Negation in Norwegian: an annotated dataset

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Abstract

This paper introduces NoReCneg – the first annotated dataset of negation for Norwegian. Negation cues and their in-sentence scopes have been annotated across more than 11K sentences spanning more than 400 documents for a subset of the Norwegian Review Corpus (NoReC). In addition to providing in-depth discussion of the annotation guidelines, we also present a first set of benchmark results based on a graph-parsing approach.

1 Introduction

This paper introduces a new data set annotating negation for Norwegian. As shown in the example below, the annotations identify both negation cues (in bold) and their scopes (in brackets) within the sentence:

(1) Men kanskje ikke [helt troverdig] .
   ‘But maybe not completely credible.’

The underlying corpus is the NoReC fine data set (Øvrelid et al., 2020) – a subset of the Norwegian Review Corpus (NoReC) (Velldal et al., 2018) annotated for fine-grained sentiment, comprising professional reviews from a range of different domains. The new data set introduced here, named NoReCneg, is the first data set of negation for Norwegian. We also present experimental results for negation resolution based on a graph-parsing approach shown to yield state-of-the-art results for other languages in Section 2 with regards to both annotation and modeling. In Section 3 we detail our annotation guidelines, the annotation procedure and further present an analysis of inter-annotator agreement. In Section 4 we then summarize the statistics of the final annotated data set, before presenting the first benchmark results for negation resolution in Section 5. Before concluding, we finally provide a discussion of future work in Section 6.

2 Related Work

Below we discuss related work on negation, starting with datasets before moving on to modeling.

2.1 Datasets

While NoReCneg is the first dataset annotated for negation for Norwegian, there are a number of existing negation datasets for a range of other languages, such as Chinese (Zou et al., 2016), Dutch (Afzal et al., 2014), English (Pyysalo et al., 2007; Vincze et al., 2008; Morante and Daelemans, 2012; Councill et al., 2010; Konstantinova et al., 2012), German (Cotik et al., 2016), Spanish (Jiménez-Zafra et al., 2018; Diaz et al., 2017), Swedish (Dalianis and Velupillai, 2010; Skeppstedt, 2011), Italian (Altuna et al., 2017), and Japanese (Matsuyoshi et al., 2014). Jiménez-Zafra et al. (2020) provide a thorough survey of existing negation datasets. A large proportion of negation corpora are based on data from the biomedical or clinical domain (Vincze et al., 2008; Dalianis and Velupillai, 2010; Cotik et al., 2016; Diaz et al., 2017). We will here focus on the corpora that are most relevant to the current annotation effort: the SFU Corpus and the ConanDoyle-neg corpus. The SFU corpus also annotates review data, hence is similar to our work in terms of text type, whereas ConanDoyle-neg is one of the most widely used datasets in the field.

The English (Konstantinova et al., 2012) and
parts of the SFU Review Corpus contain reviews from eight domains (books, cars, computers, cookware, hotels, movies, music, phones) which have been annotated for sentiment at document-level, as well as negation and speculation at sentence-level. The annotation scheme for negation is based primarily on the guidelines developed for the biomedical BioScope corpus \cite{Vincze:2008}, which largely employ syntactic criteria for the determination of scope, choosing the maximal syntactic unit that contains the negated content. Unlike BioScope, however, negation cues are not included within the scope in SFU. The corpus does not annotate affixal cues, e.g. im- in impossible.

The English ConanDoyle-neg corpus contains Sherlock Holmes stories manually annotated for negation cues, scopes, and events \cite{Morante:2012} and was employed in the 2012 *SEM shared task on negation detection \cite{Morante:2012}. The annotation scheme is also based on the scheme employed for the BioScope corpus \cite{Vincze:2008}, but with important modifications. In ConanDoyle-neg, the cue is not included in the scope, and it annotates a wide range of cue types, i.e., both sub-token (affixal), single token and multi-token negation cues. Scopes may furthermore be discontinuous, often an effect of the requirement to include the subject within the negation scope. This is in contrast to the annotation scheme found in the SFU corpus, where subjects are not included in the negation scope. Note that the NegPar corpus contains a re-annotated version of the ConanDoyle-neg corpus, which fixes known bugs and also adds Chinese data \cite{Liu:2018}.

