

Cross-Lingual UMLS Named Entity Linking using UMLS Dictionary Fine-Tuning

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Abstract

We study cross-lingual UMLS named entity linking, where mentions in a given source language are mapped to UMLS concepts, most of which are labeled in English. We propose a general solution that can be easily adapted to any source language and demonstrate the method on Hebrew documents. Our cross-lingual framework includes an offline unsupervised construction of a bilingual UMLS dictionary and a per-document pipeline which identifies UMLS candidate mentions and uses a fine-tuned pretrained transformer language model to filter candidates according to context.

Our method exploits a small dataset of manually annotated UMLS mentions in the source language and uses this supervised data in two ways: to extend the unsupervised UMLS dictionary and to fine-tune the contextual filtering of candidate mentions in full documents. Our method addresses cross-lingual UMLS NEL in a low resource setting, where the ontology is large, there is a lack of descriptive text defining most entities, and labeled data can only cover a small portion of the ontology. We demonstrate results of our approach on both Hebrew and English. We achieve new state-of-the-art results on the Hebrew Camoni corpus, +8.9 F1 on average across three communities in the dataset. We also achieve new SOTA on the English dataset MedMentions with +7.3 F1.

1 Introduction

Public health practices are becoming increasingly digital, with tools to explore scientific sources of information such as medical literature and online health communities rising in popularity. Such tools are essential in offering insights to researchers, providing information to patients and to their caregivers. Reliable identification of mentions of biomedical concepts in free text is a key technique to enable robust mining of such textual resources. Named-Entity Recognition (NER) is the task of

classifying entities in text to high level classes (Person, Organization, Gene, Disease, Treatment, etc.). Named-Entity Linking (NEL) seeks to additionally classify entity mentions in text into specific concepts according to an existing reference list or knowledge base. We focus in this work on biomedical NEL, i.e., identifying mentions referring to biomedical concepts such as disorders and drugs and linking them to normalized concepts, for example, those listed in the Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) ontology. Biomedical NEL has been mostly studied in English. Other languages present additional challenges because terms in the ontology are described in English. We address cross-lingual NEL (xNEL) which consists of mapping mentions in a source language to concepts labeled and described in a different target language. We focus on UMLS xNEL, where mentions in the source language (we specifically test Hebrew, see Appendix A for a Hebrew tagging example) are mapped to UMLS concepts. We aim for a general solution that can be adapted to any source language. We operate in a low resource setting, where the ontology is large, text describing most entities is not available, and labeled data can only cover a small portion of the ontology. We also consider different genres of text to be annotated, ranging from consumer health medical articles in popular web sites to scientific biomedical articles.

Our main contributions are: (1) We provide a general framework for cross-lingual UMLS NEL that can be adapted to source languages with few pre-requisites; our method includes four steps (a) offline unsupervised learning of a language-specific UMLS dictionary; for each document: (b) generation of candidate mentions, (c) high-recall matching of candidate mentions to UMLS concepts and (d) contextual relevance filtering of (candidate, concept) pairs. Steps (c) and (d) take advantage of multi-lingual pre-trained transformer language models (PLMs). (2) Our method exploits a small

083 annotated corpus of documents in the source lan- 132
084 guage and genre annotated manually for UMLS 133
085 mentions (a few thousands annotated mentions). 134
086 This training data is split to support (a) the exten- 135
087 sion of the unsupervised UMLS dictionary with 136
088 corpus-salient entity names and (b) fine-tune the 137
089 contextual ranking and filtering of (candidate men- 138
090 tions, concept) pairs. We find that the step of 139
091 UMLS dictionary fine-tuning boosts NEL perfor- 140
092 mance and identify a clear tradeoff in allocating 141
093 training data between lexicon extension and con- 142
094 textual fine-tuning; (3) We demonstrate results of 143
095 our approach on both Hebrew and English. We 144
096 achieve new SOTA on the Hebrew Camoni corpus 145
097 (Bitton et al., 2020) with +8.87 F1 and on the En- 146
098 glish dataset MedMentions (Mohan and Li, 2019) 147
099 with +7.3 F1¹. 148

100 2 Previous Work 149

101 Biomedical NEL is challenging because the under- 150
102 lying ontology (most often UMLS) is extremely 151
103 large and the acquisition of annotated training data 152
104 requires rare and expensive expertise. Loureiro 153
105 and Jorge (2020) presented MedLinker, a tool for 154
106 improving biomedical NEL by predicting the se- 155
107 mantic type of a medical concept mention and filter- 156
108 ing out candidates of the wrong type. MedLinker 157
109 was tested on the MedMentions task of concept 158
110 linking (Mohan and Li, 2019), improving above 159
111 TaggerOne (Leaman and Lu, 2016), the baseline 160
112 model for MedMentions which did not use deep 161
113 learning. MedLinker splits the end to end task of en- 162
114 tity linking into two stages - candidate recognition 163
115 and linking. For candidate matching, it combines 164
116 a BiLSTM-CRF model for contextual matching 165
117 with an approximate dictionary matching method 166
118 to increase recall. In the cross-lingual setting, dic- 167
119 tionary matching is not applicable. We report our 168
120 results on the same MedMentions dataset in 5.2. 169

