

# Harnessing generative AI to annotate the severity of all phenotypic abnormalities within the Human Phenotype Ontology

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## 0.1 Abstract

There are thousands of human phenotypes which are linked to genetic variation. These range from the benign (white eyelashes) to the deadly (respiratory failure). The Human Phenotype Ontology has categorised all human phenotypic variation into an unified framework that defines the relationships between them (e.g. missing arms and missing legs are both abnormalities of the limb). This has made it possible to perform phenome-wide analyses, e.g. to prioritise which make the best candidates for gene therapies. However, there is currently limited metadata describing the clinical characteristics / severity of these phenotypes. With >17500 phenotypic abnormalities across >8600 rare diseases, manual curation of such phenotypic annotations by experts would be exceedingly labour-intensive and time-consuming. Leveraging advances in artificial intelligence, we employed the OpenAI GPT-4 large language model (LLM) to systematically annotate the severity of all phenotypic abnormalities in the HPO. Phenotypic severity was defined using a set of clinical characteristics and their frequency of occurrence. First, we benchmarked the generative LLM clinical characteristic annotations against ground-truth labels within the HPO (e.g. phenotypes in the ‘Cancer’ HPO branch were annotating as causing cancer by GPT-4). True positive recall rates across different clinical characteristics ranged from 89-100% (mean=96%), clearly demonstrating the ability of GPT-4 to automate the curation process with a high degree of fidelity. Using a novel approach, we developed a severity scoring system that incorporates both the nature of the clinical characteristic and the frequency of its occurrence. These clinical characteristic severity metrics will enable efforts to systematically prioritise which human phenotypes are most detrimental to human health, and best targets for therapeutic intervention.

## 0.2 Introduction

Ontologies provide a common language with which to communicate concepts. In medicine, ontologies for phenotypic abnormalities are invaluable for defining, diagnosing, prognosing, and treating human disease. Since 2008, the Human Phenotype Ontology (HPO) has been instrumental in healthcare and biomedical research by providing a framework for comprehensively describing human phenotypes and the relationships between them (Gargano et al., 2024; Köhler et al., 2021). By expanding its depth and breadth over time, the HPO now contains >17500 phenotypic abnormalities across >8600 diseases. Some HPO phenotypes also contain metadata annotations such typical age of onset, frequency, triggers, time course, mortality rate and typical severity. Describing the severity-related attributes of a disease is crucial for both research and clinical care of individuals with rare diseases. When researchers or clinicians are presented with phenotypes that fall outside of their expertise, resources to quickly and reliably retrieve summaries with additional rel-

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46 evant information about these phenotypes are essential. In the clinic, this can help  
47 in reaching a differential diagnosis or prioritising the treatment of some phenotypes  
48 over others. In research, this information is useful for prioritising targets for causal  
49 disease mechanisms, performing large-scale analyses of phenotypic data, and guid-  
50 ing funding agencies when assessing the potential impact and need for research in  
51 a given disease area. To date, the HPO has largely relied on manual curation by  
52 domain experts. While this approach can improve annotation quality and accuracy,  
53 it is both time-consuming and labour-intensive. As a result, less than 1% of terms  
54 within the HPO contain metadata such as time course and severity.

55 Artificial intelligence (AI) capabilities have advanced considerably in recent years,  
56 presenting new opportunities to integrate natural language processing technologies  
57 into assisting in the curation process. Specifically, there have recently been consid-  
58 erable advances in large language model (LLM) and their application to biomedical  
59 problems, in some cases performing as well or better than human clinicians on stan-  
60 dardised medical exams and patient diagnosis tasks (Bolton et al., 2024; Cheng et  
61 al., 2023; Gu et al., 2021; Labrak et al., 2024; Luo et al., 2022; McDuff et al., 2023;  
62 O’Neil et al., 2024; Shin et al., 2020; Singhal, Azizi, et al., 2023, 2023; Singhal, Tu,  
63 et al., 2023; Van Veen et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023). Recent work has demon-  
64 strated that the Generative Pre-trained Transformer 4 (GPT-4) foundation model  
65 (OpenAI et al., 2024), when combined with strategic prompt engineering, can outper-  
66 form even specialist LLMs that are explicitly fine-tuned for biomedical tasks (Nori et  
67 al., 2023). In a landmark achievement, GPT-4 was the first LLM to surpass a score  
68 of 90% in the United States Medical Licensing Examination (USML) (Nori et al.,  
69 2023).

70 Here, we have used GPT-4 to systematically annotate the severity of 17502 / 17548  
71 (99.7%) phenotypic abnormalities within the HPO. Our severity annotation frame-  
72 work was adapted from previously defined criteria developed through consultation  
73 with clinicians (Lazarin et al., 2014). The authors consulted 192 healthcare profes-  
74 sionals for their opinions on the relative severity of various clinical characteristics:  
75 they used this to create a system for categorising the severity of diseases. Briefly,  
76 each healthcare professional was sent a survey asking them to first rate how impor-  
77 tant a disease characteristic was for determining disease severity, and then to rate  
78 the severity of a set of given disease. Using the responses, the authors were able to  
79 categorise clinical characteristics into 4 ‘severity tiers’. While characteristics such  
80 as shortened lifespan in infancy and intellectual disability were identified as highly  
81 severe and placed into tier 1, sensory impairment and reduced lifespan were cate-  
82 gorised as less severe and placed into tier 4. Standardised metrics of severity allow  
83 clinicians to quickly assess the urgency of treating a given phenotype, as well as  
84 prognosing what outcomes might be expected.

85 To evaluate the consistency of responses generated by GPT-4 793 phenotypes were  
86 annotated multiple times. For a subset of phenotypes with known expected clinical  
87 characteristics, true positive rates were calculated to assess recall. Additionally,  
88 based on the clinical characteristics and their occurrence, we have quantified the  
89 severity of each phenotype, providing an example of how these clinical characteristic  
90 annotations can be used to guide prioritisation of gene therapy trials. Ultimately, we  
91 hope that our resource will be of utility to those working in rare diseases, as well as  
92 the wider healthcare community.

93 **0.3 Results**  
 94 **0.3.1 Annotating the HPO using GPT-4**

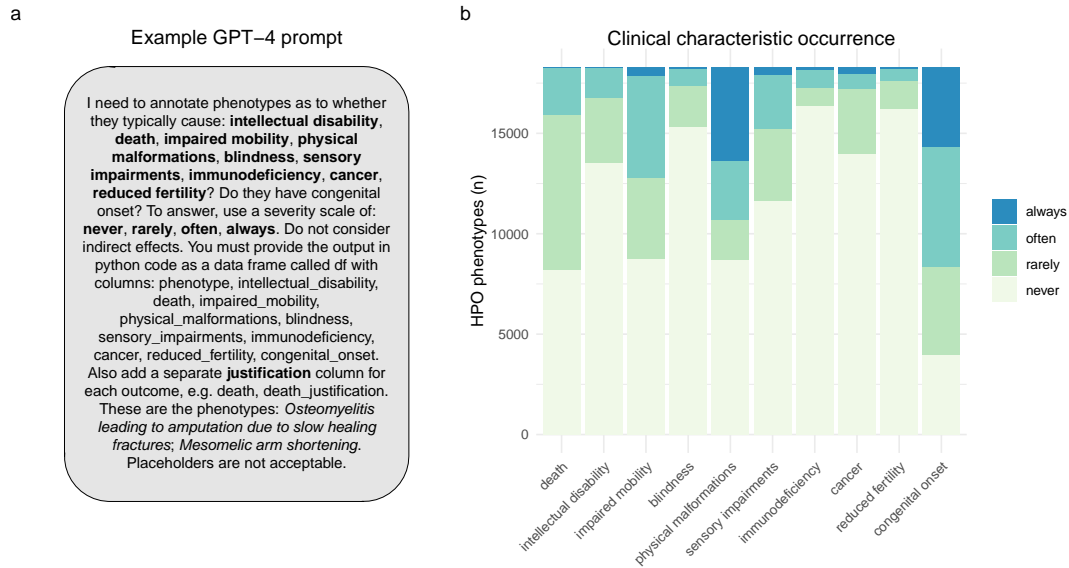


Figure 1: GPT-4 was able to annotate all human phenotypes based on whether they are always/often/rarely/never associated with different clinical characteristics. **a** An example of the prompt input given to GPT-4. The phenotypes listed in the second to last sentence (*italicised*) were changed to allow all HPO phenotypes to be annotated. **b** Stacked bar plot showing the proportion of the occurrence of each clinical characteristic across all annotated HPO phenotypes. The terms shown on the x-axis are the clinical characteristics for which GPT-4 was asked to determine whether each phenotype caused them.

