

Can GPT-4 Detect Euphemisms across Multiple Languages?

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Abstract

Euphemisms are words or phrases used instead of another word or phrase that might be considered harsh, blunt, unpleasant, or offensive. Euphemisms generally soften the impact of what is being said, making it more palatable or appropriate for the context or audience. Euphemisms can vary significantly between languages, reflecting cultural sensitivities and taboos, and what might be a mild expression in one language could carry a stronger connotation in another. This paper uses prompting techniques to evaluate GPT-4 for detecting euphemisms across multiple languages as part of the 2024 FigLang shared task. We evaluate both zero-shot and few-shot approaches. Our method achieved an average macro F1 of .732, ranking first in the competition. Moreover, we found that GPT-4 does not perform uniformly across all languages, with a difference of .233 between the best (English .831) and the worst (Spanish .598) languages.

1 Introduction

A euphemism is a term or expression substituted for another that may be deemed too direct, harsh, or offensive. Euphemisms play a nuanced role in linguistic expression, serving as a polite or softer alternative to potentially sensitive or direct language (Danescu-Niculescu-Mizil et al.; Magu and Luo). However, their inherent ambiguity challenges Natural Language Processing (NLP) systems in comprehending meaning because they must pick up on subtle contextual cues (Bisk et al.; Carbonell and Minton). This difficulty is magnified in multilingual contexts, where the same euphemism could have different meanings across cultures. Hence, this paper describes an approach for the 2024 FigLang shared task for multilingual euphemism detection.

Much of the recent research on euphemism detection has focused on fine-tuning transformer-based models (Zhu and Bhat, 2021; Maimaitituoheti et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). For instance,

Wang et al. (2022) combined a BERT-based transformer with a relational graph attention network and fine-tuned it for euphemism detection. However, recent advancements in the development of large language models (LLMs) like GPT-4 have been shown to be successful in similar tasks such as offensive and abusive language detection (OpenAI et al.; Wu et al.; Matter et al., 2024; Li et al., 2023). GPT-4 is supposedly trained on extensive datasets of multilingual text containing wide variations of linguistic styles, which would be very helpful in understanding and interpreting euphemistic language. The tool’s ability to generate human-like dialogue and adapt itself to nuanced language suggests that it could be used to distinguish between literal and euphemistic language use.

Recent research has shown limitations of GPT-4 and related models in multi-lingual settings (Zhang et al., 2024; Ahuja et al., 2023). For example, Qiu et al. (2024) report substantial differences in medical applications performance of GPT-4 across different languages. Hence, understanding how GPT-4 performs for multilingual classification, particularly for tasks that involve figurative language, can provide unique insights into its limitations.

In this paper, we explore the application of prompting techniques (Ouyang et al.; Lester et al.; Liu et al.) to detect euphemisms using GPT-4. We note that recent work has explored prompting-based euphemism detection (Maimaitituoheti et al., 2022). However, the system still required fine-tuning model parameters. Here, we explore zero-shot and few-shot prompting strategies without any fine-tuning. We analyze a various number of in-context examples. Moreover, we performed a small error analysis to understand the limitations of GPT-4 for euphemism detection and to understand when GPT-4 fails for multilingual euphemism detection.

2 Related Work

Despite the general advancements in NLP, the automated detection of euphemisms remains a relatively under-explored area. Early approaches to identify euphemistic speech focused on rule-based systems and statistical methods (Felt and Riloff). Keh et al. (2022) explored kNN and data augmentation for euphemism detection. Likewise, fine-tuning pretrained transformer models is a popular approach. For instance, Wiriyathamabhum (2022) fine-tune RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019) models for euphemism detection. Trust et al. (2022) combined RoBERTa models with cost-sensitive learning to handle class imbalance issues. Wang et al. (2022) combined a BERT-based transformer with a relational graph attention network and fine-tuned it for euphemism detection. However, these approaches cannot capture euphemisms’ nuanced nature or how euphemisms change over time. With the advent of models such as BERT and its successors, researchers have been able to show the potential for neural network models to understand complex language phenomena like metaphors, sarcasm, and idioms (Magu and Luo; Wang et al.; Zhu and Bhat; Gavidia et al.).

While the LLMs have shown to be more capable, researchers identified that not only the size of the model and the training data used are important, but how a task is presented to the LLM is equally important (Wei et al.; Li et al.). Prompting offers a few benefits over fine-tuning a LLM. Prompting does not require a model to undergo an additional round of training, making it more resource-efficient and accessible. Also, prompting leverages the model’s pre-trained knowledge, enabling quick adaptation to new tasks without the risk of overfitting. Prompting is particularly appealing for subtle language tasks like euphemism disambiguation, allowing the LLM to focus on the subtleties of euphemistic language without extensive training.

