

Negation and uncertainty detection in clinical texts written in Spanish: a deep learning-based approach

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Detecting negation and uncertainty is crucial for medical text mining applications; otherwise, extracted information can be incorrectly identified as real or factual events. Although several approaches have been proposed to detect negation and uncertainty in clinical texts, most efforts have focused on the English language. Most proposals developed for Spanish have focused mainly on negation detection and do not deal with uncertainty. In this paper, we propose a deep learning-based approach for both negation and uncertainty detection in clinical texts written in Spanish. The proposed approach explores two deep learning methods to achieve this goal: i) Bidirectional Long-Short Term Memory with a Conditional Random Field layer (BiLSTM-CRF) and ii) Bidirectional Encoder Representation for Transformers (BERT). The approach was evaluated using NUBES and IULA, two public corpora for the Spanish language. The results obtained showed an F-score of 92% and 80% in the scope recognition task for negation and uncertainty, respectively. We also present the results of a validation process conducted using a real-life annotated dataset from clinical notes belonging to cancer patients. The proposed approach shows the feasibility of deep learning-based methods to detect negation and uncertainty in Spanish clinical texts. Experiments also highlighted that this approach improves performance in the scope recognition task compared to other proposals in the biomedical domain.

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ABSTRACT

Detecting negation and uncertainty is crucial for medical text mining applications; otherwise, extracted information can be incorrectly identified as real or factual events. Although several approaches have been proposed to detect negation and uncertainty in clinical texts, most efforts have focused on the English language. Most proposals developed for Spanish have focused mainly on negation detection and do not deal with uncertainty. In this paper, we propose a deep learning-based approach for both negation and uncertainty detection in clinical texts written in Spanish. The proposed approach explores two deep learning methods to achieve this goal: i) Bidirectional Long-Short Term Memory with a Conditional Random Field layer (BiLSTM-CRF) and ii) Bidirectional Encoder Representation for Transformers (BERT). The approach was evaluated using NUBES and IULA, two public corpora for the Spanish language. The results obtained showed an F-score of 92% and 80% in the scope recognition task for negation and uncertainty, respectively. We also present the results of a validation process conducted using a real-life annotated dataset from clinical notes belonging to cancer patients. The proposed approach shows the feasibility of deep learning-based methods to detect negation and uncertainty in Spanish clinical texts. Experiments also highlighted that this approach improves performance in the scope recognition task compared to other proposals in the biomedical domain.

1 INTRODUCTION

Narrative medical records can provide valuable information to support clinical research, but frequently this information contains uncertain and negated findings (Vincze et al., 2008). Detecting negation and uncertainty is important for medical text mining applications because extracted findings can be incorrectly identified as real or factual events. However, due to the complexity of natural language, automatic identification of negated and uncertain events in clinical texts is not an easy task (Agarwal and Yu, 2010a,b). Moreover, clinical texts are written by highly skilled physicians and nurses using domain-specific terms, under time pressure, with a rich and complex jargon, which makes these texts differ from those of other domains (Dalianis, 2018).

Negation changes the meaning of an affirmative sentence, phrase, or word in a negative way. While uncertainty is used to describe ambiguous or suspected events where their truth value cannot be determined due to a lack of information (Jean et al., 2016; Szarvas et al., 2012b). In the medical field, it must be known whether the patient definitely suffers, probably suffers, or does not suffer from an illness (Vincze, 2014). In the sentence “A 74-year-old patient with suspected lung carcinoma.”, the truth value of the clinical finding “lung carcinoma” cannot be confirmed, as this finding is uncertain, suspicious, or speculative. Uncertainty detection has also been studied in terms of modality, and it involves related concepts such as subjectivity, hedging, and speculation (Morante and Sporleder, 2012; Cruz Díaz et al., 2012; Solarte

46 Pabón et al., 2021). Furthermore, uncertainty is inherent in many medical decisions, as physicians face
47 uncertain results when they are diagnosing or treating patients (Nikfarjam et al., 2014). The breadth and
48 complexity of possible diagnoses in medical practice make uncertainty very common in clinical narratives
49 (Alam et al., 2017; Bhise et al., 2018). Consequently, both negation and uncertainty detection are crucial
50 tasks for information extraction in the medical domain.

51 Negation and uncertainty detection is commonly divided into two sub-tasks: i) *cue identification*
52 and ii) *scope recognition*. Cues are words or terms that express negation (e.g., not, without, denies) or
53 uncertainty (e.g., possible, probable, suggest) (Cruz Díaz and Maña López, 2019). The scope is the text
54 fragment affected by the corresponding cue in a sentence (De Albornoz et al., 2012). In the sentence:
55 “**Probable** lung carcinoma with high fever since yesterday, biopsy test will be taken on 25-07-2018.”, the
56 cue is shown in bold and the scope is underlined.

57 The natural language processing (NLP) community has paid considerable attention to uncertainty
58 and negation detection (Farkas et al., 2010a; Morante and Blanco, 2012). Moreover, several corpora
59 annotated for negation and uncertainty have been proposed in the biomedical domain (Vincze et al.,
60 2008; Vincze, 2010; Uzuner et al., 2009). However, most of these proposals have focused on the English
61 language, while information extraction in the medical domain represents its own challenges in languages
62 other than English (Névéol et al., 2018). Most proposals developed for medical texts written in Spanish
63 (Santiso et al., 2018, 2020; Cotik et al., 2016; Costumero et al., 2014), have been focused only on negation
64 detection. Uncertainty detection for Spanish medical texts has not yet been sufficiently addressed and can
65 be improved.

66 Negation and uncertainty detection have been widely addressed using rule-based approaches (Chap-
67 man et al., 2001; Harkema et al., 2009; Kesterson et al., 2015), and classical machine learning-based
68 approaches (Cruz Díaz et al., 2012; Morante and Daelemans, 2009b; Jiménez-Zafra et al., 2021). Rule-
69 based methods can suffer from a lack of flexibility and universality (Zhou et al., 2018). While classical
70 machine learning methods depend on hand-crafted features, and they often require a complex and time-
71 consuming feature engineering process and analysis to obtain a good performance (Minaee et al., 2020).
72 Recently, deep learning approaches have been shown to improve performance at processing natural
73 language texts in several tasks such as named entity recognition (NER) (Lample et al., 2016), question
74 answering (Bordes et al., 2014), and language translation (Sutskever et al., 2014). One of the advantages
75 of deep learning approaches is they can automatically learn features from data, instead of adopting hand-
76 crafted features. Embedding models such as Word2Vec (Mikolov et al., 2013), Glove (Pennington et al.,
77 2014), and FastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017) have been popularly used in text processing applications.
78 These models also have been applied in the biomedical field (Wang et al., 2018; Soares et al., 2019).
79 Moreover, the development of contextual embeddings (Peters et al., 2018) and transformer-based models
80 (Devlin et al., 2019) have shown that such representations are able to improve performance on a wide
81 range of natural language processing tasks (Liu et al., 2020; Gu et al., 2020; Pires et al., 2019).

