1 A Machine-Curated Database of Genome-Wide

2 Association Studies

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Abstract

- 15 Tens of thousands of genotype-phenotype associations have been discovered to date, yet
- 16 not all of them are easily accessible to scientists. Here, we describe GwasKB, a novel
- machine reading system that automatically collects and synthesizes genetic associations
- 18 from the scientific literature into a structured database. GwasKB helps curators by
- automatically collecting >3,000 previously documented open-access relations (with an
- estimated recall of 60-80%) as well as >2,000 associations not present in existing human-
- curated repositories (with an estimated precision of 82-89%). Our system represents the
- 22 largest fully automated GWAS curation effort, and is made possible by a novel paradigm
- 23 for constructing machine learning systems called data programming. Our results
- 24 demonstrate both the importance and the feasibility of automating the curation of
- 25 scientific literature.

| 21 | Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) are widely used for measuring the effects of |
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| 28 | genomic mutations on human traits ¹ . Despite revealing tens of thousands of genotype- |
| 29 | phenotype associations, not all GWAS results are available to scientists in a structured |
| 30 | form amenable to downstream analyses. |
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| 32 | Multiple efforts are underway to catalogue published GWAS associations ^{2,3} , but it is as |
| 33 | yet unclear how far we are from a complete GWAS catalogue. Currently, even the most |
| 34 | exhaustive databases vary in their scope: hundreds to thousands of variants may be |
| 35 | present in one repository, but absent in all others ^{2,3} . Variants that are omitted in a |
| 36 | database are effectively lost for downstream analyses, and as more studies are published, |
| 37 | the number of these "dark variants" is expected to increase. This limits the pace of |
| 38 | scientific research and represents an inefficient use of research funding. |
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| 40 | Here, we describe GwasKB, a machine reading system that automatically collects and |
| 41 | synthesizes thousands of genotype-phenotype associations into a structured database. |
| 42 | Our system represents the largest GWAS machine curation effort, and is made possible |
| 43 | by a novel paradigm for constructing machine learning systems called data programming. |
| 44 | When deployed on a set of 589 open-access GWAS publications, GwasKB recovers (at |
| 45 | an estimated recall of 60-80%, depending on stringency criteria) >3,000 known |
| 46 | associations that were validated in existing GWAS databases, and finds >2,000 |
| 47 | associations (with an estimated precision of 82-89%) currently absent in existing |
| 48 | repositories. The number of these new variants corresponds to about 20% of all open- |
| 49 | access associations recorded in the most up-to-date human-curated database, GWAS |
| 50 | Catalog. |
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| 52 | We make available to curators an open-source implementation of GwasKB and we also |
| 53 | provide an online tool for browsing the associations found by our system ¹ . We anticipate |
| 54 | that these associations will be used by scientists in future work. More generally, we |
| 55 | demonstrate that modern machine reading algorithms have matured to the point of |

¹ An online interface to our machine-curated database is available at http://gwaskb.stanford.edu/

56 significantly improving biomedical curation efforts. Finally, our system may form the 57 basis for further efforts to curate Mendelian mutations and other data. 58 59 Automating Biomedical Literature Curation with GwasKB 60 The results of genome-wide association studies are used to estimate disease risks^{4,5}, to 61 62 understand the function of specific genomic regions^{6,7}, and to train predictors for the effects of new mutations⁸. Overall, about 2,500-3,000 studies have been performed to 63 date^{2,3}; they have reported tens of thousands of associations that are manually collected in 64 databases like GWAS Catalog² and GWAS Central³. 65 66 67 However, curating the results of GWAS studies is challenging, as it requires time, domain expertise, and can be prone to errors. As a result, independent human curation 68 69 efforts are often not consistent, and even the largest GWAS databases are incomplete. 70 71 The GwasKB Machine Reading System 72 73 We propose that the process of collecting and synthesizing the findings of GWAS studies 74 can be made significantly more efficient using automated machine reading technologies. 75 We demonstrate this by introducing GwasKB, an automated system that extracts 76 genotype-phenotype relations from the biomedical literature and places them in a 77 structured SQL database (Figure 1). 78 79 Specifically, GwasKB collects three main pieces of information: genetic variants (as 80 defined by their RSID), their associated phenotypes, and their p-values. We support our 81 findings with evidence from publications (identified by their Pubmed ID), which can take 82 the form of a sentence excerpt or a location in a table. 83 84 Several challenges arise when curating GWAS studies. For one, there is no universally 85 adopted threshold for the significance of genotype-phenotype associations. GwasKB reports all (rsid, phenotype) associations that are significant at $p < 10^{-5}$ in at least one 86

