

BioMegatron: Larger Biomedical Domain Language Model

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Abstract

There has been an influx of biomedical domain-specific language models, showing language models pre-trained on biomedical text perform better on biomedical domain benchmarks than those trained on general domain text corpora such as Wikipedia and Books. Yet, most works do not study the factors affecting each domain language application deeply. Additionally, the study of model size on domain-specific models has been mostly missing. We empirically study and evaluate several factors that can affect performance on domain language applications, such as the sub-word vocabulary set, model size, pre-training corpus, and domain transfer. We show consistent improvements on benchmarks with our larger BioMegatron model trained on a larger domain corpus, contributing to our understanding of domain language model applications. We demonstrate noticeable improvements over the previous state-of-the-art (SOTA) on standard biomedical NLP benchmarks of question answering, named entity recognition, and relation extraction. Code and checkpoints to reproduce our experiments are available at github.com/NVIDIA/NeMo.

1 Introduction

Effectively transferring the success of BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) to the biomedical domain, most notably Lee et al. (2019) (BioBERT) and Beltagy et al. (2019) (SciBERT) inspired a large number of similar works last year. For example, Peng et al. (2019); Alsentzer et al. (2019); Huang et al. (2019) added clinical text to the PubMed biomedical pre-training corpus and tested on standard biomedical and clinical NLP benchmarks. Many other similar works appeared at the ACL BioNLP Workshop (Demner-Fushman et al., 2019).

More recently, Gu et al. (2020) performed a comprehensive study on the pre-training corpus domain,

language model masking method, and adversarial training, benchmarking on a number of different datasets for *token classification*, *sequence classification*, and *sequence regression*.

Compared to the previous works, we perform a more detailed study on (1) subword vocabulary, (2) labeling method, (2) model size, and (3) domain transfer, showing gains in *token classification*, *sequence classification*, and *question answering*.

2 Related Works

A prime example of Language Models (LMs) in the biomedical domain is BioBERT (Lee et al., 2019). It is a transformer LM pre-trained on the PubMed (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed) biomedical text corpus comprised of biomedical literature abstracts. Their pre-training started from the checkpoint of Devlin et al. (2018) trained on Wikipedia and Books-Corpus. Independently, Beltagy et al. (2019) (SciBERT) pre-trained BERT from scratch using their vocabulary set on scientific text corpora, including PubMed abstracts and computer science papers. Both demonstrated increased performance over the previous non-BERT SOTA on biomedical benchmarks, including Named Entity Recognition (NER), Relation Extraction (RE), and Question Answering (QA). BioBERT and SciBERT report similar results on NER and RE, while only BioBERT report QA results.

They inspired other follow-up works (Alsentzer et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2019), most notably translating their success to the clinical domain, adding the MIMIC-III (Johnson et al., 2016) clinical text corpus. Gu et al. (2020) (PubMedBERT) used the PubMed full-text for pre-training in addition to the abstracts, and use a domain vocabulary set learned from PubMed corpus.

Meanwhile, they mostly report similar NER and RE tests and results, and only BioBERT reports QA

results. Additionally, most use a BERT_{Base} with 110M parameters. Peng et al. (2019) report slightly improved performance on RE using BERT_{Large} while reporting worse results on NER, compared to BERT_{Base}. These results on biomedical tasks do not benefit from scaling model size to the same degree as standard NLP benchmarks such as GLUE or SQuAD (Shoeybi et al., 2019; Raffel et al., 2019).

3 Language Model Pre-training

BERT_{Base & Large} We compare our models to the pre-trained BERT_{Base & Large} models of BioBERT (Lee et al., 2019) and PubMedBERT (Gu et al., 2020) (BERT_{Base}) for fine-tuning and evaluation. For QA we use the BERT_{Large} variant of BioBERT following the authors’ recommendation.

BioMegatron Megatron-LM (Shoeybi et al., 2019) was introduced for efficient model parallel training of large LMs, with up to 8.3B parameters. Shoeybi et al. (2019) showed that rearranging the order of the layer normalization and the residual connections is critical to enabling the scaling of the BERT-style models beyond 336m parameters, and we use the same architecture.