95 We employed the OpenAI GPT-4 model with Python to annotate 17502 terms  
 96 within the HPO (v2024-02-08) (Gargano et al., 2024; Köhler et al., 2021). Our  
 97 annotation framework was developed based on previously defined criteria for clas-  
 98 sifying disease severity (Lazarin et al., 2014). We sought to evaluate the impact of  
 99 phenotypes on factors including intellectual disability, death, impaired mobility,  
 100 physical malformations, blindness, sensory impairments, immunodeficiency, cancer,  
 101 reduced fertility, and congenital onset. Through prompt design we found that the  
 102 performance of GPT-4 improved when we incorporated a scale associated with each  
 103 clinical characteristic and required a justification for each response. For each clinical  
 104 characteristic, we asked about the frequency of its occurrence - whether it never,  
 105 rarely, often, or always occurred. Framing the queries in this way served two pur-  
 106 poses. First, this helped to constrain the responses of GPT-4 to a specific range of  
 107 values, making answers more consistent and amenable to downstream data analy-  
 108 sis. Second, it served to overcome one of the main limitations noted by Lazarin et  
 109 al. (2014) as they did not collect information on how the frequency of each disease  
 110 affected their decision making when generating severity annotations.

111 Clinical characteristic occurrence varied across annotation categories. >50% of phe-  
 112 notypes never caused blindness, sensory impairments, immunodeficiency, cancer,  
 113 reduced fertility or intellectual disability. Only a minority of phenotypes (21.7%)  
 114 never had a congenital onset, which is expected as rare disorders tend to be early  
 115 onset genetic conditions (Fig. 1).

116 Less than 1% of phenotypes always directly resulted in death (n=71), such as ‘Still-  
 117 birth’, ‘Anencephaly’ and ‘Bilateral lung agenesis’. Meanwhile, 9707 phenotypes  
 118 were annotated as often or rarely causing death. 7880 phenotypes were annotated  
 119 as never causing death. Examples of phenotypes that never cause death included  
 120 34 unique forms of syndactyly, a non-lethal condition that causes fused or webbed  
 121 fingers (occurring 1 in 1,200–15,000 live births). While not life-threatening itself,  
 122 syndactyly is a symptom of genetic disorders that can cause life-threatening car-  
 123 diovascular and neurodevelopmental defects, such as Apert Syndrome (Garagnani  
 124 & Smith, 2013). This example highlights the ability of GPT-4 to successfully dis-  
 125 tinguish between phenotypes that directly cause lethality, and those that are often  
 126 associated with diseases that cause lethality.

### 127 **0.3.2 Annotation consistency and recall**

128 To assess annotation consistency, we queried GPT-4 with a subset of the HPO phe-  
 129 notypes multiple times (n=793 unique phenotypes). We employed two different  
 130 metrics to determine the *consistency rate*. The first, less stringent metric, defined  
 131 consistency as the duplicate annotations being either ‘always’ and ‘often’, or ‘never’  
 132 and ‘rarely’. The second, more stringent metric, required exact agreement in annota-  
 133 tion occurrences, e.g. ‘always’ and ‘always’. For the less stringent metric, duplicated  
 134 phenotypes were annotated consistently at a rate of at least 80%, and for the more  
 135 stringent metric, the lowest consistency rate was 57% for congenital onset. An exam-  
 136 ple of where annotations were inconsistent was for the HPO term ‘Acute leukaemia’.  
 137 One time, GPT-4 annotated it as often causing impaired mobility, giving the jus-  
 138 tification that ‘weakness and fatigue from leukaemia and its treatment can impair  
 139 mobility’. The other time, GPT-4 annotated it as rarely causing impaired mobil-  
 140 ity, giving the justification that ‘acute leukaemia rarely impairs mobility directly’.  
 141 Despite specifying in the prompt for GPT-4 not to take into consideration indirect  
 142 effects, this is an example of where it failed to do so.

143 We also reasoned that GPT-4 would be better able to give consistent answers for  
 144 more specific phenotypes lower in the ontology, as they are more likely to have a  
 145 single cause. We found that the stringent consistency rate did indeed significantly  
 146 improve with greater HPO ontology depth ( $X^2_{Pearson}=22.17$ ,  $\hat{V}_{Cramer}=0.03$ ,  $p=0.05$ ).  
 147 See Figure 5 for a visual representation of this relationship.

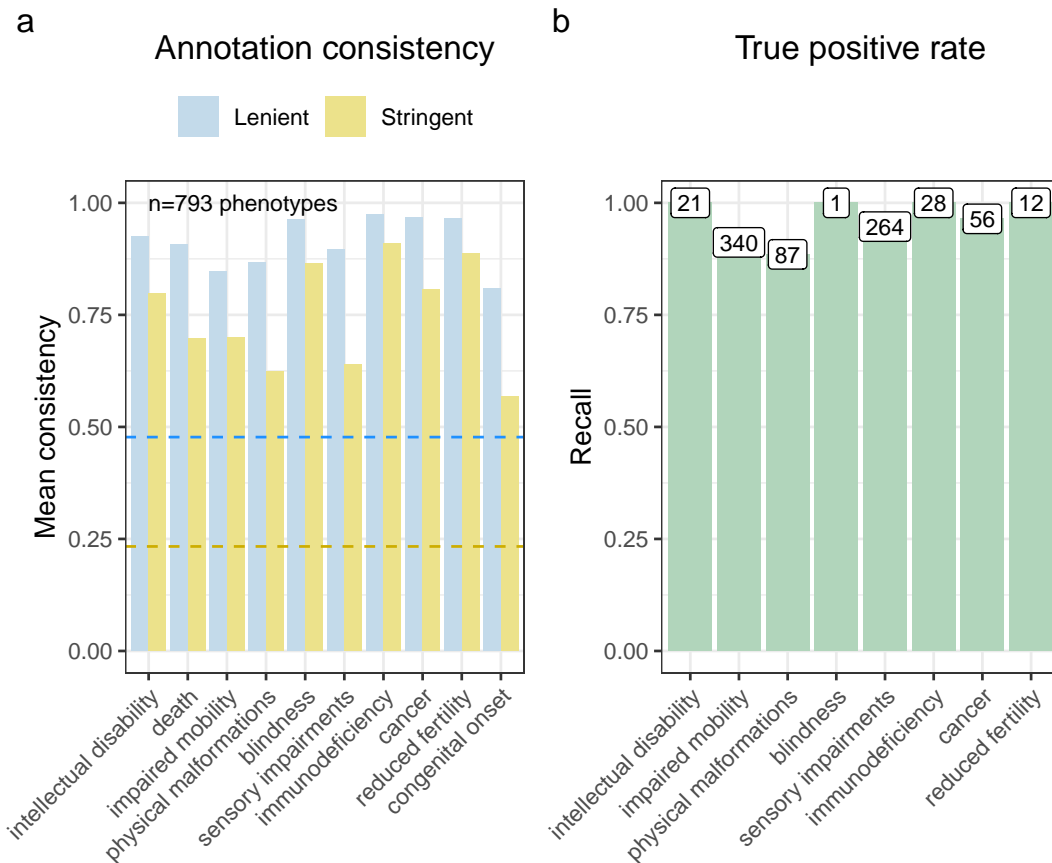


Figure 2: GPT-4 annotations are consistent and accurate across annotations. **a** Barplot showing the annotation consistency within phenotypes that were annotated more than once. In the lenient metric, annotations were collapsed into two groups (‘always’/‘often’ and ‘never’/‘rarely’). For a given clinical characteristic within a given phenotype, if an annotation was always within the same group it was considered consistent. In the stringent metric, all four annotation categories were considered to be different from one another. Thus, annotations were only defined as consistent if they were all identical. The blue dashed line indicates the probability of two annotations being consistent by chance in the lenient metric ( $\sim 1/2$ ). The gold dashed line is the probability of two annotations being consistent by chance in the stringent metric ( $\sim 1/4$ ). **b** Bar plot of the true positive rate for each annotation. The labels above each bar indicate the number of phenotypes tested.

