

# Bridging the Gap: Instruction-Tuned LLMs for Scientific Named Entity Recognition

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## Abstract

Information extraction (IE) from scientific literature plays an important role in many information-seeking pipelines. Large Language Models (LLMs) have demonstrated strong zero-shot and few-shot performance on IE tasks. However, there are challenges in practical deployment, especially in scenarios that involve sensitive information, such as industrial research or limited budgets. A key question is whether there is a need for a fine-tuned model for optimal domain adaptation (i.e., whether in-domain labelled training data is needed, or zero-shot to few-shot effectiveness is enough). In this paper, we explore this question in the context of IE on scientific literature. We further consider methodological questions, such as alternatives to cloud-based proprietary LLMs (e.g., GPT and Claude) when these are unsuitable due to data privacy, data sensitivity, or cost reasons. This paper outlines empirical results to recommend which locally hosted open-source LLM approach to adopt and illustrates the trade-offs in domain adaptation.

We focus on several instruction-tuning frameworks leveraging IE benchmark datasets to capture task-specific knowledge whilst maintaining model generalisability. We refer to this class of LLM models as *Specialised LLMs* (s-LLMs). We show that instruction-tuned (IE task-adapted) s-LLMs can outperform open-source and proprietary LLMs for entity extraction from scientific documents. Furthermore, this improvement gain is substantial, highlighting the value of the in-domain (continual) fine-tuning.

## 1 Introduction

Information Extraction (IE) from the scientific literature (e.g., scientific documents, technical reports) is a critical component of scientific information-seeking pipelines (Luan et al., 2018; Nasar et al., 2018; Cai et al., 2025). IE supports tasks such as knowledge-base construction (e.g.,

BRENDA (Chang et al., 2021) and ChEMBL (Papadatos et al., 2015)), advancing knowledge discovery (Horawalavithana et al., 2022), and supporting predictive modelling (Li et al., 2022). In such pipelines, Named Entity Recognition (NER) is often the initial step used to extract structured output from unstructured text, enabling downstream tasks, such as relation extraction (RE) (Luan et al., 2018) or knowledge-graph construction (Zhang and Soh, 2024). As a result, improving NER accuracy is critical, as errors introduced at this stage can propagate and impact the reliability of the entire pipeline.

As IE pipelines evolve, they are increasingly designed as agentic systems, where multiple specialised models, or agents, collaborate to complete complex tasks (Belcak et al., 2025; Sharma and Mehta, 2025). Within such systems, smaller fine-tuned models play a key role: they can be assigned to specific subtasks, such as NER, RE, or validation, and interact with other agents to balance accuracy, efficiency, and scalability. In this context, NER is not only a technical bottleneck but also a foundational capability for multi-agent scientific systems, motivating the study of models that can be adapted to domain-specific tasks while remaining lightweight and composable.

Recent advances in large language models (LLMs) such as GPT-5<sup>1</sup> and Claude 3.7 Sonnet<sup>2</sup> have improved our ability to extract information from scientific documents. Commercial APIs built in proprietary LLMs offer a strong performance. Using these models becomes problematic, however, in scenarios that involve sensitive data (e.g., biomedical records, confidential industrial research), as privacy cannot be guaranteed. Consequently, many research and industrial settings rely on open-source models as a practical alternative.

Although open-source LLMs provide significant

<sup>1</sup><https://openai.com/gpt-5>

<sup>2</sup><https://www.anthropic.com/news/clause-3-7-sonnet>

flexibility, their zero-shot performance for IE tasks often remains insufficient for practical IE scenarios, as errors propagate to downstream tasks. In-context learning (ICL) enables task and domain adaptation through the inclusion of prototypical examples in the prompt (Li et al., 2023; Ghosh et al., 2024) *without actually performing supervised learning* (no parameter update) called few-shot learning. While ICL markedly improves over zero-shot performance, studies show that it still lags behind state-of-the-art results for IE tasks (Li et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024; Wadhwa et al., 2023; Wan et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2023; Jiao et al., 2023; Huang et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b). For the domain of science literature, similar trends have been observed; ICL improves results but does not match supervised fine-tuning models (SLM and LLM) (Xiao et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2025b), and simpler fine-tuned models (e.g., RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019)) can outperform LLMs using ICL (Jimenez Gutierrez et al., 2022; Böltüçü et al., 2023).

To bridge this gap, researchers increasingly turn to instruction-tuned LLMs for IE, which we refer to as *specialised LLMs* (s-LLMs). These models are trained using instruction-tuning on task-specific benchmark datasets (Zhou et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b; Wang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2025a), where each training instance pairs an instruction, an input text, and a structured output that reflects the benchmark’s annotation scheme. Instruction-tuning provides task-level adaptation and enhances zero- and few-shot generalisation, while still enabling local deployment—an essential requirement for domains involving sensitive or proprietary data. Typically built on open-source LLMs such as Llama<sup>3</sup> and Qwen<sup>4</sup>, s-LLMs provide cost-effective alternatives to proprietary systems like GPT-4 (Gui et al., 2024b,a; Yuan et al., 2025), making them suitable for applications such as industrial research.

The s-LLMs require a large set of benchmark datasets for instruction-tuning, which is not straightforward and requires substantial computational resources. Therefore, it is not practical to instruction-tune a new model for each conceivable domain for IE. For this reason, in this study, we evaluate the adaptability of *already instruction-*

*tuned* IE-specialised models to scientific domains. Specifically, we focus on three examples of this class of approach: IEPile (Gui et al., 2024b), UniNER (Zhou et al., 2024), and YAYI-UIE (Xiao et al., 2024) (Section 3). These models have been instruction-tuned using a collection of datasets, including scientific datasets (see Table 6), and are designed to generalise across a wide range of IE tasks (e.g., NER, RE, and Event Extraction (EE)) and domains (e.g., social media, biomedical).

Hence, we investigate the following research questions.