82
83 Motivated by improvements in deep learning methods to process natural language texts, in this
84 paper we propose an approach for negation and uncertainty detection in clinical texts written in Spanish.
85 This approach explores two deep learning methods to perform negation and uncertainty detection: i)
86 Bidirectional Long-Short Term Memory with a Conditional Random Field layer (BiLSTM-CRF) and ii)
87 Bidirectional Encoder Representation for Transformers (BERT). The proposed approach takes advantage
88 of transfer learning techniques to perform uncertainty and negation detection in clinical texts. Transfer
89 learning aims to transfer knowledge from pre-trained resources to improve the performance on a new
90 target task (Liu et al., 2019a; Peng et al., 2020; Ortiz Suarez et al., 2012; Panigrahi et al., 2021). In this
91 approach we exploit pre-trained resources such as word embeddings (Soares et al., 2019; Mikolov et al.,
92 2013) and contextualized embeddings (Devlin et al., 2019) to perform negation and uncertainty detection
93 as a sequence labeling task. The most significant contributions of this paper are:

- 94 • A deep learning-based approach for negation and uncertainty detection in clinical texts written
95 in Spanish. The main advantage of this approach is the use of word embeddings and contextual
96 embeddings to automatically represent text features, avoiding the time-consuming feature engineer-
97 ing process. In the Spanish language, most of the previous studies have focused only on negation
98 detection. Meanwhile, our approach goes further and in addition to negation, it also performs
99 uncertainty detection. Code developed in this approach is public accessible from GitHub¹.

¹<https://github.com/solarte7/NegationAndUncertainty>

- 100 • Exploiting transfer learning techniques to perform negation and uncertainty detection in Spanish
101 clinical texts. In particular, transfer learning exploitation is applied in two ways: i) Creating
102 pre-trained clinical embeddings and ii) Fine-tuning the BERT model. The generated clinical
103 embeddings improve the performance of the BiLSTM-CRF neural model for detecting uncertainty
104 and negation. Furthermore, the BERT model is fine-tuned with a classification layer on top. To the
105 best of our knowledge, this is the first approach that uses a transformer-based method to perform
106 both uncertainty and negation detection in clinical text written in Spanish.
- 107 • Improvement of performance in the scope recognition task, compared to other proposals in the
108 biomedical domain for the Spanish language. Results obtained with both BiLSTM-CRF and BERT
109 models have shown an improvement over other studies. Performed tests were evaluated using
110 NUBES (Lima Lopez et al., 2020) and IULA (Marimon et al., 2017), two public corpora for the
111 Spanish language. Obtained results in the scope recognition task have shown an F-score of 92%
112 and 80% for negation and uncertainty detection, respectively.
- 113 • Validation of the proposed approach with a real-life dataset which contains annotations of patients
114 diagnosed either with lung or breast cancer. To perform this validation, we used trained models
115 on the NUBES corpus (Lima Lopez et al., 2020) to predict negation and uncertainty in this new
116 dataset. The validation process shows the ability of deep learning-based models to predict negation
117 and uncertainty in a different dataset to the one they were trained on.

118 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 shows previous studies about uncertainty
119 and negation detection in the biomedical domain. In Section 3 datasets and proposed methods to perform
120 negation and uncertainty detection are described. Section 4 explains the experiments carried out to validate
121 our approach, and Section 5, provides a discussion of the results obtained. Finally, Section 6 includes
122 conclusions and future work.

123 2 RELATED WORKS

124 The high percentage of uncertain and negated sentences within clinical texts has motivated more research
125 on this field. In particular, 12% of the sentences contained in Medline abstracts are uncertain, and 20%
126 are negated (Vincze, 2014). Several annotated corpora have been proposed in the biomedical domain
127 (Vincze et al., 2008; Vincze, 2010; Uzuner et al., 2009). In the Bioscope corpus (Vincze et al., 2008), 18%
128 of the sentences contain uncertain findings (Szarvas et al., 2012a). Uncertainty and negation detection has
129 been commonly addressed by three approaches that we will review as follows: i) rule-based, ii) machine
130 learning-based, and iii) deep learning-based.

131 2.1 Rule-based approaches

132 Rule-based approaches use declarative methods for creating manually crafted rules that extract uncertain
133 and negated findings. One of the most widely used rule-based algorithm to detect negation in medical
134 records is NegEx (Chapman et al., 2001). This algorithm has been recognized as one of the most useful
135 approaches for the detection of negated medical concepts. However, several studies have been proposed
136 to improve NegEx's performance (Elazhary, 2017; Harkema et al., 2009; Kesterson et al., 2015). In
137 particular, the ConText algorithm (Harkema et al., 2009) extends NegEx for determining whether clinical
138 conditions mentioned in clinical reports are negated, hypothetical, historical, or experienced by someone
139 other than the patient. The proposal described in (Wu et al., 2011) also extends the NegEx algorithm
140 to detect uncertainty by adding a separate category of uncertainty terms. In Velupillai et al. (2014), the
141 authors proposed ConTextSwe, an adaptation of the ConText algorithm to Swedish. Several proposals
142 have also been presented to adapt the NegEx algorithm to Spanish (Costumero et al., 2014; Stricke et al.,
143 2015; Santamaria, 2019), but these proposals have only focused on negation detection.

144 The above-mentioned proposals use a similar approach to recognize the scope; that is the search for a
145 termination term in a lexicon which indicates the end of the scope. However, one disadvantage of this
146 approach occurs when the sentence does not contain any termination term. In these cases, the scope
147 recognition fails because all tokens in a sentence can be taken as the scope. In these cases, the scope
148 recognition fails because all tokens in a sentence can be taken as the scope. To deal with this problem,
149 other studies have included the use of syntactic properties of the sentence to extract the scope (Cotik et al.,
150 2016; Zhou et al., 2015; Peng et al., 2018). Although rule-based approaches have been widely used in

151 the biomedical domain, their main disadvantages are the large amount of time it takes to create rules
152 manually, and the lack of flexibility and universality (Zhou et al., 2018).

153 **2.2 Machine learning-based approaches**

154 In machine learning-based approaches, negation and uncertainty detection is formulated as a classification
155 problem where both cues and scope detection are considered as sequence labeling tasks. These approaches
156 commonly follow two steps: in the first step, hand-crafted features are extracted from documents and, in
157 the second step those features are trained into a classifier to perform predictions. Early machine learning-
158 based proposals deal only with recognizing negation and uncertainty at the sentence level (Clausen,
159 2010; Skeppstedt et al., 2016; Velupillai et al., 2011; Shaodian et al., 2016). In these cases, the complete
160 sentence is considered an uncertain or negated fact. However, it is necessary to identify what tokens in the
161 sentence are affected and which are not. One of the firsts machine learning proposals which deal with
162 scope recognition is described in Morante and Daelemans (2009b). This study uses four classifiers for
163 negation detection using approaches such as Support Vector Machines (SVM) and Conditional Random
164 Fields (CRF) (Lafferty et al., 2001). The approach was evaluated using the Bioscope corpus (Vincze
165 et al., 2008) and obtained an F1-score of 80.4% in the scope recognition task. In Morante and Daelemans
166 (2009a), the above proposal was extended to deal with uncertainty detection.

167 Another proposal for negation detection is described in Agarwal and Yu (2010a). In this work,
168 negation cues and their scope are detected in clinical notes and biological literature using CRF as a
169 machine learning algorithm. With the goal of detecting both negation and uncertainty, Cruz Díaz et al.
170 (2012) proposed a two phases machine learning model. The first phase classifies the cues, and the second
171 predicts the scope. Reported results showed an F1-score of 91% and 72% for negation and uncertainty
172 scope, respectively. All the machine learning-based proposals mentioned above use the BioScope corpus
173 (Vincze et al., 2008), which is focused on the English language. In the case of the Spanish language,
174 Santiso et al. (2018) proposed a CRF-based classification model for negation detection in clinical records.
175 This study was evaluated using IULA (Marimon et al., 2017), a corpus annotated with negation in clinical
176 text written in Spanish, and obtains an F1-score of 81% in scope recognition.