121 Past work has shown that using in-domain text 170
122 can provide additional gains over general-domain 171
123 language models (Gu et al., 2020). Therefore, 172
124 recent work (BioBERT (Lee et al., 2020), SciB- 173
125 ERT (Beltagy et al., 2019)) addressed biomedical 174
126 NEL, focusing on pre-training models on scienti- 175
127 fic/medical text. Liu et al. (2021) developed Sap- 176
128 BERT, a pre-training scheme which exploits the 177
129 graph structure of the UMLS ontology and aims 178
130 at learning an encoding of medical mentions that 179
131 can align with synonym relations in the UMLS 180

graph. Combining the SapBERT objective with 132
pre-training on biomedical text of PubMedBERT 133
(Gu et al., 2020) boosts results on NEL. Experi- 134
mental results demonstrated that SapBERT outper- 135
forms many domain-specific BERT-based variants 136
(BioBERT and SciBERT) on the BC5CDR dataset. 137
Although our model focuses on cross-lingual NEL, 138
it also applies to English documents. We compare 139
our results to these approaches on BC5CDR and 140
MedMentions (Tables 4 and 3). 141

142 Indexing of the abundant biomedical scientific 143
144 literature requires precise detection of medical 145
146 concepts. Mohan et al. (2021) developed a low- 147
148 resource recognition and linking model of biomed- 149
150 ical concepts called *LRR* aimed at generalizing to 151
152 entities unseen at training time, and incorporating 153
154 linking predictions into the mention segmentation 155
156 decisions. This BERT-based model achieved SOTA 157
158 results on the MedMentions task. In our work, we 159
160 adopt the *LRR* bottom-up candidate generation ap- 161
162 proach (see 4.2). We address the main drawback 163
164 of the approach by incorporating a UMLS dictio- 165
166 nary fine-tuning technique which extends the list 167
168 of candidate pairs (source expression, CUI) on a 169
170 portion of the training data. We elaborate on the 171
172 motivation for the technique in 4.5 and demonstrate 173
174 its contribution in ablation experiments (see 5.4). 175

159 xNEL, the problem of grounding mentions of 160
161 entities in a source language text into a different 162
163 target language knowledge base (typically English), 164
165 has been addressed in recent years, with a range 166
167 of promising techniques. When the source and tar- 168
169 get languages operate over different alphabets and 170
171 sound systems, both translation and transliteration 172
173 of terms (which is a noisy process even when done 174
175 by people) must be handled. Bitton et al. (2020) 176
177 curated the Camoni corpus, an annotated resource 178
179 of Hebrew posts from online health communities 180
181 (OHCs), where noisy text (as opposed to scienti- 182
183 fic text) introduces additional challenges. Many 184
185 user queries mention medical terms, which are very 186
187 likely to include noisy transliterations. For exam- 188
189 ple, the Hebrew query equivalent to “How do I 189
190 know I have fibromyalgia?” does not return any 190
191 results in the search engine of the Camoni online 191
192 community when ‘fibromialgia’ is transliterated. 192
193 Bitton et al. (2020) introduced MDTEL (Medical 193
194 Deep Transliteration Entity Linking) for Hebrew- 194
195 English NEL on noisy text in OHCs, and tested 195
196 it on the Camoni corpus. MDTEL adopts a four- 196
197 step approach - consisting of an offline unsuper- 197

¹Our code is publicly available <https://github.com/>

vised Hebrew UMLS dictionary learning, candidate mention generation, high-recall matching and filtering of matching mentions. We adopt MDTEL’s unsupervised UMLS dictionary matching, which uses an attention-based recurrent neural network encoder-decoder that maps UMLS from English to Hebrew (either a Hebrew translation or transliteration of the concept). We introduce new methods for candidate generation, high-recall matching and contextual relevance filtering, relying on multilingual pre-trained language model (mBERT). Our new components lead to significant performance improvement over MDTEL on the Camoni corpus.

3 Task Formulation

Given input language L and target language L_t , a database of medical concepts $C_{L_t} : L_t^* \rightarrow CUI$ is a function from concept names in L_t to concept IDs (CUIs). Using C_{L_t} , we want to learn a function F from a span in input language L and its context to a CUI. We identify a translated dictionary, $C_L : L^* \rightarrow CUI$. C_L is the "translated" version of the medical concepts database C_{L_t} . We learn C_L by mapping the medical terms in L_t to terms in L . Given mapping C_L , we aim to learn:

$$F : L^* * L^* \rightarrow CUI \cup \{\perp\}$$

where \perp is a special code denoting a non-medical term. F differs from C_L as it addresses the variability and ambiguity of the task by depending on the context as well as the span. Given text $W = (w_1, \dots, w_n)$, where $w_i \in L$, for every span $s_{i,j} = (w_i, \dots, w_j) \subseteq W$, we would like to compute $F(W, s_{i,j})$, where $0 \leq j - i < k$ (we limit the span sizes to at most k), that is, we want to predict the concept associated with a span within a text in L . Provided a dataset A_L exposing a subset of F combined with linguistic knowledge and generalization capabilities of neural models, we aim at learning a larger portion of function F .

