Incorporating domain knowledge into Medical NLI using Knowledge Graphs

Anonymous EMNLP-IJCNLP submission

Abstract

Recently, models pretrained on medical text such as BioElMo have shown state-of-the-art results for the textual inference task in the medical domain. In this paper, we explore how to incorporate structured domain knowledge, available in the form of knowledge graphs, for the Medical NLI task. Specifically, we experiment with fusing knowledge graph embeddings with the state-of-the-art approaches. We also experiment with fusing the domain specific sentiment information for the task. Experiments suggest that this strategy improves the baseline BioELMo architecture for the Medical NLI task.

1 Introduction

000

001

002

003

004

005

006

007

008

009

010

011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

020

021

022

023

024

025

026

027

028

029

030

031

032

033

034

035

036

037

038

039

040

041

042

043

044

045

046

047

048

049

Natural language inference (NLI) is one of the basic natural language understanding tasks which deals with detecting inferential relationship such as entailment or contradiction, between a given premise and a hypothesis. In recent years, with the availability of large annotated datasets like SNLI (Bowman et al., 2015), MultiNLI (Williams et al., 2018), researchers have come up with several neural network based models which could be trained with these large annotated datasets and are able to produce state-of-the-art performances (Bowman et al., 2015, 2016; Munkhdalai and Yu, 2017; Sha et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Tay et al., 2017). Even though with these attempts NLI in domains like fiction, travel etc. has progressed a lot, NLI in medical domain is yet to be explored extensively. With the introduction of MedNLI (Romanov and Shivade, 2018), an expert annotated dataset for NLI in the clinical domain, researchers attempt the problem of clinical NLI.

Recently, with the emergence of advanced contextual word embedding methods like ELMo (Peters et al., 2018) and BERT (Devlin et al., 2018), performance of many NLP tasks have improved, setting state-of-the-art performances. Following this stream of literature, Lee et al. (2019) introduce BioBERT, which is a BERT model pretrained on English Wikipedia, BooksCorpus and fine-tuned on PubMed (7.8B tokens in total) corpus, PMC full-text articles and Jin et al. (2019) propose BioELMo which is a domain-specific version of ELMo trained on 10M PubMed abstracts, and attempt to solve medical NLI problem with these domain specific embeddings, leading to state-of-the-art performance. These two attempts show a direction towards solving medical NLI problem where the pretrained embeddings are fine-tuned on medical corpus and are used in the state-of-the-art NLI architecture. Another line of solution tries to bring in the extra domain knowledge from sources like Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) (Bodenreider, 2004). One such attempt is made by Lu et al. (2019) by incorporating domain knowledge in terms of the definitions of medical concepts from UMLS with the stateof-the-art NLI model ESIM (Chen et al., 2017) and vanilla word embeddings of Glove (Pennington et al., 2014) and fastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017). Even though, the authors achieve significant improvement by incorporating only concept definitions from UMLS, the features of this clinical knowledge graph are yet to be fully exploited. Motivated by the emerging trend of embedding knowledge graphs to encode useful information in a high dimensional vector space, we propose the idea of applying state-of-the-art knowledge graph embedding algorithm on UMLS and use these embeddings as a representative of additional domain knowledge with the state-of-the-art medical NLI models like BioELMo, to investigate the performance improvement on this task. Additionally, we also incorporate the sentiment information for medical concepts given by MetaMap (Aronson and Lang, 2010) leading to further im050

051

052

053

054

055

056

057

058

059

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

070

071

072

073

074

075

076

077

078

079

080

081

082

083

084

085

086

087

088

089

090

091

092

093

094

095

096

097

098

099

1

100 provement of the performance. Note that, as state-101 of-the-art baselines we use the models proposed by Jin et al. (2019) and Lu et al. (2019) since both 102 of these studies consider ESIM as the core NLI 103 model which makes it more convenient for us to 104 incorporate extra domain knowledge and to have a 105 fair performance comparison with these state-of-106 the-art models. Our contributions are two-fold. 107

> • We incorporate domain knowledge via knowledge graph embeddings applied on UMLS. We propose an intelligent path-way to combine embeddings from two domains and feed them to the state-of-the-art NLI models like ESIM which is otherwise a difficult task to deal with. This helps to improve the performance of the base architecture.

• We further show the usefulness of the associated sentiments per medical concept from UMLS in boosting the performance further, which in a way shows that if we can carefully use the domain knowledge present in sources like UMLS, it can lead to promising results as far as the medical NLI task is concerned.

