# **MIMICause: Representation and automatic extraction of causal relation** types from clinical notes

# Anonymous ACL submission

### Abstract

Understanding causal narratives communi-012 cated in clinical notes can help make strides 013 towards personalized healthcare. Extracted 014 causal information from clinical notes can be 015 combined with structured EHR data such as pa-016 tients' demographics, diagnoses, and medications. This will enhance healthcare providers' 017 ability to identify aspects of a patient's story 018 communicated in the clinical notes and help 019 make more informed decisions. 020

000

001

002

003

004

005

006

007

008

009

010

011

039

040

041

046

048

049

In this work, we propose annotation guide-021 lines, develop an annotated corpus and provide 022 baseline scores to identify types and direction 023 of causal relations between a pair of biomedi-024 cal concepts in clinical notes; communicated implicitly or explicitly, identified either in a 025 single sentence or across multiple sentences. 026

We annotate a total of 2714 de-identified exam-027 ples sampled from the 2018 n2c2 shared task 028 dataset and train four different language model 029 based architectures. Annotation based on 030 our guidelines achieved a high inter-annotator 031 agreement i.e. Fleiss' kappa ( $\kappa$ ) score of 0.72, and our model for identification of causal re-032 lations achieved a macro F1 score of 0.56 on 033 the test data. The high inter-annotator agree-034 ment for clinical text shows the quality of 035 our annotation guidelines while the provided 036 baseline F1 score sets the direction for future 037 research towards understanding narratives in clinical texts. 038

#### 1 Introduction

Electronic Health Records (EHRs) have significant 042 amounts of unstructured clinical notes containing a 043 rich description of patients' states as observed by 044 healthcare professionals over time. Our ability to 045 effectively parse and understand clinical narratives depends upon the quality of extracted biomedical 047 concepts and semantic relations.

> The contemporary advancements in natural language processing (NLP) have led to an increased

interest in tasks such as extraction of biomedical concepts, patients' data de-identification, medical question answering and relation extraction. While these tasks have improved our ability for clinical narrative understanding, identification of semantic causal relations between biomedical entities will further enhance it.

050

051

052

053

054

055

056

057

058

059

060

061

062

063

064

065

066

067

068

069

070

071

072

073

074

075

076

077

078

079

080

081

082

083

084

085

086

087

088

089

090

091

092

093

094

095

096

097

098

099

Identification of novel and interesting causal observations from clinical notes can be instrumental to a better understanding of patients' health. It can also help us identify potential causes of diseases and determine their prevention and treatment. Despite the usefulness of identification and extraction of causal relation types, our capability to do so is limited and remains a challenge for specialized domains like healthcare.

The NLP community has been actively working on causality understanding from text and has proposed various methodologies to represent (Talmy, 1988; Wolff, 2007; Swartz, 2014; Hassanzadeh et al., 2019), as well as extract (Mirza and Tonelli, 2014; O'Gorman et al., 2016; Mirza and Tonelli, 2016; Gao et al., 2019; Khetan et al., 2022), causal associations between the events expressed in natural language text. In the healthcare domain, most of the related work can be grouped around the problem of adverse drug effect identification from biomedical scientific articles (Gurulingappa et al., 2012) or clinical notes (Johnson et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2019; Henry et al., 2020; Rawat et al., 2020), and identification of cause, effect and their triggers (Mihaila et al., 2012). There is no work that has yet tried to represent different types of causal associations along with direction (between biomedical concepts) communicated in clinical notes.

In this work, we fill the gap by defining types of semantic causal relations between biomedical entities, building detailed annotation guidelines and annotating a large dataset. Figure 1 shows a snippet of clinical note extracted from the n2c2 dataset (Henry et al., 2020), different sets of annotated

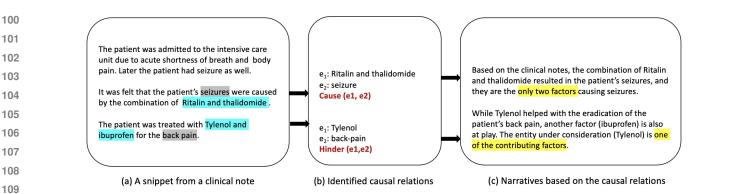


Figure 1: (a) A snippet from a clinical note with highlighted biomedical entities identified in the n2c2 dataset. (b) Causal relations identified between the specified biomedical entities (e1 and e2). In the first case, two entities are specified together as e1 for causal relation identification, while the second case specifies only one entity as e1. (c) Narratives based on the causal relations identified between the specified biomedical entities

biomedical entities along with the causal relationship between them, and the corresponding narrative based on the proposed guidelines outlined in Section 3.1.