4 Model Architecture

Our end-to-end xNEL model (Fig.1) consists of four consecutive stages: (1) **multilingual UMLS mapping**: generate UMLS dictionary C_L (see 4.1) based on the method of Bitton et al. (2020); (2) **candidate generation**: consider all spans of up to k words as candidate mentions and compute vector representations for both mentions and concepts (see 4.2); (3) **high recall matching**: use a semantic similarity based score function to generate the

top matching entities with high recall (see 4.3) and (4) **contextual relevance modeling**: encode each candidate into a context-dependent vector representation using a pre-trained transformer-based language model fine tuning process (see 4.4).

Our approach attempts to avoid three types of mistakes: (1) **morphological and transliteration noise**, where candidate terms in the source language might be extracted due to a transliteration or morphological error and matched with UMLS entities, (2) **contextual errors**, where candidate terms which are not medical terms when considering the context might be matched with UMLS entities, and (3) **partial UMLS tagging**, where candidate terms which are not full medical terms in the text but rather more general UMLS mentions might be tagged as UMLS concepts (e.g., in the mention "flu vaccine", "flu" should not be tagged). The first challenge is addressed by learning a high-recall C_L dictionary with generalization capabilities, trained both on translation and transliteration data; the second, is addressed by an mBERT-based contextual language model; the third, by systematic consideration of all spans up to size k as candidates as part of the candidate generation and contextual relevance components.

4.1 Multilingual UMLS Mapping

The first step of our model is offline, fully unsupervised, and based on the method of (Bitton et al., 2020): we generate a mapping C_L between medical concept names in source language L to their corresponding CUIs. An attention-based character-based recurrent neural network encoder-decoder is used to create a list of $\langle UMLS \text{ term in English, term in language } L \rangle$ so that each UMLS term in English is matched with both transliterated and translated forms in L . This is done without the need of manually annotated data and results in a noisy mapping C_L of source language medical terms and their CUIs.

4.2 Candidate Generation

Given a document in L where we want to identify UMLS mentions, the candidate generation step begins with pre-processing: we normalize the source text documents from annotated data A_L and the target UMLS concepts from C_L by transforming all string values to lower case and removing delimiters. We then generate a list of overlapping candidate mention spans, ranging in length according to the max length parameter k (i.e., $1, \dots, k$). See

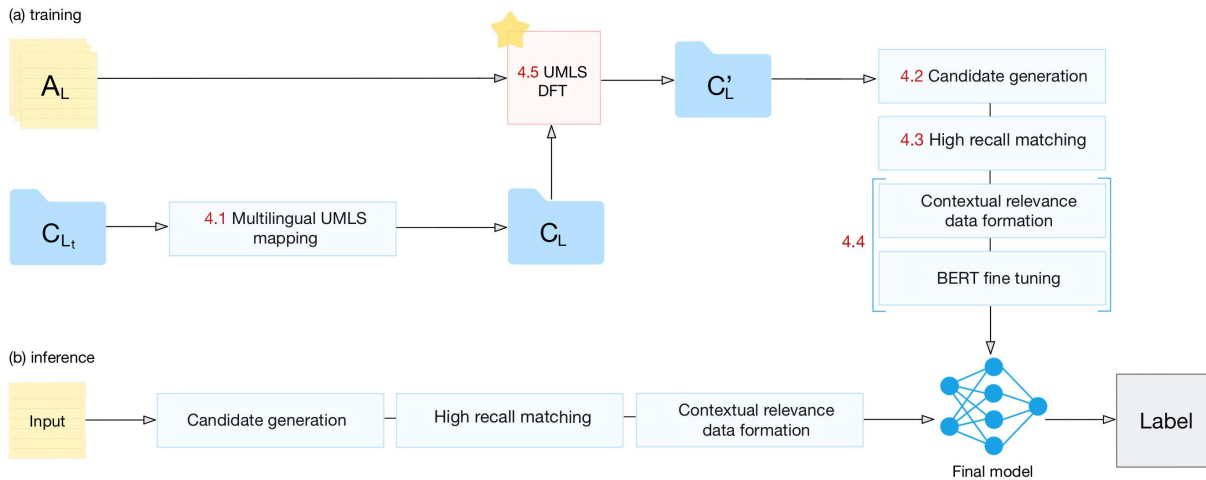


Figure 1: End-to-end pipeline overview. Training process is depicted in section (a), inference process is depicted in section (b).

Appendix B for details). We exclude spans starting or ending with stop words. We then represent both the spans and the concepts as tf-idf character n-gram (1 to 3-gram) vectors using sklearn’s implementation (Pedregosa et al., 2011). Empirical experiments showed that tf-idf encoding improved recall in candidate generation compared to bag of words encoding (see Appendix C for a comparison between the two representations using both Hebrew and English datasets).

4.3 High Recall Matching

The high recall matcher (HRM) receives the vector representations from the candidate generator and computes a similarity score between each span and all concept names in C_L using cosine similarity (see Appendix C for comparison against Manhattan score function). We then select the top m matches per span with score over a threshold th (see Appendix D for hyper-parameters). This results in a high recall list of candidate matches.