148 In order to evaluate the validity of the annotations, we calculated a true positive  
 149 rate. This involved identifying specific branches within the HPO that would con-  
 150 tain phenotypes that would reliably indicate the presence of certain conditions. For  
 151 instance, the phenotypes ‘Decreased fertility in females’ and ‘Decreased fertility in  
 152 males’ should often or always cause reduced fertility. We observed an encouraging  
 153 true positive rate exceeding 88% across in every clinical characteristic and achieving  
 154 perfect recall (100%) in 4/8 characteristics.

155 The lowest true positive rate was observed for physical malformations, with 88.5%  
 156 recall across 87 HPO phenotypes. Some cases in which the GPT-4 annotations  
 157 disagreed with the HPO ground truth included: ‘Angioma serpentinum’, ‘Nevus  
 158 anemicus’, ‘Pulmonary arteriovenous fistulas’. In the case of ‘Angioma serpentinum’  
 159 it provided the justification that ‘No known association with physical malformations’.  
 160 In another instance, GPT-4 noted that ‘Nevus anemicus’ is ‘Limited to hypopig-

161 mented skin patch; no other malformations.'. This indicates that while technically  
162 incorrect according to our predefined benchmarks, a case could in fact be made that  
163 mild skin conditions do not rise to the level of physical malformations.

164 This high level of recall underscores the robustness of our annotations and the reli-  
165 ability of the HPO framework in capturing clinically relevant phenotypic information.  
166 However, we acknowledge that the number of testable true positive phenotypes for  
167 some of these categories are low, especially 'blindness' for which there is only 1 phe-  
168 notype in the HPO (after excluding terms pertaining to colour or night blindness).  
169 Furthermore, some of the true positive phenotypes are lexically similar to the name  
170 of the clinical characteristic itself. In these cases, annotating 'Severe intellectual  
171 disability' as always causing intellectual disability is a relatively trivial task. Nev-  
172 ertheless, even these scenarios provide a clear and interpretable benchmark for the  
173 model's performance. In addition, were numerous phenotypes with lexically non-  
174 obvious relationships to the clinical characteristic that were annotated correctly by  
175 GPT-4. For example, 'Molar tooth sign on MRI' (a neurodevelopmental pathol-  
176 ogy observed in radiological scans) was correctly annotated as causing intellectual  
177 disability.

### 178 *0.3.3 Quantifying phenotypic severity*

179 While individual annotations are informative, we wanted to be able to distil the  
180 severity of each phenotype into a single score. Quantifying the overall severity of  
181 phenotypes can have important implications for diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment.  
182 It may also guide the prioritisation of gene therapy trials for phenotypes with the  
183 most severe clinical characteristics and thus the most urgent need. Importantly, the  
184 values reflected the severity of each clinical characteristic based on both the type of  
185 characteristic itself and its frequency within a particular phenotype. For instance, a  
186 phenotype always causing death would have a higher multiplied value than a phe-  
187 notype often causing reduced fertility (see Table 2). First, we created a dictionary  
188 to map each clinical characteristic (e.g. blindness) and its frequency (always, often,  
189 rarely, never) to numeric values from 0-3. Then, the clinical characteristic values  
190 were multiplied by weights. Next, we computed an average score for each phenotype  
191 by aggregating the multiplied values across all clinical characteristics and then cal-  
192 culating the mean. This was then normalised by the theoretical maximum severity  
193 score, so that all phenotypes were on a 0-100 severity scale (where 100 is the most  
194 severe phenotype possible). This average normalised score represents the overall  
195 severity of the phenotype based on the severity of its individual clinical characteris-  
196 tics.

197 Based on these scores we evaluated the top 50 severe phenotypes. One of the most  
198 severe phenotype was 'Anencephaly' (HP:0002323) with a composite severity score  
199 of 45. Anencephaly is a birth defect where the baby is born without a portion of its  
200 brain and skull, often these babies are stillborn. In fact, many of the most severe  
201 phenotypes were related to developmental brain and neural tube defects. Com-  
202 parison of the severity scores for each response, across the clinical characteristics  
203 annotated, revealed consistent trends: as the response of the clinical characteristic  
204 increased (from never to always), the severity score also increased (Supplementary  
205 Fig. 7). We also evaluated the severity score distribution by HPO branch and calcu-  
206 lated the mean severity score using all phenotypes within each major HPO branch  
207 (Fig. 6). The HPO branch with the greatest mean severity score was 'Abnormal  
208 cellular phenotype' (mean=17), followed by 'Neoplasm' (mean=16.7), which would  
209 include the highly ranked phenotypes seen in Figure 3.

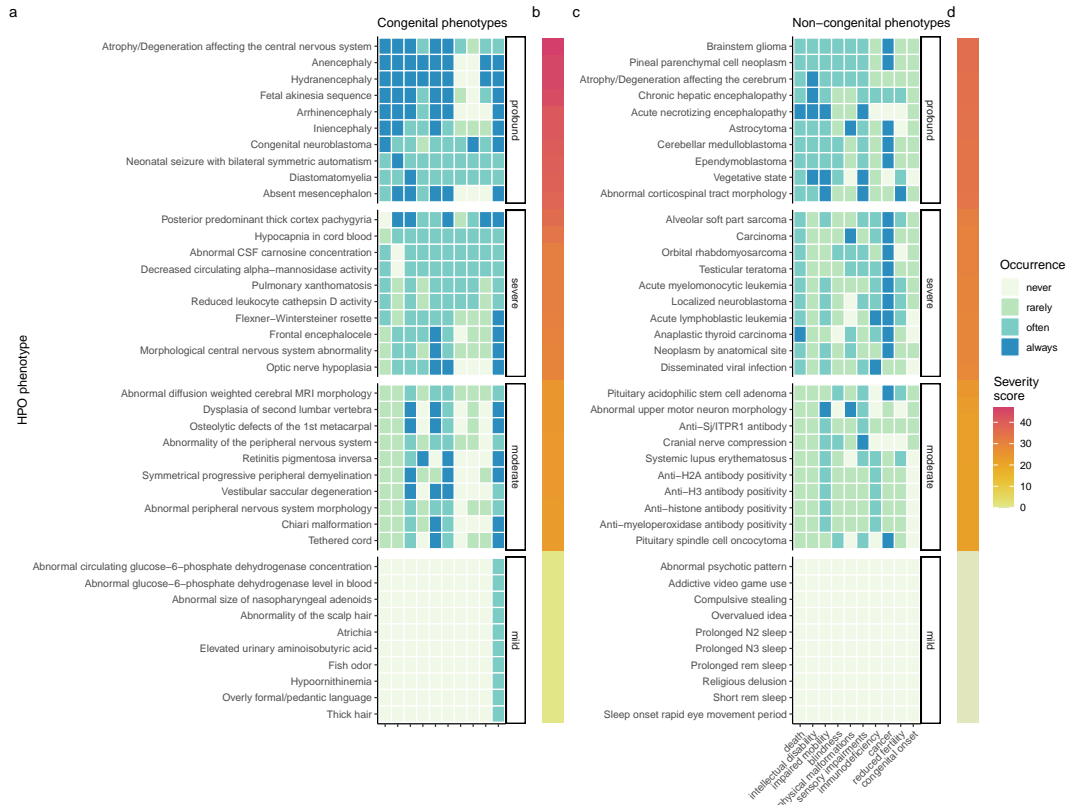


Figure 3: Quantifying the severity of HPO phenotype annotations highlights the most impactful conditions. Heatmap of 10 representative phenotypes from each severity class (Profound, Severe, Moderate, Mild) stratified by whether the phenotypes are often/always congenital (**a-b**) or rarely/never congenital (**c-d**). Continuous severity scores are shown as bars (**b,d**) and were calculated by multiplying the numeric values assigned to each clinical characteristic according to Table 2. The average normalised score, representing overall phenotype severity on a 0-100 scale, was calculated by aggregating the multiplied values and normalising by the theoretical maximum severity score. The x-axes show each of the clinical characteristics. All data for this figure, as well as justifications for each annotation, can be found in Table 3.