Even with the inherent complexities of clinical text data (e.g., domain knowledge, short hand by doctors, etc.), following our proposed guidelines, we achieved a high inter annotator agreement of Fleiss' kappa ( $\kappa$ ) score of 0.72<sup>1</sup>.

### 2 Related Works

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

In linguistics, the focus on representing causality has been on understanding interactions between events. Talmy (1988) proposed force-dynamics to decompose the causal interaction between events as "letting", "helping", "hindering" etc. Wolff (2007) built upon force-dynamics by incorporating the theory of causal verbs and proposed the Dynamicmodel of causation. Wolff categorised causation in three categories, "*Cause*", "*Enable*" and "*Prevent*", and provided a set of causal verbs to express these categories.

Dunietz et al. (2015; 2017) proposed BECauSE Corpus to represent linguistic expressions of causation stated explicitly. BECauSE 1.0 (Dunietz et al., 2015) consists of a cause span, an effect span, and a causal connective span. Their work treats the causal connectives e.g. *because of, so* etc. as the "centerpiece" of causal language, impacting the selection of instances to be annotated. In addition to the types of causation (Consequence, Motivation, and Purpose) and degrees of causation (Facilitate and Inhibit) introduced in BECauSE 1.0, the subsequent work BECauSE 2.0 (Dunietz et al., 2017) extended the annotation scheme to include overlapping relations other than causal. In contrast, our work focuses on both explicit (indicated by connectives) and implicit (lack of connectives) identification of types of causal associations between biomedical concepts as communicated in clinical notes.

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

More recently, Mostafazadeh et al. (2016b) built upon the work of Wolff and proposed annotation framework *CaTeRS* to represent causal relations between events for commonsense perspective. CaTeRS categorises semantic relations between events to capture causal and temporal relationships for narrative understanding on crowd-sourced ROC-Stories dataset (Mostafazadeh et al., 2016a) but has only 488 causal links. In comparison, our MIMI-Cause dataset is built on actual clinical narratives, i.e., *MIMIC-III Clinical text data* (Johnson et al., 2016) and has 1923 causal observations.

Another interesting decomposition of causation is proposed by Swartz (2014) as a necessary and sufficient condition, but such detailed information is seldom communicated in clinical notes. There have been several other recent attempts of modeling and extracting causality from unstructured text. Bethard et al. (2008) created a causality dataset using the Wall Street Journal corpus and captured the directionality of causal interaction with simple temporal relations (e.g., Before, After, No-Rel) but did not focus on the types of causality between the events. The work of Gorman et al. on Richer Event Description (RED) (Ikuta et al., 2014) describes causality types as cause and precondition and uses negative polarity to capture the context of hinder and prevent. This is in line with the annotation

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Upon acceptance of this paper, we will be releasing annotated dataset and code.

200 guidelines proposed in our current work, but we 201 also defined explicit **Hinder** and **Prevent** causality types along with directionality. 202

203

211

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

204 Mirza et al. (2014) proposed the use of explicit 205 linguistic markers, i.e., CLINKs (due to, because 206 of, etc.) to extended TimeML TLINKs (Puste-207 jovsky et al., 2003) based temporal annotations 208 to capture causality between identified events. The 209 resulting dataset had temporal as well as casual relations but still lacks the causality types between 210 events. Hassanzadeh et al. (2019) proposed the use of binary questions to extract causal knowledge 212 from unstructured text data but did not focus on 213 types and directionality of causal relations. More 214 recently, Khetan et al. (2022) used language mod-215 els combining event descriptions with events' con-216 texts to predict causal relationships. Their network 217 architecture wasn't trained to predict the type or di-218 rectionality of causal relations. Furthermore, they 219 removed the directionality provided in SemEval-220 2007 (Girju et al., 2007), and SemEval-2010 (Hen-221 drickx et al., 2009) datasets to evaluate their model 222 on a larger causal relation dataset. Our causality 223 extraction network is built upon their methodology, 224 i.e., Causal-BERT but also focuses on directional-225 ity as well as types of causality communicated in 226 clinical notes. 227

> Although causality lies at the heart of biomedical knowledge, there are only a handful of works (mostly Adverse Drug Effect (Gurulingappa et al., 2012)) extracting causality from biomedical or clinical text data. One interesting work is BioCause by Mihaila et al. (2012), which annotates existing bioevent corpora from biomedical scientific articles to capture biomedical causality. Instead of identifying the types (and direction) of causal relations in the already provided events of interest, they are annotating two types of text spans, i.e., arguments and triggers. Arguments are text spans that can be represented as events with type Cause, Effect, and Evidence while Trigger spans (can be empty) are connectives between the casual events.

Our work proposes comprehensive guidelines to represent the types and direction of causal associations between biomedical entities, expressed explicitly or implicitly in the same or multiple sentences in clinical notes, and is not covered by any related work.

