A New Public Corpus for Clinical Section Identification: MedSecId

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Abstract

The process by which sections in a document are demarcated and labeled is known as section identification. Such sections are helpful to the reader when searching for information and contextualizing specific topics. The goal of this work is to segment the sections of clinical medical domain documentation. The primary contribution of this work is MedSecId, a publicly available set of 2,002 fully annotated medical notes from the MIMIC-III. We include several baselines, source code, a pretrained model and analysis of the data showing a relationship between medical concepts across sections using principal component analysis.

1 Introduction

Most unstructured medical text found in electronic health record systems (EHRs) written by medical staff have conceptually well defined sections. For example, discharge summaries are technical medical documents, written by physicians when the patient is discharged, which describe the patient's hospital stay and surrounding circumstances of their illness. As shown by the example in Figure 1, discharge summaries consist of named sections, typically in a specific sequence, such as the *History of Present Illness*; this type of section appears both in discharge summaries and in physician notes that describe a chronology of an illness that begins with the admission of the patient.

Whereas sections often have headers, section identification (SI) is more challenging than simply parsing the first several leading header tokens of the respective section (underlined in Figure 1). While the first several tokens can be helpful in identifying a section, their naming often varies. For example, the 6th section in Figure 1 starts with header tokens *Preoperative Laboratory Data*, but the section type is labs-imaging. There are also cases where the header tokens are missing, as shown in

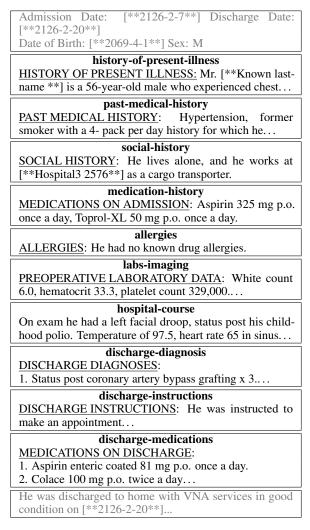


Figure 1: A MIMIC-III discharge summary note with section type in **bold**, header tokens <u>underlined</u>, and text not belonging to any section grayed out; omitted text is indicated with ellipses.

the 7th section (hospital-course) in the same figure, or where sections have several header text spans placed throughout the section. Adding to this challenge is the non-uniformity of the text, lack of section boundary syntax, and copy-pasted text from other notes or from structured data such as patient vital signs.

While discharge summary sectioning helps a physician locate specific information, the primary impetus for the structure and content stems from the ongoing dispute between providers and healthcare insurance companies in the United States. Providers are limited by how much they can bill for relatively simple medical procedures, but increasingly complex procedures garner more revenue with proper documentation. Specifically, medical billing staff and insurance companies use relative value units (RVUs), which is a monetary unit updated annually and currently set at \$34.30. The number of RVUs billed is based on the composition and number of sections included in the medical notes per guidelines set by the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services¹.

For this reason, providers are encouraged to write medical notes to maximize RVUs out of necessity (Barnes et al., 2008) even though physician training lacks such emphasis. In contrast, medical residents are evaluated with the objective structured clinical examination (OSCE), which is a student examination that evaluates students based on direct observation (Zayyan, 2011). However, the exam's evaluation with respect to medical note authoring and structure uses a very different criteria and omits RVUs (Gallagher et al., 2020). The necessity of a particular structure in medical notes, for the purpose of patient care and arguably more important insurance billing requirements, highlights the need for understanding sectioning.

However, the motivation for understanding SI is not limited to the medical field, it has a bearing on other medical NLP tasks. Since each section contains specific information, SI is often the first step in a medical NLP pipeline and can lead to downstream propagation errors causing poor task specific results if not properly executed. Examples of downstream tasks that benefit from SI include medical summarization, entity linking and natural language understanding and extraction.

While academic text segmentation has garnered interest (Hirohata et al., 2008), no publicly available medical SI annotated corpora exists (Pomares-Quimbaya et al., 2019). For this reason, we believe MedSecId is the first medical section identification dataset. It was created from 2,002 medical notes annotated by two attending physicians and one senior resident physician at the University of Illinois Chicago (UI Health). The annotation dataset is comprehensive with 2,558K annotated tokens or 97.3% of the entire corpus (see Table 1).

Description	Count
Documents	2,002
Annotations	22,561
Annotated Sentences	259,286
Total Tokens	2,630,525
Annotated Tokens	2,558,219

Table 1: Annotation dataset statistics.

The contributions of this work include: a) a comprehensive publicly available medical section annotation dataset, b) baselines with three models and several contextual and non-contextual word embeddings, c) an ontology of note to section relationships, d) human readable descriptions of medical notes and all sections annotated (see Appendix A), e) a pretrained model for each baseline, f) code to reproduce the results and read the annotations, and g) a command line tool to predict note annotations using any of the baseline models.