- **RQ1:** How well do s-LLMs adapt to the scientific NER task, a subtask of IE, compared to the out-of-the-box (open-source and proprietary) LLMs?
- **RQ2:** What is the additional performance gain of continual (in-domain) tuning of s-LLMs on specific domains compared to their open-source (vanilla) counterparts?

To address the research questions, we evaluate the performance of these models (s-LLMs) and compare them to “out-of-the-box” open-source LLMs<sup>5</sup> (e.g., Llama (Touvron et al., 2023), Baichuan (Yang et al., 2023)), as well as proprietary LLMs (e.g., Claude (Anthropic, 2024), GPT (OpenAI, 2024)). We focus specifically on the case of scientific NER, using four datasets: MeasEval, Sci-ERC, STEM-ECR, and WLPC, each representing a different scientific subdomain or text modality (Section A.4 for an overview of the datasets) in zero-shot, few-shot, and supervised settings. We compare the s-LLMs to baselines under different domain adaptation regimes (zero- and few-shot, continual tuning).

In summary, the **contributions** of this paper include:

- Comparative analysis of instruction-tuned LLMs against their open-source (vanilla) counterparts and proprietary LLMs under different ‘learning’ regimes (corresponding to different availability of training data).
- Exploratory experiments of models on the NER task to reveal the impact of task-specific instruction-tuning.
- Practical guidelines for researchers aiming to use LLMs for scientific IE.

<sup>3</sup><https://huggingface.co/meta-llama>

<sup>4</sup><https://huggingface.co/Qwen>

<sup>5</sup>That is, without any further specialisation beyond the foundation model training.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first extensive evaluation of instruction-tuned LLMs for IE from scientific literature, providing a comprehensive analysis that compares foundation, open-source, and proprietary LLMs and their domain adaptation capabilities across diverse datasets under zero-shot, few-shot and supervised fine-tuning settings.

## 2 Related Work

LLMs (Brown et al., 2020; Ouyang et al., 2022; Touvron et al., 2023) have already been successfully used in IE (Gao et al., 2023). LLM-based IE methods are divided into In-Context Learning (ICL) and Supervised Fine-tuning (SFT) based approaches. ICL-based models (Jimenez Gutierrez et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2025) rely on prompting with a few labelled examples in addition to instructions, while SFT-based models utilise annotated datasets for fine-tuning LLMs (Zhou et al., 2024; Xiao et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b; Li et al., 2024). Research indicates that ICL-based models tend to exhibit relatively inferior effectiveness on IE tasks compared to SFT-based models (Jimenez Gutierrez et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024).

To improve the task and domain adaptability of LLMs, instruction-tuning has become a common technique. This involved fine-tuning LLMs on instruction-based benchmark datasets (a set of datasets specific to a task or domain). Instruction-tuning has been explored across various domains, including Dialogue (Gupta et al., 2022), Intent Classification and Slot Filling (Rosenbaum et al., 2022), Sentiment Analysis (Varia et al., 2023), and Emotion Classification (Liu et al., 2024).

In the context of IE, several studies have advanced instruction-tuning approaches. Zhou et al. (2024) introduce UniNER, which reformulates IE as a Question-Answer (QA) task and instruction-tune Llama using knowledge-distilled datasets from ChatGPT within conversation-style setup, targeting the NER task across diverse domains. Gui et al. (2024b) propose a schema-based instruction-tuning framework for IE (NER, RE and EE) and present IEPile, a bilingual IE instruction benchmark for instruction-tuning. Additionally, Xiao et al. (2024) extend IEPile benchmark by adding more Chinese IE datasets and introduce chat-enhanced instruction tuning that helps gain a fundamental understanding of open-world understand-

ing. Wang et al. (2023) curate the IE INSTRUCTIONS benchmark containing expert-written instructions for diverse IE tasks and apply instruction-tuning for IE tasks. Finally, Lu et al. (2023) focus on *open-world entity profiling*, which is a sub-domain of open-world IE, and construct the INSTRUCTOPEN-WIKI benchmark for the task. They instruction-tune BLOOM to obtain a task-specialised model named PIVOINE.

## 3 IE-specialised LLMs

**Preliminaries** Instruction tuning is a supervised fine-tuning (SFT) method in which LLMs are trained on datasets containing human-readable task instructions alongside input-output examples to guide the outputs of LLMs. Each training datapoint,  $d = \langle \text{instruction}, \text{input}, \text{output} \rangle$ , in the dataset  $D$  consists of: (i) an explicit instruction describing the task to be performed; (ii) the corresponding input data; and (iii) the desired output in a defined format.

Unlike standard SFT, which fine-tunes a model on input-output pairs for a specific task without explicit instructions, instruction-tuning conditions the model on natural language task descriptions. This enables better generalisation to unseen domains for the same task (Zhou et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b).

Several instruction-tuned LLMs have recently been developed to improve IE performance across diverse domains. We introduce these models (*specialised LLMs for IE*, henceforth ‘IE s-LLMs’ or simply ‘s-LLMs’) with some discussion of how the approaches vary the basic instruction fine-tuning problem framing.

**IEPile** (Gui et al., 2024b)<sup>6</sup> proposed a schema-based instruction-tuning, where a schema defines the information to be modelled and extracted, such as entity types, relations, events, etc. This method involves *hard-negative schema construction* and *batched instruction generation*. The schemas are defined as positive (relevant types) and negative (non-relevant types), where negative types can be considered as a kind of “negative” case from a machine learning perspective; the model should not make predictions for this type. To control the complexity of each instruction, the method applies a batching strategy that limits the number of schemas included per instruction using a tunable hyperparameter. The IEPile model training specifically

<sup>6</sup><https://github.com/zjunlp/IEPile>

chooses *hard negatives*, labels that are easily confused with positive (i.e., relevant) labels. At inference time, the union set of all schema types across dataset  $D$  is presented for prediction.