Concepts/Entities	Examples	250
Drug	morphine, ibuprofen, antibiotics (or "abx" as its abbreviation), chemotherapy etc.	251
	nausea, seizures, Vitamin K deficiency, cardiac	252
ADE and Reason*	event during induction etc.	253
Strength	10 mg, 60 mg/0.6 mL, 250/50 (e.g. as in Advair 250/50), 20 mEq, 0.083% etc.	254
Form	Capsule, syringe, tablet, nebulizer, appl (abbrevia-	255
Politi	tion for apply topical) etc.	256
Dosage	Two (2) units, one (1) mL, max dose, bolus, stress	250
	dose, taper etc.	257
Frequency	Daily, twice a day, Q4H (every 4 Hrs), prn (pro re	258
	nata i.e as needed) etc.	259
Route	Transfusion, oral, gtt (guttae i.e. by drops), inhala-	200
	tion IV (i.e. Intravenous) etc.	260
Duration	For 10 days, chronic, 2 cycles, over 6 hours, for a	001
	week etc.	261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

The distinction between ADE and Reason concepts is based on whether the drug was given to address the disease (Reason) or led to the disease (ADE).

Table 1: Examples of Bio-medical concepts/entities in the 2018 n2c2 shared task dataset.

#### 3 **MIMICause Dataset creation**

We used publicly available 2018 n2c2 shared task (Henry et al., 2020) dataset on adverse drug events and medication extraction to build the MIMICause dataset. The n2c2 dataset was used because it is built upon the de-identified discharge summaries from the MIMIC-III clinical care database (Johnson et al., 2016) and has nine different annotations of biomedical entities e.g. Drug, Dose, ADE, Reason, Route etc. The types of biomedical concepts/entities with a few examples as defined in the n2c2 dataset are shown in Table 1.

However, the provided relationships in the n2c2 dataset are simply defined by the identified concepts linked with related medications and hold no semantic meaning. To create the MIMICause dataset, we extracted<sup>2</sup> examples from each entitypair available in the n2c2 dataset. Our final dataset has 1107 "ADE-Drug", 1007 "Reason-Drug" and 100 from each of "Strength-Drug", "Form-Drug", "Dosage-Drug", "Frequency-Drug", "Route-Drug" and "Duration-Drug" entity-pair examples.

# 3.1 Annotation guidelines

Our annotation guidelines are defined to represent nine semantic causal relationships between biomedical concepts/entities in clinical notes. Our guidelines have four types of causal associations, each with two directions, and a non-causal "Other" class. Based on our guidelines, causal relationship/association exists when one or more entities affect another set of entities. The driving concept

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We used https://spacy.io/ library with "en\_core\_web\_sm" language model.

can be a *single* entity such as a drug / procedure /
therapy or a *composite entity* such as several drugs
/ procedures / therapies considered together.

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

# 3.1.1 Direction of causal association

The direction of causal association between entities is captured by the order of entity tags  $((e_1, e_2)$  or  $(e_2, e_1))$  in the defined causal relationships. Either entity can be referred to as  $e_1$  or  $e_2$ . The *entity that initiates or drives the causal interaction is placed first* in parenthesis followed by the resulting entity or effect.

- Odynophagia: Was presumed due to <e2>mucositis</e2> from recent <e1>chemotherapy</e1>.
- Odynophagia: Was presumed due to <e1>mucositis</e1> from recent <e2>chemotherapy</e2>.

Example (1) and (2) are different because the entity references are reversed. Regardless of the entity tags, in the context of the example, "chemotherapy" is the *driving entity* that led to the *emergence* of "mucositis". Therefore, example (1) is annotated with causal direction  $(e_1, e_2)$  while example (2) is annotated with  $(e_2, e_1)$ .

# 3.1.2 Explicitness / Implicitness of the causal indication

Our guidelines also capture causality expressed both explicitly and implicitly. In example (1), the causality is expressed explicitly using lexical causal connective "due to". Whereas in example (3), the causal association between "erythema" and "Dilantin" can only be understood based on the overall context of all the sentences.

patient's wife noticed <e2>erythema

 on patient's face</e2>. On [\*\*3-27\*\*]the visiting nurse [\*\*First Name
 (Titles) 8706\*\*][\*\*Last Name (Titles)11282\*\*]of a rash on his arms as
 well. The patient was noted to be
 febrile and was admitted to the [\*\*Company 191\*\*] Firm. In the EW, patient's <e1>Dilantin</e1> was discontinued and he was given Tegretol instead.

3.1.3 (Un)-certainty of causal association

Establishing real-world causality or the task of causal inference is not in the scope of our current

work. Our proposed guidelines represent a potential causal association between biomedical entities either expressed as speculation or with certainty in a similar manner. 350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

4. # <e1>Normocytic Anemia</e1> -Was 32.8 at OSH; after receiving fluids HCT has fallen further to 30. Baseline is 35 - 40. Not clinically bleeding. Perhaps due to <e2>chemotherapy</e2>.