177 Although classical machine learning-based approaches have addressed limitations of rule-based
178 methods, one disadvantage of these approaches is the reliance on the hand-crafted features that require
179 tedious, time-consuming feature engineering along with analysis to obtain good performance (Minae
180 et al., 2020). This fact can be seen in studies such as the ones reported in Jiménez-Zafra et al. (2020),
181 where a CRF-based system is trained with a considerable set of hand-crafted features to perform negation
182 detection.

183 **2.3 Deep learning-based approaches**

184 The core component of these approaches is the use of word embedding models that map a set of texts into
185 a low-dimensional continuous space (Mikolov et al., 2013; Pennington et al., 2014; Bojanowski et al.,
186 2017). Contextualized embeddings such as ELMO (Peters et al., 2018) and BERT (Devlin et al., 2019)
187 have also shown that such representations are able to improve performance on sequence labeling tasks.
188 Recurrent neural networks (RNN) (Goldberg and Hirst, 2017; Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997), and
189 Convolution Neural Networks (CNN) (Lopez and Kalita, 2017) have also been used to process text in the
190 biomedical domain.

191 In Qian et al. (2016), the authors proposed a Convolutional Neural Network-based model to extract
192 negation and uncertainty scope from biomedical texts written in English. This model first extracts path
193 and position features from syntactic trees with a convolutional layer that's features are concatenated into
194 one feature vector. This vector is finally fed into the softmax layer to obtain the output vector. Tests and
195 validation are conducted using the Bioscope corpus, showing the ability of the deep neural approaches
196 to deal with negation and uncertainty detection. In Fancellu et al. (2017) is proposed a Bidirectional
197 Long-Short Term Memory (BiLSTM) model to extract negation scope from English and Chinese texts.
198 The performance shows an F-score of 89% for English and 79% for Chinese using the CNeSp corpus
199 (Zou et al., 2016). The conclusion of that research is a suggestion to use more training data to make
200 progress on negation detection. In Taylor and Harabagiu (2018), the authors proposed a BiLSTM neural
201 model for negation detection from electroencephalography reports written in English. Reported results
202 show an F-score of 88% for the scope recognition task using the Bioscope corpus. In Bhatia et al. (2018),
203 an encoder-decoder neural architecture that combines a shared encoder and different decoding schemes

204 to jointly extract entities and negations is proposed. Reported results show 90% in F-score for negation
205 detection using data from the 2010 i2b2/VA challenge task (Uzuner et al., 2011).

206 An attention mechanism to perform uncertainty cue identification using data from CoNLL2010
207 shared task (Farkas et al., 2010b) is developed in Adel and Schütze (2017). Reported results have shown
208 that combining attention layers with RNN and CCN models increases the performance for uncertainty
209 detection in the English language, showing 85% in F1-score. The attention layer helps the model to
210 recognize which part of the input data is important during the training, allowing the networks to focus on
211 specific information by generating a weight vector. Another proposal that combines an attention layer
212 with an RNN for detecting negated, possible and hypothetical medical findings from clinical notes is
213 described in Chen (2019). In Khandelwal and Sawant (2020), the authors proposed NegBert, a model
214 for negation detection using BERT contextual embeddings. NegBert has been trained for the English
215 language using three corpora from different domains, including the BioScope corpus for the biomedical
216 domain (Vincze et al., 2008). Reported results have shown an improvement in the scope resolution task
217 with 93% in F1-score and comparable results in the cue identification task. In Shaitarova et al. (2020), the
218 authors extended the Khandelwal and Sawant (2020) proposal to deal with both uncertainty and negation
219 detection using transformer-based architectures such as BERT (Devlin et al., 2019), XLNet (Yang et al.,
220 2019) and Roberta (Liu et al., 2019b). This study was also focused on the English language using the
221 Bioscope corpus and the SFU Review corpus (Konstantinova et al., 2012).

222

223 In recent years, the interest in processing negation and uncertainty has also grown in languages
224 other than English. In Dalloux et al. (2019), a BiLSTM-CRF model focused on the French language is
225 presented. The approach was validated using a dataset from the National Cancer Institute in France (NCI²)
226 and obtained an F-score of 90% and 86% for negation and uncertainty scope detection, respectively.
227 (Al-khawaldeh, 2019) proposed an Attention-based BiLTSM model to perform speculation detection in
228 Arabic medical texts. This proposal obtained an F-score of 73.5% in the scope recognition task using the
229 BioArabic corpus (Al-khawaldeh, 2016).

230 In Santiso et al. (2020) is proposed a BiLSTM-based model for negation detection in the Spanish
231 language. This proposal uses the IxaMed-GS corpus (Ornoz et al., 2015), a private dataset which
232 consists of 75 clinical notes written in Spanish. Reported results showed 83% in F-score for the scope
233 recognition task. In Zavala and Martinez (2020), the authors compare the performance of different deep
234 learning-based models to perform negation and speculation detection using several corpora from English
235 and Spanish. In the case of the Spanish language, performed tests were conducted using IULA (Marimon
236 et al., 2017) and SFU ReviewSP-NEG (Jiménez-Zafra et al., 2018), two corpora focused only on negation
237 annotation, but not on uncertainty. Finally, in Lima Lopez et al. (2020) is proposed NUBES, a corpus
238 with both negation and uncertainty annotations from clinical notes written in Spanish. Moreover, the
239 authors provide a BiLSTM-based model for testing with this corpus. Reported results showed an 90% and
240 78% in F1-score for negation and uncertainty scope detection, respectively. Although this study showed
241 promising results, the main disadvantage is the reliance on several hand-crafted features used to feed the
242 system, which makes the feature engineering process time-consuming.

243

244 Table 1 shows a summary of the most relevant deep learning-based approaches to perform negation
245 and uncertainty detection. From this table, it is important to highlight the following facts: i) Most of the
246 proposals have focused on the English language, as a result of the availability corpora (Vincze et al., 2008;
247 Uzuner et al., 2011; Farkas et al., 2010b); ii) Most of the existing proposals developed for the Spanish
248 language concentrate only on negation detection, iii) Although the proposal described in (Lima Lopez
249 et al., 2020) aims to detect uncertainty and negation in Spanish, its main weakness is the dependence on
250 hand-crafted features. This suggests that detecting both uncertainty and negation in Spanish clinical texts
251 can be improved.

252 3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

253 In this section, we first show the datasets used for training, testing, and validating the proposed approach.
254 Next, we will describe the deep learning-based methods for negation and uncertainty detection.