A few researchers have used prompting in previous euphemism studies (Keh; Maimaitituoheti et al.). Maimaitituoheti et al. used a RoBERTa model and fine-tuned the model to improve its performance using prompts. The most similar work to this paper is by Keh (2022), which used an older GPT-3 model and post-processing rules to classify the evaluation as euphemistic or literal. Their work found that fine-tuned models (e.g., RoBERTa) outperformed zero-shot and few-shot methods using GPT-3. In this work, we extend the idea of using

prompting in two ways. First, we use GPT-4, which is more capable than GPT-3. Second, this model is evaluated on the new multilingual euphemism dataset.

3 Methodology

In this section, we discuss the general task, dataset, and our prompting strategy. Overall, we use a few-shot prompting framework for our submission.

Task. The Multilingual Euphemism Detection Shared Task for the Fourth Workshop on Figurative Language Processing involves predicting whether a substring within a sentence is a euphemism. Specifically, given a string, “*This summer, the budding talent agent was <PET>between jobs</PET> and free to babysit pretty much any time,*” participants need to detect whether the embedded Potential Euphemistic Terms (PET) is a euphemism or not for this specific context. This means that each PET can be a literal (not a euphemism or a euphemism). The participants’ results are collected and evaluated on the shared task site at Codabench.¹

Dataset. For this shared task, two sets of data are provided, each consisting of samples in Chinese, English, Spanish, and Yorùbá. The first sets are the training datasets to help refine the participants’ methodology, consisting of rows of sentences, the embedded PET, and a classification label (euphemism or not). The composition of the datasets by language is provided in Table 1. The second set is the test dataset, which consists of only sentences and the embedded PET without ground truth labels. The composition of these datasets by language is also provided in Table 1. It was observed that the PETs in the training and test datasets match relatively often. For instance, we may find both “passed away” in the test and training data. Only 47 of the 67 PETs from the test dataset are in the training dataset for English. Each English PET in the test data matched an average of 1.83 euphemisms and 1.54 literal PETS. For Spanish, there are no PETs in the test dataset that are also in the training dataset. The Chinese dataset has 7 of the 48 PETs in both datasets (.38 euphemisms and .29 literal PETs on average), and Yorùbá has 14 of the 28 PETs in both datasets (0.41 euphemisms and .30 literal PETs on average). We split the training datasets into both a training and validation dataset, with 20% used for validation and 80% used as train-

¹<https://www.codabench.org/competitions/1959>

Language-Set	PETs	Num Sent.	Euph.
Chinese-Train	111	2005	1484
Chinese-Test	48	1226	—
English-Train	163	1952	1383
English-Test	67	1196	—
Spanish-Train	147	1861	1143
Spanish-Test	85	1091	—
Yorùbá-Train	133	1941	1281
Yorùbá-Test	28	669	—

Table 1: Dataset Composition for Training and Testing
ing examples (i.e., to find matching PETs).

Prompt Development. We use a few-shot prompting framework for our approach. Specifically, we prompt GPT-4 using the OpenAI API to predict whether a given PET is either a euphemism (True), or not (False). We provide the prompt template below:

Given the context, determine if the phrase ‘PET’ is used as a Euphemism. Reply with the word ‘True’ if it is used as a Euphemism in this context else ‘False’.

«context»

A euphemism is a mild or indirect word or expression substituted for one considered to be too harsh, blunt, or offensive. Euphemisms are used to avoid directly mentioning unpleasant or taboo topics, and they are often employed to soften the impact of the information being conveyed

«Euphemism examples»

Example - Is the phrase ‘{PET}’ a Euphemism in the following text. {text} — Answer - ‘True’

Example - Is the phrase ‘{PET}’ a Euphemism in the following text. {text} — Answer - ‘True’

«Literal examples»

Example - Is the phrase ‘{PET}’ a Euphemism in the following text. {text} — Answer - ‘False’

Example - Is the phrase ‘{PET}’ a Euphemism in the following text. {text} — Answer - ‘False’

«task»

Given the context, is the phrase ‘{PET}’ used as a Euphemism in the following text? Context: {Text}

The prompt has five main components: instruction, context, examples of euphemism, and literal examples. The instruction provides the high-level task (e.g., return True or False). The context defines euphemisms. The euphemism and literal examples are instances directly from the training

dataset. Each example is formatted in the form of “Is the phrase [PET] a Euphemism in the following text [text].” The PET is the substring of interest, e.g., ‘between jobs.’ The text is the actual context that the PET appears in, e.g., “the budding talent agent was <PET>between jobs</PET> and free to babysit pretty much any time.” Each example is followed by a “Label” token and either a “True” or “False” value. Finally, the task is a single test instance that we wish to classify as either the PET being a euphemism or not.

