

# LingVarBench: Benchmarking LLMs on Entity Recognitions and Linguistic Verbalization Patterns in Phone-Call Transcripts

Seyedali Mohammadi\*, Manas Paldhe\*, Amit Chhabra, Youngseo Son, Vishal Seshagiri

Infinitus Systems, Inc., San Francisco, CA, USA

{ali.mohammadi, manas.paldhe, amit.chhabra, youngseo.son, vishal.seshagiri}@infinitus.ai

## Abstract

We study structured entity extraction from phone-call transcripts in customer-support and healthcare settings, where annotation is costly, and data access is limited by privacy and consent. Existing methods degrade under disfluencies, interruptions, and speaker overlap, yet large real-call corpora are rarely shareable. We introduce LINGVARBENCH, a benchmark and semantic synthetic data generation pipeline that generates linguistically varied training data via (1) LLM-sampled entity values, (2) curated linguistic verbalization patterns covering diverse disfluencies and entity-specific readout styles, and (3) a value–transcript consistency filter. Using this dataset, DSPy’s SIMBA automatically synthesizes and optimizes extraction prompts, reducing manual prompt engineering and targeting robustness to verbal variation. On real customer transcripts, prompts optimized solely on LINGVARBENCH outperform zero-shot baselines and match or closely approach human-tuned prompts for structured entities such as ZIP code, date of birth, and name ( $F1 \approx 94\text{--}95$  percent). For subjective questionnaire items, optimized prompts substantially improve over zero-shot performance and approach human-tuned prompts. LINGVARBENCH offers a practical and cost-efficient path to deployment in a direct-answer setting, with real annotations later enabling additional refinement.

## 1 Introduction

Voice-enabled AI is rapidly entering healthcare, powering clinical documentation, patient interaction, and administrative automation (Research, 2024; Augnito, 2024). A core building block of these systems is *structured information extraction* from patient–provider conversations: reliably recovering name, date of birth (DOB), ZIP code, and other fields from spontaneous speech (LLP, 2024).

\*These authors contributed equally.

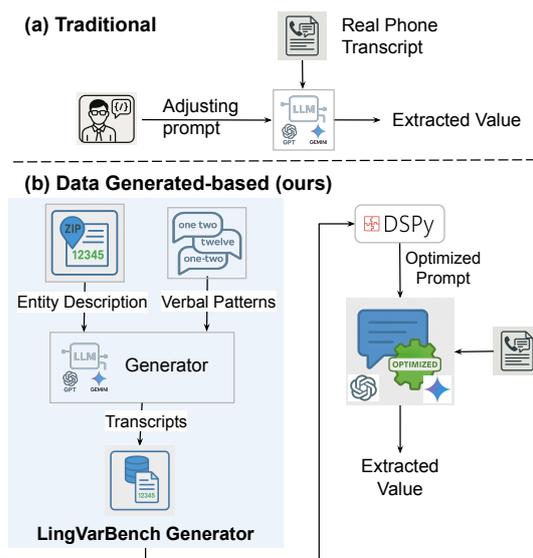


Figure 1: **Motivation for LINGVARBENCH:** (a) Traditional entity extraction starts with little or no usable transcript data, leading to poor performance and requiring manual prompt tuning as transcripts arrive. (b) LINGVARBENCH instead synthesizes diverse transcript verbalization patterns and uses DSPy + SIMBA to optimize prompts and generate robust, scalable evaluation data.

Unlike form-based EHR interfaces, voice AI must handle highly variable verbalizations of the same fact (e.g., March third, nineteen seventy-five, “three three seventy-five,” or “zero three zero three one nine seven five” for a DOB).

As illustrated in Figure 1(a), current practice is largely *data-first and human-in-the-loop*: teams wait for real phone transcripts to trickle in, then repeatedly hand-tune prompts on restricted Protected Health Information (PHI). Each new entity (ZIP, DOB, medications, etc.) restarts this slow cycle, and robustness is limited to the narrow linguistic patterns observed in the available calls. This workflow is further constrained by HIPAA, which makes real transcripts scarce, tightly access-controlled, and expensive to annotate (Zhan et al., 2024). Existing NLP benchmarks such as CoNLL-2003 and