2 Dataset

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

In this study, we use the MedNLI dataset (Romanov and Shivade, 2018), a well-accepted dataset for natural language inference in clinical domain. The dataset is sampled from doctors' notes in the clinical dataset MIMIC-III (Alistair EW Johnson and Mark., 2016) and is arguably the largest publicly available database of patient records. The entire dataset consists of 14,049 premise-hypothesis pairs divided into 11,232 train pairs, 1,395 validation pairs and 1,422 test pairs. Each such pair consists of a gold label which could be either entailment (true), contradiction (false), or neutral (undetermined). The average (maximum) sentence lengths of premises and hypotheses are 20 (202) and 5.8 (20), respectively.

3 Proposed Approach

The task is to classify the given premise (p)and hypothesis (h) sentence pair into one of the three classes: entailment, contradiction and neutral. As a core architecture, we reuse the model BioELMo (Jin et al., 2019) where authors bring in contextual information in terms of embeddings obtained via applying ELMo trained on 10M PubMed abstracts, and use these with the ESIM model (Chen et al., 2017) for the NLI



task. ESIM (Chen et al., 2017) is a state-of-the-art model for the NLI task. The architecture includes two sentence encoders each of which takes in as input the word embeddings of p and h. The inputs are run through a bi-directional LSTM encoder Pairwise attention matrix is computed layer. between p and h, which forms the attention layer followed by a second bi-directional LSTM layer. Max and average pooling are performed over the outputs of LSTM layers and the output of pooling operations is run through a softmax model. We feed this architecture an additional domain knowledge from UMLS as vector representations obtained via knowledge graph embeddings, the details of which are described below.

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

UMLS: Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) is a compendium which includes many health and biomedical vocabularies and standards.

200 It provides a mapping structure between these 201 vocabularies and is a comprehensive thesaurus and ontology of biomedical concepts. 202 UMLS contains 3 knowledge sources: Metathesaurus, 203 Semantic Network, and Specialist Lexicon and 204 Lexical Tools. We use two of these sources: 205 the Metathesaurus and the Semantic Network. 206 The Metathesaurus comprises of over 1 million 207 biomedical concepts and 5 million concept names. 208 Each concept has numerous relationships with 209 each other. Each concept in the Metathesaurus 210 is assigned one or more Semantic Type linked to 211 other Semantic Types through a semantic relation-212 ship. This information is provided in the Semantic 213 Network of UMLS. There are 127 semantic 214 types and 54 relationships in total. Semantic 215 types include "disease", "symptom", "laboratory 216 test" and semantic relationships include "is-a", 217 "part-of", "affects".

218 MetaMap: MetaMap is a tool for effec-219 tive mapping of biomedical text to the UMLS 220 Metathesaurus. On feeding a sentence to 221 MetaMap, it divides the sentence into phrases 222 based on medical concepts found in the sentence 223 and for each medical concept it provides its ID in 224 Metathesaurus, its position in the sentence, the list 225 of semantic types the concept is mapped to, the 226 preferred medical name and ID for the preferred concept (such as "chest pain" would be "angina"). 227 We also get a boolean value denoting whether the 228 medical concept occurs in a negative sentiment 229 (1) or not (0). For example, in the sentence, "The 230 patient showed no signs of pain", medical concept 231 'pain' would appear with a negative sentiment. 232 Note that, for each extracted phrase, there may 233 be more than one related medical concepts and 234 each concept may have more than one possible 235 mapping. For our study, we only consider the 236 mapping with the highest MetaMap Indexing 237 (MMI) score, a metric provided by MetaMap. As 238 a result, every word has zero or one corresponding 239 medical concept. 240

Constructing the appropriate knowledge 241 graph: We use the Metamap tool to process the 242 complete MedNLI dataset and extract the relevant 243 information from UMLS into a smaller knowledge 244 graph. First, we use Metamap to extract medical 245 concepts from p and h, and map them to the 246 standard terminology in UMLS. We choose to 247 map each medical concept to its preferred medical 248 term. E.g., "blood clots" would map to "throm-249

bus". This helps us to map different synonymous surface forms to the same concept. This results in 7,496 unique medical concepts from UMLS matched to various words and phrases in the MedNLI dataset. Each unique concept in UMLS becomes a node in our knowledge graph. The relations in our knowledge graph come from two sources: The Metathesaurus and the Semantic Network of UMLS. Using relations extracted from these two sources, we connect the filtered medical concepts from UMLS to build a smaller Knowledge Graph (subgraph of UMLS). We get 117,467 triples from the Metathesaurus and 23,824,105 triples from the Semantic Network, which constitute the edgelists in the prepared knowledge graph.

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

Knolwedge Graph Embeddings: To obtain the embedding from this graph, we use state-ofthe-art Distmult model (Bishan Yang and Deng, 2015). The choice is inspired by Kadlec et al. (2017), which reports that an appropriately tuned DistMult model can produce similar or better performance while compared with the competing knowledge graph embedding models.