### 210 **0.3.4 Severity classes**

211 While the continuous severity score is a helpful metric, there may be some use cases  
 212 where a categorical classification of severity is more immediately useful. In work by  
 213 Lazarin et al. (2014), the authors defined severity classes using a simple decision  
 214 tree based on the individual severity annotations. We approximated this approach  
 215 using our GPT-4 annotations. This categorical approach showed a strong degree of  
 216 positive correspondence with the continuous severity score ( $\omega_p^2=0.88$ ,  $p<2.2e-308$ ).  
 217 In other words, severity score increased with severity class level (mild < moderate  
 218 < severe < profound) as expected. The distribution of severity classes is shown in  
 219 Figure 9.

### 220 **0.3.5 Correlations between clinical characteristic severity metrics**

221 We found that some clinical characteristic severity metrics were correlated with one  
 222 another, with a mean Pearson correlation of 0.2 across all individual metrics (see  
 223 Figure 8). In particular, blindness and sensory impairment were highly correlated  
 224 with one another ( $r=0.62$ ,  $p=0$ ). Some metrics drove the composite severity score



225 more than other, which is a reflection of both our per-metric weighting scheme, re-  
 226 sponse type frequencies, and the correlation structure between metrics. Overall,  
 227 impaired mobility seemed to be the strongest driver of the composite severity score  
 228 with a Pearson correlation of 0.6001824, followed by intellectual disability ( $r=0.59$ )  
 229 and death ( $r=0.56$ ).

### 230 *0.3.6 Congenital onset by HPO branch*

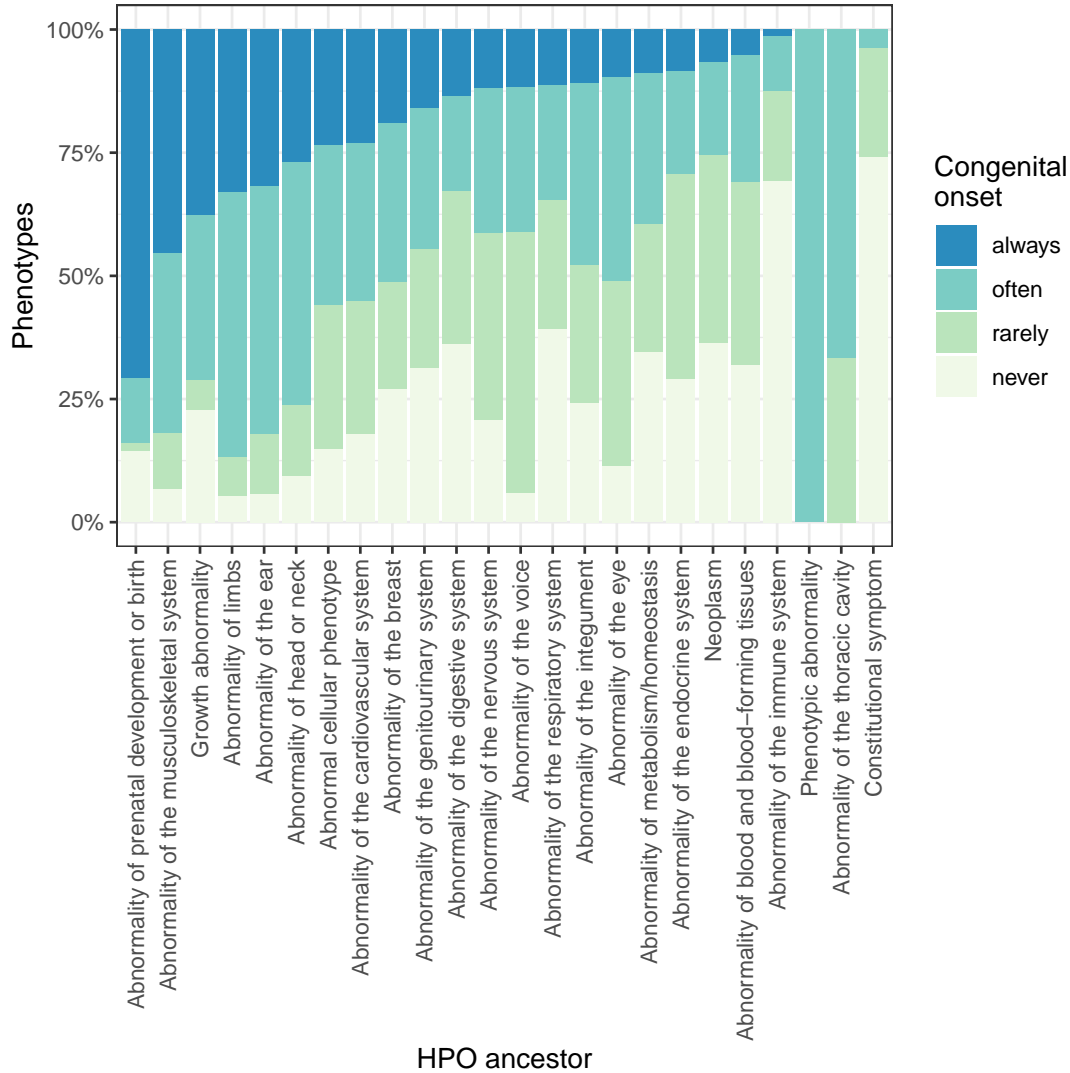


Figure 4: Distribution of congenital onset across HPO branches. The y-axis shows the proportion of phenotypes that are always/often/rarely/never congenital. The x-axis shows the HPO branch, ordered from highest to lowest proportion of always congenital phenotypes.

231 Next, we assessed the distribution of congenital onset across HPO branches (Fig. 4).  
 232 We found that the Abnormality of prenatal development or birth branch contained  
 233 the greatest proportion of phenotypes that were always congenital (70.15%), fol-  
 234 lowed by Abnormality of the musculoskeletal system (45.34%) and Growth abnor-  
 235 mality (37.62%). This is concordant with the expectation that these phenotypes  
 236 should largely be congenital. The HPO branches with the least commonly congenital



phenotypes were Constitutional symptom (0%), Abnormality of the thoracic cavity (0%), and Phenotypic abnormality (0%). ‘Constitutional symptom’ is a fairly broad term defined as ‘*A symptom or manifestation indicating a systemic or general effect of a disease and that may affect the general well-being or status of an individual.*’ Examples include ‘Fatigue’ ‘Exercise intolerance’, ‘Hot flashes’ and ‘Sneeze’.

#### 0.4 Discussion

Phenotype severity annotations have utility across a wide variety of applications in both the clinic and research. In clinical settings, severity annotations can be used to prioritise the treatment of some phenotypes over others in patients with complex presentations, avoid administering contraindicated drugs, and prognosing potential health outcomes. In research settings, severity annotations can be used to identify phenotypes that have a large impact on patient outcomes and yet are currently understudied. They may also be used to help design new experiments and studies, or even provide new insights into the underlying aetiology of the disease by making expert-level summaries more immediately accessible to the wider research community.

The creation and annotation of biomedical knowledge has traditionally relied on manual or semi-manual curation by human experts (Gargano et al., 2024; Köhler et al., 2021; Mungall et al., 2017; Ochoa et al., 2021; Putman et al., 2024). Performing such manual curation and review tasks at scale is often infeasible for human biomedical experts given limited time and resources. LLMs have the capacity to effectively encode, retrieve, and synthesise vast amounts of diverse information in a highly scalable manner (OpenAI et al., 2024; Singhal, Azizi, et al., 2023; Van Veen et al., 2024). This makes them powerful tools that can be applied in a rapidly expanding variety of scenarios, including medical practice, research and data curation (Caufield et al., 2023; O’Neil et al., 2024; Pan et al., 2023; Singhal, Azizi, et al., 2023; Toro et al., 2023).

Here, we introduce a novel framework to leverage the current best-in-class LLM, GPT-4 (OpenAI et al., 2024), to systematically annotate the severity of 17502 phenotypic abnormalities within the HPO. By employing advanced AI capabilities, we have demonstrated the feasibility of automating this process, significantly enhancing efficiency without substantially compromising accuracy. Our validation approach yielded a high true positive rate exceeding 88% across the phenotypes tested. Furthermore, our approach can be readily adapted and scaled to accommodate the growing volume of phenotypic data. In total, the entire study cost \$296.27 in queries to the OpenAI API. While we do not have a direct comparison, this likely represents a extremely small fraction of the total costs of such a study if performed manually by human experts charging at an hourly rate. Even if all human annotations were provided on a volunteer basis, this would still require hundreds if not thousands of hours of cumulative manual human labour. Using our approach, severity annotations for the entire HPO can be generated automatically at a rate of ~100 phenotypes/hour. Further optimisation of the annotation process and increased API rate limits could potentially accelerate this even further.