²<https://en.e-cancer.fr/>

Table 1. Summary of Deep learning-based approaches

Proposal	Approach	Language	Corpus	Negation	Uncertainty
Qian et al. (2016)	CCN	English	Bioscope	yes	yes
Fancellu et al. (2017)	BiLSTM	English & Chinese	Bioscope & CNeSp	yes	no
Taylor and Harabagiu (2018)	BiLSTM	English	BioScope	yes	no
Uzuner et al. (2011)	Encoder-Decoder	English	i2b2/VA challenge	no	yes
Adel and Schütze (2017)	RNN + Attention	English	Bioscope	yes	yes
Chen (2019)	RNN + Attention	English	i2b2/VA NLP challenge	yes	no
Khandelwal and Sawant (2020)	BERT	English	Bioscope	yes	no
Dalloux et al. (2019)	Bi-LSTM	French	NCI - France	yes	yes
Al-khawaldeh (2019)	Attention + BiLSTM	Arabic	Bio Arabic	no	yes
Santiso et al. (2018)	Embeddings + CRF	Spanish	IULA	yes	no
Santiso et al. (2020)	BiLSTM	Spanish	IxaMed-GS	yes	no
Zavala and Martinez (2020)	BiLSTM, BERT	Spanish	IULA	yes	no
Lima Lopez et al. (2020)	BiLSTM	Spanish	NUBES	yes	yes

255 3.1 Datasets

256 NUBES (Lima Lopez et al., 2020) and IULA (Marimon et al., 2017) are two public corpora available for
 257 the Spanish language that will be used to train models. Additionally, an in-house annotated dataset with
 258 real-life data of cancer patients was manually annotated and will be used for validation purposes. Details
 259 about each dataset are given as follows:

- 260 • **NUBES³**: a public corpus which consists of 29,682 sentences obtained from anonymized health
 261 records annotated with negation and uncertainty (Lima Lopez et al., 2020). NUBES is the largest
 262 publicly available corpus for negation in Spanish clinical records, and the first corpus that also
 263 incorporates the annotation of uncertainty. This corpus contains annotations for syntactic, lexical,
 264 and morphological negation cues.
 - 265 – **Syntactic negation**: are cues represented by function words or adverbs, for instance: not,
 266 without, never (“no, sin, nunca”)
 - 267 – **Lexical negation**: are words or multi-word expressions which indicate negation depending
 268 on the context. They include verbs, adjectives or noun phrases, for example: negative, denies,
 269 withhold (“negativo, niega, suspender”).
 - 270 – **Morphological Negation**: are words which refer to negation by means of affixes, for in-
 271 stance: afebrile, asymptomatic (“Afebril, Asintomático”).

272 In the case of uncertainty, the NUBES corpus contains annotations for lexical and syntactic cues.
 273 Lexical cues are words that express uncertainty depending on the context. Lexical cues include
 274 words such as “probable”, “possible”, and “compatible with” (“Probable, posible, compatible
 275 con”). Syntactic cues include only the disjunctions words “Versus”, “Vs”, “Or” (“Versus, vs, o”).
 276 These cues were only annotated when they appeared by themselves in a context of uncertainty.

- 277 • **IULA⁴**: a public corpus which contains 3,194 sentences extracted from anonymized clinical records
 278 and manually annotated with negation cues and their scopes (Marimon et al., 2017). This corpus

³<https://github.com/Vicomtech/NUBes-negation-uncertainty-biomedical-corpus>

⁴<http://eines.iula.upf.edu/brat/#/NegationOnCR.IULA/>

279 was extracted from clinical notes from one hospital in Barcelona (Spain) and contains annotations
 280 only with negation. Syntactic negation, and lexical negation cues have been annotated in this corpus,
 281 but not morphological negation.

282 • **Cancer dataset:** an in-house manually annotated dataset with data from patients either suffering
 283 with lung or breast cancer. This dataset was extracted from real-life clinical notes belonging to
 284 cancer patients from "Hospital Universitario Puerta de Hierro, Madrid Spain". The dataset contains
 285 2,700 sentences annotated with both negation and uncertainty. We have received informed consent
 286 from participants of our study before annotating this dataset. The Cancer dataset was annotated
 287 with syntactic, lexical and morphological negation. In the case of uncertainty, this dataset contains
 288 syntactic and lexical cues with their respective scopes. In the Cancer dataset, negation was more
 289 frequently found in sentences that describe symptoms, medical tests results, and treatments. On
 290 the other hand, uncertainty was more frequently found in sentences that describe cancer diagnosis.
 291 Figure 1 shows a set of sentence examples extracted from the Cancer dataset. These sentences show
 292 negation and uncertainty cues and their scopes.



Figure 1. Sentences with negation and uncertainty cues and their scopes.

293 Table 2 shows a descriptive analysis of the datasets previously mentioned. This analysis aims to
 294 check how cues and scopes behave in Spanish clinical texts. The analysis has shown that negation and
 295 uncertainty have specific features as follows:

296 • **Sentence length:** is the number of tokens in sentences where uncertainty or negation appears.
 297 According to Table 2, the analyzed datasets have similar values in indicators such as median, first
 298 quartile, and third quartile. In the case of the NUBES corpus, the value of median is 14, which
 299 indicates that 50% of the sentences have 14 tokens or fewer. Similar behavior occurs in the IULA
 300 corpus and the Cancer dataset, where the median is 10 and 12, respectively. This fact suggests
 301 that in clinical texts written in Spanish negation and uncertainty can frequently occur in short
 302 sentences. However, there are also large and more complex sentences where several cues can appear
 303 as well as negation as uncertainty. In fact, negation and uncertainty can appear in the same sentence.
 304 According to Figure 1, in the fourth example there is a short sentence, while the fifth example
 305 shows a large and more complex sentence.

306 • **Cues:** are distributed as follows; in the NUBES corpus 85% of negation annotations contain
 307 syntactic negation, 6% lexical, and 9% morphological negation. Similar values can be found in
 308 the IULA and the Cancer datasets. In the case of uncertainty, 98% of annotations contain lexical
 309 uncertainty and only 2% syntactic uncertainty, for the case of the NUBES corpus. Similar values
 310 can be found in the Cancer dataset.

- 311 • **Scopes:** can behave in a continuous or discontinuous way. A continuous scope occurs when the
 312 tokens affected by a specific negation or uncertainty cue are continuous in the sentence. On the other
 313 hand, a discontinuous scope occurs when the sequence of tokens affected by a cue are separated
 314 in different positions of the text sentence. In Figure 1, the first and the fourth sentences contain
 315 continuous scopes. In contrast, the third sentence contains a discontinuous scope. According to
 316 Table 2, most cases are continuous scopes. In the NUBES corpus, 95% of annotations correspond
 317 to continuous scopes and only 5% to discontinuous scopes. Similar behavior can be seen in the
 318 IULA and the Cancer datasets. Additionally, the scope can appear after the cue, before the cue, or
 319 on both sides. According to Figure 1, in the fourth sentence the scope appears to the right (after) of
 320 the cue “*Sin*”. In the second sentence, the scope appears to the left (before) of the cue “*negativo*”.
 321 Meanwhile, in the third example, the scope is in both sides of the cue.

Table 2. A summary of the datasets used in the proposed approach

Indicators	NUBES	IULA	Cancer Dataset
Number of sentences	29,682	3,194	2,700
Sentences with negation	25.5%	34%	27%
Sentences with uncertainty	7.5%	-	12%
Maximum number of tokens	210	159	181
Mean (Number of tokens)	18	14	15
Median (Number of tokens)	14	10	12
First quartile	9	6	7
Third quartile	23	19	18
Syntactic negation cues	85%	92%	83%
Lexical negation cues	6%	8%	10%
Morphological negation cues	9%	-	7%
Syntactic uncertainty cues	2%	-	1%
Lexical uncertainty cues	98%	-	99%
Continuous scopes	95%	96%	97%
Discontinuous scopes	5%	4%	3%

322 3.2 Deep learning-based methods for negation and uncertainty detection

323 The proposed approach addresses negation and uncertainty detection as a sequence-labeling task, where
 324 each token in a sentence is classified as being part of the cue or the scope. This approach recognizes cues
 325 and their scopes in a single stage for both negation and uncertainty. The BIO tagging format (short for
 326 Beginning, Inside, Outside) is used to represent predicted entities. For instance, the sentence: “*Paciente*
 327 *sin dolor torácico.*” (Patient without chest pain.), it can be formatted as:

328
 329 [‘*Paciente* : O’, ‘*Sin* : B-NegCue’, ‘*dolor* : B-NegScope’, ‘*torácico* : I-NegScope’, ‘. : O’].