For instruction-tuning, the IEPile benchmark is constructed from a bilingual dataset  $D$  that comprises 26 English and 7 Chinese datasets. The dataset spans 3 different tasks: NER, RE, and EE, as exemplified by the datasets ConLL2004 (Carreras and Márquez, 2004), FabNER (Kumar and Starly, 2022), and BC5CDR (Li et al., 2016), respectively. As a result, the instruction will differ for these datasets, with content specific to each of the task descriptions.

**UniNER** (Zhou et al., 2024)<sup>7</sup> is a framework that uses ChatGPT for knowledge distillation to generate instruction-tuning data for the NER task. It uses broad-coverage, unlabeled web text and distills this information into an instruction-tuned model built on an open-source LLM (LLaMA), resulting in the UniversalNER models.

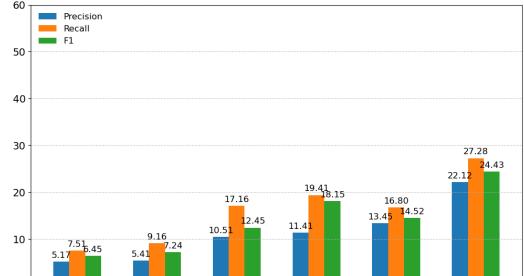
Unlike traditional NER, which frames the task as entity detection, UniNER reformulates it as a question-answering (QA) task. The model input is a question about what entity is present in the accompanying text (e.g., What describes  $t_1$  in the text?), and the output is the corresponding entity span. These QA pairs are generated using GPT, which is prompted to answer such questions based on given texts. The responses are collected as “conversation” transcripts and subsequently segmented into QA tuples  $t$ , forming a training dataset for instruction tuning. In data construction, they apply *negative sampling* where non-relevant entity types are included in the dataset. This process creates a distilled dataset suitable for fine-tuning LLaMA-2 (Touvron et al., 2023), resulting in instruction-tuned models that generalise well across domains.

Additionally, the authors introduce a benchmark dataset  $D$  consisting of 43 datasets from a wide range of domains, including biomedicine, law, and finance, to evaluate models.

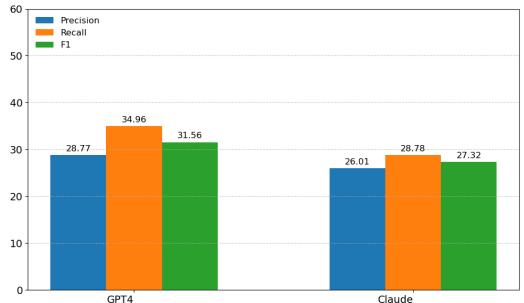
**YAYI-UIE** (Xiao et al., 2024)<sup>8</sup> is an instruction-tuning framework that consists of two steps: (i) instruction-tuning for chat, where an open-source dialogue data with instructions and a self-constructed corpus is used to train a chat-enhanced language model to gain a fundamental understand-

<sup>7</sup>[github.com/universal-ner/universal-ner](https://github.com/universal-ner/universal-ner)

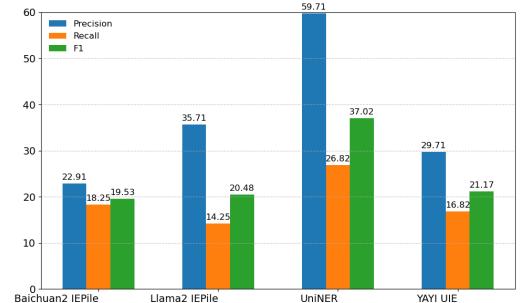
<sup>8</sup>[huggingface.co/wenge-research/yayi-uie](https://huggingface.co/wenge-research/yayi-uie)



(a) Open-source LLMs



(b) Proprietary LLMs



(c) s-LLMs

Figure 1: Zero-shot performance comparison of open-source, proprietary, and IE s-LLMs on the SciERC dataset.

ing of open-world language and enhance Chinese language capabilities. A key step in the chat-based training is to filter low-quality samples, such as meaningless, incomplete, sensitive, or duplicate samples; (ii) instruction-tuning for IE, where the chat-based model is used to tune for IE tasks with a benchmark dataset. The benchmark  $D$  includes a combined dataset of 16 Chinese IE datasets and the InstructUIE benchmark (Wang et al., 2023) for IE instruction-tuning, spanning data from diverse sources such as finance, politics, and security.

Statistical details of scientific datasets used in instruction-tuning of IE (s-LLMs) are given in Appendix A.4 in Table 6.

Method	SciERC		Stem-ECR		MeasEval		WLPC	
	Zero-shot	Few-shot	Zero-shot	Few-shot	Zero-shot	Few-shot	Zero-shot	Few-shot
<i>Proprietary LLMs</i>								
GPT-4	31.56	41.12	21.39	<b>35.59</b>	15.67	24.47	52.95	<b>59.16</b>
Claude 3.5 Sonnet	27.32	34.19	21.70	34.06	14.70	22.47	36.21	41.05
<i>Open-source LLMs</i>								
Baichuan2	6.45	11.56	8.18	14.12	12.48	16.18	6.75	14.10
Llama2 7B	7.24	13.20	9.47	15.01	11.18	18.14	10.67	19.78
Llama2 13B	12.45	22.38	10.52	19.42	11.36	19.21	12.44	21.45
Llama2 70B	18.12	26.89	12.89	20.17	12.45	20.56	15.74	22.49
Llama3.1 8B	14.52	24.80	10.14	20.17	11.72	20.10	9.32	19.17
Llama3.1 70B	24.43	29.45	14.73	21.45	12.14	21.49	18.42	25.19
<i>IE s-LLMs</i>								
Baichuan2-IEPile	19.53	32.15	15.22	23.10	16.78	26.32	28.79	35.17
Llama2-IEPile	20.48	18.49	18.49	25.42	24.18	29.12	30.40	36.56
UniNER-7B	<u>37.01</u>	<b>46.43</b>	17.26	24.37	11.29	19.47	30.13	35.49
YAYI-UIE	22.55	35.19	<u>25.89</u>	32.17	<u>24.62</u>	<b>30.15</b>	33.13	37.10

Table 1: Zero-shot and few-shot (1-shot) performance on NER datasets (of note, SciERC is in-domain for the three s-LLMs (IEPile, UniNER and YAYI-UIE); the other datasets are out-of-domain). The best zero-shot results for each dataset are underlined, and the best few-shot results for each dataset are **boldfaced**.