Combining Knolwedge Graph Embeddings with BioELMo: As explained in Figure 1b, each sentence (p or h) is tokenized using NLTK as well as processed using MetaMap to get UMLS concepts. To align these, we copy the UMLS concept for a phrase to all the constituent words. Once we have aligned the tokens obtained via NLTK and MetaMap, we apply ELMo and Distmult to get the embedding vectors, $e_{ELMo,w}$ and $e_{distmult,w}$ for each word w. We concatenate these vectors as $e_w = e_{ELMo,w} \oplus e_{distmult,w}$ to obtain the word representation for w. We call the proposed model which uses these embeddings as *BioELMo w/KG*.

Combining Sentiment Information: We further enhance the domain knowledge by incorporating sentiment information for a concept separately. For that purpose, we use the sentiment boolean provided by MetaMap and create a 1-d vector $(sent_w)$ containing 0 for positive medical concepts or non-medical concept and 1 for negative concept. We concatenate this single dimension with our concatenated resultant embeddings. Thus $e_w = e_{ELMo,w} \oplus e_{distmult,w} \oplus sent_w$. We call the proposed model which uses these embeddings as *BioELMo w/KG* + *Sentiment*.

We use the vanilla ESIM model (Chen et al., 2017) and feed the model the obtained concate-

00	Model	Accuracy
01	BL_1 (Jin et al., 2019)	78.2%
02	BL_2 (Lu et al., 2019)	77.8%
03	BioELMo w/ KG	78.76%
04	BioELMo w/ KG+Sentiment	79.04%

3

3

3

3

3

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

 Table 1: Performance of our models along with the state-of-the-art baseline models

nated embeddings for each word in the premise and hypothesis, to be trained for the inference task (see Figure 1a).

4 Experimental Results and Analysis

As discussed earlier, we mainly consider the models presented by Jin et al. (2019) $[BL_1]$ and Lu et al. (2019) $[BL_2]$ as our baselines. We report accuracy as the performance metric. Table 1 represents the performance comparison of our proposed models and the baselines, which shows that incorporation of knowledge graph embeddings helps to improve the model performance. Further, incorporating sentiment of medical concepts gives further improvements, achieving an overall 1% improvement over the baseline model.

We also see from (Jin et al., 2019) that BERT and BioBERT show an accuracy of 77.8% and 81.7%, respectively. However, they also showcase through a probing task that BioELMo is a better feature extractor than BioBERT, even though the latter has higher performance when fine tuned on MedNLI. Due to this reason, we take BioELMo as our base architecture and use our enhancements over BioELMo instead of BioBERT.

We also experimented with replacing contextual embeddings (BioELMo) with non-contexualized word embeddings (Glove, fastText). However, the accuracies for fastText (73.67%) and Glove (74.46%) were much lower than that for ELMo.

338 Training Details: For DistMult, we use word em-339 beddings dimensions to be 100. SGD was used for 340 optimization with an initial learning rate of 10^{-4} . 341 The batch size was set to be 100. For ESIM, we 342 take the dimension of hidden states of BiLSTMs 343 to be 500. We set the dropout to be 0.5 and choose 344 an initial learning rate of 10^{-3} . We choose a batch 345 size of 32 and run for a maximum of 64 epochs. 346 The training is stopped when the development loss 347 does not decrease after 5 subsequent epochs.

Qualitative Analysis: We explain the efficacy of our model with the help of a few examples. Consider the sentence pair, p: "History of CVA" and h: "patient has history of stroke". In medical terms, 'CVA' means 'Cerebrovascular accident' which is another term for 'stroke'. By Using MetaMap, we are able to find that the preferred term for 'stroke' is 'Cerebrovascular accident' and hence our model classified the sample pair correctly as entailment. To take another example, consider the pair p: "Blood Glucose 626" and h: "Patient has normal A1c". The level of blood glucose indicated is higher than normal. 'A1c' is a common blood test used to diagnose type 1 and type 2 diabetes. Since the patient has higher blood glucose level, the patient having normal 'A1c' would be a contradiction and is thus classified as such. 350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

Even though our model produces a decent performance, there are cases which our model is not able to capture. For example, for the sentence pair *p*: "She was speaking normally at that time" and *h*: "The patient has no known normal time where she was speaking normally," contradicting each other, our model predicts this to be entailment. The probable reason could be that the ESIM model fails to capture the inverse relationship in the hypothesis. In another example case, p: "He had no EKG changes and first set of enzymes were negative." and h: "the patient has negative enzymes," our model classifies this pair as entailment while the gold label is neutral. While the premise says that the first set of enzymes was negative, it gives no information about the current state. This leads us to believe that a sense of timeline is extremely important for examples like this which is not already being captured by our model. Taking care of these cases would be our immediate future work.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we showed that knowledge graph embeddings obtained through applying state-ofthe-art model like Distmult from UMLS could be a promising way towards incorporating domain knowledge leading to improved state-of-theart performance for the medical NLI task. We further showed that sentiments of medical concepts can contribute to medical NLI task as well, opening a new direction to be explored further. With the emergence of knowledge graphs in different domains, the proposed approach can be tried out in other domains as well for future exploration.