330
 331 To perform negation and uncertainty detection from clinical text written in Spanish, we explore two
 332 deep learning-based models: BiLSTM-CRF and BERT.

333 3.2.1 BiLSTM-CRF

334 The first model is a Bidirectional Long-Short Term Memory with a CRF layer (BiLSTM-CRF) neural
 335 net. This model is based on neural architectures described in (Lample et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2015;
 336 Collobert et al., 2011) and consist of three layers: Embedding layer, BiLSTM layer, and CRF layer (see
 337 Figure 2).

- 338 • **Embedding layer:** This layer allows the approach to automatically represent text features using
 339 dense vector representations. In these vectors, words with a similar context in the text have a similar
 340 representation. The Embedding layer enables the approach to represent each word into a fixed
 341 length vector of defined size. We use two different word embeddings in this approach:

- 342 – *Biomedical embeddings*: These embeddings were trained using full-text medical papers
343 written in Spanish (Soares et al., 2019). The papers were taken from Scielo (a scientific
344 electronic library⁵), and a subset of Wikipedia articles related to Pharmacology, Medicine,
345 and Biology.
- 346 – *Clinical embeddings*: We create in-house embeddings trained with more than 1 million
347 clinical notes written in Spanish. These clinical documents were provided in a raw format by
348 two public hospitals in Madrid (Spain) and Cali (Colombia). We use the FasText (Bojanowski
349 et al., 2017) method for creating word embeddings using a vector size of 300 positions by
350 default.
- 351 • **BiLSTM layer**: the Bidirectional LSTM (BiLSTM) layer captures both left and right contexts of
352 words to produce a vector representation of text sequences. Given a sentence $(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots, w_n)$ as
353 input, where n is the number of words, this layer processes the sentence using two steps:
- 354 – A Forward step processes the sentence from left to right, where each element f_i represents
355 the value of the left context for the word w_i in the sentence.
- 356 – A Backward step processes from right to left where each element b_i represents the value of
357 the right context for the word w_i in the sentence.

358 As an output, the BiLSTM layer generates a vector representation h_i for each word by concatenating
359 the values f_i and b_i . The output vector h_i contains a sequence of probabilities for each label to be
360 predicted. The BiLSTM layer computes the Forward and Backward steps separately. Therefore, the
361 values f_i and b_i are calculated independently.

- 362
- 363 • **CRF layer**: this layer predicts the label sequence with the highest prediction score from all
364 sequences generated by the BiLSTM layer. Although the BiLSTM layer generates probabilities for
365 each label to be predicted, these probabilities are calculated independently. For sequence labeling
366 tasks it is crucial to consider correlations and dependencies across output labels. Therefore, this
367 layer uses an implementation of the CRF algorithm (Lafferty et al., 2001) to improve the predictions
368 for each label. The CRF algorithm considers correlations between other labels and jointly decodes
369 the best chain of labels for a given input text sentence.

370 **3.2.2 Bidirectional Encoder Representation for Transformers (BERT)**

371 BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) uses a transformer-based architecture to learn representation of texts in a
372 bidirectional way by considering both the left and the right context of words. In the proposed approach, the
373 BERT model is fine-tuned with a classification layer on top. We use multilingual BERT as contextualized
374 embeddings to perform negation and uncertainty detection in clinical notes written in Spanish. Multilingual
375 BERT has been pre-trained on data in 104 languages with the same training objectives as BERT: masked
376 language modeling and next-sentence prediction.

377 Figure 3 shows the process to detect negation and uncertainty using multilingual BERT. This process
378 consists of three steps: Tokenization, BERT Processing, and Classification & Post-processing.

- 379 • **Tokenization**: the goal in this step is to take as input a raw text sentence and tokenize it using a
380 WordPiece Tokenization method (Wu et al., 2016). For each word in the sentence, this method
381 decides to keep the whole word or to split it into a set of sub-words. According to Figure 3, after
382 tokenizing the input sentence, the output tokens are: “La bio ##psia no muestra células cancer
383 ##igen ##as”. The word “*biopsia*” has been divided into two sub-words: “*bio*” and “*psia*”.
384 Furthermore, the word “*cancerígenas*” was divided into three sub-words: “*cáncer*”, “*igen*” and
385 “*as*”. This tokenization method aims to improve handling of rare and unseen words in a dataset by
386 providing a balance between the flexibility of character-delimited tokenizers and the efficiency of
387 word-delimited tokenizers. Additionally, in this step two special tokens are added to the sentence:
388 [CLS] and [SEP]. The [CLS] token always appears at the beginning of the text, and the [SEP] token
389 is used to separate sentences.

⁵<https://scielo.isciii.es/scielo.php>

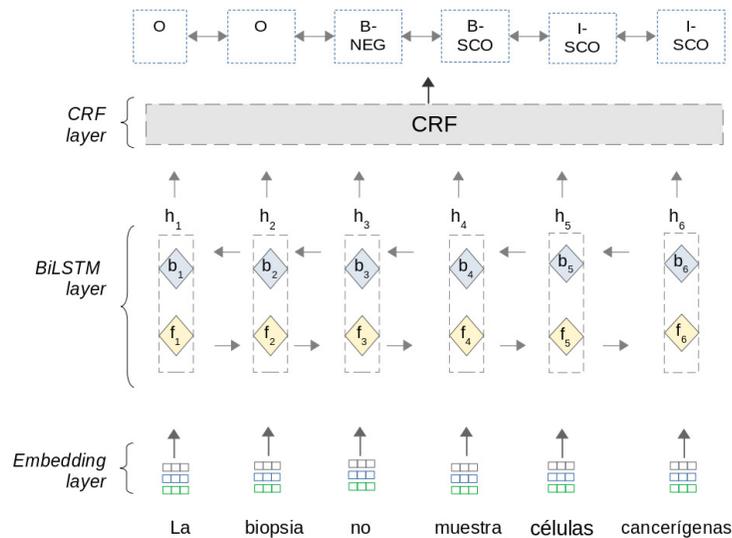


Figure 2. Negation and uncertainty detection using the BiLSTM-CRF model

- 390 • **BERT Processing:** In this step, the approach takes as input the tokenized sentence from the
391 previous step and process it as follows:
- 392 – First, the approach obtains an embedding representation (E_n) for each word in the sentence.
393 This representation is created using three embeddings: token, segment, and position embed-
394 dings. The token embedding contains a vector representation for each word. The segment
395 embedding is used to distinguish the vector representation for two sentences in a sentence
396 pair. Finally, the position embedding is used to specify the position of words in the text
397 sentence.
- 398 – Next, the BERT Transformer Block takes the embedding representation as input (E_1, E_2, E_n),
399 and produces a final representation (R_n) for each word in the processed sentence. This
400 representation is a score calculated by BERT and represents a contextualized value for a
401 specific word in relation to all other words.
- 402 • **Classification & Post-Processing:** In this step, the approach takes as input the predicted BERT
403 representations (R_1, R_2, R_n) and feeds them into the softmax function. This function obtains a label
404 for each token in the sentence. A post-processing step is needed to convert BERT predictions into
405 BIO format labels. The probability P for each label is calculated as follows:

$$P(l|\mathbf{R}_i) = \text{Softmax}(\mathbf{W}_0\mathbf{R}_i + \mathbf{b}_0) \quad (1)$$

406 where the label l belongs to the set of labels to be predicted, W_0 and b_0 are weight parameters.
407 Finally, the special tokens '[CLS], [SEP], [PAD]' are removed to obtain the final BIO labels at the
408 end of post-processing step.