Megatron-LM also used a larger pre-training text corpus, comprised of Wikipedia (Devlin et al., 2018), CC-Stories (Trinh and Le, 2018), RealNews (Zellers et al., 2019), and OpenWebtext (Radford et al., 2019). For our LM training, we use the 4.5 billion-word PubMed abstract set and the 1.6 billion-word CC0-licensed Commercial Use Collection of the PMC full-text corpus (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc).

We train three sizes of BioMegatron: with 345 million, 800 million, and 1.2 billion number of parameters. We compare four pre-training scenarios in the smallest 345m model - using BERT-cased/uncased vocabularies, each pre-trained from scratch and fine-tuned from general domain LM. We also compare two sets of domain vocabularies learned on PubMed text corpus using SentencePiece (github.com/google/sentencepiece) library, each containing 30k and 50k subword units.

We train the larger BioMegatron models with less variation: 800m models from scratch on PubMed with BERT -cased/-uncased vocabularies; and 1.2b model starting from general domain LM checkpoint using BERT-uncased vocabulary.

4 Downstream Benchmark Tasks

We use the most widely used downstream biomedical benchmark datasets for NER, RE, and QA.

Named Entity Recognition The BC5CDR (Li et al., 2016) NER dataset annotated *disease* and *chemical* terms with IOB tagging (Ramshaw and Marcus, 1999). In NCBI-disease (Doğan et al., 2014), only *disease* entities are IOB-tagged.

Relation Extraction The ChemProt (Krallinger et al., 2015) dataset contains sentences from PubMed abstracts, where chemical-protein interaction types are annotated as five categories. Relation Extraction is essentially a sequence classification task, classifying a set of sentences into a category.

Question Answering The BioASQ-7b factoid task (Tsatsaronis et al., 2015) is a biomedical QA dataset whose format is similar to the SQuAD dataset (Rajpurkar et al., 2016). In this task, context-snippet, question and answer triplets, and factoid question/answers are evaluated with *strict accuracy (SAcc)*, *lenient accuracy (LAcc)*, and *mean reciprocal rank (MRR)*.

5 Results and Discussion

The evaluation results on NER and RE are shown in Table 1, and QA are shown in Table 2. We perform entity-level F1 NER using the official CoNLL evaluation script translated into Python (github.com/spyysalo/conllevel.py). RE uses micro-level F1, and QA uses the BioASQ evaluation script (github.com/BioASQ/Evaluation-Measures).

5.1 Named Entity Recognition

Named entity	"undifferentiated"	"Fibrillation"
BERT-cased tokenization	und ##ff ##ere ##nti ##ated B B B B B B X X X X	Fi ##bri ##lla ##tion I I I I I X X X
BioMegatron bio-vocab-50k tokenization	undi ##ffer ##entia ##ted B B B B B X X X	Fibr ##illa ##tion I I I I X X
PubMedBERT -vocab (30k) tokenization	undifferentiated B B	fibrillation I I

Blue: whole-word-labeling
Purple: sub-token-labeling

Figure 1: Examples of tokenization with different subword vocabularies. Under each token, blue and purple text shows the word-level and subtoken-level labeling, respectively.

While the NER benchmark datasets appear saturated due to the small sample size, we find that the subword vocabulary is the most critical factor.