2.2 Modeling

Traditional approaches to the task of negation detection have typically employed a wide range of hand-crafted features, and often linguistically informed, derived from constituency parsing \cite{Read:2012}, \cite{Packard:2014}, dependency parsing \cite{Lapponi:2012}, or Minimal Recursion Semantics structures created by an HPSG parser \cite{Packard:2014}. Scope resolution in particular has often been approached as a sequence labeling task, as pioneered by \cite{Morante:2009} and later done in several other works \cite{Lapponi:2012,White:2012,Enger:2017}. More recently, neural approaches have been successfully applied to the task. \cite{Qian:2016} propose a CNN model for negation scope detection on the abstracts section of the BioScope corpus, which operates over syntactic paths between the cue and candidate tokens. \cite{Fancellu:2016} present and compare two neural architectures for the task of negation scope detection on the ConanDoyle-neg corpus: a simple feed-forward network and a bidirectional LSTM. Note that these more recent neural systems disregard the task of cue detection altogether \cite{Fancellu:2016, Qian:2016, Fancellu:2017}, relying instead on gold cues and focusing solely on the task of scope detection.

Finally, \cite{Kurtz:2020} cast negation resolution as a graph parsing problem and perform full negation resolution using a dependency graph parser \cite{Dozat:2018} to jointly predict cues and scopes. The neural model uses a BiLSTM to create token-level representations, and then includes two feed-forward networks to create head- and dependent-specific token representations. Finally, each possible head-dependent combination is scored using a bilinear model. Despite the conceptual simplicity, this model achieves state-of-the-art results. As such, we use this model to evaluate our annotations and include further details in Section 5.

3 Annotations

In the following section we present our negation annotation effort in more detail, including the underlying source of the data. The guidelines we have developed for the annotation of negation cues and scopes in Norwegian are mainly adapted from ConanDoyle-neg \cite{Morante:2009}, NegPar \cite{Liu:2018}, and the Spanish SFU corpus \cite{Jimenez-Zafra:2018}, modified to suit Norwegian, and with simplifications that will be discussed below. Note that while the complete set of guidelines is distributed with the corpus, we provide a brief overview below together with examples, also discussing inter-annotator agreement.

3.1 The underlying corpus

The negation annotations described below are added to the existing NoReC\textsubscript{fine} data set \cite{Ovrelid:2020} – a subset of the Norwegian Review Corpus (NoReC) annotated for fine-grained sentiment. The negation layer of the corpus is named

\url{https://github.com/ltgoslo/norec_fine}
NoReC\textsubscript{neg}. The full NoReC corpus ([Velldal et al. 2018]) contains professional reviews from several Norwegian online news sites, spanning a range of different domains, like music, literature, products, movies, restaurants, and more. While NoReC contains more than 43,000 full-text reviews, the subset annotated in NoReC\textsubscript{fine}, and hence also NoReC\textsubscript{neg}, includes 414 full reviews, comprising 11,346 sentences. Note that there are two official standards for written Norwegian; Bokmål (the majority variant) and Nynorsk. While the data set contains a majority of documents written according to the Bokmål standard, four Nynorsk documents are also included.

### 3.2 Negation in Norwegian

Since our starting point for guideline development is English, we will here discuss linguistic differences between the expression of negation in the two languages. Generally speaking, Norwegian negation does not differ greatly from English. The main means of negating a proposition is by using adverbs, prepositions and quantifiers. The largest differences between the two are syntactic in nature and concern the placement of adverbials, caused by the fact that Norwegian, unlike English, is a V2-language. One clear difference with practical consequences is that certain Norwegian negation cues inflect for grammatical gender and number, notable examples being \textit{ingen} (ingen, inga, intet) ‘no’ and \textit{løs} (-løs, -løst, -løse) ‘-less’, as seen in example (2) for the affixally negated (a) \textit{meningsløst} ‘meaningless’ with the neuter ending, (b) \textit{hensynsløse} ‘inconsiderate’ with plural inflection, and (c) \textit{smakløs} ‘tasteless’ with no inflection. This property of Norwegian means that there are likely a larger number of different tokens functioning as cues in Norwegian, as compared to English.