In example (4), causality between biomedical entities is speculated through "Perhaps". While representing speculative causal associations can further enrich narrative understanding; it is not covered in our current work.

# 3.1.4 Types of causal associations

This section provides detailed guidelines for various types of causal relations (each with two directions) and one non-causal relation ("Other") along with accompanying examples.

- Cause(e<sub>1</sub>, e<sub>2</sub>) or Cause(e<sub>2</sub>, e<sub>1</sub>) Causal relations between biomedical entities are of these classes if the emergence, application or increase of a single or composite entity exclusively leads to the emergence or increase of one or a set of entities.
  - 5. It was felt that the patient's <<u>e2>seizures</u><<u>/e2></u> were caused by the combination of <<u>e1>Ritalin and thalidomide</u><<u>/e1></u>.

In example (5), "seizures" occurred due to *two drugs* viz. "Ritalin" and "thalidomide". The entity span covers both of them, and they are considered together as a *composite entity* leading to "seizures". Hence, example (5) is annotated as  $Cause(e_1, e_2)$ . The annotation would have been different had these entities been considered individually.

Thus, the "Cause" category is assigned only if the driving entity is responsible in its entirety for the effect. If the specified entity is responsible for the effect in part, then a different causal relation is defined to express this contrast.

• Enable $(e_1, e_2)$  or Enable $(e_2, e_1)$  – Causal relations between biomedical entities are of these classes if the emergence, application or increase of a single or composite entity *leads* to the emergence or increase of one or

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

450

a set of entities in a setting *where* a number of factors are at play and the *single or composite entity* under consideration is one of the contributing factors.

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

6. It was felt that the patient's <e2>seizures</e2> were caused by the combination of <e1>Ritalin</e1> and thalidomide.

Example (6) is the same as example (5) except for the entities in considerations. Both the drugs viz. "Ritalin" and "thalidomide" are contributing to the "seizures". Since the example is considering only "Ritalin", which is a contributing factor in part, it is annotated as Enable( $e_1, e_2$ ).

With the "Enable" relation type, it can easily be noted that discontinuing only "Ritalin" or "thalidomide" will not lead to the stopping of "seizures". Labelling these samples as "Cause" would have suppressed this detail, and the actions taken based on this would not have been sufficient.

Prevent(e<sub>1</sub>, e<sub>2</sub>) or Prevent(e<sub>2</sub>, e<sub>1</sub>) – Causal relations between biomedical entities are of these classes if the emergence, application or increase of a single or composite entity exclusively leads to the eradication, prevention or decrease of one or a set of entities.

This class includes the scenario of *prevent-ing* a disease or condition from occurring as well as *curing* a disease or condition if it has occurred.

# You were treated with <e2>tylenol and ibuprofen</e2> for your <e1>back pain</e1>.

In example (7), "tylenol" and "ibuprofen" are the two different entities used in conjunction to resolve the "back pain". Since the causal relation is to be identified by considering them as a *composite entity*, the example is labelled as  $Prevent(e_2, e_1)$ . The annotation would have been different had these entities been considered individually.

• Hinder(e<sub>1</sub>, e<sub>2</sub>) or Hinder(e<sub>2</sub>, e<sub>1</sub>) – Causal relations between biomedical entities are of these classes if the emergence, application or increase of a single or composite entity *leads* to the **eradication**, **prevention** or **decrease** of one or a set of entities in a setting *where* a number of factors are at play and the *single or composite entity* under consideration is one of the contributing factors.

Similar to "Prevent", this label also includes the scenario of *hindering* a disease or condition from occurring as well as *curing* a disease or condition if it has occurred.

8. You were treated with <e2>tylenol</e2> and ibuprofen for your <e1>back pain</e1>.

Example (8) is the same as example (7) except for the entities in considerations. Both the entities i.e. "tylenol" and "ibuprofen" are contributing to the resolution of "back pain". Since the example is considering only "tylenol", *individually as a contributing factor in part*, it is annotated as Hinder $(e_2, e_1)$ .

This distinction between "Prevent" and "Hinder" can be useful in scenarios such as identifying conditions that may require the use of multiple drugs for treatment.

• Other – We defined the "Other" class to annotate examples with non-causal interaction between biomedical entities. Examples of the "Other" class can either have no relationship between biomedical entities of interest or some other semantic relationship that's not causal. Being non-causal, the "Other" class doesn't have a sense of direction associated with it.

Based on our guidelines, examples with ambiguous overall context for all the annotators, entities with indirect causal association (an entity leading to a condition which in turn affects another entity) and samples from non-causal entity-pairs in the n2c2 dataset (i.e., Form-Drug, Route-Drug, etc.) are also labelled as "Other".