87 experiment in the study (such as in one cohort or one statistical model) and it records all the other p-values relevant to that association. Our threshold of $p < 10^{-5}$ is the same as the 88 89 one used in the GWAS Catalog. 90 91 A second difficulty arises when describing the study phenotype. Phenotypes can be very 92 general (e.g., "heart disease") or highly specific (e.g., "high systolic blood pressure"), and 93 existing databases often differ in their level detail. GwasKB addresses this issue by 94 providing simple and detailed phenotypes, i.e. a high-level description that applies to every variant in the paper (e.g. "effects of proteins on inflammation"), and, when 95 96 available, a detailed description for specific variants (e.g., the name of a specific protein). 97 98 Lastly, a third difficulty is posed by copyright restrictions. With GwasKB, we restrict 99 ourselves to open-access papers, which represent approximately 25% of all the studies 100 that have been published to date. All open-access publications are catalogued by the 101 PubMed Central (PMC) repository and are made publicly available in XML format. 102 GwasKB takes these XML documents as input, although any paper in HTML format may 103 be parsed by our system after minor preprocessing. In the current version, we also discard 104 any associated files that need to be processed through proprietary software. However, the 105 principles of our system extend to all kinds of studies. 106 107 On The Design of GwasKB 108 109 GwasKB was designed to extract three key pieces of information: genetic variants, their 110 phenotypes, and their p-values. We have structured GwasKB into a set of five 111 components that extract this information. 112 113 The first component of GwasKB parses the title and abstract of every paper to identify a 114 simple phenotype that will be associated with all its variants. The second component 115 parses the body of the paper to find tuples of RSIDs and their associated detailed 116 phenotypes. Often, the detailed phenotype is abbreviated (e.g. BMI) and a third 117 component attempts to resolve these abbreviations (e.g. output "body mass index"). A

118 fourth component extracts p-values in the form of (rsid, p-value) tuples. Finally, the fifth 119 component constructs a single structured database from all these results. 120 121 Each GwasKB component has three stages: parsing, candidate generation, and classification (Figure 2). Parsing is performed with Snorkel⁹, a knowledge base 122 construction framework for documents with richly formatted data (data expressed via 123 124 textual, structural, tabular, and/or visual cues), such as XML documents. Content is first 125 parsed for structure---the XML tree is traversed and converted into a hierarchical data 126 model with text assigned to tables, cells, paragraphs, sentences, etc. Then each sentence or cell is parsed for content using the Stanford CoreNLP pipeline¹⁰, which performs 127 sentence tokenization, part-of-speech tagging, and syntactic parsing. In candidate 128 129 generation, we identify in the text mentions of some target relation (e.g., p-value/rsid 130 pairs). This is done by generating a large set of substrings from the text of the paper, 131 some of which could contain our target relation. Regular expressions or dictionaries are 132 used to identify candidates that may be valid instances of the relation we are looking for 133 (erring on the side of high recall over high precision). Finally, in the classification stage, we determine which of these candidates are actually correct relation mentions using a 134 135 machine learning classifier. We use a Naive Bayes classifier with a small number of 136 hand-crafted features (between 4 and 12) and we train the model using the recently proposed data-programming paradigm¹¹ 137 138 139 One of the most significant bottlenecks in developing machine learning-based applications today is the challenge of collecting large sets of hand-labeled training data. 140 141 Data programming is a newly proposed paradigm for training models using higher-level, 142 less precise supervision to avoid this bottleneck. In this approach, users write a set of 143 labeling functions: black-box functions that label data points, and that can subsume a wide variety of heuristic approaches such as distant supervision¹²—where an external 144

and more. These labeling functions are assumed to be better than random, but otherwise may have arbitrary accuracies, may overlap, and may conflict. A generative model is used to learn their accuracies and correlations from unlabeled data. The predictions of

knowledge base is used to label data points—regular expression patterns, heuristic rules,

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149 this model can then be used for classification, or to generate labels for a second, 150 discriminative model. We refer the reader to the appendix and to the full data programming paper¹¹ for more details. 151 152 153 Reproducibility 154 155 In order to make our results fully reproducible, we have released Jupyter notebooks that 156 can be used to run GwasKB, generate the database of associations and recreate most of 157 our figures and tables. The notebooks and the source code of GwasKB are freely 158 available on GitHub at github.com/kuleshov/gwasdb. 159 160 In addition, we have built an interactive website that enables users to browse associations 161 that have been extracted by GwasKB. Users can search the data by study, phenotype or 162 variant rsid. The entire dataset can also easily be exported in text or SQL format. 163 164 **Machine Reading Helps Automate GWAS Curation** 165 166 We next demonstrate how our system can significantly help humans synthesize and understand findings from the biomedical literature. We deploy GwasKB on all the open-167 access papers listed in the GWAS Catalog database (589 in total), which is the most 168 169 complete set of such papers that we could access. For evaluation, we also use the GWAS Central database. We use $p < 10^{-5}$ in at least one cohort or study methodology as our 170 171 significance cutoff, and assess both the precision and the recall of our system (see Table 172 1). 173 174 GwasKB Recovers Up To 80% of Curated Open-Access Associations 175 176 GWAS Central and GWAS Catalog contain respectively 3008 and 4023 accessible 177 associations in our set of 589 studies. These are variants whose RSID is contained in the 178 open-access XML content made available through PubMed Central. We also define 179 mappings between GwasKB phenotypes and phenotypes from GWAS Central and