409 4 EXPERIMENTATION AND RESULTS

410 In this section, we describe experiments carried out to evaluate the proposed approach for negation and
411 uncertainty detection. We will first describe the evaluation methodology, then the experiments that were
412 carried out, followed by the results that were obtained.

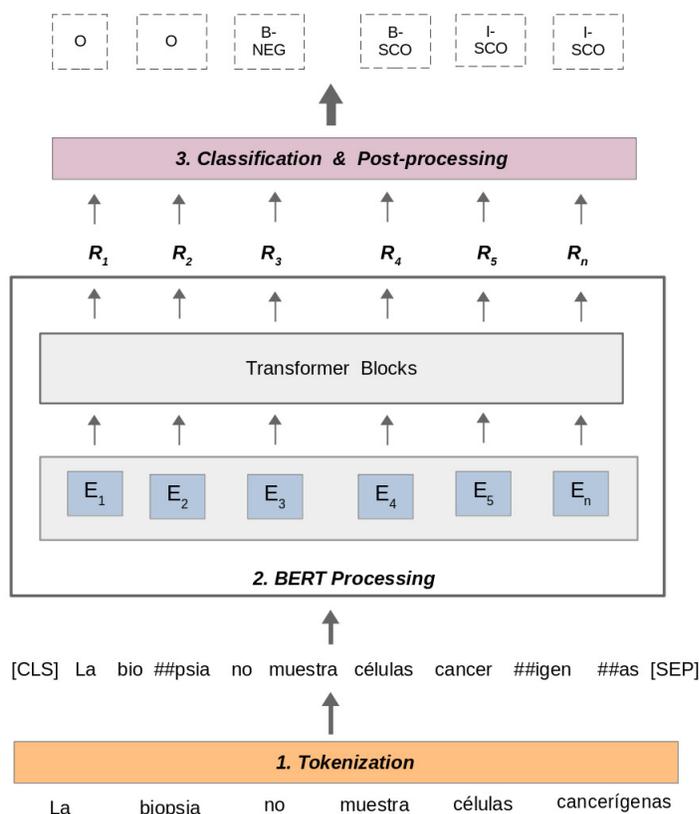


Figure 3. Negation and uncertainty detection using multilingual BERT.

413 4.1 Evaluation methodology

414 The evaluation methodology depends on the dataset used, as follows:

- 415 • NUBES corpus: this corpus was split by their authors into three subsets: training (75%), develop-
416 ing(10%), and testing (15%). Models trained with the NUBES corpus were executed just once. The
417 testing subset was used to calculate the performance metrics.
- 418 • IULA corpus: this corpus does not provide an explicit division for training and testing subsets.
419 Therefore, in this case we followed a cross-validation strategy with $k = 5$. The performance was
420 calculated as the average of all five folds executed by the cross-validation strategy.

421 To evaluate the performance of the proposed approach, we used the following standard metrics:
422 Precision (P), Recall (R), and F-score (F1). The F-score is calculated as a weighted average of the
423 Precision and Recall measurements. A token is correctly classified when the predicted label is equal to
424 the label indicated by the annotated corpus. The performance for the cue identification task and the scope
425 recognition task is analyzed separately.

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{Number of tokens correctly predicted}}{\text{Number of predicted tokens}} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{Number of tokens correctly predicted}}{\text{Number of tokens in the dataset}} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{F-score} = 2 * \frac{\text{Precision} * \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}} \quad (4)$$

4.2 Experiments

The BiLSTM-CRF model proposed by Huang et al. (2015) was used as baseline system to perform negation and uncertainty detection. Next, we performed the following experiments:

1. Experiment 1: Spanish biomedical embeddings proposed by Soares et al. (2019) were added to the BiLSTM-CRF model. The goal of this experiment was to analyze the impact of adding biomedical embeddings to the BiLSTM-CRF model.
2. Experiment 2: the goal of this experiment was to test the impact of using embeddings trained on clinical notes written in Spanish. Consequently, in-house clinical embeddings (Section 3.2.1) were added to the BiLSTM-CRF model.
3. Experiment 3: the goal of this experiment was to analyze the impact of using multilingual BERT embeddings to perform negation and uncertainty detection in Spanish. To perform this experiment, we used the BERT model as described in Section 3.2.2.

4.3 Validation

The Cancer dataset described in section 3.1 is used for validating the performance of trained models on the NUBES corpus. We used these models for validation because the NUBES corpus contains annotations for both negation and uncertainty (the IULA corpus cannot be used as it does not contain uncertainty annotations). This validation aims to measure the performance of trained models on the NUBES corpus to predict negation and uncertainty in a new dataset. Results of the validation are shown in table 5.

4.4 Implementation and Hyperparameters setting

To perform the previously explained experiments Python 3.7, TensorFlow⁶ and Keras⁷ were used. For the BiLSTM-CRF model the following parameters were settled: learning rate as 0.001, dropout as 0.5, the number of epochs was set to 60, the BiLSTM hidden size was set to 300, and the batch size to 512. For the BERT model, the fine-tuning was performed with a sequence length of 256 tokens, a batch size of 64, and 5 epochs. These values were established after training the models different times, and checking the best performance for these parameters. Data and code of the proposed approach can be found in GitHub⁸.

4.5 Results

In order to analyze obtained results, we first show the results of experiments for cue identification, then results for scope recognition, and finally, the validation results.

4.5.1 Cue identification

Table 3 shows the results obtained for the cue identification task in the experiments previously described. These results show the feasibility of both BiLSTM-CRF and BERT models to perform negation and uncertainty cue identification in clinical texts written in Spanish. As can be seen, the best performance was obtained in the third experiment in which the model was trained using multilingual BERT. Using the NUBES corpus, this model obtained an F-score of 95% and 84% for negation and uncertainty detection, respectively. While for the IULA corpus, the model obtained an F-score of 92% for negation detection.

In addition, Table 3 shows that when the BiLSTM-CRF model is combined with biomedical and clinical embeddings, it obtains competitive results in the cue identification task. In the first experiment, the BiLSTM-CRF model obtained an F-score of 93% and 83% for negation and uncertainty, respectively. In the second experiment an F-score of 92% and 82% were obtained. These results suggest that using biomedical and clinical embeddings is a useful approach to improve the performance of the BiLSTM-CRF model to detect negation and uncertainty in Spanish clinical texts. Moreover, using biomedical and clinical embeddings also improved the performance of the BiLSTM-CRF model in the IULA corpus.

According to Table 3, negation detection showed better performance than uncertainty detection. In the first experiment, the BiLSTM-CRF model obtained an F-score of 93% for negation detection and 83% for uncertainty detection. Meanwhile, models trained using multilingual BERT obtained an F-score of 95% for negation detection and 84% for uncertainty detection. Thus, these results highlight the fact that uncertainty detection is more difficult than negation detection in clinical texts written in Spanish.