- Patient has tried and failed <e2>Nexium</e2>, reporting it has not helped his <e1>gastritis</e1> for 3 months.
- 10. Thus it was believed that the pt's <e1>altered mental status</e1> was secondary to <e2>narcotics</e2> withdrawal.

		Annotation	Coun
		$Cause(e_1, e_2)$	354
	$e_1$ as agent, $e_2$ as effect	$\mathbf{Enable}(\mathbf{e_1}, \mathbf{e_2})$	174
Causal		$\mathbf{Prevent}(\mathbf{e_1}, \mathbf{e_2})$	261
		$\mathbf{Hinder}(\mathbf{e_1},\mathbf{e_2})$	154
	$e_2$ as agent, $e_1$ as effect	$Cause(e_2, e_1)$	370
		$\mathbf{Enable}(\mathbf{e_2}, \mathbf{e_1})$	176
		$\mathbf{Prevent}(\mathbf{e_2}, \mathbf{e_1})$	249
		$\mathbf{Hinder}(\mathbf{e_2},\mathbf{e_1})$	185
Other	-	Other	791
Total			2714

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

Table 2: Causal types and their final counts

### 11. Atenolol was held given patient was still on <e2>amiodarone</e2> <e1>taper</e1>.

In example (9), "Nexium" was taken to prevent / cure "gastritis" but the expected effect is explicitly stated to be not observed. In example (10), the "altered mental status" is observed due to "narcotics withdrawal", however, the entity span refers only to the "narcotics". Example (11) is from the "Dosage-Drug" entity-pair of the n2c2 dataset and has no causal association between the entities.

Therefore, these examples are annotated as "Other". Similarly, examples with entity-pairs from "Form-Drug", "Strength-Drug", "Frequency-Drug", 'Route-Drug" and "Duration-Drug" are also labelled as "Other".

To summarize, we defined annotation guidelines for nine semantic causal relations (8 Causal + Other) between biomedical entities expressed in clinical notes. Our annotated dataset has examples with both explicit and implicit causality in which entities are in the same sentence or different sentences. The final count of examples for each causal type with direction is in Table 2.

### **3.2 Inter-annotator agreement**

It's difficult to comprehend narratives expressed in clinical notes due to the need of domain knowledge, short hand used by the doctors, use of abbreviations (Table 3), context spread over many sentences as well as the explicit and implicit nature of communication.

Three authors of this paper (all with fluency in English language and computer science background) annotated the dataset. Given the nature of our base data (MIMIC-III discharge summaries)

Abbreviation	Expansion	Abbreviation	Expansion
b/o	because of	d/c'd	discontinued
HCV	Hepatitis C Virus	abx	anti-biotics
DM	Diabetes Mellitus	c/b	complicated by
s/p	status post	h/o	history of

Table 3: Clinical abbreviations in the dataset

and the critical importance of our task (causal relations between biomedical entities), the annotators followed the provided guidelines, referred to sources such as websites of Centers for Disease Control and Prevention  $(CDC^3)$ , National Institute of Health ( $NIH^4$ ), and  $WebMD^5$  to understand domain-specific keywords or abbreviations, and had regular discussions about the annotation tasks.

We performed three rounds of annotation, refining our guidelines after each round by discussing various complex examples and edge cases. We achieved an inter-annotator agreement (IAA) **Fleiss' kappa** ( $\kappa$ ) score of 0.72, which indicates substantial agreement and the quality of our annotation guidelines. We did majority voting over the three available annotations to obtain the final gold annotations for our "MIMICause" dataset. In case of disagreements, another author of this paper acted as a master annotator, making the final decision on annotations after discussion with the other three annotators.

A direct comparison of our IAA score with other works is not possible due to differences in the number of annotators, annotation labels, guidelines, reported metrics etc. for different datasets. However, for reference, we discuss IAA scores reported for the task of semantic link annotations, particularly those where  $\kappa$  scores were reported. Of note is the work by Mostafazadeh et al. (2016b) and their annotation framework CaTeRS for temporal and causal relations in ROCStories corpus where the final  $\kappa$  score achieved was 0.51 among four annotators. Similarly, Bethard et al. (2008) reported a  $\kappa$  score of 0.56 and an F-measure (F-1 score) of 0.66 with two annotators labelling for only two relations viz. causal and no-rel. In the clinical domain, Bethard et al. (2017) reported a final IAA agreement (F-1) score of 0.66 on the latest Clinical TempEval dataset (Task 12 of SemEval-2017) labelled by two annotators. However, the relation types in Clinical TempEval are temporal and not

599

550

551

552

553

554

<sup>597</sup> <sup>3</sup>https://www.cdc.gov/ 598

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>https://www.nih.gov/

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>https://www.webmd.com/

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623 624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

610

causal, making the agreement score incomparable.