4.4 Contextual Relevance Modeling

At this step, we want to predict which spans returned from the high recall matcher are true biomedical concepts. We use multilingual BERT (m-BERT) (Jacob Devlin, 2019), a 12 layer transformer that was trained on the Wikipedia pages of 104 languages (including Hebrew) with a shared word piece vocabulary. M-BERT does not use any marker denoting the input language, and does not include explicit mechanism to encourage translation equivalent pairs to have similar representations. We fine-tune m-BERT on a binary classification task on our training data: each candidate

mention span returned from the HRM is centered in its context from the original doc, *i.e.*, W_s words to the right of the span and W_s words to the left of the span, creating a window surrounding the candidate mention. The classifier takes as input the window, the HRM’s decision on which concept is represented by the mention in the window, and the true verdict of whether the candidate mention is indeed an occurrence of the concept. We utilize m-BERT’s QA format as follows: the question (medical concept c) and the reference text (window w) are packed into the input, and provide the binary label as answer of whether or not c is a medical mention in context w : $[CLS] w [SEP] c [SEP]$. This fine-tuning step consists of adding an additional output layer on top of the pre-trained m-BERT model to adapt it to the biomedical NEL task.

4.5 UMLS Dictionary Fine-Tuning

We introduce a UMLS dictionary fine-tuning technique where some of the data in A_L is removed from the training dataset and used to directly expand the learned dictionary C_L . We reserve $R\%$ of the training data A_L to fine-tune C_L generating C'_L (see Fig. 1): from this chunk of A_L , we add each mention in the tagged data as new pairs (mention in L , CUI).

For example, suppose our training data consists of 10 tagged documents and our UMLS dictionary C_L contains 100 concepts. Given $R = 10\%$, our UMLS dictionary fine-tuning technique will require one tagged document d (10% of the 10 docs in the training set) to be used for fine-tuning C_L .

We go over every tagged pair (m, c) from doc d , where m is a mention in doc d and c is the UMLS concept the annotators tagged m . If $m \notin C_L$, we add m to C_L with the CUI of c . Suppose doc d contained 15 such tags, we will obtain an augmented C'_L containing $100 + 15 = 115$ concepts.

We cannot use this portion of data for later training of our model, since after fine-tuning we are guaranteed to get a perfect match for all the spans in the documents used for fine-tuning (thus creating bias of the HRM).

Although this process decreases the overall size of the input dataset for contextual relevance fine-tuning, it improves the recall of the HRM and adds more positive examples for the BERT training process. We elaborate more on this trade-off in 5.4.2. This approach allows us to improve recall on synonyms and abbreviations that were not originally in our UMLS dictionary, with genre-specific terminology observed in the training data (as evident from the experiment shown in Table 6).

5 Experiments

We test our approach both on cross-lingual UMLS Linking using the Camoni dataset of Hebrew consumer health data and on English UMLS Linking using MedMentions and BC5CDR, which include scientific papers in the bio-medical field.

5.1 Camoni Corpus

The Camoni corpus was curated by Bitton et al. (2020) for the analysis of the MDTEL system. Camoni is an Israeli social network in Hebrew aimed at patients with chronic diseases and their family members (Camoni). Camoni serves about 20,000 registered members and 100,000 unique visitors per month. The digital platform is organized into 39 disease-specific communities. Bitton et al. (2020) extracted text from three communities (diabetes, sclerosis, and depression), for a total of 55,000 posts and 2.5 million tokens, and constructed an annotated dataset in which 1,000 mentions of UMLS terms were annotated. Bitton et al. (2020) proposed a high recall matcher based on a fuzzy string matching algorithm introduced in prior work to perform the matching between the spans and medical entities. Table 1 compares our HRM results (recall) with MDTEL for each community (diabetes, depression, sclerosis).

We observe that our candidate generation method (adopting the LRR bottom-up approach

Model	Community	Recall %
MDTEL	Diabetes	76.6
<i>Our model</i>	Diabetes	82.0
MDTEL	Depression	74.1
<i>Our model</i>	Depression	83.5
MDTEL	Sclerosis	70.0
<i>Our model</i>	Sclerosis	81.0

Table 1: High recall matcher performance on Camoni corpus.

and mBERT similarity matching) significantly improves the recall of the HRM (from about 74% in MDTEL to about 82% overall). We believe that the use of the tf-idf character n-gram vectorization before applying the cosine similarity function as means of comparison helped us achieve better results compared to MDTEL’s method which only applied the cosine similarity.

In the end to end linking task, our model achieves much higher precision (98% vs. 77%) at the cost of slightly lower accuracy but much improved F-score 84 vs 74. Table 2 compares the performance of MDTEL with our model on the end to end linking task for each community.

5.2 MedMentions

MedMentions (Mohan and Li, 2019) is a corpus of Biomedical papers annotated with mentions of UMLS entities. The corpus consists of 4,392 papers (Titles and Abstracts) randomly selected from papers released on PubMed in 2016, that were in the biomedical field, published in the English language, and had both a Title and an Abstract available. MedMentions contains over 350,000 linked mentions, annotated by a team of professional annotators with rich experience in biomedical content curation. We focus on MedMentions ST21pv (21 Semantic Types and Preferred Vocabularies), a subset of the full annotations containing 203,282 mentions and restricting the concepts to a 2.3M large subset of the full ontology (UMLS ST21pv). Each concept in this subset is associated with one of 21 selected semantic types, or to one of their descendants in the semantic type hierarchy.