(2) (a) […] blir ganske meningsløst
(b) [...] hensynsløse regnskog-ødeleggere
(c) [...] men ikke smakløs.

The discussion of negation in the Norwegian Reference Grammar ([Faarlund et al. 1997]) is largely limited to a selected few of the possible cues, e.g., \textit{ikke} ‘not’, \textit{ingen} ‘none, no-one’ and related forms, and the preposition \textit{uten} ‘without’. [Golden et al. (2014)] contains a brief comment on lexical negation, where they mention \textit{nekte} ‘negating verbs’. They also mention negative polarity items under a discussion of separate words and expressions in negations.

### 3.3 Negation cues

A negation cue is a word or a set of words that serve to signal negation. In our annotation scheme we annotate both single token cues, such as adverbs like \textit{ikke} ‘not’, \textit{aldri} ‘never’, prepositions, e.g., \textit{uten} ‘without’, and quantifiers like \textit{ingen} ‘no’. We also annotate multi-word cues, such as (\textit{på} \textit{ingen} \textit{måte}, ‘in no way’, as well as morphological or affixal negation cues, i.e. affixes such as \textit{u-} ‘un-/dis-/non-’ and \textit{-løs} ‘-less’. Example (3) shows the widely used negative adverb \textit{aldri} ‘never’, which scopes over the whole sentence, including the subject \textit{Jeg} ‘I’, whereas (4) exemplifies the negative determiner \textit{ingen} ‘no’ which occurs in two conjoined noun phrase objects, where both negation cues scope over the following noun as well as the preceding subject and main verb.

(3) [Jeg har] \textit{aldri} \textit{hørt henne syng}e \textit{bedre} fra en scene\textsubscript{stage}
‘I have never heard her sing better from a stage’

(4) [Den \textit{stiller}] \textit{ingen} [spørsmål] og \textit{gir} \textit{svar}\textsubscript{answers}.
‘It asks no questions and gives answers.’

#### Multi-word cues

Multi-word cues are negation cues that span more than one token. These may further be discontinuous, as in the case of (h)\textit{verken} … \textit{eller} ‘neither … nor’, as seen in example (5). As noted by [Morante and Daelemans 2012], multi-word cues tend to be fixed/idiomatic expressions – an observation that is largely true for Norwegian as well. One practical difference between the annotation scheme in [Morante and Daelemans 2009] and ours, is that we omit prepositions and particles related to these expressions, as in (6), in favor of creating less variation that might create noise in the data, especially in cases where multiple prepositions are associated with similar cues and the association is less fixed.

(5) […] \textit{verken} [\textit{manus}] \textit{eller} [\textit{skuespillere}]
‘… neither script nor actors \textit{trekker oss in}n på en engasjerende \textit{måte}’.

(6) […] \textit{neither} script nor actors pull us inside in an engaging \textit{way}’
Affixal cues We annotate both free-standing and affixal negation cues. The affixal cues form a rather closed group of cues, with the prefix -u- and the suffix -løs being the most common. However, our annotations show that there is lexical variation, with less common cues such as -fri ‘-free’ and -tom ‘-empty’.

Negation vs. Modality One difficulty in annotating cues is to separate between cases of negation in isolation and cases where negation and modality interact. Cases where modality and negation are inseparable, as in neppe ‘barely’ are not annotated, but cases of negation where the modality can be separated, either by it sweeping over the negation, or the negation sweeping over it, were annotated as negations.

Lexical negation As mentioned above, the discussion of lexical negation in a Norwegian context is limited. We borrow the term ‘lexical negation’ from Jiménez-Zafra et al. (2020), who split cues into syntactic, lexical, and morphological/affixal, and use the lexical category to mean words that fall outside the ‘syntactic’ and more frequent cues, like negative adverbs and determiners. Examples from Norwegian include verbal constructs, e.g., la være ‘refrain from’ or forsvinne ‘disappear’ as in (7), and nouns such as mangel ‘lack’.