2 Related Work

Sectioning MedLINE abstracts was explored by McKnight and Srinivasan (2003) using a support vector machine (SVM). This classifier was used to label sentences as *Introduction, Method, Result*, or *Conclusion* and showed promising results using a bag-of-words approach. Sequence based approaches (Hirohata et al., 2008) were also used to section scientific abstracts into *Objective, Methods, Results*, and *Conclusion* labels using a conditional random field (CRF) model producing a sentence level accuracy of 95.5%.

While academic abstract segmentation was a well explored area (Hirohata et al., 2008), Tepper et al. (2012) were the first to apply statistical methods to the medical domain to automatically classify sections of clinical free text into sections. Their method used in, out, begin (IOB) annotation (Ramshaw and Marcus, 1995) with labels to mark named sections. For example, B-HPI indicates a beginning token for the History of Present Illness section. Their dataset consisted of annotating the 2010 i2b2 corpus with a section header and medical ontology label, and obtained an F-measure of 0.92 for the concept extraction task (Uzuner et al., 2011; de Bruijn et al., 2010). A Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt) model (Berger et al., 1996) and beam search were used for classification to produce the IOB sequence for token tagging.

¹https://www.cms.gov/Regulations-and-Guidance

Along with MaxEnt, other non-neural network methods, such as SVM and CRF models continue to be popular with few exceptions as detailed in the comprehensive survey of Pomares-Quimbaya et al. (2019). One such exception (Sadoughi et al., 2018) used a long-short term memory (LSTM) model with word-to-vector (word2vec) embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013a,b) for a binary classification of section boundaries. Even though the corpus consists of dictated and transcribed notes, they show that neural methods work for the section segmentation task. Other notable neural network (NN) text segmentation works use convolutional neural networks (CNNs) over sentence embeddings with a softmax over the output of a bi-directional long-short term memory (BiLSTM) layer to demarcate sections as a binary classification across both medical and non-medical datasets (Badjatiya et al., 2018). Barrow et al. (2020) also used a LSTM in a network that aggregates features across fast-Text word embeddings using a concatenated segment pooling LSTM (S-LSTM) for non-medical Wikipeda articles (Bojanowski et al., 2017).

The work of Nair et al. (2022) most closely resembles our SI work. However, their model classifies only the four SOAP (Subjective, Objective, Assessment and Plan) sections available in the corpus leaving the others as future work. Their methods also only have been tested against the Flair framework, which uses concatenated static word embeddings that are fine tuned locally for the task on the 2010 i2b2 corpus. Our method includes finetuning the BERT embeddings themselves as an endto-end joint learning process. Additionally, they have provided no annotation pipeline or process to create a semi-supervised or bootstrapped corpus. Our work includes medical domain specific experiments with various word embedding combinations and novel data analysis using the Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) (Bodenreider, 2004) and cui2vec (Beam et al., 2020) (see Section 3.3). It also includes other methods and network experimental configurations the authors have not yet tried as they used the Flair framework "out of the box". Another significant difference is their annotations are not available² while we classify 50 sections and provide our code with annotations publicly.

²The authors did not respond to our request for obtaining their corpus for baseline comparison.

3 Dataset

MedSecId is a subset of the MIMIC-III version 1.4 corpus (Johnson et al., 2016) that we annotated; MIMIC-III is publicly available³ and consists of critical care unit EHR records from the Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center in Boston, Massachusetts. The dataset contains 58,976 hospital admissions across 46,520 patients who were admitted to the intensive care unit (ICU) surgical, medical, and neonatal departments. It includes 2,083,180 unstructured medical text notes handwritten by medical professionals across several disciplines and contains 15 categories, such as discharge summaries and radiology notes.

We created a curated annotation set consisting of text spans taken from a random sample across five categories of MIMIC-III medical notes⁴, including discharge summaries, *Radiology*, *Consult*, *Echo*, and *Physician* progress notes (see Table 2). Each text span contains the type of the section, such as *History of Present Illness*, with zero-index character offsets of where the span starts and ends in the note.

Category	Count	Proportion
Discharge summary	1,254	62.64%
Physician	288	14.39%
Radiology	205	10.24%
Echo	198	9.89%
Consult	57	2.85%
Total	2,002	100%

Table 2: Annotated medical notes by category and their distribution in the annotation set.

While each section contains a single type, sections have zero or more overlapping header text spans (see Figure 1). In most cases, there is a single header span, but vital signs sections can "float" without a physical exam header. These header spans consist of text that identify the section such as *History Of Present Illness*, an alternate spelling or abbreviation such as *HPI*. Even though single header spans usually appear at the beginning of a section, additional section headers are found later in the body indicating subsections in some cases. Since section type inclusion highly varies based on the patient's age, notes were annotated with an age type (adult, pediatric or neonatal patient), based on the content of the note by our annotator.

³Access to the MIMIC-III corpus requires creating a PhysioNet account and finishing a training course.