We compare our performance to other models’ results on MedMentions ST21pv in Table 3. We improve on the latest SOTA LRR (Mohan et al., 2021), achieving +7.3 F1.

Our recall was similar to LRR, however our model achieved highly improved precision, 76.4

Model	Community	Accuracy %	Precision %	Recall %	F1 %
MDTEL	Diabetes	97.0	71.0	75.0	73.0
<i>Our model</i>	Diabetes	89.2	98.3	73.8	84.3
MDTEL	Depression	99.0	77.0	73.0	75.0
<i>Our model</i>	Depression	90.8	97.7	76.9	86.0
MDTEL	Sclerosis	98.0	82.0	71.0	76.0
<i>Our model</i>	Sclerosis	86.3	98.3	67.8	80.3

Table 2: Intrinsic evaluation performance of our model on Camoni corpus.

Model	Accuracy %	Precision %	Recall %	F1 %
TaggerOne	-	47.1	43.6	45.3
MedLinker	-	48.4	50.1	49.2
LRR	-	63.0	52.0	57.0
<i>Our model</i>	74.8	76.4	55.5	64.3

Table 3: Performance of different models on the MedMentions dataset. "-": not reported in the paper.

435 compared to 63. We believe this improvement
436 can be attributed to our UMLS dictionary fine-
437 tuning technique, which provides an extended list
438 of candidates and thus more examples for the
439 mBERT fine-tuning process for contextual rele-
440 vance. Mohan et al. (2021) mention the need to
441 improve recall for cases where the mentions are
442 indirect or too abbreviated to generate a good lex-
443 ical match from the entity knowledge base, which
444 is exactly what our technique helps improve. For
445 example, our process picked up in the training data
446 that the abbreviation *mrn* is tagged as *messenger*
447 *rna* (CUI C0035696), which was not originally
448 present in the UMLS dictionary for English.

449 5.3 BC5CDR

450 The BC5CDR corpus (Li et al., 2016) consists
451 of 1,500 PubMed articles with 4,409 annotated
452 chemicals, 5,818 diseases and 3,116 chemical-
453 disease interactions. Each entity annotation in-
454 cludes both the mention text spans and normal-
455 ized concept identifiers, using MeSH (Lipscomb,
456 2000) as the controlled vocabulary (MeSH is part
457 of the UMLS ontology). Compared to MedMentions
458 which contains annotations of general medical con-
459 cepts, BC5CDR is topic-specific, containing only
460 annotations of chemicals and diseases. BC5CDR
461 is also much smaller, consisting of just 1,500 articles
462 compared to the 4,392 annotated papers of Med-
463 Mentions. BC5CDR has a total of 13,343 linked
464 mentions compared to 203,282 in MedMentions
465 ST21pv.

466 We compare our model’s performance to other
467 models using BC5CDR’s test set in Table 4, while

Model	Dataset	F1 %
BioBERT	BC5CDR	88.6
SciBERT	BC5CDR	90.0
SapBERT	BC5CDR-d	93.5
<i>Our model</i>	BC5CDR	73.0

Table 4: Performance of different models on the NER task using BC5CDR dataset.

Accuracy %	Prec. %	Recall %	F1 %
81.6	88.4	62.2	73.0

Table 5: Performance of our model on BC5CDR dataset.

468 Table 5 details our full results (additional evaluation
469 metrics).

470 We observe that domain-specific pre-trained
471 transformers help improve results on BC5CDR
472 (93.5 F-measure vs. 73.0 for our model). The
473 subset of semantic types covered in this dataset
474 is much more technical (chemicals and chemical-
475 disease interactions) than those covered in Med-
476 Mentions, even though both BC5CDR and Med-
477 Mentions include documents in the same genre of
478 scientific biomedical articles. This difference is
479 evidenced in the ablation study presented below. It
480 explains why specialized language models trained
481 on the biomedical domain lead to much improved
482 performance compared to our model which uses
483 the general mBERT. We hypothesize that using
484 SapBERT combined with our model could enhance
485 performance on this dataset and leave this for future
486 work.

5.4 UMLS Dictionary Fine-Tuning Ablation Study

In this section, we test several factors impacting the contribution of UMLS dictionary fine-tuning to our tagger’s performance. First, we test the technique on two different datasets and evaluate its benefits depending on the dataset size. Next, we test a range of UMLS dictionary fine-tuning percentage values (R) and discuss the trade-off between this value and the end to end performance of our linker.

5.4.1 Dataset Size Impact

We tested the UMLS dictionary fine-tuning technique on English datasets MedMentions and BC5CDR across 5 random seeds and found that it improved recall on both, but impacting MedMentions much more than BC5CDR due to a much smaller number of added concepts in BC5CDR, 209 compared to 3,294 in MedMentions (see Table 6). The difference in the number of added concepts could be explained by the fact that BC5CDR is much smaller, thus the decrease in training data size counteracts the small number of concepts being added to the UMLS dictionary. To test this hypothesis, we took a subset of MedMentions of the same size as BC5CDR (annotation-wise: 8,575 in total), see Table 7 for results averaged across 5 random seeds. The results suggest that the size of the dataset directly affects the number of concepts added to our UMLS dictionary (227 added in the MedMentions subset, very close to the 209 added in BC5CDR), which in turn impacts the HRM’s recall: the improvement in recall is very similar between the two datasets, +1.37 for BC5CDR, +1.7 for MedMentions subset.