(7) ...[Irritasjonen] forsvant da maten kom arrived ...The irritation disappeared when the food arrived.

Lexicalization and idioms The words that are used as negation cues might also have other functions, and are in some cases part of fossilized expressions. The annotators were instructed to refrain from annotating affixal cues that no longer signal negation. Lexicalization, in particular, is a challenge when it comes to affixal negation, as it can be difficult even for native speakers to judge whether something should be treated as a negation or not. Some cases are clearer than others, such as uansett ‘regardless’, which stems from ansett ‘viewed/respected’, which it clearly does not negate, on the one hand, and on the other hand usikker ‘uncertain’, whose non-negated form sikker ‘certain’ is also frequent. The absence of the non-negated version of the lemma in the language might be a good indicator of lexicalization, and annotators were instructed to avoid annotating such words.

In addition to lexicalized items, there are also cases where a cue can have more than one meaning. One frequent case is the prefix u- with nominal roots, a construction that usually results in nouns meaning bad x, as in uår lit. ‘un-year’, which means ‘a bad year’, or uvenn, lit. ‘un-friend’, meaning ‘enemy’. The annotators were instructed to try and dismantle the word in order to see if the word made sense without the negative prefix, in which case it would indicate that it is not completely lexicalized. Even so, these are often difficult judgements for the annotators to make. Furthermore, nominalizations of negated adjectives, such as uttrykksløshet ‘expressionlessness’ and umenneskelighet ‘inhumanity’ were not to be annotated.

Table 1 presents the ten most common cues found in the corpus, where we find both affixal and single token cues. We see that variation in the data is further caused by spelling differences. The adverb ikke ‘not’ can also be used affixally, often, but not always, with a hyphen, as in ikke-produksjonsklart ‘not-production-ready’. The variation is also due in part to the two language varieties present in the dataset, e.g. in the case of Bokmål ikke ‘not’ and Nynorsk ikkje ‘not’.

3.4 Negation scopes

The scope of a negation is the part of a sentence that has its truth value inverted by the presence of a negation cue. In our annotation scheme, cues are never part of the scope. Subjects are included in the scope if the negation scopes over the main verb, which usually means that the whole proposition is negated, and if the subject or object of a sentence is negated by a determiner or similar, the whole sentence is in the scope, apart from certain fixed elements discussed below. Phrase linking conjunctions are not included. Furthermore, scopes tend to be discontinuous. In many cases this is simply due to the the fact that in most sentences, the subject precedes the negation cue, while the predicate follows it.
Table 1: List of the 10 most common cues found in the corpus, their translation to English, their frequency as a cue, as well as their ambiguity rate (Amb. Rate), which is defined as \[\frac{1}{\text{frequency as a cue}} \times 100\].

| Cue       | Trans.  | Frequency | Amb. Rate |
|-----------|---------|-----------|-----------|
| ikke      | not     | 1,364     | 3         |
| un-/dis-/non- |          | 514       | 83        |
| uten      | without | 190       | 0         |
| ingen     | none/nobody | 134     | 0         |
| -løs      | -less   | 123       | 5         |
| aldi      | never   | 95        | 6         |
| mangle    | lack    | 43        | 14        |
| ingenting | nothing | 23        | 0         |
| ikke      | not     | 23        | 0         |
| verken    | neither | 21        | 30        |

Implicit scope  The scope of a cue can be implicit, meaning it is understood from the context. In practice the scope is often expressed in a sentence before or after the cue itself. This is in particular the case with the interjection nei ‘no’, which usually refers back to the proposition it negates. Since our annotation does not span across sentence boundaries, the scope is annotated as implicit in these types of cases.

Subordinate clauses  If the negation cue modifies a verb in a subordinate clause, the whole subordinate clause, except the initial subjunction, is part of the scope, see (8) below.

(8) Det føles derfor som et pluss at [plata] ikke [er særlig lang] .
    ‘It therefore feels like a bonus that the record is not especially long.’

