all three language models, the similarity of word in two literal contexts (dotted line) is higher than that between idiom and literal contexts (solid line). Like in experiment 1, DistilBERT and Multilingual BERT resemble each other in their patterns. For BERT, the similarity of word embedding between literal and idiom contexts drops significantly more than between two literal contexts. T-test results showed the same pattern observed in experiment 1 as well; there was a significant difference (all p-values < 0.001) in cosine similarity in every layer for all three models, and the absolute value of t-value increased in deeper layers. This confirms our hypothesis that the semantic meaning of idioms is captured in deeper layers of BERT, where words inside idiom drift further from their literal meaning. We see a similar but reduced pattern in Multilingual BERT and DistilBERT.

2.4 Experiment 3: Does BERT pay different attentions to words inside idioms versus literal context

Experiment 1 and 2 show that LMs treat idioms differently to literal expressions. What is the mechanism that allows the networks to process this difference? As self-attention is central to the power of Transformer models, we hypothesise that the network integrates idioms by paying different attention when a word is in an idiom versus a literal context. Specifically, we hypothesise that words inside idioms are less connected to the rest of the sen-

tence, following the linguistic theory that idiomatic expressions function as a single unit (Sinclair and Sinclair, 1991).

2.4.1 Methods and Results

For each idiom sentence, we selected a word inside the idiom and the indices of the target word (e.g. “bush”) in both the idiom and the literal sentence. Then for each sentence and for each layer, we calculated the average attention from all other sentence tokens to the target word.

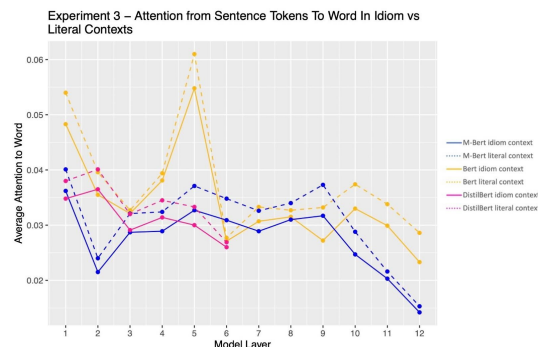


Figure 4: Experiment 3 - Attention from other sentence tokens to word inside an idiom sentence versus a literal sentence

Figure 4 plots the attention in each layer of LMs from all other sentence tokens to the target word. For all three language models, sentence tokens pay *less* attention to a word inside an idiom (solid lines) than they do to the same word in a literal context (dotted lines), meaning that words inside idioms interact less with the rest of the sentence compared to words in literal contexts. Like in experiment 1 and experiment 2, there was a significant difference between attention to a word inside an idiom and that inside a literal context in each layer in all three models (p-values < 0.01). This supports the idea that LMs see idioms as more idiosyncratic units. However, while DistilBERT and Multilingual BERT showed a similar trend in t-values that decreased in degree in the last 2 layers, BERT did not show any particular pattern in t-statistics. Once again we observe that DistilBERT and Multilingual BERT share a similar pattern, whereas BERT displays more variations across its layers.

3 Results Summary

We investigated how Transformer LMs process idioms across their layers on a sentence level and a word level. Experiment 1 shows that on a sentence level, LMs represent an idiom sentence to be simi-

lar to its literal spelt-out counterpart. Experiment 2 shows that on a word level, LMs represent a word inside an idiom versus a literal context differently across layers. Experiment 3 shows that words in an idiom receive *less* attention from the rest of the sentence, and thus have a weaker link to words outside of the idiom, echoing the findings of Dankers et al. (2022). All of these results hold across BERT, Multilingual BERT and DistilBERT. We also observe slight differences between the three LMs, with DistilBERT and Multilingual BERT resembling each other in their internal workings more closely than they each do with BERT. In future work we will investigate this phenomenon in models with different architectures, for example GPT and XLNet.

4 Conclusion

Idiomatic expressions are part and parcel of everyday language use. This study investigates the inner workings of idiom processing in three Transformer language models. Results show that LMs represent idioms differently to literal language. Words inside idioms receive less attention compared to words in literal contexts, supporting the linguistic theory that idioms are idiosyncratic even for language models.

A Limitations

While this work sheds light on how language models process idioms, we recognise that experimentation at present has been constrained to BERT. As mentioned in section 3, we aim to probe our findings further by repeating these experiments on a wider range of model architectures, such as GPT, Flan-T5, and LLaMA. Additionally, we recognise that our current dataset only contains English idioms; it would be interesting to extend this to include other languages for future studies.

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