#### **Problem definition and Experiments** 4

We defined our task of causality understanding as the identification of semantic causal relations between biomedical entities as expressed in clinical notes. We have a total of 2714 examples annotated with these 9 different classes (8 causal and 1 non-causal).

# 4.1 **Problem Formalization**

We pose the task of causal relation identification as a multi-class classification problem f:  $(X, e_1, e_2) \mapsto y$ , where X is an input text sequence,  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are the entities between which the relation is to be identified, and  $y \in C$  is the label from the set of *nine* relations. These samples are taken from the MIMICause dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(X, e_1, e_2, y)_m\}_{m=1}^{m=N},$  where N is the total number of samples in the dataset. The text and entities are mathematically denoted as:

$$X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n]$$
(1)

$$e_1 = X[i:j] = [x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j]$$
 (2)

$$e_2 = X[k:l] = [x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots, x_l]$$
 (3)

where n is the sequence length, i, j, k and  $l \in$  $[1..n], i \leq j$  and  $k \leq l$  i.e. entities are subsequences of continuous span within the text X. Additionally, j < k or l < i holds i.e. the entities  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are non-overlapping and either of these can occur first in the sequence X.

## 4.2 Models

As a baseline for this dataset, we built our causal relation classification models using two different language models<sup>6</sup> as text encoders (BERT-BASE and Clinical-BERT) and a fully connected feedforward network (FFN) as the classifier head. The encoder output that captures the bi-directional context of the input text X through the [CLS] token is denoted by  $H_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , where d = 768 is the dimension of the encoded outputs from BERT-BASE / Clinical-BERT. The formulations of the layers of the classifier head are given by:

$$K_1 = dropout(ReLU(W_1H_0 + b_1))) \quad (4)$$

$$K_2 = W_2 K_1 + b_2 \tag{5}$$

$$p = softmax(K_2) \tag{6}$$

where  $W_1 \in R^{d' \times d}$ ,  $W_2 \in R^{L \times d'}$ , d' was set to 256 and L = 9 is the number of labels.

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658 659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

Architectures with additional context introduced between the encoder and classifier head by concatenating averaged representation of the two entities and encoder output were also tried, which led to improved results. The augmented context is denoted by:

$$H_{e_1} = \frac{1}{j - i + 1} \sum_{t=i}^{j} H_t \tag{7}$$

$$H_{e_2} = \frac{1}{l-k+1} \sum_{t=k}^{l} H_t \tag{8}$$

$$H' = concat(H_0, H_{e_1}, H_{e_2})$$
 (9)

$$H_0 = dropout(ReLU(W_0H' + b_0))$$
(10)

where i, j, k and l are the start and end indices of the entities,  $H_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $H' \in \mathbb{R}^{3d}$ ,  $W_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 3d}$  and the augmented context is assigned back to  $H_0$  for feeding into the classifier head. The architecture details without and with the entity context augmentation are shown in Figure (2) and (3) respectively. An overview of the models is given below:

• Encoder (BERT-BASE / Clinical-BERT) with feed-forward network (FFN) - The overall architecture as shown in Figure 2 is a simple feed-forward network built on top of a pre-trained encoder. The input sentence is fed as a sequence of tokens to the encoder, with encoder based special tokens such as [CLS] and entity tagging tokens such as  $\langle e1 \rangle, \langle e1 \rangle$ . The overall sentence context is passed through the fully connected feedforward network to obtain class probabilities as formulated in equations (4)–(6).

In addition to the BERT-BASE encoder, we also used the Clinical-BERT encoder to obtain the contextualised representation of our input examples. While BERT is pre-trained on standard corpus such as Wikipedia, Clinical-BERT is pre-trained on clinical notes and provides more relevant representation for our dataset, and hence led to a significant increase in the evaluation metrics.

• Encoder (BERT-BASE / Clinical-BERT) with entity context augmented feed-forward *network (FFN)* – The overall architecture is shown in Figure 3. While the input with special tokens, encoding and classifier head re-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>We use the implementation of all the encoders from the huggingface (Wolf et al., 2020) repository

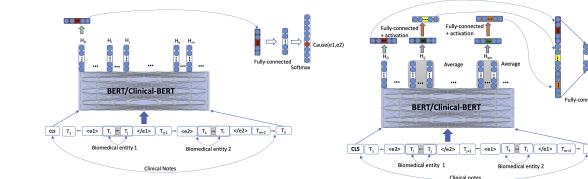


Figure 2: BERT/Clinical-BERT: FFN

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

mains the same as discussed earlier, the current architecture also enriches the sentence context with both the entities' context as formulated in equations (7)–(10). The special tokens around the entities (< e1>, </e1>,  $\langle e2 \rangle$ , and  $\langle /e2 \rangle$ ) are used to identify the tokens related to the individual entities which are then used to obtain the averaged context vector for each entity. These are then concatenated with the overall sentence context and are fed to a fully connected feed-forward network to predict the type of causal interaction expressed in the text.