	Benchmark	Model	#Parameters	Vocabulary	Prec	Rec	F1
NER	BC5CDR-chem	BioBERT	110m	BERT-cased	90.0	93.4	91.7
		PubMedBERT	110m	PubMedBERT-vocab (30k)	92.1	93.2	92.6
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-30k	92.1	93.6	92.9
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-50k	92.9	92.0	92.5
		BioMegatron	800m	BERT-cased	91.3	92.9	92.1
	BC5CDR-disease	BioMegatron	1.2b	BERT-uncased	92.0	90.5	91.3
		BioBERT	110m	BERT-cased	85.0	89.4	87.2
		PubMedBERT	110m	PubMedBERT-uncased (30k)	86.2	88.4	87.3
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-30k	85.2	88.8	87.0
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-50k	86.1	91.0	88.5
	NCBI-disease	BioMegatron	800m	BERT-cased	85.8	90.1	87.9
		BioMegatron	1.2b	BERT-uncased	83.8	89.2	86.4
		BioBERT	110m	BERT-cased	85.0	90.0	87.5
		PubMedBERT	110m	PubMedBERT-uncased (30k)	85.9	87.7	86.8
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-30k	85.6	88.6	87.1
RE	ChemProt	BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-50k	83.7	90.4	87.0
		BioMegatron	800m	BERT-cased	87.0	88.8	87.8
		BioMegatron	1.2b	BERT-uncased	83.5	90.1	86.7
		BioBERT	110m	BERT-cased	76.5	73.3	74.8
		PubMedBERT	110m	PubMedBERT-uncased (30k)	73.6	77.7	75.6
		BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-30k	77.8	72.5	75.1
BioMegatron	345m	Bio-vocab-50k	74.5	79.7	77.0		
BioMegatron	800m	BERT-cased	80.4	68.9	74.3		
BioMegatron	1.2b	BERT-uncased	82.0	65.6	72.9		

Table 1: Evaluation results on NER and RE after fine-tuning for 30 epochs with hyper-parameter settings of: num-fc-layers: {1, 2}; fc-hidden-size: {512, 1024}; fc-dropout: 0.5; max-seq-length: 128; learning-rate: 5e-5; cross-entropy loss, with Adam optimizer. BioMegatron models are pre-trained from scratch on PubMed, except 1.2b model which is fine-tuned from a general domain model checkpoint.

	Benchmark	Model	#Parameters	Vocabulary	SAcc	LAcc	MRR
QA	BioASQ-7b-factoid	BioBERT-Base	110m	BERT-cased	30.8	64.1	41.1
		BioBERT-Large	345m	BERT-cased	42.8	62.8	50.1
		BioMegatron	345m	BERT-uncased	46.2	62.6	52.5
		BioMegatron	800m	BERT-uncased	45.2	58.6	50.4
		BioMegatron	1.2b	BERT-uncased	47.4	60.9	52.4

Table 2: Evaluation results on QA after fine-tuning for 30 epochs on checkpoints fine-tuned on SQuAD dataset with fixed hyper-parameter settings as num-fc-layers: 2; fc-hidden-size: 2048; fc-dropout: 0.1; max-seq-length: 512; learning-rate: 3e-5; cross-entropy loss, using Adam optimizer. BioMegatron models are pre-trained from scratch on PubMed, except 1.2b model which is fine-tuned from a general domain model checkpoint.

Examples of tokenization with different vocabularies are shown in Figure 1. Representing named entities as single terms is more helpful than breaking them into several subtokens. Table 3 shows the rate named entities break into sub-tokens for each benchmark training set with different sub-word vocabularies. PubMedBERT vocabulary set is good with a low break-out rate while being smaller in size than our 50k-size vocabulary. A lower break-out rate with smaller vocabulary size probably helps achieve better NER performance despite smaller model size.

There are two ways to label entities for NER training: (1) labeling the whole entity as a single la-

Sub-word vocabulary	BC5-chem	BC5-disease
BERT-cased	3.012	2.42
PubMedBERT-uncased (30k)	<u>1.654</u>	<u>1.236</u>
BioMegatron-bio-30k-cased	1.753	1.272
BioMegatron-bio-50k-cased	1.478	1.116

Table 3: The rate of named entities breaking into sub-tokens (#tokens/#words) in NER training sets.

bel, and (2) labeling sub-tokens separately. Figure 1 shows examples of these labeling methods. We find that these different schemes can result in as much as ~2% difference in the F1-score on NER evaluation, possibly indicating that the datasets are too small. We report NER results by labeling sub-tokens sep-

arately, except for the NCBI-disease dataset, where we observe better results with whole-entity labeling across all models.

5.2 Relation Extraction

Since RE is a classification task, albeit on sequences rather than on tokens, the choice of sub-word vocabulary has a notable effect.

We can also observe that larger models result in higher precision for lower recall, both for NER and RE. More hyper-parameter tuning could achieve higher F1-scores, even the generalization ability of such result may be questionable.