5.4.2 The Recall-Accuracy Tradeoff

We first observe that our UMLS dictionary fine-tuning technique can only improve the high recall matching performance (Section 4.3) since an annotation that we do not have a good semantic match for from UMLS will be a missed match without UMLS DFT. Similarly, an annotation for which we do have a good semantic match will be found regardless of whether we utilize UMLS DFT or not. Thus, UMLS dictionary fine-tuning helps us find non-semantically similar matches that we would have otherwise missed, meaning that the higher R is - the higher the recall of the HRM should be. However, there is a trade-off between the recall gained from the annotations utilized for UMLS dictionary fine-tuning and the overall performance

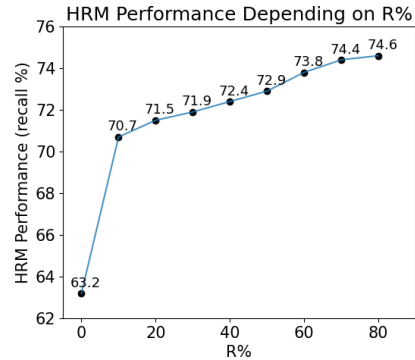


Figure 2: HRM Performance (recall%) on MedMentions dataset depending on the value of R .

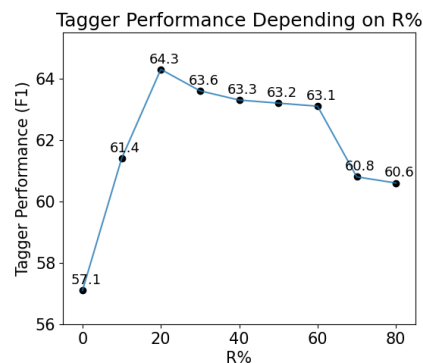


Figure 3: Tagger Performance (F1) on MedMentions dataset depending on the value of R .

of the linker, since the annotations used for fine-tuning are examples that the contextual model will be missing during fine-tuning. We explore this trade-off and compare the performance of the high recall matching component with the final tagging results of our model using different values of R on the MedMentions dataset. Figure 2 shows that there is a clear trend of increased recall of the HRM as R increases. However, Figure 3 shows the complexity of the trade-off since the tagger’s performance reaches a peak and then begins to drop as R increases. The contextual model fine-tuning improvement plateaus after a certain amount of training examples, demonstrating the benefit of multi-task adaptation of pre-trained models which converge rapidly. The data efficiency of the contextual relevance fine-tuning process allows the UMLS dictionary fine-tuning technique to help improve end to end linking results.

6 Conclusion

In this work we explored the task of cross lingual named entity linking in the biomedical field. We

Dataset	UMLS DFT	Added Concepts	Recall %
MedMentions	✗	0	63.2
MedMentions	✓	3,294	71.5
BC5CDR	✗	0	74.13
BC5CDR	✓	209	75.5

Table 6: Number of added concepts per dataset and the average performance of the HRM with and without UMLS dictionary fine-tuning, across 5 random seeds. "✗": UMLS DFT not used, "✓": UMLS DFT used.

Dataset	UMLS DFT	Added Concepts	Recall %
MedMentions subset	✗	0	62.7
MedMentions subset	✓	227	64.4

Table 7: We took a subset of MedMentions the same size as BC5CDR (8,575 annotations). We report the number of added concepts and the average performance of the HRM with and without UMLS DFT across 5 random seeds. "✗": UMLS DFT not used, "✓": UMLS DFT used.

describe a pipeline to detect and link mentions of UMLS concepts in documents in Hebrew or in English, which improves upon existing methods. The key characteristics of our approach are (1) it distinguishes candidate generation from linking; (2) it uses the sophisticated unsupervised UMLS dictionary construction using the character-level RNN model introduced in Bitton et al. (2020) which takes into account both translation and transliteration but extends this dictionary with a portion of the training data mentions; empirical analysis of this dictionary augmentation method demonstrates its importance in end to end linking performance; (3) it adopts the bottom-up systematic generation of candidates from Mohan et al. (2021) and improves it by using a compact tf*idf ranking of the candidates (char n-gram) which helps reduce memory allocation; (4) it uses a multi-lingual pre-trained language model (mBERT) to fine-tune a contextual relevance model to filter a list of high-recall candidate matches. Our framework for cross-lingual UMLS NEL can easily be adapted to any source language and does not rely on any descriptive text for the entities.

We compared our performance to baseline approaches on the Camoni dataset in Hebrew (Bitton et al., 2020), and the MedMentions (Mohan and Li, 2019) and BC5CDR English datasets. Our end-to-end approach achieves SOTA results on Camoni in Hebrew and MedMentions in English with significant improvements. For BC5CDR, we observe that the small size of the dataset prevents our dictionary augmentation technique from reaching its potential and models trained on specialized biomedical text (PubMedBert with SapBert training objective) ob-

tain better coverage. Such specialized training is, however, not available in a multi-lingual setting.