## 4 Results and Analyses

We design our experiments to evaluate the performance of s-LLMs on the scientific NER task<sup>9</sup>. Our goal is threefold: (1) evaluation of zero-shot and few-shot (1-shot) capabilities of s-LLMs against their open-source (vanilla) counterparts and proprietary LLMs; (2) comparison of continual fine-tuning (in-domain) of s-LLMs’ performance against their open-source counterparts’ fine-tuning; and (3) exploration of the generalisability of in-domain adapted models to a specific dataset to other scientific datasets. Finally, we present experimental results on the general domain to compare them with findings from the scientific domain.

### 4.1 Experiments in Zero-shot and Few-shot Settings for Scientific Domain

Our first experiment focuses on examining whether the entity extraction capability learned by s-LLMs is transferable across scientific domain datasets under zero-shot and few-shot settings (**RQ1**). Table 1 reports performance across datasets. Of these, only **SciERC** was used during the instruction-tuning of the s-LLMs and is thus considered the *in-domain* (seen in training) dataset (see Table 6)<sup>10</sup>. The remaining datasets (STEM-ECR, MeasEval and WLPC) are *out-of-domain* (unseen in training), representing unseen entity type sets (covariate shift)

and datasets.

Table 1 enables direct comparison across the prior work for the first time. Here, our results include results for open-source and proprietary LLMs that are state-of-the-art at the time of writing.

To begin with, as expected, we note that proprietary LLMs (GPT-4 and Claude 3.5 Sonnet) stand out as strong baselines across the board. Their performance is particularly impressive given the presumed absence of task-specific fine-tuning. Their effectiveness is the best/second-highest performance on most datasets. This demonstrates their ability to generalise across interpretable entity types (e.g., SciERC: *Material, Method, Metric, ...*; STEM-ECR: *Data, Material, ...*; WLPC: *Ph, Size, Action, ...*). However, our aim in this paper is to explore the best methods to obtain alternatives to these cloud-based models, which may be locally hosted by an organisation (particularly if they are responsible for sensitive data). We thus turn our focus to open-source LLMs.

In general, we find that zero-shot inference from IE s-LLMs is better than using open-source LLMs without any task specialisation. For SciERC, UniNER-7B (based on Llama2-7B) achieves a higher F<sub>1</sub> score than both open-source and proprietary LLMs. This demonstrates the benefit of task-specific instruction-tuning. Note that the SciERC dataset is used for the NER task in the UniNER model, whereas it is used as the RE dataset for the IEPile (based on Llama2-13B & Baichuan2-13B)

<sup>9</sup>Experimental settings are given in Appendix A.

<sup>10</sup>Results on it are not strictly zero-shot.

and YAYI-UIE (based on Baichuan2-13B) models (see Table 6). Indeed, the s-LLMs, UniNER-7B and YAYI-UIE, generally outperform the proprietary models for all the datasets except WLPC (which includes text from technical documentation instead of scientific publications), which is particularly interesting given the generally smaller parameter size of s-LLMs compared to GPT-4 and Claude 3.5 Sonnet. However, we note that the margin only has a maximum difference of approximately 9  $F_1$  points in the case of MeasEval (YAYI-UIE vs GPT-4). In a few-shot setting (1-shot), all models (open-source, proprietary and s-LLMs) benefit from ICL examples, leading to performance gains over zero-shot baselines. Excluding proprietary LLMs, the trend remains consistent. s-LLMs outperform their open-source(vanilla) counterparts.

To understand why s-LLMs exhibit performance gains, we analyse the precision and recall metrics for the models (open-source, proprietary and s-LLMs), presented in Figure 1. This figure presents a comparative analysis of zero-shot performance on the SciERC dataset. Notably, the s-LLMs lead to increased precision, at the expense of recall. In the case of the UniNER approach, the precision gains strongly outweigh any drop in recall. This indicates that targeted training on IE tasks enhances the models’ ability to identify relevant entities with greater accuracy. Additionally, these models tend to be relatively conservative and precise in their positive predictions, though they may miss some relevant instances.

In conclusion, while s-LLMs benefit from fine-tuning, they still face generalisation challenges in scientific domains (i.e., the low recall). Moreover, although the s-LLMs are competitive against proprietary LLMs, the performance gap remains narrow in some cases, underscoring the need for further advancements in training and fine-tuning strategies to improve robustness. As a result, we turn our attention to the continued fine-tuning of the IE capability of both open-source LLMs and IE s-LLMs for supervised domain adaptation.

## 4.2 On the Benefits of Continual In-domain Fine-tuning for Scientific Writing

The results from the previous section show that IE s-LLMs remain competitive against proprietary LLMs under zero-shot and few-shot settings. However, despite their strengths, a performance gap remains compared to SFT models in scientific domain datasets, indicating that there is still room for

further improvement.

In this section, we ask: does continual in-domain tuning on the *target* dataset lead to additional performance gains, or do IE s-LLMs already reach peak performance on scientific datasets through their general instruction-tuning? (**RQ2**) In the context of our motivation in Section 1, one might consider how further fine-tuning of a local model on a sensitive or private dataset might improve results.

Following prior work (Zhou et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b), we refer to this addition as continual in-domain fine-tuning, a next step after instruction-tuning that further adapts the model to a specific dataset and denote this in our results tables as SFT (for supervised fine-tuning).