5.3 Question Answering

Table 2 show evaluation results after fine-tuning on SQuAD for 10 epochs and BioASQ for 30 epochs each, following the recipe found to work best by Lee et al. (2019). We found a large batch size to be beneficial, as Q&A pairs repeat up to 88 times. We use a batch size of 64 per GPU with data parallelism on 16 GPUs. Here, using biomedical vocabularies result in much worse results, possibly due to its low relevance in the first SQuAD fine-tuning task.

Larger models tend to perform better in QA, though it levels off after 345m parameters. The larger model size effect is more evident when fine-tuning on BioASQ directly, as shown in Table 4.

Model	SAcc	LAcc	MRR
BioMegatron-345m	33.1	50.4	39.8
BioMegatron-800m	37.7	56.3	45.1
BioMegatron-1.2b	40.6	53.7	45.6

Table 4: Results on BioASQ-7b factoid, without fine-tuning on SQuAD dataset first. The other models, including those using domain vocabularies, could not achieve any comparable results. A consistent pattern of improvement over model size noticeable on par with findings in general domain LM on SQuAD.

5.4 Domain Transfer and Generalization

We examine how well a general- or domain-specific LM generalizes across domains related to the model size. Gu et al. (2020) studied the effect of “domain-specific” vs. “mixed-domain” pre-training, i.e., pre-training on PubMed from scratch vs. pre-training starting from a general domain LM (fine-tuning). They found that pre-training on PubMed from scratch is better for biomedical NLP benchmarks, but we analyze its effect with further pre-training (fine-tuning) steps. In other words, if start-

ing from a general domain LM, does sufficient fine-tuning make it as good as a fully domain-specific model? Can such model have any advantage for cross-domain or cross-discipline generalization?

	Benchmark	Fine-tuning steps	F1	
NER	BC5CDR-chem	10^3 steps	63.2	
		10^4 steps	74.3	
		10^5 steps	89.7	
		$2 \cdot 10^5$ steps	89.37	
		$3 \cdot 10^5$ steps	91.8	
		$4 \cdot 10^5$ steps	92.1	
		$5 \cdot 10^5$ steps	91.2	
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		BC5CDR-disease	10^3 steps	39.4
			10^4 steps	63.6
	10^5 steps		79.8	
	$2 \cdot 10^5$ steps		81.2	
	RE	ChemProt	$3 \cdot 10^5$ steps	79.2
			$4 \cdot 10^5$ steps	81.9
$5 \cdot 10^5$ steps			81.8	
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10^3 steps			0.00	
10^4 steps			34.1	
10^5 steps			63.4	
$2 \cdot 10^5$ steps			71.1	
$3 \cdot 10^5$ steps			70.4	
$4 \cdot 10^5$ steps			69.7	
$5 \cdot 10^5$ steps	68.3			

Table 5: Comparison of fine-tuning steps for NER and RE benchmark when pre-training general-domain Megatron-1.2b model on PubMed. Cross-domain LMs should be trained sufficiently long on domain text to achieve comparable performance as LM pre-trained on domain text only.

Table 5 shows F1-score evaluation on NER and RE benchmarks using a general-domain BioMegatron-1.2b with additional fine tuning. It shows that even for a large LM that was pre-trained on a large text corpus, it needs sufficient further pre-training on domain text (PubMed). After sufficient pre-training on domain text, it can be as good as an LM pre-trained on domain-text only, except that vocabulary has more significant effect on NER.

Model	SAcc	LAcc	MRR
Megatron-345m (general LM)	38.5	52.6	43.7
Megatron-1.2b (general LM)	29.3	39.7	32.7

Table 6: Fine-tuning and evaluating on BioASQ-7b using general domain LMs that was not trained on PubMed corpus. Larger model does not perform better.

Table 6 shows the results of general-domain LMs fine-tuned on BioASQ-7b-factoid. Larger models do not perform better, which may indicate overfitting is occurring on the small training set.