Throughout this study, we observed that GPT-4 was capable of reliably recovering deep semantic relationships from the medical domain, far beyond making superficial inferences based on lexical similarities. An excellent example of this is the phenotype ‘Molar tooth sign on MRI’ (HP:0002419; severity score=25.56), which GPT-4 annotated as causing intellectual disability. At first glance, we ourselves assumed this was a false positive as the term appeared to be related to dentition. However, upon further inspection we realised that molar tooth sign is in fact a pattern of abnormal brain morphology that happens to bear some resemblance to molar dentition when observed in radiological scans. This phenotype is a known sign of neurodevel-

289 opmental defects that can indeed cause severe intellectual disability (Gleeson et al.,  
290 2004).

291 In addition to rapidly synthesising and summarising vast amounts of information,  
292 LLMs can also be steered to provide justifications for each particular response. This  
293 makes LLMs amenable to direct interrogation as a means of recovering explain-  
294 ability, especially when designed to retain information about previous requests  
295 and interactions as they use these to iteratively improve and update their predic-  
296 tions (Janik, 2024). This represents a categorical advance over traditional natural  
297 language processing models based on more shallow forms of statistical or machine  
298 learning (e.g. Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (Jones, 1972), Word2vec  
299 (Mikolov et al., 2013)) which lack the ability to provide chains of causal reasoning  
300 to justify their predictions. This highlights the fundamental trade-off between sim-  
301 pler models with high explainability (the ability humans to understand the inner  
302 workings of the model) but low interpretability (the ability of humans to trace the  
303 decision process of the model, analogous to human ‘reasoning’), and deeper more  
304 complex models with low explainability but high interpretability (Marcinkevičs &  
305 Vogt, 2023).

306 A key contribution of our study is the introduction of a quantitative severity scor-  
307 ing system that integrates both the nature of the clinical characteristic and the  
308 frequency of its occurrence. By encoding the concept of severity in this way, we are  
309 able to prioritise phenotypes based on their impact on patients. The methodology  
310 allowed us to transition from low-throughput qualitative assessments of severity  
311 (e.g. Lazarin et al. (2014)) to high-throughput quantitative assessments of severity.  
312 One of the most severe phenotypes in the HPO is ‘Fetal akinesia sequence’ (FAS;  
313 HP:0001989, severity score= 43.9), and extremely rare condition that is almost al-  
314 ways lethal. FAS is a complex, multi-system phenotype that can be caused by at  
315 least 24 different genetic disorders. Despite the complex and heterogeneous aetiolo-  
316 gy of this phenotype, GPT-4 was able to provide accurate annotations alongside  
317 explainable justifications for those annotations (see Table 4). For example, this phe-  
318 notype almost always results in death, either *in utero* or shortly after birth. Not  
319 only did GPT-4 correctly provide the annotation death as ‘always’, when asked  
320 whether FAS causes sensory impairments it provided the response ‘always’ with the  
321 justification ‘Fetal akinesia sequence typically results in severe sensory impairment  
322 due to neurodevelopmental disruption.’ Neurodevelopmental disruption is indeed a  
323 hallmark component of FAS (e.g. hydrocephalus, cerebellar hypoplasia) that causes  
324 severe impairments across multiple sensory systems (Chen, 2012). This demonstrates  
325 that GPT-4 was able to recover the correct chain of causality from phenotype to  
326 clinical characteristic.

327 Our findings highlight the potential of this next generation of natural language pro-  
328 cessing technologies in significantly contributing to the automation and refinement  
329 of data curation in biomedical research. These results have a large number of useful  
330 real-world applications, such as prioritising gene therapy candidates (Murphy et al.,  
331 2023) and guiding clinical decision-making in rare diseases. It may also be used as  
332 tool to help inform policy decisions and funding allocation by healthcare or govern-  
333 mental institutions. This of course would need to be in consultation with subject  
334 matter medical experts, patients, advocates and biomedical ethicists before reaching  
335 a final decision. Nevertheless, access to succinct, interpretable, and semi-quantitative  
336 severity annotations may encourage key decision makers with limited time to review  
337 individual proposals to pay heed to phenotypes and diseases that would otherwise be  
338 overlooked. As the HPO and the broader literature continue to grow over time, our  
339 automated AI-based approach can easily be repeated to keep pace with the rapidly  
340 evolving biomedical landscape. Furthermore, it can be extended to produce different  
341 sets of annotations or be used with any other ontology. Additional use cases include

342 gathering data on the prevalence of each phenotype to approximate their social and  
343 financial costs.

344 One key limitation of our study is the fact that we did not explicitly interrogate  
345 GPT-4 to assess how the availability of treatments affected the annotations it pro-  
346 duced. For example, there are some very severe conditions for which highly effective  
347 treatments and early detection screens are widely available (e.g. syphilis, some forms  
348 of melanoma), thus rendering them fully treatable or even curable provided access  
349 to modern healthcare. It would therefore be useful to further interrogate GPT-4 to  
350 uncover how the availability of treatments influences its responses. Many of our find-  
351 ings here seem to indicate that GPT-4 does take into account quality of care to the  
352 extent that health services increase the likelihood of desired outcomes. For example,  
353 many of the cancer phenotypes are justified as always or often causing death unless  
354 detected and treated early in the disease course. On the other hand, some cancers  
355 are justified as rarely causing death if appropriate treatment is provided, which may  
356 not always be the case for individuals or populations with access to less access to  
357 quality healthcare services. Future efforts could more explicitly ask GPT-4 whether  
358 the phenotype would cause death with no or suboptimal treatment.

359 Another limitation with the present dataset is that phenotypes themselves can mani-  
360 fest with different degrees of severity, in the sense that they are more pronounced or  
361 intense. For example, sensitivity to light could range from a mild inconvenience to a  
362 severe disability that prevents the individual from leaving their home during the day.  
363 The effect of onset (beyond congenital vs. non-congenital) and time course (acute,  
364 slowly progression, relapse-remitting) were also not explicitly considered. Finally, we  
365 did not ask GPT-4 to consider phenotypes as they present within particular diseases.  
366 For example, while the phenotype ‘Hypertension’ may be mild to moderate in the  
367 general population and not present until middle-age, it can also present early in  
368 life as very severe in the context of a rare genetic disorder such as Liddle syndrome.  
369 Future work could explore these nuances in more detail.

370 In addition to these technical challenges, there are multiple factors that need to be  
371 considered when trying to prioritise phenotypes for their suitability for gene therapy  
372 development. First, while we have attempted to formalise severity here, this is an  
373 inherently subjective concept that may vary considerably across different individuals  
374 and contexts. For instance, one could ask whether a condition that always causes  
375 death is worse than a condition that causes a lifetime of severe disability (e.g. paral-  
376 ysis, blindness, intellectual disability). Metrics such as quality-adjusted life years  
377 (QALYs) have been proposed in the past to address these dilemmas by defining  
378 health as a function of both the length and quality of life (Prieto & Sacristán, 2003).  
379 With regards to the financial burden of diseases, in some situations phenotypes  
380 which require many years of expensive medical care may be prioritised over those  
381 that result in extremely early onset lethality and little opportunity for therapeutic  
382 intervention. Another factor that affects the viability of a therapeutic program is  
383 the speed, cost and other practical considerations of a clinical trial. For instance,  
384 measuring risk of ageing-related respiratory failure over a ten-year period may be  
385 impractical in some cases. However, testing for total reversal of an existing severe  
386 phenotype could potentially yield faster and more immediately impactful results. If  
387 performed in close collaboration with medical ethicists, governmental organisations,  
388 advocacy groups and patient families, such cost/benefit assessments could be aided  
389 by LLMs through the scalable gathering of relevant data. As AI capabilities con-  
390 tinue to advance, the range of applications in which they can be used effectively will  
391 continue to grow.