| 80 | GWAS Catalog (see Methods). These databases often use different levels of precision to |
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| L 8 1 | describe phenotypes (e.g. "smoking behaviors" vs. "cigarette packs per day"); therefore, |
| 82 | we also specify whether our reported phenotype is exact or approximate; in the latter |
| L83 | case, it is still useful, but lacks some detail. Table 2 contains examples of relations |
| L84 | extracted by GwasKB. |
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| 186 | Among the set of open-access papers, GwasKB recovered 2487 (82%) relations with |
| L87 | approximately correct phenotypes from GWAS Central and 3245 (81%) relations from |
| 88 | the GWAS Catalog. It also recovered 1890 (63%) relations with full accuracy from |
| L89 | GWAS Central and 2762 (69%) relations from GWAS Catalog. A number of known |
| L90 | associations were not correctly recovered because their reported phenotype was incorrect |
| L 91 | (89 in GWAS Central and 147 in GWAS Catalog). In the remaining cases, we were not |
| L92 | able to report the variant itself. Overall, GwasKB recovered 81-82% of accessible |
| 193 | associations at a level of quality that will be useful in many applications. |
| <u>1</u> 94 | |
| L95 | Machine Curation Uncovers Many Associations Not Found by Human Curators |
| 196 | |
| L97 | In total, GwasKB discovered 6422 relations within the 589 input papers, 2959 (46%) of |
| L98 | which could not be mapped to GWAS Catalog or GWAS Central. Notably, many of these |
| 199 | appeared to be valid. |
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| 201 | We investigated this further by first manually inspecting a random subset of 100 novel |
| 202 | relations (with independent validation from two independent annotators). We found that |
| 203 | 82 relations fully met the specifications of our system, 11 were incorrect, and 7 were |
| 204 | originally identified by a different study (and referenced as background material). Most |
| 205 | of the errors can be attributed to incorrect phenotypes. Of the 82 relations matching |
| 206 | system specifications, 60 appeared to satisfy the same criteria as GWAS Central or |
| 207 | GWAS Catalog relations from the same paper, while 22 were not significant at 10 ⁻⁵ in all |
| 208 | cohorts. The latter may have been omitted by human curators for this reason. |
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Novel Variants Found by GwasKB Are Correlated with Genomic Function

211 212 Linkage Disequilibrium Between Variants from GwasKB and from Existing Databases 213 214 To validate the novel variants found by our system, we conducted a series of analyses 215 aimed at characterizing the variants' function. First, we reasoned that detected variants 216 may be in linkage disequilibrium (LD) with known variants (because they originate from 217 the same LD block), or among themselves, thereby inflating our number of truly novel 218 associations. 219 220 We estimated LD from the Thousand Genomes dataset (Supplementary Methods); Figure 221 3 shows the histogram of r² distances between each novel variant, and its closest variant in the GWAS Catalog. The distribution of r² scores is highly multimodal, with large 222 peaks at $r^2=1$, and many more at $r^2=0$. 223 224 Using a threshold of $r^2 > 0.5$, we filtered our set of new [pmid, rsid, phen, pvalue] 225 226 associations from 3170 to 1494 by removing variants in LD with known manually 227 curated variants; of the 1676 variants that we eliminated, 765 were not in the 1000 228 Genomes database or their closest previously known variant was not in the database; the 229 remaining 911 SNPs were in LD with known variants. We further reduced this set to 230 1304 associations by eliminating novel variants that were in LD with each other. Thus, 231 although many variants are in LD with known variants, over 40% of our discovered 232 variants do not appear to be linked to variants previously identified in GWAS databases. 233 234 We argue that it is preferable to curate both novel and known variants, since we do not 235 know which mutation in an LD block is truly causal and the r² cutoff for defining LD 236 blocks is somewhat arbitrary and may vary. We think that filtering should be performed 237 by the user, depending on their goal; this is also the approach taken by the GWAS 238 Central repository. Moreover, if the authors of a GWAS study report multiple variants in 239 LD, we believe that it is better to report their findings as they are, rather than introducing 240 additional bias through our own filtering. 241