Modifying subjects and objects  If a cue, typically a determiner, modifies the subject or the object of a sentence, the whole clause that contains that subject or object is part of the scope, as in (9) below. Note that certain elements, such as subjunctions, conjunctions and sentence adverbs might still not be included.

(9) [Her viser Selbekk] ingen [nåde] .
    ‘Here, Selbekk shows no mercy.’

Cue as subject or object  In cases where the subject or object are also negation cues, the cue is not included in the scope, see (10).

(10) Og ingen [er hardere enn Regan] .
    ‘And nobody is tougher than Reagan.’

Exception items  The annotation of exception items, such as utatt ‘except’ and bortsett (fra) ‘except (for)’ depends on whether they are within the scope of a negation cue or not. When the item is not within the scope of another cue, it incurs a negation, as in (11). This closely follows the annotation found in Morante and Daelemans (2012) and Liu et al. (2018).

(11) [Her viser Selbekk] ingen [nåde] .
    ‘Here, Selbekk shows no mercy.’

Sentential adverbs and adverbs scoping over negation  Two types of adverbs pose certain challenges: sentential adverbs and adverbs that indicate modality. Sentential adverbs such as heldigvis ‘fortunately’ as in (12) are not part of the propositional value of a sentence, but rather function to comment on it (Faarlund et al., 1997). Therefore they are usually outside the scope of the negation, as is shown by (12):

(12) Heldigvis [skjer dette] nesten aldi .
    ‘Fortunately, this almost never happens.’

Negation raising  Negation raising is the phenomenon where a negator is “raised” further up in a syntactic tree, which in the case of Norwegian means further towards the beginning of a sentence. What characterizes these types of constructions is
that the negation is adjacent to the verb in the main sentence, even though the negation only scopes over a subsequent subordinate clause. This happens frequently in Norwegian, as in English, with mental state verbs like mene ‘think’, tro ‘believe’, as in (15).

(13) **Harry Hole tror imidlertid ikke at**

Harry Hole believes however not that

the case can be so simple [...] ‘Harry Hole, however, does not believe that the case is that simple!’

**Expletive subjects** In Norwegian, as in other Scandinavian languages, there are several types of linguistic constructions that involve an expletive subject. A commonly used mechanism in these languages is extrapolation, where a clausal argument is postposed, and a formal, semantically void subject *det ‘it’ or *der ‘there’ functions as the syntactic subject, as in (14). Here we do not treat the expletive subject as the subject of the negated proposition, instead only the extraposed subordinate clause is in scope of the negation. Since *det ‘it’ is ambiguous in the sense that it can, in fact, also be referential, the annotators have to assess referentiality during annotation.

(14) **Det [er] aldri kjedelig å se gode replikker fremført i vakre omgivelser**.

‘It is never boring to see good lines performed in beautiful surroundings.’

**Negation in conditional, interrogative, and imperative sentences** In the annotation scheme of Morante and Daelemans (2012), they do not annotate negation in non-factual sentences, i.e., conditional, interrogative and imperative sentences. We have chosen to include all negation regardless of its factuality. We believe that negation has implications beyond asserting the factuality of a proposition, and it can be useful for sentiment analysis, among other tasks. For instance, in example (15), the negation is under the scope of the conditional *hvis ‘if’, but is still marked, even though it is not a factual proposition.

(15) **Hvis [folk] ikke [hadde snakket til hverandre i det hele tatt] [...] each.other in the whole taken [...]’

‘If people had not talked to each other at all [...]’

**Negative polarity items (NPIs)** NPIs are lexical entities that are used together with negation cues, and which usually render the sentence ungrammatical should the negation cues be removed without further change. In our annotation scheme, they are contained within the scope of the negation cue. In Norwegian, the negative adverb *ikke ‘not’ in combination with the determiner noe/noen ‘some/any’ is a common negative polarity item. However, the most common type of NPIs are adverbs such as *i det hele tatt ‘at all’, as in (16), that serve to strengthen the negation.

(16) **[Han kan] ikke [synge i det hele tatt] taken .

‘He cannot sing at all.’

**Foreign language citations** The annotated texts frequently contain titles of various products, such as ‘Never Run Away’. These cases of foreign language negation cues are not annotated.