For the study, five different styles of prompting were examined. The first style is “Zero-Shot,” which only uses the instruction and the task. “Zero-Shot with context” adds the context information. Next is the “Few-Shot with Random Examples” method, which uses only one random euphemism and one literal example. Research suggests that better prompt performance is achieved when similar examples are provided to the LLM in the prompt (Wei et al.; Brown et al.). Hence, we also experiment with variations called “Few-Shot with Targeted Examples,” where we use k euphemism and k literal examples with the same PET as the text instance. Specifically, if the text instance’s PET is “between jobs,” then we will find both up to k euphemism and k literal examples that also have the “between jobs” PET. If there are no other matching examples with the same PET, or there are fewer than k matching examples, we choose the remaining examples at random.

Experimental Details. The process to evaluate the PETs used the GPT-4 APIs provided by OpenAI (OpenAI, 2023). The GPT-4 model used in our experiments is the “gpt-4-0125-preview” version and the processing occurred between 2024-02-06 and 2024-03-07. The model temperature was set at “0” to make the model less random. All other model parameters were accepted at their default values. The software developed to process each sample using the APIs was written in Python based on examples provided on the OpenAI developer website.²

4 Results

In this section, we report the results on both the validation and test datasets.

Validation Dataset Results. The validation dataset results are shown in Table 2. In total, we executed

²<https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/text-generation>

Technique	Language	F1	Precision	Recall
Zero-Shot	Chinese	.650	.581	.962
Zero-Shot w context	Chinese	.748	.916	.795
Few Shot - Ran. Examples	Chinese	.760	.906	.832
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (2)	Chinese	.801	.941	.838
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (8)	Chinese	.858	.957	.891
Zero-Shot	English	.707	.912	.675
Zero-Shot w context	English	.732	.861	.805
Few Shot - Ran. Examples	English	.715	.841	.819
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (2)	English	.747	.877	.801
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (8)	English	.820	.907	.877
Zero-Shot	Spanish	.545	.794	.345
Zero-Shot + context	Spanish	.666	.800	.592
Few Shot - Ran. Examples	Spanish	.662	.772	.623
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (2)	Spanish	.698	.825	.632
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (8)	Spanish	.761	.911	.776
Zero-Shot	Yorùbá	.400	1.000	.181
Zero-Shot with context	Yorùbá	.610	.926	.498
Few Shot - Ran. Examples	Yorùbá	.674	.923	.61
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (2)	Yorùbá	.761	.911	.776
Few Shot - Targ. Examples (8)	Yorùbá	.872	.951	.916

Table 2: F1, Precision, and Recall for each prompting technique for each language dataset from the Training dataset.

20 experiments across each model and language combination (i.e., five model comparisons for each language). Overall, we make several findings. First, we find that the Zero-Shot prompting style underperforms all other methods. Interestingly, adding the context information in the “Zero-Shot with Context” method improves the results. This suggests that including more information about the task (e.g., the definition of a euphemism) can improve performance.

Next, we can find that adding in-context examples in the “Few-Shot - Random Examples” and Few -Shot - Targeted Example” methods improves the “Zero-Shot with context” methods. Furthermore, we find that using Targeted examples universally improves performance over random examples. When we add more in-context examples, the performance continues to improve. For instance, “Few-Shot - Targeted Examples” improves from .801 with four in-context examples to .859 with eight examples. From a language-to-language perspective, we obtained the worst in Spanish, which is about 5% lower than the English results.

Test Dataset Results. The final competition results for our best system (i.e., Few Shot - Targeted Examples (8)) on the test dataset are shown in Table 3. The results indicate that the prompting with the English test cases performed substantially better than the prompting with the Spanish test cases, while the Chinese and Yorùbá test cases fell in between these two extremes. For the test experiments, the source of the sample cases to be included as random or

Language	F1	Precision	Recall
Chinese	.776	.774	.780
English	.831	.829	.834
Spanish	.598	.622	.659
Yorùbá	.723	.721	.733

Table 3: F1, Precision, and Recall for each prompting technique for each language dataset from the Test dataset

targeted examples were pulled from the training datasets. The prompting proved most effective for the English dataset, and the results (F1=.831) were slightly higher than those measured during training. The results for both the Chinese (F1=.776) and the Yorùbá (F1=.723) datasets ended up falling between the “few shot random” and “few shot targeted (2)” prompt results for the training results for each language. The performance for the Spanish dataset fell (F1=.598) to only slightly better than the original “zero-shot” results.