⁴The unstructured medical note data was taken from the NOTEEVENTS table.

Туре	Tokens	Spans	Notes
physical-examination	203K (8%)	1,385 (6%)	Consult, Physician
history-of-present-illness	239K (9%)	1,348 (6%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
allergies	9,221 (0%)	1,205 (5%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
hospital-course	692K (26%)	1,165 (5%)	Discharge summary
labs-imaging	416K (16%)	1,155 (5%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
past-medical-history	60K (2%)	1,141 (5%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
discharge-condition	14K (1%)	1,132 (5%)	Discharge summary
discharge-instructions	183K (7%)	1,077 (5%)	Discharge summary
discharge-diagnosis	34K (1%)	1,040 (5%)	Discharge summary
chief-complaint	9,622 (0%)	996 (4%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
discharge-medications	196K (7%)	914 (4%)	Discharge summary
social-history	28K (1%)	912 (4%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
medication-history	49K (2%)	867 (4%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
family-history	11K (0%)	802 (4%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
discharge-disposition	5,602 (0%)	754 (3%)	Discharge summary
major-surgical-or-invasive-procedure	16K (1%)	704 (3%)	Discharge summary
facility	2,668 (0%)	502 (2%)	Discharge summary
reason	5,588 (0%)	458 (2%)	Consult, Radiology
findings	58K (2%)	395 (2%)	Echo, Radiology
assessment-and-plan	131K (5%)	381 (2%)	Consult, Physician
review-of-systems	7,422 (0%)	329 (1%)	Consult, Discharge summary, Physician
image-type	1,820 (0%)	328 (1%)	Radiology
last-dose-of-antibiotics	3,689 (0%)	293 (1%)	Consult, Physician
24-hour-events	16K (1%)	250 (1%)	Physician
code-status	1,879 (0%)	237 (1%)	Physician
impression	8,233 (0%)	224 (1%)	Echo, Radiology
disposition	1,161 (0%)	210 (1%)	Physician
conclusions	28K (1%)	206 (1%)	Echo
communication	1,304 (0%)	199 (1%)	Physician
patient-test-information	13K (1%)	198 (1%)	Echo

Table 3: The top 30 most frequently annotated sections.

3.1 Annotation Process

Our annotation process consisted of several preliminary rounds of annotation, that led to our final annotation guidelines and final annotation.

Before annotation began, a custom set of regular expressions were used to pre-annotate, similar to previous work (Shivade et al., 2015); ours were medical note specific and captured header tokens along with the section spans. The application of the regular expressions was only a means to reduce the work of the annotators, who followed the annotation guide regardless of any rule based pre-annotations. The initial rule based automatic annotation process was amended by the work of Alsentzer and Kim (2018), who generously shared their History of Present Illness annotations to better identify and segment the initial dataset used by our annotators. These automatic annotations were edited by the annotators after they were imported into INCEpTION (Klie et al., 2018) and saved to later compute an inter-coder agreement between the physicians and rule-based output (see Section 3.2).

An attending physician (designated as a primary annotator) co-wrote a preliminary annotation guide

with input from a secondary physician annotator. These two annotators engaged in a process of annotation, discussion and revision of the guidelines: they annotated a first set of one hundred notes, revised the guidelines, annotated a second set of one hundred notes, and finalized the guidelines after this second round.

Here we summarize the issues that the annotators faced during these preliminary rounds of annotation. This process was useful for the physicians to reach a consensus on what sections should be annotated and agreed on section types given their experience writing such notes themselves. A set of sections and their relation to notes began to coalesce during this process, which provided the motivation to create an ontology for the purpose of a meta documentation about the annotations and the utilitarian purpose to assist in annotation by importing it as a "knowledge base" in INCEpTION. The ontology consisted of a one-to-many mapping from notes to 50 section types using each section's header tokens captured by the regular expressions by string massaging. For example, History of Present Illness became history-of-present-illness. Among the categories, 29 sections were shared

across more than one note, such as *History of Present Illness* shared between notes *Discharge summary*, *Consult*, and *Physician* (see Table 3 for annotated sections and Appendix A for full listings).

	A1	A2	A3	R
A1	1.0	0.81	0.87	0.73
A2		1.0	0.84	0.49
A3			1.0	0.53
R				1.0

Table 4: Krippendorff's α coefficient of interannotator agreement between the annotators and the regular expressions. A1 is the primary annotator, A2 is the secondary annotator and A3 is the third annotator, and R represents the regular expressions.

Each section type was then agreed on by the physicians with many re-typed and regrouped. For example, Echo notes contained internal subsections for each chamber of the heart, and was resolved by grouping the entire section as *Findings* to match section types in Radiology notes. Other subsections implicitly resulted by physicians copying radiology findings in discharge summaries. In an effort to reduce complexity, a flat note-to-section hierarchy without creating a second section level was kept. In some cases this was achieved by combining laboratory results data with radiology findings/diagnosis as a single section by simply re-casting Labs to Labs/Radiology for sections that included imaging studies. Other sections needed to be combined as not all notes had a clean separation.