To explore the impact of continual in-domain fine-tuning, we fine-tune both open-source (vanilla) LLMs and IE s-LLMs using the training sets of the scientific datasets (Appendix A.4). Table 2 presents the results of the SFT regime compared to zero-shot performance, alongside GPT-4 (zero-shot) and BERT-base (fine-tuned) as baselines; BERT-base represents the task-specific supervised models commonly used across studies in the literature (Xiao et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024; Gui et al., 2024b). The table shows that all SFT models improve significantly on all datasets compared to their untuned counterparts. Notably, they outperform GPT-4 in zero-shot settings by a considerable margin. For example, for the STEM-ECR dataset, the difference is over 55  $F_1$  points, demonstrating clearly that fine-tuning is still a preferred approach in the presence of annotated training data.

The results demonstrate that in-domain fine-tuning on a specific dataset helps, whether this is the original open-source LLMs or the s-LLMs. However, performance gains from in-domain fine-tuning are greater when starting with IE s-LLMs, indicating learning from the multiple datasets used in the s-LLMs training is transferable, demonstrating the benefits of instruction tuning and subsequent in-domain optimisation. Among the in-domain fine-tuned models, the YAYI-UIE model achieves the highest Micro  $F_1$  score among the SFT models across all datasets, showing its strong performance in NER. This reflects its ability to handle diverse scientific NER tasks, possibly related to its larger benchmark datasets covering a wide range of IE tasks and domains in instruction tuning. YAYI-UIE differs from other methods (UniNER and IEPile) in that dialogue data is used to perform general instruction tuning to train a chat-enhanced

SciERC			STEM-ECR		MeasEval		WLPC	
Model	Zero-shot	SFT	Zero-shot	SFT	Zero-shot	SFT	Zero-shot	SFT
<i>Open-source LLMs</i>								
Baichuan2	6.45	52.18	8.18	51.08	12.48	48.47	6.75	35.23
Llama2 7B	7.24	53.14	9.47	50.98	11.18	52.78	10.67	39.56
Llama2 13B	12.45	55.45	10.52	57.14	11.36	54.10	12.44	42.21
Llama2 70B	15.12	56.48	12.89	59.24	12.45	53.18	15.74	45.40
Llama3.1 8B	14.52	56.20	10.14	56.74	11.72	54.10	9.32	43.18
Llama3.1 70B	24.43	55.26	14.73	58.31	12.14	52.85	18.42	46.12
<i>LLMs optimised for IE tasks</i>								
Baichuan2-IEPile	19.53	73.18	15.22	75.12	16.78	59.14	28.79	60.19
Llama2-IEPile	20.48	76.08	18.49	78.17	24.18	64.10	30.40	62.58
UniNER-7B	37.01	78.41	17.26	79.02	11.29	66.18	30.13	60.45
YAYI-UIE	21.17	<b>80.47</b>	<u>25.89</u>	<b>82.52</b>	<u>24.62</u>	<b>69.71</b>	33.13	<b>64.17</b>
BERT-base	-	62.81 $\pm$ 0.85	-	68.17 $\pm$ 0.76	-	55.43 $\pm$ 1.15	-	39.52 $\pm$ 0.52
GPT-4	31.56	-	21.39	-	15.67	-	<u>52.95</u>	-

Table 2: Strict Micro F<sub>1</sub> on NER datasets for zero-shot and SFT settings. The best zero-shot results for each dataset are underlined, and the best SFT results for each dataset are **boldfaced**.

model using a dialogue corpus in both English and Chinese instead of using an instruction model.

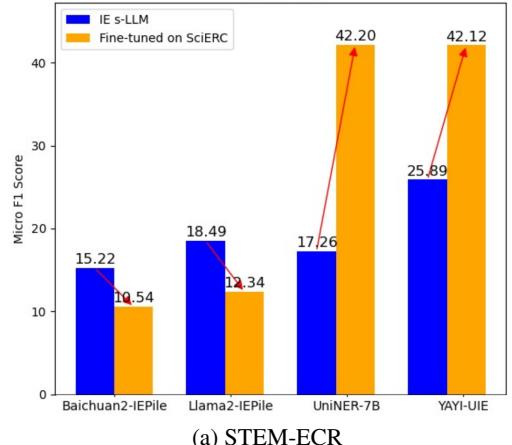
Of note, SFT appears somewhat ineffective for base open-source LLMs. Specifically, the BERT baseline yielded higher effectiveness on most datasets. While IE s-LLMs achieved the best performance among all SFT models, this comes at a cost. These models require extensive data resources for training (YAYI-UIE: 49 datasets, IEPile: 33 datasets, and UniNER: 43 datasets) and significant computational resources for instruction-tuning and supervised fine-tuning compared to fine-tuning PLMs for the NER task. The model complexity alone can limit their accessibility and scalability for researchers or practitioners with resource constraints.

This highlights a fundamental trade-off between effectiveness and efficiency: IE s-LLMs deliver state-of-the-art performance but with higher training and inference cost, while smaller models like BERT offer a practical balance of accuracy and affordability.

In summary, continual fine-tuning remains critical for achieving optimal performance in scientific IE. When paired with general instruction tuning, this two-stage process supports both generalisability and domain specialisation (dataset adaptation), enabling robust and adaptable solutions for real-world applications.

### 4.3 Generalisability of Fine-tuned s-LLMs

To assess whether the continual in-domain fine-tuning also leads to generalisable models (to other scientific datasets), we take the IE s-LLM models



(a) STEM-ECR

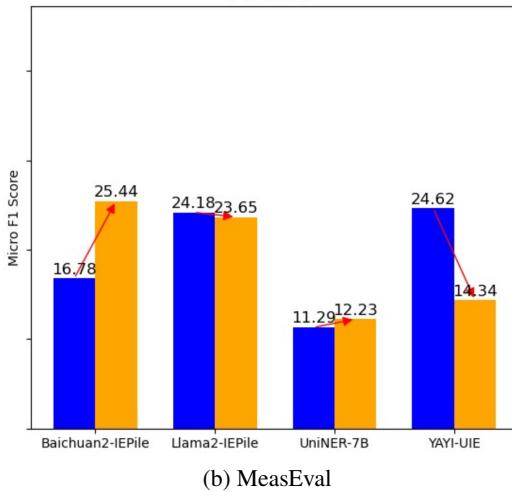


Figure 2: Strict Micro F<sub>1</sub> on NER datasets obtained from IE s-LLMs and fine-tuned on the SciERC dataset.

obtained by continual fine-tuning on the SciERC dataset (X-SciERC) and use these models for zero-shot inference on the MeasEval and STEM-

ECR datasets. We choose the SciERC dataset because there is an entity type overlap with the STEM-ECR dataset ('Material', 'Method'), but not with the MeasEval dataset. The results are presented in Figure 2.