When we look at the potential number of example cases to include with the targeted prompt, we find that with the English test cases, there was nearly 75% coverage. This means that 75% of the test PETs were also included in the training dataset. However, with the Spanish test cases, there was no overlap between the training data set and the test data set. The Chinese and Yorùbá data had test coverage between these two extremes. This may explain why the results with the Spanish dataset were so poor (0% coverage) and why the Chinese and Yorùbá datasets fell between random and targeted (some coverage).

Error Analysis. We analyzed a few of the errors to better understand how the model performed. For this analysis, we select one PET from the English dataset and one PET from the Chinese dataset.

In the English training dataset, the PET “disabled” showed good improvement by using the prompts. With the simple zero-shot prompt, all 16 examples were evaluated as being classified as a euphemism; however, seven of these examples were labeled as being literal in the ground-truth annotations. Adding context to the zero-prompt resulted in no improvement. Only slight improvement was realized when the few-shot prompt was used. However, with the few-shot prompt and eight examples, the evaluation matched 100%. The additional examples appeared to have given the model good context to discern between the nine euphemisms and seven literal cases. Overall, one potential cause

for these findings is that certain terms, such as disabled, can appear in many contexts (euphemistic and not). The model is unable to understand which applies in a given context without strong examples. Other terms mostly used in euphemistic settings are easier for the system to detect.

In the Chinese training dataset, one of the PETs that showed improvement with each new prompt technique was the PET “环卫工人,” which translates to “sanitation worker.” GPT-4 sometimes translates this to “city beautician,” which would be a euphemism. There are 30 examples in the training dataset, and each one is classified as a euphemism.

Only 5 of the 30 examples were included in the evaluation. With zero-shot prompting, all five failed to be classified as euphemisms. With each subsequent prompt technique, the performance improved to the last prompt, where four cases were identified correctly based on the label. This would indicate that the prompting added contextual data that influenced GPT-4. We believe that the term sanitation worker may not be a strong euphemism and needs substantial evidence from examples to change the prior of the model.

5 Future Work

While demonstrating the viability of our approach in identifying euphemisms, we also uncovered several research directions to pursue that could further enhance our understanding of the euphemistic speech capabilities of LLMs.

OpenAI’s Chat GPT-4 model is a high-performing LLM trained on multi-lingual data. The LLM demonstrated its capability of translating the training datasets from the original language into English without additional fine-tuning. Limited testing during the development phase was performed using Mistral (Jiang et al.) and Llama-2 LLMs (Touvron et al.) but both exhibited zero-shot performance below Chat GPT-4. The main focus of the study was on improving performance using prompting strategies, so the team directed its efforts to refine the prompts. As highly capable LLM models are being released frequently, evaluating a variety of these models is an area of focus for future studies.

Our approach utilized only the model’s inherent knowledge and a subset of the training data as additional knowledge to identify euphemisms. This additional knowledge was shown to signif-

icantly improve performance during the training phase. For the cases in which there were multiple samples to choose from, the current approach randomly selected the samples to include and the order they were listed. A future research direction is to determine if the selection of examples using those that are more closely related to the test case improves the performance. Also, does the order the samples are listed in the prompt affect the results?

When reviewing the test performance (Table 3), we noticed that not all languages performed comparably between training (Table 2) and test. When investigating the results for the lowest-performing dataset during the test phase (Spanish), we identified that no samples from the training dataset matched the PET in the test dataset. As noted, this additional knowledge was shown to be beneficial.

There are two approaches we could pursue to address this. One would be to locate additional datasets online or create datasets from open-source language repositories. A second approach would be to use a language model to generate the additional samples. The attraction to this approach is that we could generate samples of a new PET being used in a previously unseen manner and assist the model in recognizing the new usage of a phrase.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented our approach for the 2024 FigLang Shared Task for multilingual Euphemism detection. We introduced a method using GPT-4 and in-context learning. This adjustment would be beneficial in a scenario in which the usage of a euphemism has changed over time, but the model has not yet been learned, or the model does not have a strong indication of being a euphemism without strong evidence. Future areas to research include 1) using the LLM to generate samples to include as examples to include in the multi-targeted prompt 2) improving the selection of targeted examples to identify those examples that are more closely related to the test case. 3) using the LLM to identify potential euphemisms from the text in question without being supplied with this information.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This material is based upon work supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) under Grant No. 2145357.

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