To accommodate for a significant variation in how physicians labeled sections in these situations, *Labs* and *Radiology* was combined into a *Labs/Radiology* section. *Labs* and *Imaging* were also combined into *Labs/Imaging*. Since discharge summaries typically incorporate instructions for the patient and follow up information, we categorized these together broadly as *Discharge instructions*. The MIMIC-III pseudo tokens, such as [**First Name**] were not annotated unless they were included in the body of the section.

The primary and secondary annotators finished revising the annotation guidelines and then trained the third annotator. A subset of 80 medical notes, chosen from the second batch of 100 that the primary and secondary annotator had annotated and discussed, was used to train the third annotator. Because these first two batches were only used for creating guidelines and training, they were not added in the final annotation set. During this process, the well known Krippendorff's α coefficient (Krippendorff, 2011), was used to compute inter-annotator agreement (IAA) between this last annotator and the other two, until α became higher than 0.8.

3.2 Final Annotation and IAA Computation

Once the guidelines were finalized the final annotation process started. A set of 100 notes (different than the sets discussed in Section 3.1) was held out to compute the inter-annotator agreement (IAA) on the final guidelines. The remaining 1,902 notes were divvied up among the three annotators, as customary.

Inter-annotator agreement was calculated on the 100 held out notes as exact section character offsets and section types—both the offsets and the section type had to match to be considered correct. This agreement was calculated among the human annotators, and subsequently between each annotator and the regular expressions that were initially used to segment the notes.

Among humans, Krippendorff's α yielded more than acceptable values of 0.84 to 0.87 on the final set held out for this IAA calculation (see Table 4). At this point, these annotations were added to the final dataset by selecting notes with the fewest issues⁵ using the primary annotator as the tie-breaker.

While we achieved a high inter-coder agreement among human annotators, we found troubling data in terms of the performance of the regular expression annotation approach. We computed an aggregate Krippendorff's α =0.54 between the human physician annotators and our custom regular expressions (see Section 3.1) on the final annotated data, which falls more than 14 points shy of the "lowest conceivable limit" of 0.68 (Krippendorff, 2004). This shows how regular expression's performance to segment notes falls short of that by human annotators (see Table 4), yet regular expressions continue to be the most common methods used for section identification (Pomares-Quimbaya et al., 2019; Shivade et al., 2015).

In part, the regular expressions often failed to demarcate the entire section, especially in text with irregular formatting toward the end. Furthermore, additional analysis shows the α scores between individual annotators and the regular expressions are low as well, albeit with a fairly high variance. Krippendorff suggests that acceptable scores that are

⁵Issues included placement of header tokens and missing sections. For example, an annotation with a defined section would win over another's annotation with the section type.

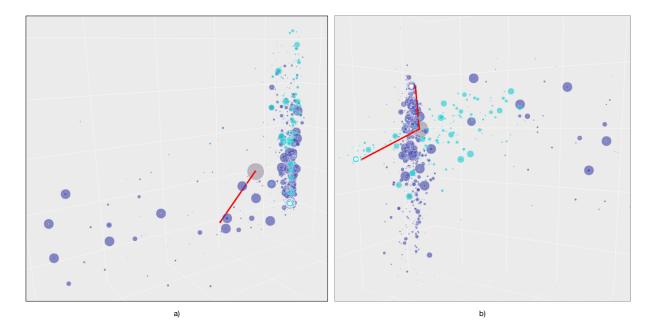


Figure 2: Concept unique identifier (CUI) Plots: a) plot of past-medical-history (purple) and past-surgical-history (blue) reduced to 3D together as one data set with the first principal component (red line) with data point size as the TF/IDF score, b) plot of the same sections but reduced to 3D as separate data points with respective first principal components.

"customary to require" have $\alpha > 0.8$ (Krippendorff, 2004). On one hand, an α of 0.73 between physician *A1* and the automatic regular expression annotator *R* clears the minimal limit threshold. However, this metric falls well below the "aimed" score of 0.8. The larger issue is with physician *A2*'s and *A3*'s scores of 0.49 and 0.53, which fall short of the minimum limit by a large margin. From these scores (see Table 4) and the low overall α , we conclude regular expressions do not sufficiently segment medical notes, therefore the annotation set we provide should be considered the gold standard for medical note identification and segmentation.

3.3 Data Analysis

An interesting discovery concerned projections of medical conditions across sections in embedded space. Concept unique identifiers (CUIs) were extracted using MedCAT (Kraljevic et al., 2021) and weighted by TF/IDF (Sparck Jones, 1972) across sections. Each CUI was mapped to a vector from *cui2vec* embeddings, and then reduced to three dimensions using principal component analysis (PCA), shown in Figure 2. The plot was generated without normalizing or standardizing the data so CUI vector magnitudes were retained for analysis. Figure 2 (a) shows the past-medical-history section (purple) CUIs on the horizontal axis with past-surgical-history (blue) CUIs only on

the vertical axis with size proportional to TF/IDF.