For future work, we intend to test whether utilizing language-specific BERT models instead of multilingual BERT (*e.g.*, swapping m-BERT with the recently released AlephBERT (Seker et al., 2021), a Hebrew version of BERT) could improve results on the Hebrew Camoni corpus. In addition, taking into account the SapBERT objective which exploits the UMLS graph structure as part of either fine-tuning or pre-training in Hebrew could lead to improved generalization capabilities. Finally, exploring datasets with additional source languages will help understand the capabilities of our multilingual pipeline. The CLEF eHealth challenges (Névéol et al., 2017, 2018) are good candidates for such analysis.

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	A Hebrew UMLS Tagging Example	698
	Figure 4 illustrates the process of linking Hebrew data to UMLS concepts. The given post was taken from the Camoni sclerosis community and translates to:	699
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	"Hello, recently, my gait has deteriorated and I was suggested to begin Botox treatment to release the muscles and prevent spasticity . Has anyone here undergone such treatment ? Does it help? is there a risk that such a treatment will greatly weaken the muscle, causing the exact opposite action?"	703
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	The 6 spans (colored) are linked to to 4 different CUIs of Unified Medical Language System medical concepts.	710
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	B Span Length Selection (k)	713
	<i>Span length</i> represents the number of words we select from the input text and may or may not represent a medical concept (UMLS). This definition is used in the candidate generation step (see Section 4.2), where we create representations of all possible spans in the text and match them to top ranking concepts.	714
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	In order to define the max span length parameter k of the model, we performed a simple analysis of the annotated span lengths per dataset. As can be seen in Figures 5, 6 and 7, the most common length values tagged are generally 1 or 2. Taking into account computational limitations of using large span lengths, we chose $k = 3$. Note that even if the maximal span length selected is smaller than the maximal medical term length in the target dataset C_L , it is still possible to match source spans to such medical terms since our scoring function does not exclude matches based on length comparison (see Section 4.3).	721
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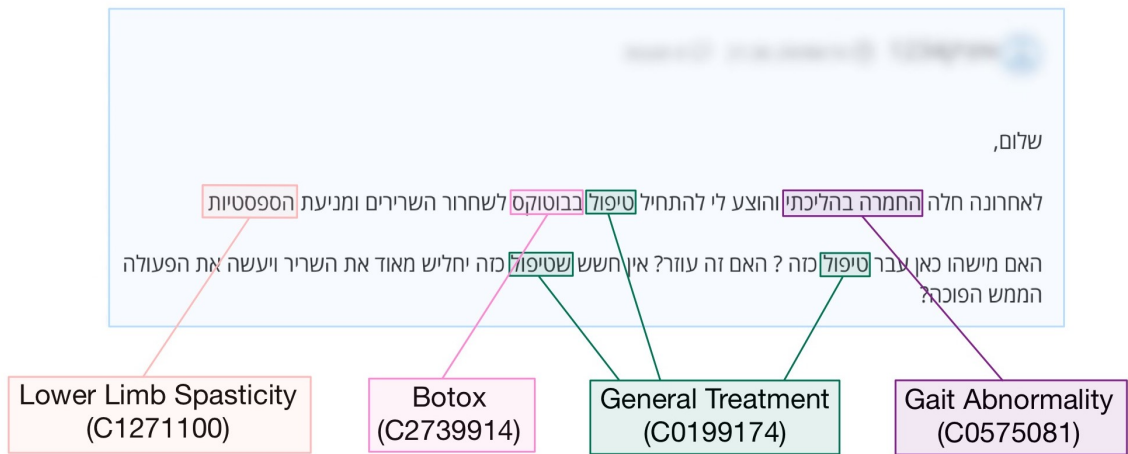


Figure 4: A forum post from the Camoni sclerosis community. The post contains 37 words, and 6 spans that link to 4 different CUIs of Unified Medical Language System medical concepts. Notice that a span can consist of more than 1 word (like the term matched to “gait abnormality”) and a single CUI can be referenced from several places in the same post.

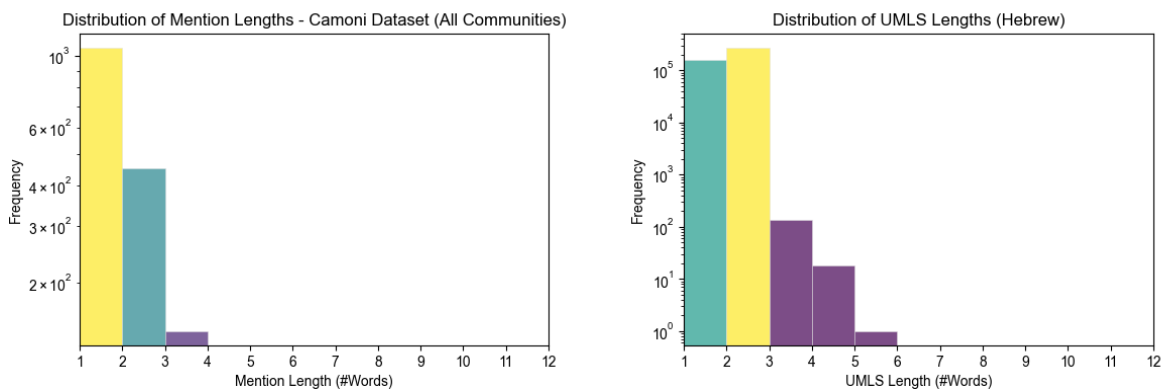


Figure 5: Distribution of Camoni Mention and UMLS Lengths (in words)