| 242 | Comparison to Alternative Approaches for Estimating Variant Significance |
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| 244 | Our second analysis focuses on the biological function of the novel variants. We focus on |
| 245 | two large classes of phenotypes: neurodegenerative diseases (ND; 27 traits, including |
| 246 | Autism, Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, etc.) and autoimmune disorders (AI; 23 traits, |
| 247 | including Diabetes, Arthritis, Lupus, etc.); for the analyses below, we consider the subset |
| 248 | of variants that are not in LD with any variant in the GWAS Catalog or GWAS Central |
| 249 | (283 ND SNPs and 155 AI SNPs). |
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| 251 | We also collected two sets of genes that were found to be highly expressed in brain cells |
| 252 | as well as in blood cells; specifically, we reasoned that SNPs associated to |
| 253 | neuropsychiatric and autoimmune diseases should be more highly enriched near genes |
| 254 | expressed in brain and immune cells, respectively. Indeed, we found that variants |
| 255 | associated with ND diseases (32 ND SNPs in total) occurred significantly more often |
| 256 | within 200Kbp of genes with preferential brain expression, while variants associated with |
| 257 | AU traits (15 variants in total) were found much more frequently in near genes with |
| 258 | preferential blood expression (p < 0.05; see Supplementary Material). |
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| 260 | We should note however that the vast majority of ND and AU variants were found far |
| 261 | from coding regions. To test whether this set of SNPs also make biological sense, we |
| 262 | used GREAT ¹³ , a tool which annotates the function of variants in intergenic areas of the |
| 263 | genome. In particular, GREAT links intergenic regions with Disease Ontology (DO) |
| 264 | terms, and outputs terms that are significantly enriched for a particular set of variants. |
| 265 | When we applied GREAT to ND SNPs, we found a strong enrichment in regions known |
| 266 | to play a role in ND-related phenotypes, such as cognitive disease ($p < 10^{-32}$), dementia (p |
| 267 | $< 10^{-23}$), and neurodegenerative disease (p $< 10^{-23}$). Similarly, AI variants were |
| 268 | significantly associated with AI-related terms, the most significant of which were disease |
| 269 | by infectious agent (p < 10^{-27}), viral infectious disease (p < 10^{-19}), and autoimmune |
| 270 | disease (p < 10^{-17}). In fact, the top 20 DO terms for either set of variants were all |
| 271 | exclusively associated with the correct family of phenotypes (Supplementary Tables 1,2). |
| 272 | Hence, our predicted variants were highly consistent with these external annotations. |
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273 274 Examining the Effect Sizes of Novel GwasKB Variants 275 276 Finally, we analyzed the magnitude with which novel variants affect their predicted 277 phenotypes and other, related traits. Specifically, we used freely available GWAS summary statistics from the LD Hub project¹⁴ to assess the distribution of SNP effect 278 279 sizes across novel variants and compared them to those of random SNPs. We focused on 280 the 11 most frequent traits in our dataset for which summary statistics were available; for each trait, we identified an LD Hub study that provides effect sizes (in the form of beta 281 282 coefficients or log odds ratios) for that trait. Figure 4 compares the distribution of effect 283 sizes of the novel variants identified by GwasKB to the distribution of effects sizes for all 284 SNPs, again restricting to variants that show no LD with other variants in GWAS 285 databases. Whereas the distribution of random SNPs is centered around zero, as one 286 would expect, novel SNP effect sizes appear to follow a different distribution 287 (Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test; see Figure 4 and Supplementary Figures 1,2) and tend to 288 have significantly higher magnitudes than expected. 289 290 We also examined the effects of GwasKB variants on phenotypes which are known to be 291 related to their primary, predicted trait. For each pair of diseases, we took the set of 292 variants that GwasKB found to be associated with the first disease, and computed their 293 average absolute effect size using summary statistics from the second disease; in several 294 cases, variants that we determined to be associated with one trait (e.g. Obesity) also had 295 large effect sizes on related traits (e.g. BMI). 296 297 Specifically, we used a permutation test to compute the probability of observing the 298 absolute average effect size among novel variants within a random set of SNPs; Figure 5 299 shows the resulting matrix of p-values (we only include traits for which we computed at 300 least one small p-value). In particular, we found that three traits (Obesity, BMI, Type 2 301 Diabetes) shared variants with high effect sizes. These three phenotypes are known to be 302 highly correlated.