Similar to our previous discussion, in addition to the BERT-BASE encoder, a pre-trained Clinical-BERT encoder was also used which resulted in the highest evaluation metrics.

	Test	Val	Train
BERT+FFN	0.23	0.25	0.29
Clinical-BERT+FFN	0.27	0.31	0.34
BERT+entity context+FFN	0.54	0.27	0.56
Clinical-BERT+entity context+FFN	0.56	0.30	0.70

Table 4: Macro F1 score on test, val and train dataset

### 4.3 Results and analysis

We trained all our models on a varied set of hyperparameters and chose the best model from training epochs based on the maximum F1 score on the validation set. For BERT+FFN model, we achieved the best scores with a batch size of 128 and a learning rate of 5e-5. The other three models achieved reported scores with a batch size of 32 and a learning rate of 1e-3. All the models were trained until convergence with the early stopping of 7 epochs with no decrease in validation loss. We used AdamW optimizer with cross-entropy loss for all models.

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

798

799

linder(e2.e1)

Figure 3: BERT/Clinical-BERT: FFN with entity context

Table 4 shows performance measures of various models on train/val/test set. Using only the BERT-BASE encoder for the relation identification doesn't yield high scores but concatenating entity context to the BERT's encoded sentence output resulted in significant improvement. Using Clinical-BERT as base encoder resulted in additional improvements, and combining entity contexts with Clinical-BERT as base encoder resulted in the highest F1 score. While Clinical BERT was trained on the MIMIC dataset and might have seen input sequences in the test dataset, it has not seen newly defined causal classes for those sequences.

#### 5 Conclusion

In this work, we proposed annotation guidelines to capture the types and direction of causal associations, annotated a dataset of 2714 examples from de-identified clinical notes and built models to provide a baseline score for our dataset.

Even with the inherent complexities in clinical text data, following the meticulously defined annotation guidelines, we achieved a high interannotator agreement, i.e., Fleiss' kappa ( $\kappa$ ) score of 0.72. Building various network architectures on top of language models, we achieved a macro F-1 score of 0.56.

An end-to-end NLP pipeline built with models for patients' data de-identification, biomedical entity extraction, and causal relations identification between various biomedical entities will be instrumental in narrative understanding from clinical notes. In the future, we are planning to extend our annotation guidelines to jointly annotate temporal and causal relations to capture the ordering of various causal interactions between biomedical entities over time.

# 800 References

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

- Steven Bethard and James H. Martin. 2008. Learning semantic links from a corpus of parallel temporal and causal relations. In *ACL*.
- Steven Bethard, Guergana Savova, Martha Palmer, and James Pustejovsky. 2017. SemEval-2017 task 12: Clinical TempEval. In Proceedings of the 11th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2017).
  - Jesse Dunietz, Lori S. Levin, and J. Carbonell. 2015. Annotating causal language using corpus lexicography of constructions. In *LAW@NAACL-HLT*.
  - Jesse Dunietz, Lori S. Levin, and J. Carbonell. 2017. The because corpus 2.0: Annotating causality and overlapping relations. In *LAW@ACL*.
  - Lei Gao, Prafulla Kumar Choubey, and Ruihong Huang. 2019. Modeling document-level causal structures for event causal relation identification. In *NAACL*.
  - R. Girju, Preslav Nakov, Vivi Nastase, Stan Szpakowicz, Peter D. Turney, and Deniz Yuret. 2007. Semeval-2007 task 04: Classification of semantic relations between nominals. In *SemEval@ACL*.
  - Harsha Gurulingappa, A. Rajput, A. Roberts, J. Fluck, M. Hofmann-Apitius, and L. Toldo. 2012. Development of a benchmark corpus to support the automatic extraction of drug-related adverse effects from medical case reports. *Journal of biomedical informatics*, 45 5:885–92.
  - O. Hassanzadeh, D. Bhattacharjya, M. Feblowitz, Kavitha Srinivas, M. Perrone, Shirin Sohrabi, and Michael Katz. 2019. Answering binary causal questions through large-scale text mining: An evaluation using cause-effect pairs from human experts. In *IJ*-*CAI*.
  - Iris Hendrickx, S. Kim, Zornitsa Kozareva, Preslav Nakov, Diarmuid Ó Séaghdha, Sebastian Padó, M. Pennacchiotti, Lorenza Romano, and Stan Szpakowicz. 2009. Semeval-2010 task 8: Multi-way classification of semantic relations between pairs of nominals. In SemEval@ACL.
  - Sam Henry, K. Buchan, Michele Filannino, A. Stubbs, and Özlem Uzuner. 2020. 2018 n2c2 shared task on adverse drug events and medication extraction in electronic health records. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association : JAMIA*.
- Rei Ikuta, Will Styler, Mariah Hamang, Timothy J. O'Gorman, and Martha Palmer. 2014. Challenges of adding causation to richer event descriptions. In *EVENTS@ACL*.
- Alistair E. W. Johnson, T. Pollard, Lu Shen, Li wei H. Lehman, M. Feng, M. Ghassemi, Benjamin Moody, Peter Szolovits, L. Celi, and R. Mark. 2016. Mimic-iii, a freely accessible critical care database. *Scientific Data*, 3.