⁶<https://www.tensorflow.org/?hl=es-419>

⁷<https://keras.io/>

⁸<https://github.com/solarte7/NegationAndUncertainty>

Table 3. Results for cue identification.

	NUBES corpus						IULA corpus		
	Negation			Uncertainty			Negation		
	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1
BiLSTM-CRF	0.86	0.82	0.83	0.79	0.76	0.77	0.82	0.78	0.80
BiLSTM-CRF + Biomedical Embeddings	0.94	0.92	0.93	0.85	0.81	0.83	0.91	0.90	0.90
BiLSTM-CRF + Clinical Embeddings	0.93	0.91	0.92	0.84	0.80	0.82	0.90	0.88	0.89
Multilingual BERT	0.95	0.93	0.95	0.86	0.83	0.84	0.92	0.93	0.92

473 4.5.2 Scope Recognition

474 Table 4 describes the results obtained in the scope recognition task. These results show the feasibility
 475 of deep learning-based methods to perform the scope recognition task for both negation and uncertainty
 476 detection. The best performance was obtained by using the BERT model. A 92% F-score for negation
 477 and 80% F-score for uncertainty were obtained using the NUBES corpus. Using the IULA corpus, this
 478 model obtained an F-score of 89% for negation detection.

479 The BiLSTM-CRF model combined with biomedical and clinical embeddings also showed a competi-
 480 tive performance in the scope recognition task. In the first experiment, it obtained an F-score of 90% for
 481 negation and 79% for uncertainty detection using the NUBES corpus. In the second experiment, 89%
 482 and 78% were obtained for negation and uncertainty, respectively. Results obtained suggest that adding
 483 clinical and biomedical embeddings increases the ability of the BiLSTM-CRF model to perform the
 484 scope recognition task. Results obtained in the IULA corpus also show that using biomedical and clinical
 485 embeddings has a positive impact on the performance of the BiLSTM-CRF model.

486 Table 4 shows that negation detection performs better than uncertainty detection in experiments carried
 487 out with the NUBES corpus. This suggests that extracting the uncertainty scope is more difficult than
 488 extracting the negation scope. This behavior can be explained by the fact that negation also performs
 489 better than uncertainty in the cue identification task. Therefore, the difficulties in extracting uncertainty
 490 cues can also affect scope recognition, since cue identification and scope recognition are related tasks.

Table 4. Results for scope recognition.

	NUBES corpus						IULA corpus		
	Negation			Uncertainty			Negation		
	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1
BiLSTM-CRF	0.84	0.76	0.79	0.72	0.69	0.70	0.77	0.74	0.75
BiLSTM-CRF + Biomedical Embeddings	0.92	0.89	0.90	0.82	0.77	0.79	0.88	0.84	0.86
BiLSTM-CRF + Clinical Embeddings	0.92	0.87	0.89	0.81	0.75	0.78	0.87	0.83	0.85
Multilingual BERT	0.93	0.90	0.92	0.82	0.79	0.80	0.91	0.86	0.88

491 4.5.3 Validation results

492 Table 5 shows obtained results for the validation process with the Cancer dataset. These results show the
 493 performance of trained models with the NUBES corpus for predicting cues and scopes on the Cancer
 494 dataset. Table 5 shows that the best performance was obtained by using the BERT model. In the
 495 cue identification task, this model obtained an F-score of 90% and 82% for negation and uncertainty,
 496 respectively. In the scope recognition task, the BERT model obtained an F-score of 87% and 78% for
 497 negation and uncertainty, respectively. In addition, the performance of the BiLSTM-CRF model combined
 498 with biomedical and clinical embeddings also showed competitive results. For instance, the model that
 499 uses clinical embeddings obtained an F-score of 89% and 80% in cue identification for negation and

500 uncertainty, respectively. In the scope recognition task, this model obtained an F-score of 86% and 77%
501 for negation and uncertainty, respectively.

502 Although results from Table 5 show a lower performance compared to those described in Tables 3
503 and 4, results are still promising. The validation process showed the ability of the deep learning-based
504 models trained with the NUBES corpus to predict negation and uncertainty in a different dataset. This
505 fact suggests that models trained with the NUBES corpus can be used to detect negation and uncertainty
506 in new clinical texts.

Table 5. Validation Results

	Cue detection						Scope recognition					
	Negation			Uncertainty			Negation			Uncertainty		
	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1	P	R	F1
BiLSTM-CRF + Biomedical Embeddings	0.89	0.87	0.88	0.75	0.80	0.78	0.86	0.83	0.84	0.79	0.74	0.76
BiLSTM-CRF + Clinical Embeddings	0.91	0.88	0.89	0.80	0.81	0.80	0.87	0.85	0.86	0.79	0.76	0.77
Multilingual BERT	0.91	0.89	0.90	0.84	0.80	0.82	0.89	0.86	0.87	0.79	0.78	0.78

507 Comparing the performance of the proposed approach with other studies in the literature, we found
508 that in the cue identification task, our approach obtains competitive results compared to those reported by
509 (Santiso et al., 2018, 2020; Costumero et al., 2014). However, those proposals only perform negation
510 detection, and do not deal with uncertainty detection.

511 In the scope recognition task, the proposed approach outperforms previous studies both for negation
512 and uncertainty detection in Spanish. Table 6 shows the performance of the proposed approach in
513 comparison with other proposals for the scope detection task. If one further analyzed the results from the
514 NUBES corpus, the approach presented in this paper outperforms the Lima Lopez et al. (2020) proposal
515 in both tasks (improvement of 2% for the case of uncertainty and 2% for the case of negation). If one
516 analyzes the IULA corpus, the approach presented in this paper outperforms the results reported in Zavala
517 and Martinez (2020) and Santiso et al. (2018), improving by 3% and 5%, respectively. In addition, the
518 approach proposed in this paper presents the following advantages over other studies:

- 519 • The proposed approach takes advantage of transfer learning techniques, word embeddings, and
520 pre-trained models to automatically represent text features using dense vector representations.
521 These representations are used for negation and uncertainty detection. In contrast, other proposals
522 such as Lima Lopez et al. (2020) require a considerable set of hand-crafted features to obtain
523 comparable results. The process of manual feature extraction can be time-consuming and costly.
- 524 • The proposed approach deals with negation and uncertainty detection in a single step, improving
525 those approaches (Santiso et al., 2018, 2020; Costumero et al., 2014; Cotik et al., 2016) that only
526 deal with negation detection in Spanish clinical texts.
- 527 • This approach improves performance in the scope recognition task in comparison with approaches
528 Lima Lopez et al. (2020) dealing both with negation and uncertainty in Spanish, as one can see in
529 Table 6.

530 5 DISCUSSION

531 The proposed approach has shown the feasibility of deep learning-based methods to perform negation and
532 uncertainty detection from clinical texts written in Spanish. We found that both BiLSTM-CRF and BERT
533 models obtained competitive results for both tasks: cue identification and scope recognition. The use of
534 biomedical embeddings for Spanish and contextualized embeddings from multilingual BERT results in an

Table 6. Comparison with other proposals in the scope recognition task (F-score).

Proposal	NUBES corpus		IULA corpus
	Negation	Uncertainty	Negation
Santiso et al. (2018)	-	-	0.83
Zavala and Martinez (2020)	-	-	0.85
Lima Lopez et al. (2020)	0.90	0.78	-
Our approach (BiLSTM-based)	0.90	0.79	0.86
Our approach (BERT-based)	0.92	0.80	0.88

535 improvement of the negation and uncertainty detection process. The proposed approach automatically
 536 represents text features using word embeddings and contextual embeddings, and uses them to detect
 537 uncertainty and negation. This is an advantage over previous proposals that require complex hand-crafted
 538 rules (Costumero et al., 2014; Cotik et al., 2016; Solarte-Pabón et al., 2020) or a considerable set of
 539 hand-crafted features (Lima Lopez et al., 2020) to obtain comparable results.