The past surgical and medical history sections in discharge summary notes project many medical disease CUIs as orthogonal to surgical CUIs. The medical disease CUIs on the vertical axis are those that do not have surgery as a treatment option, such as hypertension. However, a CUI representing coronary artery disease that plots along the surgical history vertical axis does require surgery. Most of the data points that share the vertical axis along with past-medical-history are those that require both medication and surgery, such as cancer.

Not only does this show *cui2vec* being used in practice for the first time, it illustrates an application of how groupings of concepts can be visualized and analyzed to gain intuition and insight in complex medical data. In our data, this includes not only a semantic relationship between concepts, but how those concepts represent the treatments involved based on the section from which they originate. Given this data relationship, we hypothesize that utilization of *cui2vec* embeddings, such as concatenating them to word vectors, will increase performance of task specific models including SI.

3.4 Limitations

MedSecId is limited to notes (with the exception of the discharge summary) of patients admitted to an ICU from the MIMIC-III corpus for several

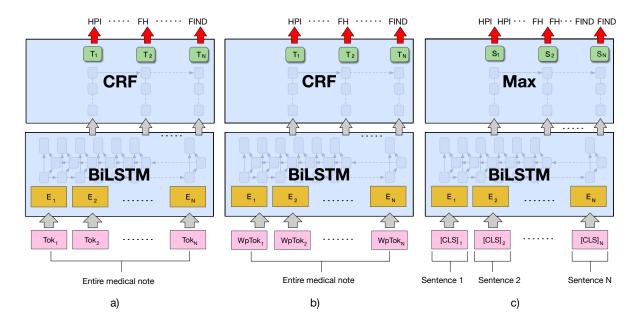


Figure 3: Baseline models: a) BiLSTM-CRF_{tok} BiLSTM model with non-contextual token input embeddings, b) BERT-CRF_{tok} BiLSTM model with BERT word piece token fixed input embeddings, c) BERT_{sent} BiLSTM model with [CLS] sentence embeddings using the per sentence majority label.

note categories with no data included after the patient leaves to a lower severity department⁶. Notes written afterward are an essential source of data that provides an aspect of the patients' stay that is otherwise lacking in the corpus, such as daily progress *Physician* notes. However, *Radiology* and *Echo* notes from the MIMIC-III corpus apply to all hospital departments since they are uniform for all patients, regardless of their location, outpatient or inpatient. In addition, discharge summaries entail the entire hospital visit, including the ICU and the remainder of the admission.

3.5 Implementation Details

The annotation set was randomly sampled per note and divided as a stratified dataset into training (80%), validation (10%) and test (10%) datasets. The medical note structure ontology (see Section 3.1) is distributed as both a RDF Turtle file and a CSV file along with the annotations. The publicly available⁷ code to train, validate, and test the model also includes additional APIs to access the annotated data, perform inference with the pretrained model or train a new model. This codebase includes functionality to use the pretrained model or utilize the annotations for experimentation and is ready to easily be installed.⁸ This codebase also references a related project useful for parsing MIMIC-III text, pseudo token replacement, and Postgres database to Python object relational mapping.

4 Methods

Because the section text spans do not break on tokens, we cast our task as a named entity recognition (NER) using in, out (IO) encoding⁹ on a 50 way classification including <none> for text with no sections (see Table 7). Using this encoding, we created several baselines across two BiLSTM models¹⁰ for the purpose of future work benchmarking. These baselines include majority label metrics, a token BiLSTM-CRF, and a sentinel BERT embedding (Devlin et al., 2019) LSTM model (see Figure 3). Aside from adjusting the LSTM hidden size, gradient clipping, and number of epochs, all parameters were held constant across all experiments (see Appendix B for all hyperparameters used).

BiLSTM-CRFtok The token model consists of a simple non-contextual input word embeddings, a LSTM layer and fully connected linear layer using a CRF output with labels assigned by the Viterbi

⁶Only five note categories are available (see Table 2).

⁷https://github.com/uic-nlp-lab/medsecid

 $^{^{8}\}mbox{All}$ that is required in a pip install. See the GitHub repo for details.

⁹IOB encoding was not used as there are no transitions from one section to another and to reduce the label count.

¹⁰No models use a BERT transformer, only BERT token and sentinel ([CLS]) embeddings.