Model	SQuAD-v1.1	SQuAD-v2.0
BioMegatron-345m	90.4	84.2
BioMegatron-345m-ft	86.5	77.9
BioMegatron-800m	91.6	86.1
BioMegatron-1.2b-ft	<u>91.8</u>	<u>86.4</u>
BERT _{LARGE}	90.9	81.8
RoBERTa	94.6	89.4
Megatron-3.9b	95.8	91.2

Table 7: Fine-tuning on SQuAD -v1.1/-v2.0 using BioMegatron and evaluating on F1-score on dev-set. BioMegatron with ‘-ft’ are pre-trained from general domain checkpoints (fine-tuned). Results of other general domain LMs are compared: RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), Megatron-LM (Shoeybi et al., 2019).

Table 7 shows the generalization ability of BioMegatron models on SQuAD datasets. Here, a large biomedical LM pre-trained on large text corpus performs better than smaller general domain LMs such as BERT_{LARGE}, even when pre-trained on the biomedical text.

5.5 Other Domain-Specific Factors

Size and Bias in Biomedical Datasets Annotating biomedical data requires in-depth domain knowledge. Besides, data often have substantial label bias as the occurrences of “abnormal” or “findings” are rare by nature. As a result, biomedical benchmark data tend to be smaller and highly biased than their general domain counterparts.

Task	Dataset	# Samples	Bias %
NER	CONLL-2003	14987	0.18
	BC5CDR	5235	0.08
CLS	MRPC	3668	0.48
	ChemProt	19461	0.27
QA	SQuAD-v1.0	87599	0.4
	BioASQ-7b	5537	0.02

Table 8: Label bias in general and biomedical benchmark dataset. CONLL-2003 (Sang and De Meulder, 2003), MRPC (Dolan et al., 2005), and SQuAD (Rajpurkar et al., 2016) are general domain dataset for NER, CLS (RE), and QA, respectively, for comparison against biomedical domain dataset. Label bias is computed as $[\text{sum of the \#samples of minority labels}]/[\text{\#samples of majority label}]$, for NER and RE (CLS), and $[\text{\#minimum repeat of the same answer}]/[\text{\#maximum repeat of the same answer}]$ for QA.

Table 8 shows a comparison of benchmark datasets for NER, RE (CLS), and QA in the biomedical domain and their general-domain counterparts. The SQuAD Q&A set is 15 times larger than the BioASQ data, where the same question-answer

combinations appear up to 88 times in BioASQ. Question-answer pairs are seldom repeated in SQuAD data, at most twice. The BC5CDR NER dataset is 1/3 size of CONLL-2003 and the ratio of I/O to O tags 0.08, compared to 0.18 for CONLL.

Methods to circumvent data imbalance issues such as oversampling the minority classes (Chawla et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2010) and using weighted cross-entropy gave minor effects on our NER and RE benchmarks. Recently, Li et al. (2019) proposed dice-loss for data-imbalance issues in NLP, with SOTA results on NER and QA, which could be a future avenue to explore for domain LMs. Transfer learning showed effectiveness in the biomedical QA task. However, it is somewhat unclear how to apply it to NER and RE tasks.

Model	PubMed Corpus	#Words
BioBERT	abstracts	4.5 billion
PubMedBERT	abstracts + full-text	16.8 billion
BioMegatron	abstracts + full-text-CC	6.1 billion

Table 9: Pre-training text corpus of each biomedical LM. We pre-train on PubMed abstracts and full-text commercial-collection (CC) that are free of copyrights.

Pre-training Corpus and Duration PubMedBERT is pre-trained on a much larger text corpus, as shown in Table 9. It is a performant domain-LM with a larger pre-training corpus and adequate domain vocabulary compared to its model size. We pre-train our LMs for about one epoch, reaching a masked-LM loss of about 1.2 (Devlin et al., 2018). Further pre-training may be helpful, but it is challenging to have strictly controlled experiments with many different settings.

6 Conclusion

We review and test several factors that can affect the performance of domain language models. We find that a language model targeted for a domain and application performs best. For example, model size is a secondary factor to vocabulary set for token classification task. Larger model size does not necessarily translate to better performance on a cross-domain benchmark task.

This probably indicates that there is no master model that can “do it all”, at least well enough as a targeted one. The model size is a secondary factor; larger model size can probably further improve the performance of a domain- and application-specific language model.

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