392 While our study demonstrates the feasibility and utility of AI-driven phenotypic  
393 annotation, several limitations must be acknowledged. The reliance on computa-  
394 tional algorithms may introduce biases or inaccuracies inherent to the training data,

necessitating ongoing validation and refinement of our approach. Additionally, our severity scoring system, while comprehensive, may not capture the full spectrum of phenotypic variability or account for complex gene-environment interactions. Future research should focus on further optimising AI-driven annotation methodologies, incorporating additional data modalities such as genomic and clinical data to enhance accuracy.

In conclusion, our study represents a significant step towards harnessing the power of AI to advance phenotypic annotation and severity assessment across all rare diseases. This resource aims to provide researchers and clinicians with actionable insights that can inform rare disease research and improve the lives of individuals affected by rare diseases.

## 0.5 Methods

### 0.5.1 Annotating the HPO using OpenAI GPT-4

We wrote a Python script to iteratively query GPT-4 via the OpenAI application programming interface (API). The ultimately yielded consistently formatted annotations for 17502 terms within the HPO. Our annotation framework was developed based on previously defined criteria for classifying disease severity (Lazarin et al., 2014). We sought to evaluate whether each phenotype directly caused a given severity-related clinical characteristic, including: intellectual disability, death, impaired mobility, physical malformations, blindness, sensory impairments, immunodeficiency, cancer, reduced fertility, and/or had a congenital onset. Through prompt engineering we found that the performance of GPT-4 improved when we incorporated a scale associated with each clinical characteristic and required a justification for each response. We asked how frequently the given phenotype directly causes each clinical characteristic - whether it never, rarely, often, or always occurred. This design helps to constrain the potential responses of GPT-4 and thus make it more amenable to machine-readable post-processing. It also serves to address one of its key limitations from the Lazarin et al. (2014) survey, namely the lack information on how clinical characteristic frequency affected the clinicians' severity annotations. Here, we can instead use the frequency values to generate more precise annotations and downstream severity ranking scores.

Furthermore, our prompt design revealed that the optimal trade-off between the number of phenotypes and performance (in terms of producing the desired annotations, and adhering to the formatting requirements) was achieved when inputting no more than two or three phenotypes per prompt. An example prompt can be seen in Figure 1. Thus, only two phenotypes were included per prompt in order to 1) avoid exceeding per-query token limits, and 2) prevent the breakdown of GPT-4 performance due to long-form text input, which is presently a known limitation common to many LLMs including GPT-4 (Wei et al., 2024).

### 0.5.2 Calculating the true positive rate

Table 1: The HPO branches and their descendants used as true positives for each clinical characteristic.

Clinical characteristic	HPO queries	True positive HPO IDs
Intellectual disability	'Intellectual disability'; 'Mental deterioration'	19
Impaired mobility	'Gait disturbance'; 'Diminished movement'; 'mobility'	319
Physical malformations	'malformation'	78
Blindness	'blindness'	1

Table 1: The HPO branches and their descendants used as true positives for each clinical characteristic.

Clinical characteristic	HPO queries	True positive HPO IDs
Sensory impairments	‘Abnormality of vision’; ‘Abnormality of the sense of smell’; ‘Abnormality of taste sensation’; ‘Somatic sensory dysfunction’; ‘Hearing abnormality’	252
Immunodeficiency	‘Immunodeficiency’; ‘Impaired antigen-specific response’	29
Cancer	‘Cancer’; ‘malignant’; ‘carcinoma’	56
Reduced fertility	‘Decreased fertility’; ‘Hypogonadism’	9

435 A true positive rate was calculated as a measure of the recall of the GPT-4 anno-  
436 tations. This was achieved by identifying specific branches within the HPO that  
437 would contain phenotypes that would reliably indicate the occurrence of certain clin-  
438 ical characteristics, and using all descendants of this HPO branch as true positives.  
439 For example, all descendants of the terms ‘Intellectual disability’ (HP:0001249) or  
440 ‘Mental deterioration’ (HP:0001268) should be annotated as always or often causing  
441 intellectual disability (Table 1).

### 442 **0.5.3 Quantifying phenotypic severity**

443 The GPT-4 generated clinical characteristic occurrences were converted into a semi-  
444 quantitative scoring system, with ‘always’ corresponding to 3, ‘often’ to 2, ‘rarely’  
445 to 1, and ‘never’ to 0. These scores were then weighted by a severity metric on a  
446 scale of 1-5, with 5 representing the highest severity, as determined by the provided  
447 clinical characteristics (Table 2). Subsequently, the weighted scores underwent nor-  
448 malisation to yield a final quantitative severity score ranging from 0-100, with 100  
449 signifying the maximum severity score attainable.

450 Let us denote:

- 451 •  $p$  : a phenotype in the HPO.
- 452 •  $j$  : the identity of a given annotation metric (i.e. clinical characteristic, such  
453 as ‘intellectual disability’ or ‘congenital onset’).
- 454 •  $W_j$ : the assigned weight of metric  $j$ .
- 455 •  $F_j$ : the maximum possible value for metric  $j$  (equivalent across all  $j$ ).
- 456 •  $F_{pj}$  : the numerically encoded value of annotation metric  $j$  for phenotype  $p$ .
- 457 •  $NSS_p$ : the final composite severity score for phenotype  $p$  after applying nor-  
458 malisation to align values to a 0-100 scale and ensure equivalent meaning  
459 regardless of which other phenotypes are being analysed in addition to  $p$ . This  
460 allows for direct comparability of severity scores across studies with different  
461 sets of phenotypes.

462  
463  
464

$$NSS_p = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m (F_{pj} \times W_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^m (\max\{F_j\} \times W_j)} \times 100$$

465  
466  
467

Table 2: Weighted scores for each clinical characteristic and GPT-4 response category.

Clinical characteristic	Always (3)	Often (2)	Rarely (1)	Never (0)
Death (6)	18	12	6	0
Intellectual disability (5)	15	10	5	0
Impaired mobility (4)	12	8	4	0
Blindness (4)	12	8	4	0
Physical malformations (3)	9	6	3	0
Sensory impairments (3)	9	6	3	0
Immunodeficiency (3)	9	6	3	0
Cancer (3)	9	6	3	0
Reduced fertility (1)	3	2	1	0
Congenital onset (1)	3	2	1	0

#### 468 0.5.4 Severity classes

469 The decision tree algorithm used in Lazarin et al. (2014) was adapted here for use  
470 with the GPT-4 clinical characteristic annotations. This algorithm first assigned  
471 each clinical characteristic to a tier, where Tier 1 indicated the most severe clin-  
472 ical characteristics and Tier 4 indicated the least severe clinical characteristics  
473 ('death'=1, 'intellectual disability'=1, 'impaired mobility'=2, 'physical malforma-  
474 tions'=2, 'blindness'=3, 'sensory impairments'=3, 'immunodeficiency'=3, 'cancer'=3,  
475 'reduced fertility'=4). If a phenotype often or always caused more than one Tier 1  
476 clinical characteristic, it was assigned a severity class of "Profound". If the pheno-  
477 type often or always caused only one Tier 1 clinical characteristic, it was assigned a  
478 severity class of "Severe". A "Severe" class assignment was also assigned if the phe-  
479 notype often or always caused three or more Tier 2 and Tier3 clinical characteristics.  
480 If the phenotype often or always caused at least one Tier 2 clinical characteristic,  
481 it was assigned a severity class of "Moderate". All remaining phenotypes were  
482 assigned a severity class of "Mild". In cases where the phenotype mapped to more  
483 than one class, only the most severe class was used. This procedure is implemented  
484 within the function `HPOExplorer::gpt_annot_class`.

#### 485 0.5.5 Correlations between clinical characteristic severity metrics

486 To assess the correlation structure between each clinical characteristic severity met-  
487 ric, as well as between the composite severity score and each metric, we computed  
488 Pearson correlation coefficients for all pairwise combinations of these variables using  
489 the numerically encoded metric values. The correlation matrix was visualised using  
490 a heatmap, with the colour intensity representing the strength of the correlation  
491 (Figure 8).

