HITSZ-ICRC: A Report for SMM4H Shared Task 2019—Automatic Classification and Extraction of Adverse Drug Reactions in Tweets

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Abstract

This is the system description of the Harbin Institute of Technology Shenzhen (HITSZ) team for the first and second subtasks of the fourth Social Media Mining for Health Applications (SMM4H) shared task in 2019. The two subtasks are automatic classification and extraction of adverse effect mentions in tweets. The training and test datasets consist of a great deal of drug adverse effects and not, respectively. Among the systems we developed for subtask1, the best F1-score was 0.6457, for subtask2, the best relaxed F1-score and the best strict F1-score were 0.614 and 0.407 respectively. Our system ranks first among all systems on subtask1.

1 Introduction

Adverse drug reaction (ADR), namely adverse drug effect, is one of the leading causes of post-therapeutic deaths (Saha, Naskar, Dasgupta, & Dey, 2018). Nowadays, more and more people share information in social platform, including health information such as drugs and their ADRs. Twitter, as one of the most popular social platforms, has attracted a great deal of attention from researchers in the medical domain. Some methods, such as HTR_MSA (Wu et al., 2018) and Neural DrugNet (Nikhil & Mundra, 2018), have been proposed to detect tweets mentioning ADRs and medicine intake. In order to facilitate the use of social media for health monitoring and surveillance, the health language processing lab at University of Pennsylvania organized Social Media Mining for Health Applications (SMM4H) shared task four times. In 2019, the fourth SMM4H shared task was comprised of four subtasks: (1) Automatic classifications of adverse effect mentions in tweets, (2) Extraction of Adverse Effect mentions, (3) Normalization of adverse drug reaction mentions (ADR), and (4) Generalizable identification of personal health experience mentions (Weissenbacher et al., 2019).

We participated in subtask 1 and subtask2, and developed two systems based on bidirectional encoder representations from transformers (BERT) (Devlin, Chang, Lee, & Toutanova, 2018) for the two subtasks respectively. The system for subtask 1 achieved the best F1-score of 0.6457, ranking first. Among the systems we developed for subtask2, the best relaxed F1-score and the best strict F1-score were 0.614 and 0.407 respectively.

2 Task and Data Description

2.1 Task 1: Automatic Classifications of Adverse Effect Mentions in Tweets

Task 1 was formulated as follows: given a tweet, determine whether it mentions drug adverse effect mentions, denoted by 1 and 0, indicating a tweet mentions drug adverse effects and not, respectively. The organizers provided a train dataset consisting of 25,678 tweets for all participants to develop their system, and a test dataset consisting of 4,575 tweets to evaluate the performance of all systems. Table 1 shows the distribution of 0 and 1 labels over the training and test datasets, where #* denotes the number of tweets labeled with *, and NA denotes that the corresponding number is currently unknown.

| Dataset       | #1   | #0   | #all |
|---------------|------|------|------|
| Training set  | 2,377| 23,301| 25,678|
| Test set      | NA   | NA   | 4,575|

Table 1: Distribution of labels over the training and test datasets of task1.
2.2 Task 2: Extraction of Adverse Effect Mentions

Task 2 as a follow-up of Task 1 was formulated as follows: given a tweet, identify the text span of adverse effect mentions. The challenge of task 2 is to distinguish adverse effect mentions from similar non-ADR expressions. A training set of 3,225 tweets annotated with 1,830 adverse effect mentions was provided for system development, and a test set of 1,573 tweets was provided for system evaluation. The statistics of the training and test datasets are listed in Table 2.

| Dataset   | #tweets | #ADRs |
|-----------|---------|-------|
| Training set | 3,225   | 1,830 |
| Test set   | 1,573   | NA    |

Table 2: Statistics of the training and test datasets of task 2

3 Methods

Our systems for both task 1 and task 2 were based on BERT, an unsupervised language representation method to obtain deep bidirectional representations of sentences by jointly conditioning on both left and right context in all layers from free text. Below we described in detail the methods for the two tasks: task 1 and task 2, respectively.

3.1 Task 1: BERT and BERT+Knowledge Base

In this task, we designed two methods, BERT and BERT+Knowledge Base. The model architecture is shown in Fig. 1.

**BERT:** Like what BERT did, we took the final hidden state of the first input token [CLS] as the representation of a tweet. Then we applied a softmax layer over the output to classify a tweet. We denote the representation vector as $H$, then the predicted label $\hat{y}$ is computed as:

$$\hat{y} = \text{softmax}(WH + b)$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

where $W, b$ is the parameters of the fully connected layer.

**BERT+Knowledge Base:** Inspired by Li et al. (2018), we tried to combine the BERT output with features from knowledge bases to improve the performance of systems. We firstly extracted drugs which appear in the SIDER 4.1 (a side effect resource which contains information on marketed medicines and their recorded adverse drug reactions) from the train dataset, and obtained a drug lexicon of 538 drugs. Then we extracted corresponding adverse effects in SIDER according to the drug lexicon, and obtained 4,411 <drug, ADR> pairs. For each tweet, according to the presence of <drug ADR> pairs, we could build a binary feature. We incorporated the binary feature into representation vectors of a tweet. The final representation of a tweet is a concatenation of its BERT output and lexicon feature. Then we used a fully connected layer to fuse information from different feature spaces, and applied a softmax layer on it to classify tweets. We denote the output of BERT as $H_1$, the lexicon feature as $H_2$, then the predicted label $\hat{y}$ of a tweet is computed as:

$$\hat{y} = \text{softmax}(W[H_1, H_2] + b)$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

where $W, b$ is the parameters of the fully connected layer. The loss function for two models training is crossentropy:

$$L = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{C} y_{ij} \cdot \log(\hat{y}_{ij})$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Where $y_{ij}$ and $\hat{y}_{ij}$ are gold label and predicted label for the $i_{th}$ sample in the $j_{th}$ label category. $N$ is the number of samples in a batch, $C$ is the number of label categories.