Id	Name	mF1	mP	mR	MF1	MP	MR
1	Majority Label	0.023	0.023	0.023	0.0	0	0.005
2	BERT _{sent}	0.925	0.925	0.925	0.589	0.616	0.6
3	BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (word2vec)	0.927	0.927	0.927	0.778	0.78	0.801
4	BERT-CRF _{sent}	0.929	0.929	0.929	0.689	0.734	0.7
5	BERT _{sent} BioBERT	0.94	0.94	0.94	0.687	0.73	0.679
6	BERT-CRF _{sent} BioBERT	0.94	0.94	0.94	0.705	0.757	0.704
7	BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (GloVE 50D)	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.76	0.783	0.765
8	BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} fastText	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.796	0.806	0.806
9	BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (GloVE 300D)	0.955	0.955	0.955	0.787	0.801	0.788

Table 5: Summarization of performance metrics where mF1 is the micro F1, mP is the micro precision, mR is the micro recall, MF1 is the macro F1, MP is the macro precision, MR is the macro recall.

algorithm. Several embeddings were used with this model, including word2vec (Mikolov et al., 2013a,b), Global Vectors for Word Representation (GLoVe) (Pennington et al., 2014) and fastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017) (Crawl) embeddings.

BERT_{sent} To address the issue of exploding gradients, we created a sentence-based model using static BERT sentinel embeddings to lower the input length to the LSTM layer. The model assumes sections rarely break mid-sentence since every sentence is assigned one section. Sentences with more than one section annotation will lower end-to-end performance. However, 97.6% of the annotation set contains sentences with a single section for all tokens of the respective sentence as shown in Table 6. The output of the final layer of the first time step was used as the input to a LSTM. The LSTM output forwarded to a dense layer with one output neuron for each label and an output max over the label.

Unique Sections	Count	Proportion
1	253025	97.59%
2	5589	2.16%
3	589	0.23%
4	72	0.03%
5	11	0.00%

Table 6: Distribution of sentences having a single section label across all tokens of the respective sentence.

Both the standard small BERT model and BioBERT embeddings (Lee et al., 2020) are included in the baseline results (see Section 5). A ClinicalBERT baseline model (Alsentzer et al., 2019) would not provide a fair baseline metric for comparison with future works since it trained on the MIMIC-III corpus so it was excluded.

BERT-CRFsent Like BERT_{sent}, but adds a CRF layer with Viterbi assigned labels.

5 Results

The baseline models described in Section 4 were each trained until the validation loss converged, then early stopped. The results are summarized in Table 5 with label specific results in Table 7. We report performance metrics by counting correct predictions when the character span boundaries match exactly and the sections type match. If either do not match, it is counted as an incorrect prediction.

From the majority label, it's clear the models perform comparatively well as shown in the summary results in Table 5. The GLoVe model has the best micro F1 of 0.96 with the fastText model having the best macro F1 of 0.8. This 16 point spread is evident from how performance drops off for the bottom 13 section types. Many of these low performers are those that were re-casted or re-grouped (see Section 3.1), and could be regrouped to an umbrella section type like *Labs/Imaging/Radiology* if such a rigorous delineation was not necessary.

The BERT_{sent} does not lag far behind, but its performance using sentinel embeddings does not capture sections as well as the token level models despite long document length. Performance significantly improved and models converged faster with the use of gradient clipping to alleviate issues of LSTM exploding gradients (Bengio et al., 1994).

6 Conclusions and Future Work

We presented MedSecId, a comprehensive dataset of 2,002 medical annotations from the MIMIC-III corpus across five note types and 50 sections. The dataset contains section types, headers and patient age annotations. Our dataset shows promising baseline results from simple models such as BiLSTMs with diverse inputs, but still leaves room for improvement by more sophisticated models.

We expect performance using our models to improve pipelines that use rule based methods for