## 492 0.6 Data and code availability statement

493 All code and data used in this study are available on GitHub at:

494 [https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt\\_hpo\\_annotations](https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt_hpo_annotations)



495 The GPT-4 clinical characteristic annotations for all HPO phenotypes are made  
 496 available through the R function `HPOExplorer::gpt_annot_read` or in CSV format  
 497 at:

498 [https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt\\_hpo\\_annotations/tree/master/data](https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt_hpo_annotations/tree/master/data)

499 A fully reproducible version of this Quarto manuscript can be found at:

500 [https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt\\_hpo\\_annotations/blob/master/  
 501 manuscript.qmd](https://github.com/neurogenomics/gpt_hpo_annotations/blob/master/manuscript.qmd)

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626 **0.8 Supplementary Materials**  
 627 **0.8.1 Supplementary Figures**

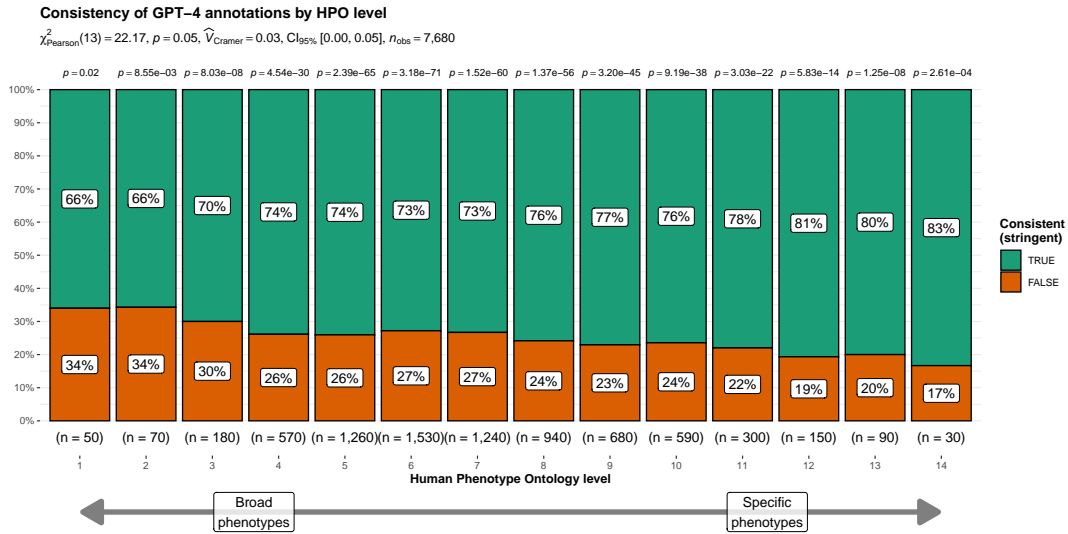


Figure 5: Relationship between the consistency of GPT-4 clinical characteristic annotations (using the stringent criterion) and the level of each phenotype within the HPO ontology (with the number of phenotypes in parentheses). Greater ontology levels (x-axis) indicate more specific phenotypes. The subtitle indicates summary statistics for the overall relationship between HPO level and the proportion of phenotypes that were annotated consistently. The p-values above each bar indicate whether the distribution of consistent/inconsistent annotations, within a given HPO level, significantly deviate from the expected null distribution.

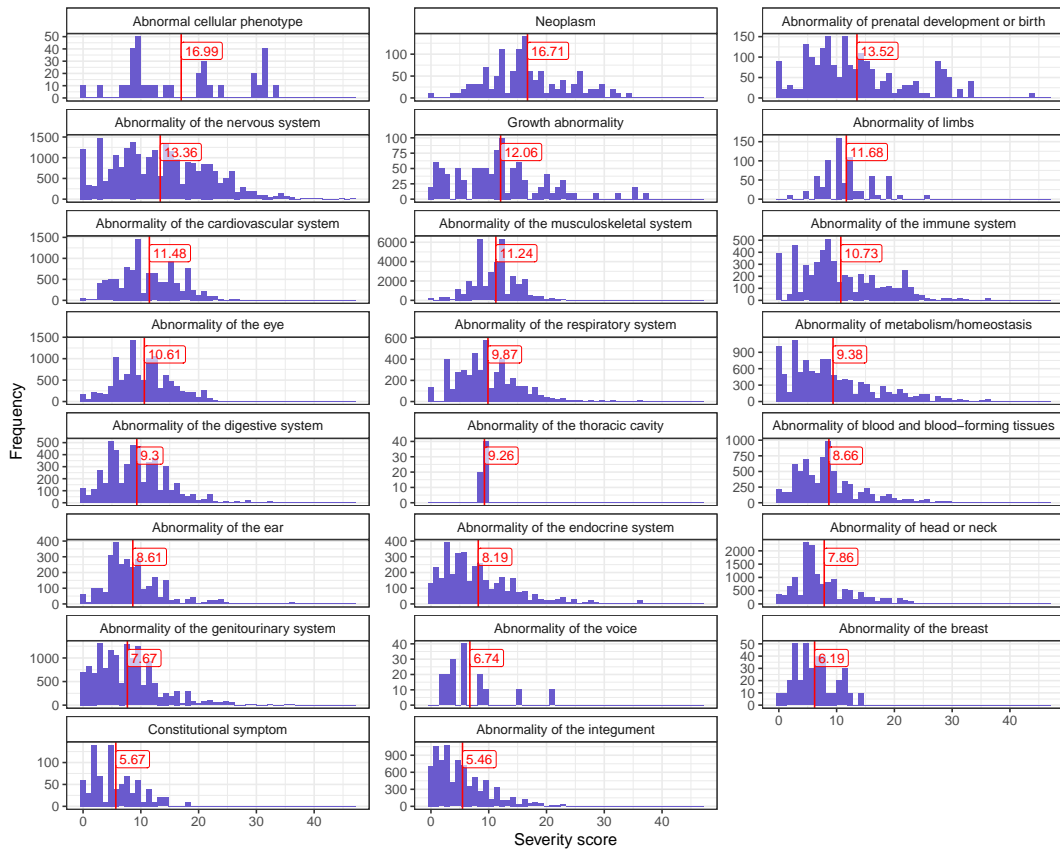


Figure 6: Distribution of the composite GPT-4 severity score of the severity scores for all HPO terms.

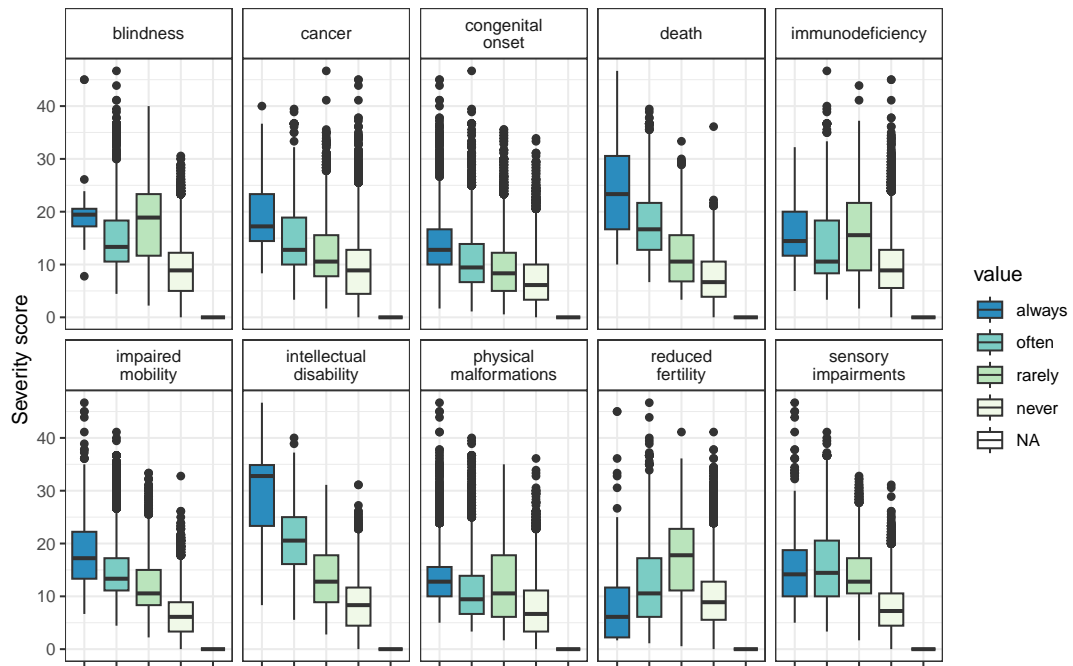


Figure 7: Boxplot showing the relationship between composite severity score (y-axis) and the frequency response categories within each clinical characteristic type.