Interestingly, we also observed an unusual correlation between LDL Cholesterol levels and Alzheimer's disease. To investigate this further, we repeated the same analysis using variants that have been confirmed by the GWAS Catalog (Supplementary Figures 3-5). The resulting matrix resembles closely that of novel variants and also shows correlation between Alzheimer's and LDL cholesterol. We also found a novel variant (rs6857) that was previously found to be associated with Alzheimer's 15; our system also correctly determined that is associated with LDL 16 at p < 10^{-7} ; this association is notably missing from current manually-curated databases. **Discussion** The importance of curation. If GWAS associations are not recorded in a database, they are effectively missing for many practical purposes, e.g. for training machine learning systems (to predict SNP function). GWAS studies are also costly (often involving genotyping tens of thousands of subjects), and it thus a waste of research funding to not fully record their results. An alternative to curation to ask authors to directly report their findings online. This is already possible within GWAS Central, although in practice not all authors do this, and hence the database is far from complete. In addition, past studies still need to be curated. An ideal solution appears to involve a combination of authors, machines, and curators. Hand-curation is a difficult task. Why do manual curation efforts miss certain associations? Curating papers is often a tedious task involving browsing through highly technical material in search of short snippets of text. Humans are generally not wellsuited to this kind of work: they may accidentally skip table rows, or become tired and skip a paragraph. Curation also requires understanding advanced technical concepts such

as linkage disequilibrium or multiple hypothesis testing. This makes the task unsuitable

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for crowdsourcing approaches.

334 Machines may outperform humans. Computers, on the other hand, don't suffer from the 335 aforementioned limitations: they excel at repetitive work and only need to be 336 programmed by experts once. Crucially, even though machines make errors, these errors 337 are systematic, not random: one may follow an iterative process of fixing these errors and 338 redeploying the system, until a sufficient level of accuracy is reached. Redeploying our 339 system takes on the order of hours, while asking humans to return and correct their errors 340 would take at least months. 341 342 Of course, humans also have many advantages over machines. Indeed, the sets of GwasKB and human-curated associations were quite distinct, with thousands of relations 343 344 present in one set, but not the other. The most accurate and complete GWAS database is 345 in fact a combination of both sources. In the future, we see curation as a collaboration 346 between humans and machines. 347 348 Biomedical information extraction. Extracting structured relations from unstructured text is subject of the field of information extraction ¹⁷ (IE). Information extraction is widely 349 used in diverse domains such as news¹⁸, finance¹⁹, geology²⁰, and in the biomedical 350 351 domain. In the biomedical setting, IE systems have been used to parse electronic medical records²¹, identify drug-drug interactions²², and associate genotypes with drug response²³. 352 353 A considerable amount of effort has gone into uncovering gene/disease associations from biomedical literature²⁴. Our approach, however, takes a different approach, as it attempts 354 to identify the effects of individual mutations. Recently, Jain et al. applied information 355 extraction to the GWAS domain²⁵; their work focused on creating extractors for two 356 357 specific relations: paper phenotypes and subject ethnicities; these extractors achieved an 87% precision-at-2 and a 83% F1-score on the two tasks, respectively. In contrast, our 358 works introduces an end-to-end system that extracts full (phenotype, rsid, pvalue) 359 360 relations comparable to ones found in hand-curated databases. 361 362 Applications beyond GWAS studies. Dozens of literature curation efforts are currently underway in cancer genomics, pharmacogenomics, and many other fields. Our findings 363 364 hint at the possibility of using machine curation there as well.

365 366 The GWAS domain is in many ways easier than others since variants have standardized 367 identifiers and a lot of information is structured in tables. Nonetheless, it allows us to demonstrate the importance of machine curation and to develop a core system that can be 368 369 generalized to other domains. Within the GWAS setting, our system can be further 370 improved by extracting additional relations (e.g. risk alleles, odds ratios). 371 Conclusion 372 373 374 In summary, we have introduced in this work a new machine reading system for 375 extracting structured databases from publications describing genome-wide association studies, and we have used it to both recover many known relations, as well as a number 376 377 of associations that were not present in any existing repository. 378 379 Our results demonstrate how machine reading algorithms may help human curators 380 synthesize the large amount of knowledge contained in the biomedical literature. This 381 knowledge can be made widely accessible using new systems that combine the efforts of 382 both human and machines, thus accelerating the pace of discovery in science. 383 384