Vivek Khetan, Roshni Ramnani, Mayuresh Anand, Subhashis Sengupta, and Andrew E. Fano. 2022. Causal bert: Language models for causality detection between events expressed in text. In *Intelligent Computing*, pages 965–980, Cham. Springer International Publishing. 850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

874

875

876

877

878

879

880

881

882

883

884

885

886

887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

897

898

899

- Feifan Liu, Abhyuday Jagannatha, and Hong Yu. 2019. Towards drug safety surveillance and pharmacovigilance: current progress in detecting medication and adverse drug events from electronic health records. *Drug safety*, 42(1):95–97.
- C. Mihaila, Tomoko Ohta, Sampo Pyysalo, and S. Ananiadou. 2012. Biocause: Annotating and analysing causality in the biomedical domain. *BMC Bioinformatics*, 14:2 – 2.
- Paramita Mirza and Sara Tonelli. 2014. An analysis of causality between events and its relation to temporal information. In *COLING*.
- Paramita Mirza and Sara Tonelli. 2016. CATENA: CAusal and TEmporal relation extraction from NAtural language texts. In *Proceedings of COLING* 2016, the 26th International Conference on Computational Linguistics: Technical Papers, pages 64–75, Osaka, Japan. The COLING 2016 Organizing Committee.
- N. Mostafazadeh, Nathanael Chambers, Xiaodong He, Devi Parikh, Dhruv Batra, Lucy Vanderwende, P. Kohli, and James F. Allen. 2016a. A corpus and cloze evaluation for deeper understanding of commonsense stories. In NAACL.
- N. Mostafazadeh, Alyson Grealish, Nathanael Chambers, James F. Allen, and Lucy Vanderwende. 2016b. Caters: Causal and temporal relation scheme for semantic annotation of event structures. In *EVENTS@HLT-NAACL*.
- Timothy J. O'Gorman, Kristin Wright-Bettner, and Martha Palmer. 2016. Richer event description: Integrating event coreference with temporal, causal and bridging annotation.
- J. Pustejovsky, J. Castaño, R. Ingria, R. Saurí, R. Gaizauskas, A. Setzer, G. Katz, and Dragomir R. Radev. 2003. Timeml: Robust specification of event and temporal expressions in text. In *New Directions in Question Answering*.
- Bhanu Pratap Singh Rawat, Abhyuday Jagannatha, Feifan Liu, and Hong Yu. 2020. Inferring adr causality by predicting the naranjo score from clinical notes. In *AMIA Annual Symposium Proceedings*, volume 2020, page 1041. American Medical Informatics Association.
- Norman Swartz. 2014. The concepts of necessary conditions and sufficient conditions.
- Leonard Talmy. 1988. Force dynamics in language and cognition. *Cognitive Science*, 12(1):49–100.

900	Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien	950
901	Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pier-	951
902	ric Cistac, Tim Rault, Remi Louf, Morgan Funtow- icz, Joe Davison, Sam Shleifer, Patrick von Platen,	952
903	Clara Ma, Yacine Jernite, Julien Plu, Canwen Xu,	953
904	Teven Le Scao, Sylvain Gugger, Mariama Drame,	954
905	Quentin Lhoest, and Alexander Rush. 2020. Trans-	955
906	formers: State-of-the-art natural language process- ing. In <i>Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Em</i> -	956
907	pirical Methods in Natural Language Processing:	957
908	System Demonstrations, pages 38-45, Online. Asso-	958
909	ciation for Computational Linguistics.	959
910	P. Wolff. 2007. Representing causation. Journal of	960
911	experimental psychology. General, 136 1:82–111.	961
912		962
913		963
914		964
915		965
916		966
917		967
918		968
919		969
920		970
921		971
922		972
923		973
924		974
925		975
926		976
927		977
928		978
929		979
930		980
931		981
932		982
933		983
934		984
935		985
936		986
937		987
938		988
939		989
940		990
941		991
942		992
943		993
944		994
945		995
946		996
947		997
948		998
949		999