The findings indicate that IEPile models fine-tuned in-domain on the SciERC dataset (X-IEPile-SciERC) exhibit lower performance on the STEM-ECR dataset, while the UniNER and YAYI-UIE models demonstrate improved performance. The reason behind this might be the knowledge distillation used in the instruction-tuning of UniNER and the larger benchmark used in the tuning of YAYI-UIE and UniNER models. For the MeasEval dataset, the UniNER-7B-SciERC model provides a slight improvement, and Baichuan2-IEPile-SciERC outperforms the zero-shot Baichuan2-IEPile. In contrast, the continually trained YAYI-UIE model yields a performance drop.

From these results, we conclude that the general applicability of the model depends on how close the out-of-domain data is to the data used for continual training. As the SciERC and STEM-ECR entity types share some overlap (being about general concepts relating to the scientific method), we observe better cross-domain effectiveness in UniNER and YAYI-UIE models. In contrast, for the MeasEval dataset, given its particular focus on quantitative measurements, we see no meaningful improvements stemming from out-of-domain training, and, in one case (the YAYI-UIE model), we actually observe a marked performance drop.

#### 4.4 General Domain Evaluation

To assess the generalisability of our findings to domains beyond scientific information extraction, we evaluated s-LLMs using the CrossNER (Liu et al., 2021) and CoNLL2003 (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) datasets (statistical details are provided in Table 5). CoNLL2003 is used for in-domain and CrossNER is used for out-of-domain, as outlined by Wang et al. (2023); Zhou et al. (2024).

As shown in Table 3, s-LLMs outperform their open-source (vanilla) counterparts on the in-domain dataset (CoNLL2003). However, GPT-4 (a proprietary LLM) outperforms these models on the CrossNER dataset. This performance gap may be related to two possible factors: (i) the model's undisclosed pretraining data, which may include

broader coverage of domains or overlap with similar data; and (ii) a similar trend observed in scientific domain evaluations (Section 4.1), where s-LLMs struggle with generalisation to unseen datasets.

These findings show a key limitation of s-LLMs: instruction-tuning improves performance within domains present in the instruction-tuning data; however, it does not guarantee robustness to domain shifts. In contrast, large-scale proprietary LLMs like GPT-4 benefit from diverse pretraining data or emergent generalisation capabilities (although these are difficult to verify given the lack of transparency around the training data and regime).

Model	CoNLL2003	AI	Literature	Music	Politics	Science
<i>Proprietary LLMs</i>						
GPT-4	68.68	<b>61.95</b>	52.32	<b>70.79</b>	63.99	62.66
Claude 3.5 Sonnet	55.10	32.78	30.18	43.52	45.37	47.12
<i>Open-source LLMs</i>						
Baichuan2	20.50	4.17	12.14	16.89	20.47	8.52
Llama2 7B	17.06	5.19	13.87	17.42	11.96	9.24
Llama2 13B	33.47	13.92	28.92	33.96	36.97	23.85
Llama2 70B	43.39	39.10	40.67	49.30	53.49	39.50
Llama3.1 8B	62.48	40.12	42.17	48.82	30.15	45.12
Llama3.1 70B	70.47	51.42	56.08	64.02	38.34	52.49
<i>IE s-LLMs</i>						
Baichuan2-IEPile	70.41	56.12	50.52	59.18	53.17	55.10
Llama2-IEPile	72.40	53.47	62.15	58.72	55.67	57.68
UniNER-7B	<b>81.14</b>	60.25	<b>62.98</b>	66.35	<b>65.30</b>	<b>69.23</b>
YAYI-UIE	78.18	51.60	43.38	61.46	47.43	48.45

Table 3: Zero-shot performance on general domain NER datasets (CoNLL2003 is in-domain; CrossNER is out-of-domain). The best results are **boldfaced**.

#### 4.5 Practical Recommendations

Based on our evaluation of s-LLMs compared to proprietary and open-source LLMs for the scientific domain, we make the following recommendations for practitioners, especially those working in privacy-sensitive or resource-constrained environments in the domain of scientific literature information extraction:

1. **Domain adaptation as a solution for local (open-source) models.** For open-source LLMs, task adaptation (instruction-tuning) is required to enhance the task-specific zero- and few-shot generalisation capabilities of LLMs; i.e., open-source models without it perform poorly, perhaps too poorly for prototyping.
2. **s-LLMs as a starting point for dataset adaptation.** For in-domain adaptation in the scientific domain, starting with an s-LLM that has already adapted to the task yields stronger performance. The prior multi-task training often provides a useful foundation that can

be transferred across domains. On the flip-side, direct instruction tuning of a base open-source model provides limited value (or requires much more training data, see below).

- 3. YAYI-UIE demonstrates the best overall performance and generalisation across s-LLMs.** Among s-LLMs, YAYI-UIE achieves the highest and most consistent results after continual in-domain fine-tuning, making it a strong choice for scientific IE applications.
- 4. Task adaptation with a larger benchmark.** Gathering in-domain training data and using it for instruction-tuning is still the most effective way of task adaptation. For LLMs, instruction-tuning for task adaptation appears to require a prior step (instruction tuning), as direct in-domain fine-tuning vanilla open-source LLMs appears to yield subpar results.
- 5. Smaller PLMs remain viable cost-effective alternatives.** Although s-LLMs offer improved performance, smaller PLMs like BERT can still provide competitive results, if in-domain training data can be sourced. Their lower computational demands make them practical options for projects with limited resources.