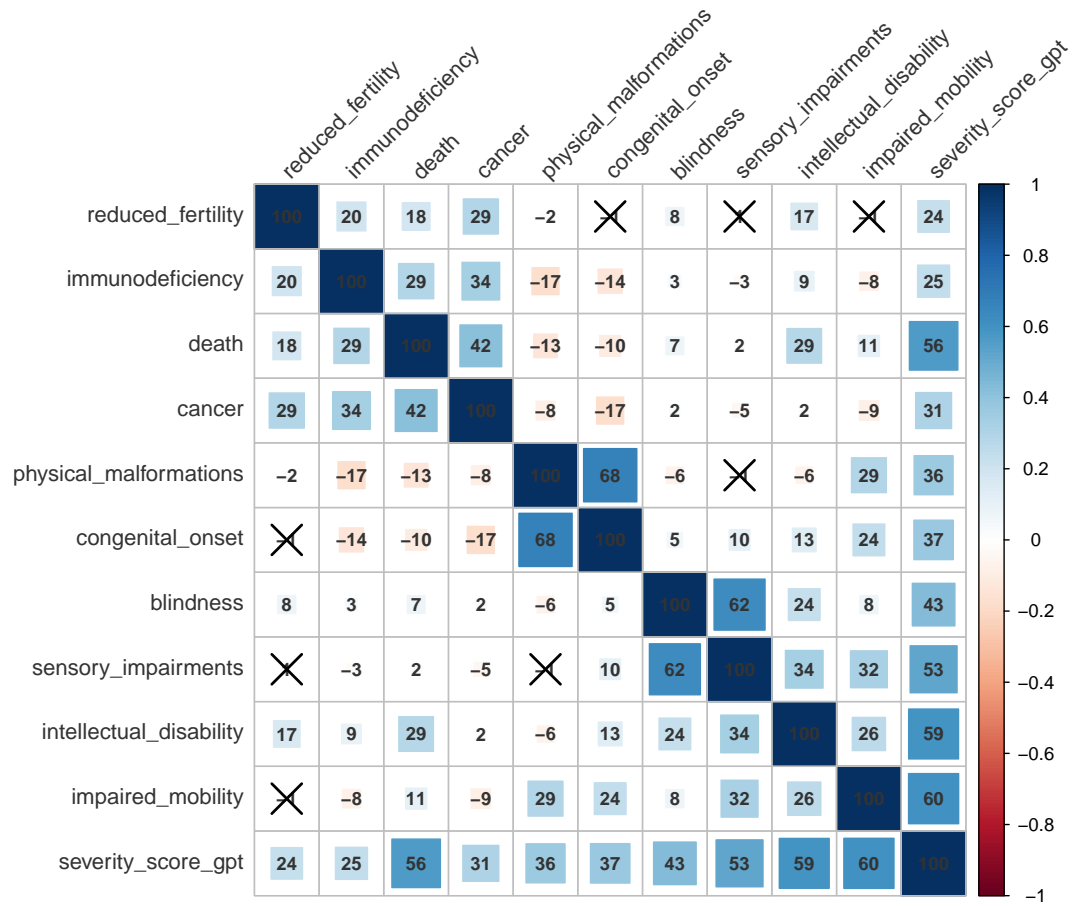


Figure 8: Pearson correlations between each individual clinical characteristic severity metric and the composite severity score ('severity\_score\_gpt').

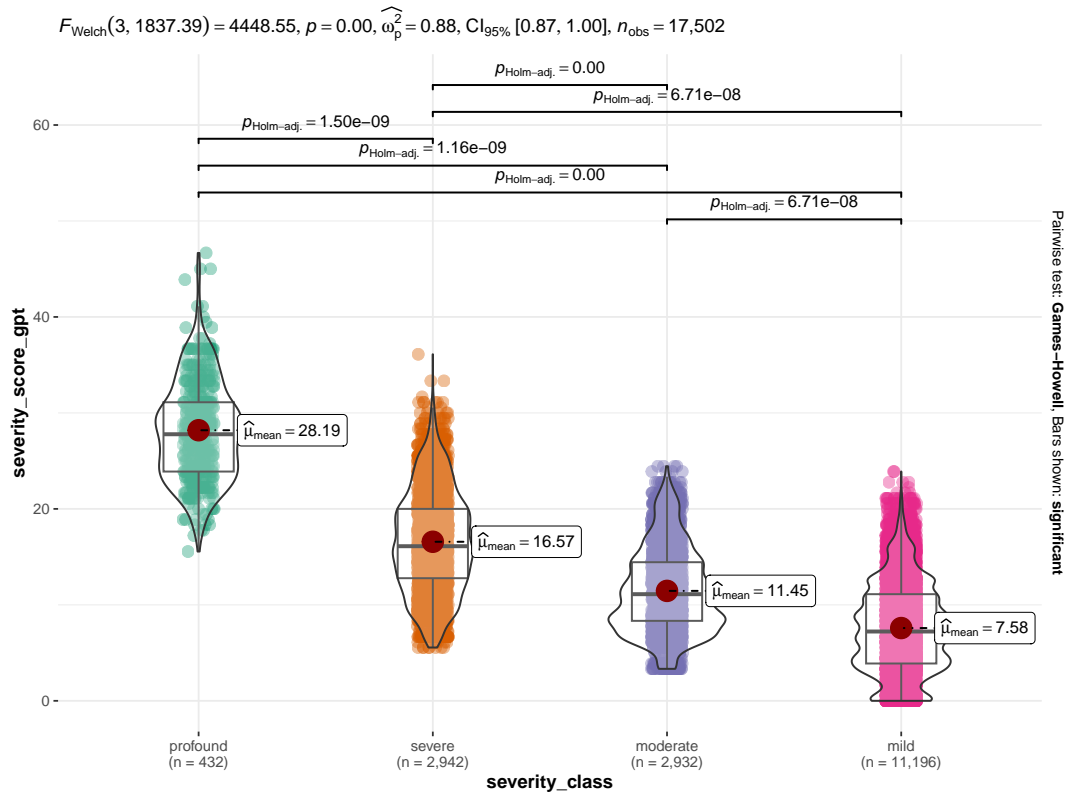


Figure 9: Distribution of the composite GPT-4 severity score introduced in this paper (y-axis) by an approximation of the severity class system introduced Lazarin et al. (2014) (x-axis). While these are different schemes for ranking phenotype severity, there is a strong correspondence between them (see summary statistics in subtitle). The sample size (number of phenotypes) is shown in parentheses along the x-axis.



Table 3: Table of GPT-4 clinical characteristic annotations for all Human Phenotype Ontology (HPO) phenotypes in Figure 3. For each phenotype, this includes the name of the phenotype ('hpo\_name'), the ID of the phenotype ('hpo\_id'), the frequency of each annotation (always, often, rarely, never), and the justification for each annotation ('...justification'). These results can also be downloaded programmatically using the R function `HPOExplorer::gpt_annot_check`.

### Top phenotype annotations table

#### 628 0.8.2 Supplementary Tables

Table 4: Severity mnotations generated for GPT-4 clinical characteristic annotations for the HPO phenotype 'Fetal akinesia sequence' (HP:000198).

Clinical characteristic	Annotation	Justification
Intellectual disability	always	Fetal akinesia sequence typically results in severe neurodevelopmental impairment, including intellectual disability.
Death	always	Fetal akinesia sequence is typically fatal in utero or shortly after birth.
Impaired mobility	always	Fetal akinesia sequence results in severe physical impairment, including impaired mobility.
Physical malformations	always	Fetal akinesia sequence is associated with multiple physical malformations.
Blindness	often	Visual impairment is common in surviving individuals with fetal akinesia sequence due to neurodevelopmental impairment.
Sensory impairments	always	Fetal akinesia sequence typically results in severe sensory impairment due to neurodevelopmental disruption.
Immunodeficiency	rarely	While not a direct feature, some individuals with fetal akinesia sequence may have associated immune abnormalities.
Cancer	never	Fetal akinesia sequence does not cause cancer.
Reduced fertility	often	Given the severe physical impairments associated with fetal akinesia sequence, fertility is likely to be reduced in surviving individuals.
Congenital onset	always	Fetal akinesia sequence is a congenital disorder.