**Negation cues not indicating negation** It is not uncommon for negation cues to be part of expressions that do not indicate negation in combination, e.g., certain fixed expressions such as *hvis ikke ‘otherwise’. Other borderline cases such as the focus marker *ikke bare ‘not only’ and the expression *ingen tvil ‘no doubt’, were included after discussion, as they are analyzed as introducing a negated reading.

**Affixal scope** The scope of affixal items is annotated in a slightly different way compared to other cues. If an affixally negated adjective is the predicate, then the whole sentence is included within its scope. If it is part of a noun phrase, then only that noun phrase is inside the scope. Additional adjectives or adverbs in the sentence fall outside the scope, as in (17).

(17) **Passasjerene er for oss ukjente**, the.passengers are for us unknown , anonymous [fjes] anonymous faces .

‘The passengers are unknown faces to us.’

3.5 Annotation Procedure

The annotation was performed by several hired student research assistants with a background in linguistics and with Norwegian as their native language. All 414 documents in the original dataset,
comprising 11,346 sentences, were annotated independently by two annotators in parallel. The doubly annotated documents were then adjudicated by a third annotator after a final round of discussions concerning difficult cases. Annotators had the possibility to discuss any potential problems during both the annotation and adjudication period, but were encouraged to follow the guidelines as strictly as possible. The annotation and adjudication were both performed using the web-based annotation tool Brat (Sinetorp et al., 2012).

3.6 Inter-annotator agreement

We have measured the inter-annotator agreement over the full (doubly annotated) dataset in terms of both F1 and κ scores for cues, full scopes, and scope tokens. The scores show that annotators agree to a very high degree on the identification of cues (0.995 F1, 0.841 κ). When it comes to negation scopes, the agreement is lower when measured towards full and exact spans (0.632 F1, 0.34 κ), but quite high when measured on the token-level (0.912 F1, 0.803 κ).

Due to the adjudication phase of the annotation process, we also have insight into the sources of disagreements between the annotators. As noted above, agreement between annotators is generally high when it comes to cue detection, but surprising disagreements can be seen. These are most likely due to the guidelines being improved as the annotations continued to uncover new challenges. There seems to be a clear tendency for annotators to disagree on less common cues, such as verbs and nouns that indicate negation, as opposed to the more often discussed adverbs and determiners. The annotators rarely agreed on less frequent lexical items such as forsvinne ‘disappear’ and takke nei til ‘say no to’. However, the disagreements also reflect discussions concerning the inclusion or omission of prepositions, in addition to cue span errors. Annotators generally agree on the more frequent cues. The prefix u- ‘un-/dis-/non-’, seems to have a disproportionately large disagreement score, but discussions among the annotators indicate that this is likely due to prefixes being more difficult to detect when annotating than isolated whole-word tokens. Disagreement is also found regarding modal elements, such as knapt ‘barely’ (almost not) and for...til ‘too...to’ (cannot be).

4 Corpus statistics

Table 2 summarizes the statistics for the final annotated data set. Of the 11,346 sentences in the corpus, we see that just above 20% of them are negated. Out of the negated sentences, 13% contain multiple instances of negation. While, as expected, the number of tokens in a cue averages to 1, the average length of scopes is close to 7 (with a maximum observed length of 53). Note, however, that a small number of cues (1.4%) also have empty (‘null’) scopes. We report both any kind of discontinuous scopes (disc.) and true discontinuous scopes (true disc.), where the latter does not count scopes which are only discontinuous because of an intervening cue. While discontinuous scopes are very frequent (70% of scopes), truly discontinuous scopes are much fewer (21%). We see that affixal negation is quite widespread in NoRec_ner, comprising almost 25% of the cues. Moreover, just above 11% are multi-word cues. While most cues are not particularly ambiguous, e.g., ikke ‘not’, uten ‘without’, others, such as u-’un-/dis-‘, mangle ‘lack’ or verken ‘neither’ can have rather high rates of ambiguity (meaning that they can occur with both negated and non-negated readings).