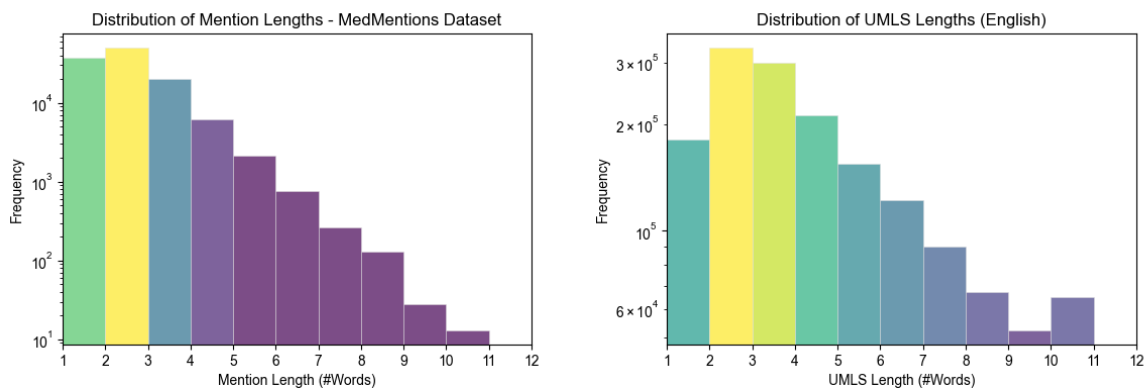


Figure 6: Distribution of MedMentions Mention and UMLS Lengths (in words)

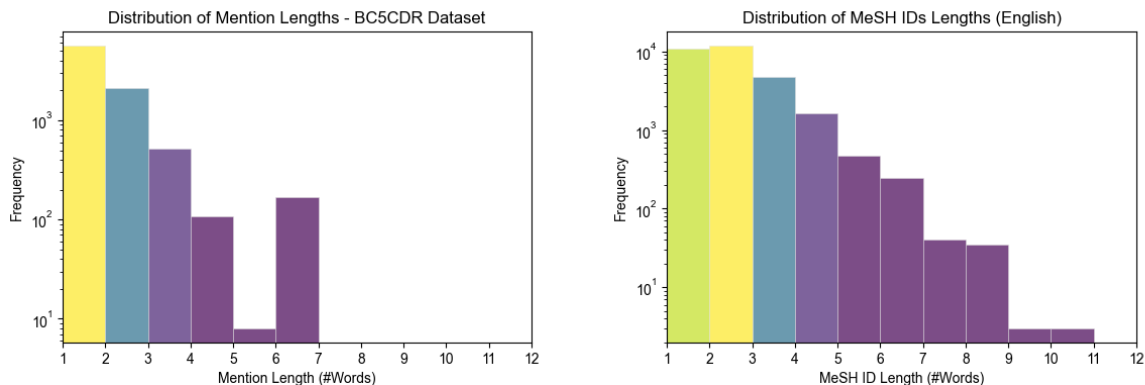


Figure 7: Distribution of BC5CDR Mention and MeSH ID Lengths (in words)

Vectorizer	Score Function	Recall %
Tf	Cosine	69.3
Tf	Manhattan	68.4
Tf-Idf	Cosine	70.7
Tf-Idf	Manhattan	69.7

Table 8: Performance of the HRM using two different vectorization methods and two different score functions on MedMentions dataset.

C Vectorization and Score Function Methods Comparison

We compared the performance (recall %) using two different score functions: (1) cosine similarity and (2) Manhattan distance, and two different vectorization techniques: (1) term frequency (tf) and (2) tf-idf (term frequency * inverse document frequency). We used character unigram, bigram and trigram analysis in all the reported cases (Table 8).

We hypothesize that the improvement stems from Idf penalizing frequent words by taking the log of {number of docs in the corpus divided by the number of docs in which the term appears}, where in our context, a 'doc' is either a span of text or a UMLS concept from C_L . Since no stop words can appear at either the start or end of the span/concept, we increase the odds of having meaningful words comprising each 'doc'. The tf-idf method may contribute to this further because it not only focuses on the frequency of words present in the corpus (tf, bag of word) but also provides an importance weight to them.

D Hyper-Parameters

Table 10 describes all the hyper parameters' values we used in our model's implementation.

Vectorizer	Score Function	Recall %
Tf	Cosine	81.5
Tf	Manhattan	81.8
Tf-Idf	Cosine	82.0
Tf-Idf	Manhattan	81.9

Table 9: Performance of the HRM using two different vectorization methods and two different score functions on Camoni dataset (diabetes community).

HP	Description	Value
<i>m</i>	top matches parameter of the high recall matcher (Section 4.3)	50
<i>th</i>	threshold of selecting possible matched concepts for the spans (Section 4.3)	0.4
W_s	window size per side of the candidate mention (Section 4.4)	2
<i>R</i>	UMLS dictionary fine-tuning percentage (Section 4.5)	20
-	the model’s learning rate	$2e - 5$
-	train epochs	3
-	batch size	32

Table 10: Hyper parameters (HPs) used in our model’s implementation.