Id	Label	mF1	mP	mR	MF1	MP	MR	Acc	Count
1	procedure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	156
2	labs	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	436
3	prenatal-screens	0.276	0.276	0.276	0.216	0.5	0.138	0.276	105
4	imaging	0.357	0.357	0.357	0.263	0.5	0.178	0.357	990
5	comparison	0.414	0.414	0.414	0.195	0.333	0.138	0.414	222
6	code-status	0.513	0.513	0.513	0.226	0.333	0.171	0.513	150
7	wet-read	0.521	0.521	0.521	0.342	0.5	0.26	0.521	121
8	communication	0.556	0.556	0.556	0.179	0.25	0.139	0.556	133
9	impression	0.563	0.563	0.563	0.18	0.25	0.141	0.563	920
10	disposition	0.647	0.647	0.647	0.262	0.333	0.216	0.647	68
11	history	0.688	0.688	0.688	0.272	0.333	0.229	0.688	170
12	past-surgical-history	0.745	0.745	0.745	0.427	0.5	0.372	0.745	145
13	current-medications	0.746	0.746	0.746	0.142	0.167	0.124	0.746	1406
14	contrast	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.444	0.5	0.4	0.8	25
15	<none></none>	0.816	0.816	0.816	0.03	0.033	0.027	0.816	6378
16	discharge-disposition	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.151	0.167	0.138	0.83	513
17	addendum	0.833	0.833	0.833	0.151	0.167	0.130	0.833	3106
18	last-dose-of-antibiotics	0.872	0.872	0.872	0.151	0.107	0.436	0.872	397
19	indication	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.468	0.5	0.44	0.88	117
20	physical-examination	0.881	0.881	0.881	0.156	0.167	0.147	0.881	22113
20	image-type	0.884	0.884	0.884	0.313	0.333	0.295	0.884	181
$\frac{21}{22}$	discharge-condition	0.884	0.884	0.884	0.313	0.333	0.293	0.884	1490
22	infusions	0.904	0.904	0.904	0.317	0.555	0.301	0.904	99
23 24									
24 25	history-of-present-illness	0.924 0.925	0.924	0.924	0.137	0.143	0.132	0.924	24950
-	discharge-medications		0.925	0.925	0.192	0.2	0.185	0.925	25088
26	flowsheet-data-vitals	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.482	0.5	0.466	0.932	2128
27	24-hour-events	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.244	0.25	0.238	0.954	1765
28	past-medical-history	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.163	0.167	0.16	0.959	5990
29	discharge-diagnosis	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.196	0.2	0.192	0.959	3578
30	family-history	0.968	0.968	0.968	0.328	0.333	0.323	0.968	1171
31	chief-complaint	0.968	0.968	0.968	0.492	0.5	0.484	0.968	1142
32	medical-condition	0.971	0.971	0.971	0.328	0.333	0.324	0.971	409
33	review-of-systems	0.977	0.977	0.977	0.494	0.5	0.488	0.977	724
34	labs-imaging	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.142	0.143	0.14	0.981	45855
35	discharge-instructions	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.166	0.167	0.164	0.986	23208
36	social-history	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.249	0.25	0.247	0.988	3114
37	allergies	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.331	0.333	0.33	0.989	891
38	assessment-and-plan	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.199	0.2	0.198	0.99	12728
39	reason	0.992	0.992	0.992	0.332	0.333	0.331	0.992	646
40	conclusions	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.498	0.5	0.497	0.994	2814
41	findings	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.333	0.333	0.333	0.998	6053
42	hospital-course	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.998	78321
43	social-and-family-history	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	52
44	technique	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	22
45	clinical-implications	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	36
46	other-medications	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	489
47	major-surgical-or-invasive-procedure	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1903
48	facility	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	344
49	patient-test-information	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1349
50	medication-history	1	1	1	0.333	0.333	0.333	1	6082
50	meaneurion mistory	1	1	1	0.555	0.555	0.555	1	0002

Table 7: By label BiLSTM-CRF_{tok} performance where mF1 is the micro F1, mP is the micro precision, mR is the micro recall, MF1 is the macro F1, MP is the macro precision, MR is the macro recall, Acc is the accuracy, count is the the number of tokens encountered in the test set. The <none> label is for tokens with no section annotated.

SI as mentioned in Section 3.2. These pipelines include discharge note summarization, and other downstream tasks that would benefit from having header and non-section text removed such as training word embeddings such as ClinicalBERT.

Hyperparameter tuning with the baseline models is a next logical step for further work. Another obvious opportunity to improve performance is to concatenate *cui2vec* embeddings in the input layer as described in Section 3.3. Other future work includes comparing the results using the synthetic tokens in place of pseudo tokens, which would shed light on how models learn with more realistic data.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by award R01 CA225446 from the National Institutes of Health. We thank Andy Boyd for his support on this work.

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A Descriptions

Table 8: Note Categories

Name	Description
Consult	Notes generated when a specialst intervenes in a patient's care.
Discharge summary	A discharge summary describes a patient's stay at a hospital and the care they received. They can
	also include follow up instructions, medications and a schedule for future appointments.
Echo	An ultrasound of the heart.
Physician	Daily notes taken by the physician on their rounds as a part of a patient check up.
Radiology	Diagnosis and other notes taken by a radiologiest based on images such as xrays, MRI, CAT scans.