385 **Online Methods** 386 387 Detailed Description of GwasKB 388 389 GwasKB is implemented in Python on top of the Snorkel information extraction framework¹¹. Snorkel provides utilities for parsing XML documents and training machine 390 391 learning classifiers. GwasKB extends the parsers/classifiers in Snorkel and applies them 392 to the GWAS extraction task. Below, we provide additional details on the various 393 components of GwasKB 394 395 *Identifying simple phenotypes*. We parse paper titles and abstracts and generate 396 candidates from the EFO, Snomed and Mesh ontologies. We use 11 labeling functions 397 (LFs), which include the following: is the mention in the title; is the mention less than 5 398 characters; does the mention contain nouns; is the mention in the first half of the 399 sentence, etc. We include the full list of labeling functions in our open-source GitHub 400 repository. The high-level phenotype is the set of three highest scoring mentions 401 exceeding a user-specified score threshold or the single highest mention if none exceeds 402 the threshold; this enables us to handle multiple valid phenotypes. 403 404 *Identifying precise phenotypes*. We only parse tables and generate candidates from cells 405 whose header contains the words "phenotype", "trait", or "outcome". Candidate p-values 406 are generated by matching a regular expression; candidate relations consist of 407 horizontally aligned phenotype and p-value candidates. We use three labeling functions: 408 is the candidate mostly a number; is the header of the cell (indicating it's in a phenotype 409 column) very long; does the mention contain words referring to an rsid. The module is 410 described in more detail on GitHub. 411 412 Resolving Acronyms. We resolve acronyms by looking at the entire paper, including 413 tables and the main natural language text in the body of the paper. We extract candidates 414 from aligned pairs table cells, where one row is labeled "phenotype", "trait", or "description", while the other is labeled "abbreviation", "acronym", or "phenotype". We 415

416 generate candidates from the main text using a regular expression. Our labeling functions 417 include the following: is the candidate all in caps; does the candidate match to the 418 Snomed dictionary; does the acronym candidate consist of the letters of each word of the 419 phenotype candidate; is one a prefix of the other; etc. The module for resolving 420 abbreviations is also described on GitHub. 421 422 *Identifying p-values*. We again generate candidates from tables; SNP candidates are 423 generated using a regular expression; p-value candidates are ones that match one of three 424 regular expressions (see GitHub); candidate relations consist of horizontally aligned SNP 425 and p-value candidates (with at most one rsid per row). These candidates were accurate 426 and we report them all. 427 428 Mapping Phenotypes Across Databases 429 430 In order to compare against GWAS Central and GWAS Catalog, we define mappings 431 between GwasKB phenotypes and ones used in these two repositories. These mappings 432 are tables with about 800 entries each that also indicate whether the mapping is fully or partially correct (e.g. "smoking behaviors" vs "packs per day"). We define the latter as 433 434 conceptually containing the precise label while also being not so broad as to be useless. See also our earlier discussion on high- and low-level phenotypes. To confirm the 435 436 validity of our mappings, we asked an independent annotator to label 100 random table 437 entries; their concordance with our labels was 95%. These mappings are available in our 438 GitHub repository. 439 440 Understanding The Errors Of GwasKB Components 441 442 Simple phenotype extraction. Errors at this stage mostly occur when the true phenotypes 443 are not found in our candidate dictionaries (e.g. "genome-wide association study in 444 bipolar patients"; we can only generate the candidate "bipolar disorder"). The second 445 major source of error are phenotypes mentioned only in passing (e.g. "high body fat is a

446 risk for diabetes" when diabetes is not the phenotype whose association is being 447 reported). 448 To estimate the precision of this module, we first restrict ourselves to (paper, rsid, 449 450 phenotype) relations produced by GwasKB that are also confirmed by an existing 451 database, in the sense that the variant specified by the rsid occurs in *some* relation 452 associated with the paper (but not necessarily one with the same phenotype). Then, we 453 look at the fraction of these relations whose phenotype is also correct (at the approximate 454 level). This gives precisions of 97% in the GWAS Catalog and 96% in GWAS Central. 455 456 Detailed phenotype extraction. Most errors occur because we do not correctly resolve 457 acronyms or because low-level phenotypes are not in tables (but rather only in text). 458 Acronyms are not resolved most often because the shortened symbol is not clearly related 459 to the full expression (e.g. CYS5 for Cysteine proteinase inhibitor 5 precursor), and they 460 are presented in tables with confusing formatting. We estimate precision in the same way 461 as for simple phenotypes, but this time, we require that phenotype agree fully. Precision 462 was 73% in GWAS Central, the database with the most precise phenotypes. In GWAS 463 Central, it was 82%. 464 *p-values*. To evaluate p-value extraction accuracy, we labeled by hand 100 random 465 466 relations and found that our rule-based extraction procedure had a precision of 98%. Errors occurred when p-values referred to other entities in the row, such as haplotypes. 467 468 Note also that oftentimes, variants and their p-values are only provided in text but not in 469 tables. This was the primary reason why we failed to report the rsid's of 584 (15%) 470 GWAS Catalog and 432 (14%) GWAS Central associations. 471 472 Error Analysis Over 100 New Relations 473 474 Of the incorrect relations, 7 were due to incorrect phenotype labels (but the underlying 475 SNP was significant) and 4 were due to table parsing errors (the p-value was extracted 476 incorrectly). Of the 22 variants that were not significant in all cohorts, 18 could be