5 Experiments

5.1 Modeling approach

In order to benchmark the dataset, we use the semantic graph parsing approach to negation detection proposed by Kurtz et al. (2020), see Section 2. Besides the baseline graph representation originally proposed (point-to-root), where all elements of the scope have arcs that point to the cue, we propose several variants. For head-first, we set the first token of the cue as the root node, and similarly set the first token in the scope as the head of the span. All elements within the span have arcs that point to the head, and heads have arcs that point to the root. head-final is similar, but instead sets the final tokens of spans as the heads. There can be several roots per sequence and not all tokens are connected. Finally, we enrich the dependency labels to distinguish edges that are internal to a holder/target/expression span from those that are external and perform experiments by adding an ‘in label’ to non-head nodes within the graph, which we call +inlabel.
Table 2: Statistics of the dataset – per split and in total – including total number of sentences (#), number of sentences that contain negation (neg.), as well as the number (#) of cues and scopes, along with their average and maximum lengths in tokens. Additionally, we include the number of discontinuous cues and scopes (disc.) as well as true discontinuous (true disc.) for scopes which we discuss in Section 4. Finally, we detail the number of sentences that have multiple cues (mult.), the number of affixal cues, and the number of cues that have no scope (null).

5.2 Results

The negation parser is evaluated using the metrics from the *SEM 2012 shared task (Morante and Blanco, 2012); cue-level F$_1$ (CUE), scope token F$_1$ over individual tokens (ST), and the full negation F$_1$ (FN) metric. In contrast to the *SEM 2012 shared task we do not annotate negated events, meaning that FN only requires an exact match of the negation’s cue(s) and, if present, all its scope tokens. We run each experiment five times with different random seeds and report an averaged F$_1$ score and its standard deviation in Table 3. The simplest graph representation point-to-root generally performs best, most visibly in FN F$_1$ (66.8). We attribute the variation in performance to a loss of information in the head-first and head-final variants, making it impossible to retrieve the correct governing negation cue for partially overlapping scopes, thus lowering the score.

In order to see whether these performance differences are statistically significant, we perform bootstrap significance testing (Berg-Kirkpatrick et al., 2012) resampling the test set $10^6$ times while setting the significance threshold to $p = 0.05$. Comparing point-to-root to head-first and head-final shows that while the differences seem substantial they are not statistically significant.

A manual error analysis on point-to-root shows that the model tends not to predict infrequent cues, e.g., null ‘zero’, istedenfor ‘instead-of’, savnet ‘missing’, while it overpredicts frequent cues, e.g., ikke ‘not’, ingen ‘no’, as well as overgeneralizing the affixal negation u- ‘un-/dis-/non-’ to other words that begin with ‘u’, but are not negated, e.g., utfrika ‘freaked-out’, unnagjort ‘finished’. The model also tends to predict slightly shorter scopes (an average of 6.5 tokens for predicted scopes versus 6.7 for gold scopes), while the most common scope-related errors derive from discontinuous scopes, where the model fails on 75.4%. These errors are often due to inversions with the expletive ‘det’, which is not considered in scope. Although rare (4 examples in test), multi-word cues are also challenging, and the graph model only correctly predicted one of the four. Finally, affixal cues can pose a challenge as well, with the model failing on 67.1% of the sentences containing affixal negation.

6 Future work

As mentioned previously, the underlying corpus NoReC$_{fine}$ is annotated for fine-grained sentiment, including opinion holders, targets, sentiment expressions, and positive/negative polarity. The fact that negation is among the most important compositional phenomena that can affect sentiment in terms of shifting polarity values motivated the choice of this particular dataset for adding the negation annotations. In future work we plan to
further investigate the co-dependencies between negation and sentiment, both through analyzing the existing annotations and through joint modeling.

7 Summary

This paper has introduced the first annotated dataset of negation for Norwegian, NoReC_{neg}, where negation cues and their corresponding in-sentence scopes have been annotated across more than 11K sentences spanning more than 400 documents; a subset of the Norwegian Review Corpus (NoReC). In addition to providing in-depth discussion of the annotation guidelines, we have also presented a first set of benchmark results based on a graph-parsing approach.

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