4

400 References

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444 445

446

447

448

449

- Lu Shen H Lehman Li-wei Mengling Feng Mohammad Ghassemi Benjamin Moody Peter Szolovits Leo Anthony Celi Alistair EW Johnson, Tom J Pollard and Roger G Mark. 2016. Mimic-iii, a freely accessible critical care database. *Scientific data*, *3:160035*.
- A. R. Aronson and F.-M. Lang. 2010. An overview of metamap: Historical perspective and recent advances. J. Amer. Med. Inform. Assoc., 17:229–236.
- Xiaodong He Jianfeng Gao Bishan Yang, Wen-tau Yih and Li Deng. 2015. Embedding entities and relations for learning and inference in knowledge bases. *ICLR*.
- Olivier Bodenreider. 2004. The unified medical language system (umls): integrating biomedical terminology. *Nucleic acids research*, 32(suppl_1):D267– D270.
- Piotr Bojanowski, Edouard Grave, Armand Joulin, and Tomas Mikolov. 2017. Enriching word vectors with subword information. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 5:135–146.
- Samuel R. Bowman, Gabor Angeli, Christopher Potts, and Christopher D. Manning. 2015. A large annotated corpus for learning natural language inference. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 632–642, Lisbon, Portugal. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Samuel R Bowman, Raghav Gupta, Jon Gauthier, Christopher D Manning, Abhinav Rastogi, and Christopher Potts. 2016. A fast unified model for parsing and sentence understanding. In 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics, ACL 2016. Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL).
- Qian Chen, Xiaodan Zhu, Zhen-Hua Ling, Si Wei, Hui Jiang, and Diana Inkpen. 2017. Enhanced lstm for natural language inference. In *Proceedings of the* 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pages 1657–1668.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2018. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805*.
- Qiao Jin, Bhuwan Dhingra, William W Cohen, and Xinghua Lu. 2019. Probing biomedical embeddings from language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1904.02181*.
- Rudolf Kadlec, Ondrej Bajgar, and Jan Kleindienst. 2017. Knowledge base completion: Baselines strike back. In *Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop on Representation Learning for NLP*, pages 69–74, Vancouver, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Jinhyuk Lee, Wonjin Yoon, Sungdong Kim, Donghyeon Kim, Sunkyu Kim, Chan Ho So, and Jaewoo Kang. 2019. Biobert: pre-trained biomedical language representation model for biomedical text mining. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1901.08746*.
- Mingming Lu, Yu Fang, Fengqi Yan, and Maozhen Li. 2019. Incorporating domain knowledge into natural language inference on clinical texts. *IEEE Access*.
- Tsendsuren Munkhdalai and Hong Yu. 2017. Neural tree indexers for text understanding. In *Proceedings of the conference. Association for Computational Linguistics. Meeting*, volume 1, page 11. NIH Public Access.
- Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher Manning. 2014. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In *Proceedings of the 2014 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing (EMNLP)*, pages 1532–1543.
- Matthew Peters, Mark Neumann, Mohit Iyyer, Matt Gardner, Christopher Clark, Kenton Lee, and Luke Zettlemoyer. 2018. Deep contextualized word representations. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long Papers)*, pages 2227–2237.
- Alexey Romanov and Chaitanya Shivade. 2018. Lessons from natural language inference in the clinical domain. In *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 1586–1596, Brussels, Belgium. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Lei Sha, Baobao Chang, Zhifang Sui, and Sujian Li. 2016. Reading and thinking: Re-read lstm unit for textual entailment recognition. In *Proceedings* of COLING 2016, the 26th International Conference on Computational Linguistics: Technical Papers, pages 2870–2879.
- Yi Tay, Luu Anh Tuan, and Siu Cheung Hui. 2017. Compare, compress and propagate: Enhancing neural architectures with alignment factorization for natural language inference. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1801.00102*.
- Adina Williams, Nikita Nangia, and Samuel Bowman. 2018. A broad-coverage challenge corpus for sentence understanding through inference. In Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long Papers), pages 1112–1122.

498

499