477 identified as such via extracted tags and relations. We also determined that 60 relations were correct because they were either described as "significant" in the paper text (in 478 addition to having $p < 10^{-5}$ in all cohorts) or they had essentially the same or higher level 479 of significance as SNPs that were included in GWAS Catalog or GWAS Central. 480 481 482 To confirm the accuracy of our analysis, we asked two independent annotators with 483 expertise in genomics to label a random subset of 50 associations out of the ones 484 analyzed above. For each annotator, respectively 47 and 48 out of 50 labels were consistent with ours. We publish our 100 samples and their annotation on GitHub; for 485 486 each example, we add a justification for our label. 487 488 Estimating the Precision of GwasKB 489 490 We estimate our overall precision at 92%: we consider the 3463 relations confirmed by 491 existing databases as correct, and estimate the error rate on the other relations to be 18% 492 (incorrect and repeat relations). 493

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Biomedical Publication

Structured Database

| ARTICLES | | | | | | |
|--|------------|--------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------------|
| Genome-wide association study of blood pressure and hypertension Table 1 Genome-wide association results for SBP-associated SNPs with P | | | | | | |
| SNP identifier Chr | | Gene | MAF 0.20 | Beta -1.26 | s.e. | P 3.0E-11 |
| rs2681472 12 rs11105354 12 | 2 88533090 | ATP2B1 | 0.18 0.18 | -1.29 -1.30 | 0.19 0.20 | 3.5E-11 3.7E-11 |
| Here we report results of a genome-wide association study of systolic (SBP) blood pressure | | | | | | |

Figure 1: The GwasKB machine reading system. GwasKB takes as input a set of biomedical publications retrieved from PubMed Central (left) and automatically creates a structured database of GWAS associations described in these publications (right). For each association, the system identifies a genetic variant (purple), a high-level phenotype (pertaining to all variants in the publication), a detailed low-level phenotype (specific to individual variants, if available; red), and a p-value (orange). Acronyms are also resolved (red).

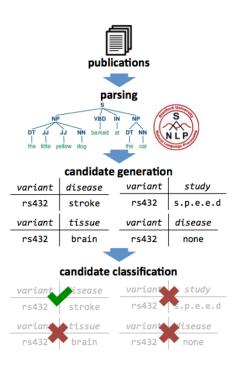


Figure 2: General structure of a GwasKB module. The system contains separate modules for extracting variants, phenotypes, p-values, and for resolving acronyms. Each module consists of three stages. At the parsing stage, we process papers using the Stanford CoreNLP pipeline, performing full syntactic parsing. Next, given a target relation (e.g., variant-phenotype), we generate a large set of candidates, some of which could be correct instances of the target object on relation. Then, at the classification stage, we determine which candidates are correct using a machine learning classifier.

Linkage Disequilibrium Between Novel and Known Variants

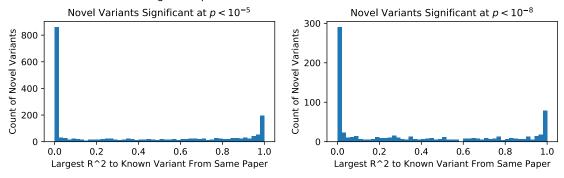
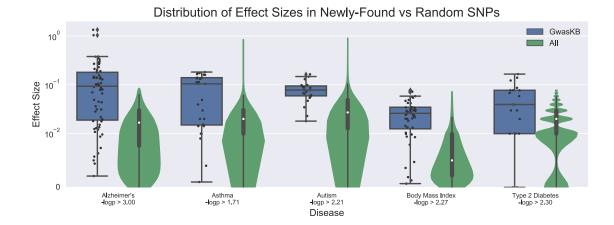


Figure 3: Linkage disequilibrium between GwasKB variants not present in existing human curated databases and variants from the GWAS Catalog. We use the 1000 Genomes dataset to estimate the r² metric between pairs of variants, and report distances from each GwasKB variant to the most correlated GWAS Catalog SNP reported in the same paper. The distribution of r² scores is highly multimodal; many GwasKB variants are uncorrelated (r²=0) with GWAS Catalog SNPs.



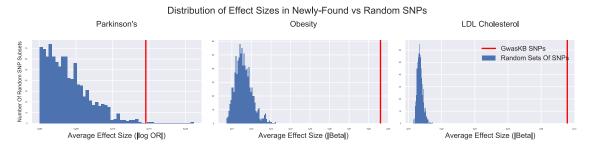


Figure 4: Visualizing the effect sizes of variants identified by GwasKB. *Top:* We compare the distribution of effect sizes (absolute values of beta coefficients or log odds ratios; data from LD Hub) of variants identified by GwasKB (blue) to that of all variants (green) for multiple traits. Blue variant effect sizes cluster away from zero and follow a different distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). *Bottom:* We subsample 1000 random sets of variants with the same number of elements as the set of GwasKB SNPs for a given disease; the average effect size of GwasKB variants (red) is higher than that of the random subsets (blue). In all settings, we only look at novel GwasKB variants not present in existing human-curated repositories.