Section Type	Name	Description
24-hour-events	24 Hour Events	Description of what happened in the past 24 hours of
		the patients stay.
addendum	Addendum	An addition to the note.
allergies	Allergies	Patient allergies to medication and food of varying
		severity.
assessment-and-plan	Assessment And Plan	An overview of the problems that are occuring and
•		the plan to address each problem.
critical-care-attending-addendum	Attending Addendum	The attending physician's addition to the note.
chief-complaint	Chief Complaint	The reason why the patient came to the hospital.
clinical-implications	Clinical Implications	Why this study is important.
code-status	Code Status	What should be done in the event of a cardiac or
		respiratory arrest, end of goals care.
communication	Communication	Information about who to contact and the relation to
		the patient.
comparison	Comparison	Comparing the new study to prior studies to determine
I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I	r i i i	interval changes.
conclusions	Conclusions	Interpretation of the findings in relation to the pa-
		tient's condition.
contrast	Contrast	Was contrast introduced into the patient.
current-medications	Current Medications	Medications that the patient are taking at home.
discharge-condition	Discharge Condition	The stability of the patient upon discharge.
discharge-diagnosis	Discharge Diagnosis	The diagnosis of the patient after being worked up in
disentinge diagnosis	Discharge Diagnosis	the hospital.
discharge-disposition	Discharge Disposition	Where the patient is being discharged to.
discharge-instructions	Discharge Instructions	Post discharge instructions regarding what the patient
discharge instructions	Discharge instructions	can and cannot do.
discharge-medications	Discharge Medications	Medications that the patient will sent home with and
disentinge medications	Discharge medications	to continue taking.
disposition	Disposition	Where the patient will go within the hospital.
family-history	Family History	Medical history of family members.
findings	Findings	Specific finidngs during the study.
flowsheet-data-vitals	Flowsheet Data/Vitals	Information pulled from flowsheets that are discretely
nowsheet dud thuis	Tiowsheet Budy Thuis	kept within the ehr.
history	History	Patient's clinical history warranting exam.
history-of-present-illness	History Of Present Illness	A description of the events surrounding the reason
instory of present liness	mistory of resent miless	why the patient came to the hospital: Symptom onset,
		duration, severity and associatating factors.
hospital-course	Hospital Course	A summary of what happened during the patient's
nospital-course	Hospital Course	time in the hospital.
image-type	Image Type	The type of study being performed.
imaging	Imaging	All image related orders placed by the physician in-
iniaging	imaging	cluding: CT, XRAY, ECHO, MRI, Ultrasound.
impression	Impression	Overall summerization of the study.
indication	Indication	Why the study was performed.
infusions	Infusions	Medications classified as a constant infusion.
labs	Labs	Laboratory values.
labs-imaging	Labs / Imaging	Laboratory values. Lab and radiological results.
last-dose-of-antibiotics	Last Dose Of Antibiotics	Time of the last dose of antibiotic medications.
major-surgical-or-invasive-procedure	Major Surgical Or []	Any procedures or surgies that occured while the pa-
major-surgicar-or-mvasive-procedure	major Surgical OI []	tient was at the hospital.
medical-condition	Medical Condition	History of the patient and why the patient needs the
incurcal-conution		
	Continued on the set	study.
	Continued on the ne.	м puge

Table 9: Section Types

Table 9: Section Types (cont)

Section Type	Name	Description
medication-history	Medication History	Medications that the patient are taking at home.
other-medications	Other Medications	Other medications the patient is receiving.
past-medical-history	Past Medical History	Medical problems a patient has.
past-surgical-history	Past Surgical History	All surgeries the patient has had in their past.
patient-test-information	Patient/Test Information	Basic and standardized information of the patient.
physical-examination	Physical Examination	Evalutating anatomic finds of a patient through palpa-
		tion and auscultation.
prenatal-screens	Prenatal Screens	Screening of blood type and infections prior to deliv-
		ery.
procedure	Procedure	Procedure name.
reason	Reason	Why the consulting team was brought in for the pa-
		tient's care.
review-of-systems	Review of Systems	A generalized review of potential symptoms that the
		patient might not have addressed in the chief com-
		plaint or history of present illness.
social-history	Social History	History of occupation, recreational activities, and liv-
		ing situation.
social-and-family-history	Social and Family History	Combination of social and family history.
technique	Technique	How the procedure was being performed.
wet-read	Wet Read	Initial read, not the official read of the study.
addendum	addendum	An addition to the note.
facility	facility	The location the patient is going after discharge.

B Hyperparameters

The hyperparameters used to train the models described in Section 4. Those hyperparameters which differed for each model are given in Table 10. Hyperparameters shared across all models are given in Table 11. The only non-zero drop out was used in the LSTM layer.

Model	Epochs	Learning Rate	CRF
BERT-CRF _{sent}	40	0.003	True
BERT-CRF _{sent} BioBERT	45	0.003	True
BERT _{sent}	35	0.003	False
BERT _{sent} BioBERT	45	0.003	False
BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (GloVE 300D)	30	0.01	True
BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (GloVE 50D)	25	0.01	True
BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} (word2vec)	30	0.01	True
BiLSTM-CRF _{tok} fastText	40	0.01	True

Table 10: The hyperparameters of the models given in the results. Epochs is the number of epochs used to train the model, Learning Rate is the learning rate for the update step size of the loss function and CRF is whether the BiLSTM used a CRF output layer.

Name	Value	Description
Batch Size	20	The size of the mini-batches used to train the model.
Hidden Size	250	The hidden size of the LSTM.
Num Layers	2	The number of stacked layers of the LSTM.
Dropout	0.15	The dropout of the LSTM.

Table 11: The shared hyperparameters set for all models.