540 Obtained results showed that scope recognition is a more complex task than cue identification. This
 541 could be because in most cases negation and uncertainty cues consist of a single token. However, the scope
 542 frequently contains a longer sequence of tokens which makes it more difficult to detect it properly. As
 543 Table 4 shows, the proposed approach in this paper obtained competitive results for the scope recognition
 544 task, outperforming previous studies available for this task (Santiso et al., 2018; Lima Lopez et al., 2020).

545 The proposed approach performs better negation detection than uncertainty detection. Specifically, in
 546 the cue identification task, the best performance showed an F-score of 95% and 84% for negation and
 547 uncertainty detection, respectively (See Table 3). This behavior can be explained by two facts:

- 548 • The number of annotations with negation is higher than with uncertainty in the NUBES corpus. In
 549 this corpus, there are more than 7,500 sentences annotated with negation and only 2,219 sentences
 550 annotated with uncertainty, which affects the training of the models.
- 551 • Negation cues have less variability than uncertainty cues. Only five negation cues are used in the
 552 NUBES corpus (“no, sin, negativo, negativos, niega”) to express 87% of all negation annotations.
 553 However, the set of words used to express uncertainty is much broader. The five more frequent
 554 uncertainty cues (“probable, posible, compatible con, sospecha de, parece”) are used only in less
 555 than 48% of all uncertainty annotations. This fact once again affects the training process, reducing
 556 the performance of the models to perform uncertainty detection.

557 Although both BiLSTM-CRF and BERT models have shown feasibility to perform negation and uncer-
 558 tainty detection in Spanish, BERT obtains better results than BiLSTM-CRF in some specific cases. In
 559 particular, we observed that the BERT model tends to learn the scope better in those cases in which it
 560 appears before the cue, such as in the sentence:

561
 562 “*Mujer con cáncer de pulmón, HER2 **negativo**” (Woman with lung cancer, HER2 negative),*

563
 564 In this sentence, the scope is underlined and the negation cue is in bold. In this case, the BERT model
 565 is able to learn that the scope is before the cue. The BiLSTM-CRF model failed in most of these cases.
 566 The BERT model also showed better performance than the BiLSTM-CRF model in those cases where the
 567 scope appears in both directions of the cue, as in the following sentence:

568
 569 “*TAC cerebral **negativo** para células tumorales.*” (Negative brain CT scan for tumor cells.)

570
 571 In this sentence, we can see that the scope (underlined) is before and after the cue (showed in bold).
 572 In these cases, the BERT model recognizes the scope in both directions (after and before the cue). On the
 573 other hand, the BiLSTM-CRF model tends to recognize only the part of the scope that appears after the
 574 cue.

575 The BERT model also outperforms the BiLSTM-CRF model when predicting labels with fewer
 576 annotations in the annotated corpus. In particular, the NUBES corpus contains more than 6500 annotations

577 for *syntactic negation*, and only 460 for *lexical negation*. In the syntactic negation, both BiLSTM-CRF and
578 BERT models perform accurately. However, for lexical negation, the BiLSMT model fails to recognize
579 some lexical cues with a low number of annotations in the corpus, while the BERT model recognizes
580 them properly.

581 Despite the promising results, there are still some limitations that need to be addressed. In particular,
582 we identify the following causes of error which can affect the performance of the proposed approach:

583 • Those cues that appear rarely are not detected. These cases mainly occur in uncertainty detection
584 where some syntactic cues such as “Versus” and “O” (or), are annotated as uncertainty cues.
585 However, the NUBES corpus has very few annotations using these words which means the approach
586 does not recognize them as cues. As a consequence, the approach fails in sentences such as these
587 examples: (Cue shown in bold):

588 – “*Cáncer pulmonar **Versus** inflamación del lóbulo derecho*”. (Lung cancer Versus right lobe
589 inflammation).

590

591 – “*Carcinoma estadio IV **o** estadio IIIB*”. (Stage IV or stage IIIB carcinoma.)

592 • In the scope recognition task, most errors are caused by discontinuous scopes. This occurs when
593 the sequence of tokens affected by a negation cue or an uncertainty cue are separated in different
594 positions of the text sentence. In the next example, the scope (shown underlined) is discontinuous:

595

596 ”*Paciente parcialmente orientado (si en tiempo, **no** en espacio)* (Partially oriented patient (in time,
597 not in space))

598

599 Another case of discontinuous scopes occurs when a sentence contains a sequence of cues, but
600 some tokens in the sentence are not affected by any cue. A sequence of cues is more frequent in
601 negation detection, as one can see in the following examples:

602

603 i) “***No** hipertensión arterial, **no** no vómito, **no** sangrado.” (No high blood pressure, no vomiting,
604 no bleeding.)*

605

606 ii) “***No** dolor, fiebre alta desde la noche anterior, **no** sangrado, **no** vomito.” (No pain, high fever
607 since last night, no bleeding, no vomiting.)*

608

609 Note that in the first sentence, each token is affected by a negation cue. In this case, the approach
610 correctly extracts the scope for each cue. However, in the second example, the tokens “*fiebre alta*
611 *desde la noche anterior*” are not negated, but the approach classifies them as negated. Discontinuous
612 scopes are not frequent. In the NUBES corpus, about 5% of annotated scopes are discontinuous.
613 However, these cases should be analyzed further in the future to improve performance.

614 6 CONCLUSIONS

615 In this paper, we proposed a deep learning-based approach for negation and uncertainty detection in
616 clinical texts written in Spanish. Results obtained have shown the ability of deep learning methods to
617 perform both cue identification and scope recognition tasks. The proposed approach takes advantage
618 of transfer learning techniques, word embeddings, and pre-trained models to automatically represent
619 text features, thus avoiding the time-consuming feature engineering process. This approach is useful
620 for medical text mining applications because it can recognize negation and uncertainty in a single step.
621 Moreover, the approach improves previous studies, as has been shown.

622 Both BiLSTM and BERT models have shown promising results for negation and uncertainty detection
623 in clinical texts written in Spanish. The BERT model performed better than the BiLSTM model in some
624 specific cases. In the cue identification task, the BERT model performed better at predicting labels that
625 have fewer annotations in a corpus. In the scope recognition task, this model worked better at extracting

626 the scope that appears before the cue, or when it appears on both sides of the cue. These facts increased
627 the performance of the BERT model over the BiLSTM-CRF model.

628 In this paper, we also conducted a validation process using real-life clinical data which showed
629 promising results. Deep learning models trained on the NUBES corpus have shown the ability to
630 predict negation and uncertainty in datasets that are different from those on which they were trained. In
631 future studies, we will explore more transformer-based architectures to perform negation and uncertainty
632 detection.

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636 DATA AVAILABILITY

637 Data and code are available in:
638 <https://github.com/solarte7/NegationAndUncertainty>

639
640 The Cancer dataset is available "upon request". This dataset can be accessible after an evaluation
641 by the hospital's ethics committee. To request access to the anonymized data, please contact Dr. Maria
642 Torrente at the following email: maria.torrente@salud.madrid.org

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