## 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we investigate instruction-tuned IE specialised LLMs (s-LLMs), specifically focusing on their performance in scientific entity extraction compared to open-source and proprietary LLMs. The experimental results show that s-LLMs perform better than their open-source (vanilla) counterparts, showing that instruction-tuning benefits in task-adaptation. However, s-LLMs still face a generalisation problem in the scientific domain. Continual in-domain fine-tuning of IE s-LLMs leads to the best results, particularly for specific scientific datasets of interest. In our experiments, these models outperformed proprietary ones by up to an order of magnitude, achieving over 55  $F_1$  points in zero-shot and 20  $F_1$  points in few-shot settings.

We also observe that models like YAYI-UIE perform well across a variety of datasets, highlighting their adaptability to unseen datasets in zero-shot and few-shot settings. However, the choice of s-LLM and its suitability for a given dataset remains a hyperparameter defined in the study. Despite the success of s-LLMs, PLMs (BERT) continue to offer competitive and cost-effective alternatives for NER, particularly when in-domain train data is

available, often outperforming open-source LLMS in-domain tuned directly for specific tasks.

This work highlights the strengths and weaknesses of s-LLMs in scientific NER and provides a comparative analysis across zero-shot, few-shot and fine-tuned settings. However, our study is limited in scope: we focused exclusively on sentence-level NER within the scientific domain and relied on publicly available s-LLMs without modifications. As such, the performance and limitations of these models inherently constrain our findings. Additionally, due to resource limitations, we did not evaluate large proprietary LLMs such as GPT-4 or Claude under fine-tuned conditions. We also did not explore the problem of catastrophic forgetting in s-LLMs, which is important to understand how well these models retain knowledge and problem-solving skills learned from previous tasks.

Future work will extend this evaluation to other IE tasks such as relation and event extraction, and investigate how combining the strengths of different s-LLMs (e.g., UniNER’s strong zero-shot performance vs. YAYI-UIE’s fine-tuning responsiveness) can lead to more robust pipelines. Expanding the diversity and number of datasets may also help in identifying better general-purpose starting points for scientific information extraction.

## Limitations

Our study is centred exclusively on the sentence-level Named Entity Recognition (NER) task. Specifically, we concentrate on the scientific domain, which may require further exploration to apply our findings to other domains. Additionally, due to resource constraints, we were unable to fine-tune large language models with more parameters (e.g., GPT-4, Claude). We use the IE s-LLMs provided by the papers. The limitations derived from these models are also limitations of our study.

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## A Experiments

### A.1 Baseline Models

We compare the s-LLMs against two categories of foundation LLMs:

- Proprietary LLMs:** We use GPT4 (GPT-4o) (Achiam et al., 2023) and Claude (Claude 3-5 Sonnet) (Anthropic, 2024).
- Open-source base LLMs:** We include the open-source (vanilla) counterparts of s-LLMs in our evaluation, including Baichuan2 (Baichuan2-7B-Chat) (Yang et al., 2023), and Llama (Llama2-7B-Chat, Llama2-13B-Chat, Llama2-70B-Chat, Llama-3.1-8B-Instruct, and Llama-3.1-70B-Instruct) (Touvron et al., 2023).

In addition, we also compare the performance of LLMs against a fine-tuned **PLM**, i.e., BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) (BERT-base), which consists of an encoder and a span-based classifier on top of the encoder (Zhong and Chen, 2021).

## A.2 Evaluation Metrics

We follow prior studies (Lu et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2020) and use strict entity-level micro- $F_1$  as our evaluation metric, where both the entity boundary and entity type must be correctly predicted.

## A.3 Training Environment

We use NVIDIA H100 GPUs for inference and fine-tuning of open-source LLMs and s-LLMs. Our experiments are conducted on a node with two NVIDIA H100 GPUs.

## A.4 Datasets

### A.4.1 Scientific Domain Datasets

We use four sentence-level datasets, each with a slightly different focus for scientific IE:

1. **MeasEval**<sup>11</sup> (Harper et al., 2021) is a dataset collected from scientific documents from 10 different domains (e.g., agriculture, chemistry and materials science), annotated for four entity types: Quantity, Measured Property, Measured Entity, Qualifier.
2. **SciERC**<sup>12</sup> (Luan et al., 2018) is a dataset collected from the Artificial Intelligence (AI) domain, describing general AI, NLP, Speech Recognition (SR), Machine Learning (ML), and Computer Vision (CV). The entity types: Generic, Material, Method, Metric, OtherScientificTerm and Task.
3. **STEM-ECR**<sup>13</sup> (D’Souza et al., 2020) is a dataset containing scientific abstracts annotated at the sentence-level, covering ten domains (e.g., agriculture and astronomy). Entity types are Material, Data, Process and Method<sup>14</sup>.
4. **WLPC**<sup>15</sup> (Kulkarni et al., 2018) is a dataset of technical writing (as opposed to peer-reviewed scientific publications) collected from wet lab protocols for biology and chemistry experiments, providing entity, relation, and event annotations.

The descriptive statistics of all four datasets are listed in Table 4.

<sup>11</sup><https://github.com/harperco/MeasEval>

<sup>12</sup><http://nlp.cs.washington.edu/sciIE>

<sup>13</sup><https://data.uni-hannover.de/dataset/stem-ecr-v1-0>

<sup>14</sup>Although originally there are 7 entity types, we follow previous work (D’Souza et al., 2020) and leave Task, Object, and Results entity types out.

<sup>15</sup><https://github.com/chaitanya2334/WLP-Dataset>

Data Split	MeasEval	SciERC	STEM-ECR	WLPC
# Train	542	1,861	942	8,581
# Dev	155	275	118	2,589
# Test	294	551	118	2,861
# Sentences	991	2,687	1,178	14,301
# Word Count	34,779	65,334	25,968	181,908
# Unique Entity Types	4	6	4	18

Table 4: Statistical details of datasets. “#” denotes the number of samples in the specific dataset.