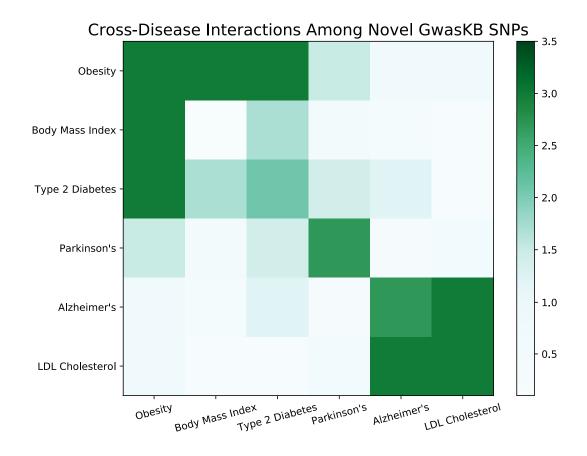


Figure 5: Visualizing the effects of variants identified by GwasKB for pairs of related phenotypes. For each pair of phenotypes, we compute the average absolute effect size of GwasKB SNPs from the first phenotype (left) using summary statistics from the second phenotype (right; summary statistics were obtained from the LD hub). The heat map displays the log-probability of observing an equal or greater effect size by sampling random variants (we thus compute p-values using a one-sided permutation test). Variants predicted by GwasKB to be associated with Obesity, BMI, or Type 2 Diabetes also have significant effects sizes for other, related diseases within this trio. In this analysis, we only look at novel GwasKB variants not present in existing human-curated repositories.

| Database | Statistics over open-access papers | | | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|--------------|---------------------|--|--|--|--|
| | Papers | Associations | Unique Associations | | | | |
| GWAS Catalog | 589 | 8,384 | >2,026 | | | | |
| GWAS Central | 516 | 5,914 | >364 | | | | |
| GwasKB (ours) | 589 | 6,231 | >2,777 | | | | |

Table 1: Numbers of associations contained in different GWAS databases. Unique associations are contained in one database and in none of the others. Human curated databases (GWAS Catalog and GWAS Central) significantly differ in their scope. Our machine-curated repository (GwasKB) automatically recovers a large fraction of known results and also finds a comparable number of unique associations.

| | Source | Simple phenotype | Precise phenotype | p-value | | | | | |
|------------|---|---|------------------------------|----------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Study | Genome-wide pharmacogenomic study of metabolic side effects to antipsychotic drugs. | | | | | | | | |
| rs17661538 | GwasKB | Antipsychotic drugs / Metabolic side effects | Clozapine - Triglycerides | 1.00E-06 | | | | | |
| | GwasCat | Clozapine-induced change in triglyceride | es | 1.00E-06 | | | | | |
| Study | Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies seven loci associated with platelet aggregation response to agonists. | | | | | | | | |
| 135((000 | GwasKB | Platelet aggregation | - | 5.00E-19 | | | | | |
| rs12566888 | GwasCat Platelet aggregation, epinephrine | | | | | | | | |
| Study | ticoagulant pathway. | | | | | | | | |
| rs13130255 | GwasKB | Protein C | funcPS | 3.00E-06 | | | | | |
| | GwasCat | Anticoagulant levels (funcPS) | 3.00E-06 | | | | | | |
| Study | Genome-wide association study of CSF levels of 59 Alzheimer's disease candidate proteins: significant associations with proteins involved in amyloid processing and inflammation. | | | | | | | | |
| rs948399 | GwasKB | Proteins Involved / Inflammation / Alzheimer's Disease | metalloproteinase-3 | 1.00E-07 | | | | | |

Table 2: Examples of associations identified by GwasKB. Associations can be classified as correct (rs17661538), partially correct (rs12566888; the precise phenotype is missing) and incorrect (rs13130255). We also compare these associations to their corresponding entries in the GWAS Catalog. The last entry (rs948399) is an example of a previously undocumented association discovered by our system.

Contributions V.K. conceived the study. B.H., V.K., and A.R. developed modules for the Snorkel system. V.K. developed the GwasKB system. V.K., J.D., and C.V. performed computational analysis. J.D. developed the web interface. V.K. and Y.L. wrote the paper. Y.L., C.R., S.B., and M.S. supervised the study. **Competing interests** None declared.