3.2 Task 2: BERT and BERT+CRF

In task 2, we still took BERT as the basic architecture, and designed two methods. The model architecture is shown in Fig. 2.

**BERT:** This method is very similar to the first method in Task 1. The difference is that we feed the
final hidden representation for each token into a classification layer over the NER tags set, because we need to obtain predicted tags for each input token.  

**BERT + CRF:** This method is a follow-step of the first method. For BERT, the predictions are not conditioned on the surrounding predictions. A CRF layer has a state transition matrix as parameters (Huang, Xu, & Yu, 2015). With such a layer, the system can efficiently use past and future tags to predict the current tag. Therefore, we applied a CRF layer on the classification layer. We denote the output sequence after softmax layer as $H = [h_1, h_2, ... h_n]$, then the predicted tag sequence $Z = [z_1, z_2, ... z_n]$ is as follows: 

$$ Z = \text{argmax}_Y \frac{\exp(score(H, Y))}{\sum_Y \exp(score(H, Y))} \quad (4) $$

where $score(H, Y) = \sum_{t=1}^{n} E_{t,Y_t} + \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} T_{Y_tY_{t+1}}$, $E_{t,Y_t} = w_{Y_t}^T h_t$ is the score of predicting tag $y_t$ at the $t$th time, and $T_{Y_tY_{t+1}}$ is the score of transitioning from $y_t$ to $y_{t+1}$.

![Figure 2: The model architecture in Task 2](image)

3.3 **Experiments**

For task 1, we compared BERT and BERT+knowledge base with two classic deep learning methods, TextCNN (Kim, 2014) and LSTM (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997), and also investigated the effect of different BERT models, including the BERT model (Devlin et al., 2018) publicly released by (https://github.com/google-research/bert) (denoted by BERT_noRetrained) and the BERT model retrained on a large-scale tweet unlabeled corpus based on the previous BERT model (denoted by BERT_Retrained). The unlabeled corpus consisted of 1,500,000 tweets crawled from Twitter according to 150 drug names collected from the training set. For task 2, we only used the retrained BERT model.

In our experiments, we set batch size to 32, learning rate to 5e-5 when training all models. The epoch number was set to 8 for BERT retraining, and 20 for other models. The dimension of word embeddings used in TextCNN and LSTM was set to 200. We split out about 10% from the training set as a validation set for parameter optimization.

The performance of all methods for the two tasks were measured by precision, recall and F1-score, which can be calculated by the official tools provided by the organizers. For task 2, there were two criteria for system performance evaluation: relaxed and strict.

4 **Results**

Table 3 and Table 4 show the performance of our systems for task 1 and task 2 on the test set, respectively.

For task 1, among the systems we developed, “BERT_Retrained” achieved the best F1-score of 0.6457 and recall of 0.6885 on the test set, “BERT_Retrained+Knowledge Base” achieved the best precision of 0.6916 on the test set. Compared with TextCNN and LSTM on the validation set, methods based on BERT showed much better performance. As officially reported, “BERT_Retrained” ranked first among all systems.

For task 2, among the systems we developed, “BERT_Retrained+CRF” achieved the best relaxed F1-score of 0.614 and the best strict F1-score of 0.407, outperforming “BERT_Retrained” by 0.024 in relaxed F1-score and 0.060 in strict F1-score.

5 **Discussion**

For Task 1, the distribution of 0 and 1 is highly imbalanced. 90% of samples are negative, 10% of samples are positive. When we used CNN and LSTM, if we did not deal with the data imbalance problem, the performance of them was quite poor, most tweets were classified to 0. In order to balance the number of positive and negative samples, we randomly divided into the negative samples...
samples into five equal parts, and combined each part with the positive samples to form a new training dataset. After this operation, we obtained five new balanced training datasets. Then we trained five models on them, and assembled the five models. The ensemble model brought an increase of about 8% in F1-score. However, when applying this operation to BERT and “BERT+Retrained”, we obtained little increase on F1-score.

By analyzing results of “BERT_Retrained”, we found that the main errors are:

- ADR mentions cannot be completely distinguished from the reason mentions of taking drugs. For example, in “oxycodone just took my headache away so fast”, “headache” is the reason of taking oxycodone, not an adverse effect mention of oxycodone. The tweet was wrongly classified to 1.

- Implicit adverse effect mentions are difficult to identified. For example, “pristiq and im livin in a cold world” and “uhh my gabapentin does went up today and I don’t even know what planet i’m on. i hope i adjust to this quickly ... #endometriosis”.

For task 2, because the CRF layer takes full advantages of relations between neighbor labels, “BERT_Retrained+CRF” could avoid some terrible tag sequences such as “I-B-B-O-O”. The main errors appearing in task 2 are the same as task 1.

For further improvement, a possible direction is dealing with task 1 and task 2 at the same time using joint learning methods.

6 Conclusion

In this paper, we developed systems for task 1 and task 2 of the SMM4H shared task in 2019. Our systems were based on BERT and achieved promising results, especially ranking first on task 1.

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