**Characteristics of Datasets** We note that the first three of the datasets focus on text found in scientific publications, though the scope of the entity detection may be different. For example, the MeasEval dataset focuses on the general concept of quantitative measurements in empirical investigations (e.g., Measured Property). SciERC and STEM-ECR include a combination of specific concepts from the science disciplines as well as general concepts from the scientific method (e.g., Material, Method), although the publication set of SciERC is narrower than that of STEM-ECR. Finally, the WLPC dataset focuses on experimental reports with entity types that differ from the other datasets (given the physical experiment focus), including measure-based (e.g., Numerical, Generic-Measure, Size, Ph, Measure-Type) and science discipline-specific object entities (e.g., Action, Amount, Location).

Of these datasets, only the SciERC was used in the instruction fine-tuning steps for the three models, as the NER task for the UniNER model and the RE task for the IEPile and YAYI-UIE models (Table 6). That is, the data points for the entities and entity types of MeasEval, STEM-ECR, and WLPC datasets were **not seen** during the initial instruction fine-tuning of the s-LLMs.

### A.4.2 General Domain Datasets

The descriptive statistics of general domain datasets are given in Table 5.

Dataset	Domain	Type	# Test
CrossNER Politics	Political	9	650
CrossNER Literature	Literary	12	416
CrossNE Music	Musical	13	465
CrossNER AI	AI	14	431
CrossNER Science	Scientific	17	543
CoNLL2003	News	4	3,453

Table 5: The statistical details of the CrossNER dataset. “#” denotes the number of samples in the specific dataset.

Model	Base LLM	Dataset	# Entity Type
IEPile	Llama2-13B & Baichuan2-13B	FabNER (NER) ( <a href="#">Kumar and Starly, 2022</a> )	12
		SciERC (RE) ( <a href="#">Luan et al., 2018</a> )	4
		SemEval (RE) ( <a href="#">Hendrickx et al., 2010</a> )	-
UniNER-7B	Llama2-7B	WLP ( <a href="#">Kulkarni et al., 2018</a> )	16
		SoMeSci ( <a href="#">Schindler et al., 2021</a> )	14
		SciREX ( <a href="#">Jain et al., 2020</a> )	4
		SciERC ( <a href="#">Luan et al., 2018</a> )	4
		SOFC ( <a href="#">Friedrich et al., 2020</a> )	3
		FabNER ( <a href="#">Kumar and Starly, 2022</a> )	12
		DEAL ( <a href="#">Grezes et al., 2022</a> )	30
YAYI-UIE	Baichuan2-13B	FabNER (NER) ( <a href="#">Kumar and Starly, 2022</a> )	12
		SciERC (RE)	4

Table 6: Statistical details of scientific datasets used in instruction-tuning of IE s-LLMs. “#” denotes the number of entity types in the entity type set. Details are from [Zhou et al. \(2024\)](#).

#### A.4.3 Benchmark Datasets

Statistical details of scientific datasets used in instruction-tuning of IE (s-LLMs) are given in Table 6. You can find the complete list of datasets in the respective original papers.

#### A.5 Models and Fine-tuning

For further supervised fine-tuning (SFT) experiments, we use IE s-LLMs (UniNER, IEPile, YAYI-UIE), which are open-source LLMs instruction-tuned for IE tasks and open-source LLMs. Specifically, we employ LoRA ([Hu et al., 2022](#)) for parameter-efficient fine-tuning. We follow the previous works for the hyperparameters of SFT ([Gui et al., 2024b; Zhou et al., 2024](#)). We set the LoRA rank and alpha parameters to 16 and 32, respectively. The dropout ratio is set to 0.05. The learning rate is set to 5e-5. We limit the input source length to 400 and the target length to 512. The training epoch size is 10, and the batch size is 2.

Baseline BERT-base PLM is fine-tuned utilising the Hugging Face<sup>16</sup> ([Wolf et al., 2020](#)) library. The hyperparameters used in the fine-tuning PLM are the batch size of 32, the max length of 128, the learning rate of 1e-5, and 15 epochs of training.

#### A.6 Zero-Shot and Few-Shot Settings

We conduct zero-shot and few-shot experiments on open-source and proprietary LLMs using the NER prompt of EasyInstruct<sup>17</sup> ([Ou et al., 2023](#)). We use random sampling for a few-shot setting, where

we select 1 sample from the train set. We set the temperature to 0.0 for results with less variability and set the top probability to 0.95. We use the original prompt templates used in the training of the respective IE s-LLMs in the experiments with these models to align with the setup of the respective NER-specific training regimes.

**Prompts** We follow EasyInstruct ([Ou et al., 2023](#)) in our experiments for open-source and proprietary LLMs. For each dataset, we use its defined entity types and samples (text) from the test set.

#### IEPile:

```
User: You are an expert in named entity
recognition. Please extract
entities that match the schema
definition from the input. Return
an empty list if the entity type
does not exist. Please respond in
the format of a JSON string.,
schema: {entity_types}, input: {
Text}
```

#### UniNER:

```
User: Text: {Text}
Assistant: I've read this text.
User: What describes {entity_type} in
the text?
```

#### YAYI-UIE:

```
User: Text: {Text}
From the given text, extract all the
entities and types. Please format
the answer in JSON {{', '.join(
entity_types)}}: [entities]}
```

#### General:

<sup>16</sup><https://huggingface.co>

<sup>17</sup><https://github.com/zjunlp/EasyInstruct>

User: You are a highly intelligent and accurate {domain} domain Named-entity recognition(NER) system. You take Passage as input and your task is to recognize and extract specific types of {domain} domain named entities in that given passage and classify into a set of following predefined entity types:  
{entity\_types}  
our output format is only [{}'E': type of entity from predefined entity types, 'W': entity in the input text},...] form, no other form.  
Input: {Text}