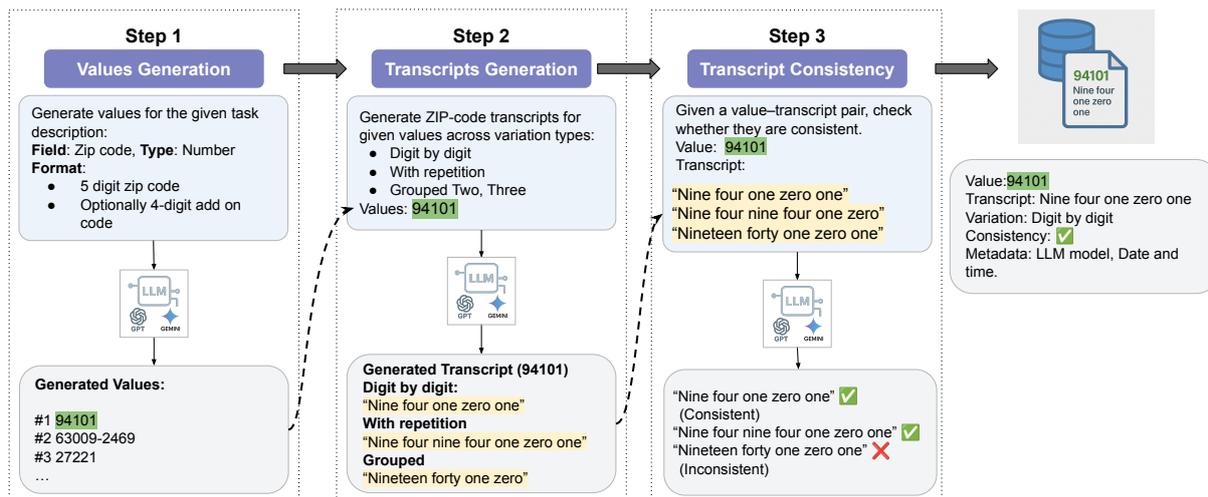


Figure 2: **Overview of the LINGVARBENCH Synthetic Data Generation Framework:** A three-step pipeline for generating linguistically varied transcripts of structured fields. Canonical values (e.g., zip code) are transformed into diverse spoken-style utterances with consistency checks to ensure accurate recovery.

clinical named entity recognition (NER) corpora (Tjong Kim Sang and De Meulder, 2003) focus on written text and do not capture the disfluencies and Linguistic Verbalization Patterns (LVPs)<sup>1</sup> of conversational healthcare speech.

We introduce **LINGVARBENCH**<sup>2</sup>, shown in Figure 1(b) and detailed further in Figure 2, a semantic synthetic data generation and evaluation framework for healthcare voice AI. Our contributions are three-fold: (1) we synthesize HIPAA-compliant patient-provider dialogues using large language models (LLMs) by combining entity descriptions with curated LVPs, e.g., digit-by-digit vs. grouped numbers, pauses, fillers, self-corrections; (2) we use DSPy + SIMBA to automatically optimize extraction prompts on this synthetic data, avoiding manual prompt engineering on PHI (full framework in Figure 2); and (3) we provide a benchmark specification (entity schemas, LVP inventory, and generation/validation protocol) to measure robustness under controlled conversational variation.

On real-world production transcripts, prompts optimized exclusively on LINGVARBENCH outperform zero-shot prompting and match—or even surpass—human-tuned prompts for structured entities such as ZIP, DOB, and name (F1  $\approx$  94–95), despite the human prompts being crafted with ac-

<sup>1</sup>A *linguistic verbalization pattern* is a recurring way in which a structured value is realized in spoken language (e.g., different number or date readings, fillers, hesitations, self-corrections).

<sup>2</sup>LINGVARBENCH abbreviates *Linguistic Variation Benchmark*; in this work, *linguistic variation* and *linguistic verbalization patterns* both refer to the same concept: different ways structured values are expressed in natural-language utterances.

cess to real customer transcripts. For subjective questionnaire items, the optimized prompts remain comparable to human-tuned performance and substantially higher than zero-shot. These results show that a fully automated, synthetic, linguistically controlled pipeline can achieve near-human-level prompting without requiring access to PHI, providing a practical path to HIPAA-compliant healthcare voice AI. This approach is especially valuable at initial product launch, when real-world datasets are not yet available.

## 2 Related Work

Much recent work has focused on clean text and high-quality transcriptions for training their models (Arokodare et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2025). These often fail to generalize effectively in noisy real-world scenarios. Moreover, these datasets frequently lack coverage of domain-specific or emerging entities, limiting their long-term applicability. For example, Davidson et al. (2021) reported low F1 scores for entities such as *email address* (0.46) and *named products* (0.65). Kim and Kang (2022) and Eger et al. (2020) show that even modern neural-based NER systems tend to memorize dataset-specific patterns rather than generalize. These models often break down across datasets due to dataset bias, annotation artifacts, and poor generalization to unseen entity types or domains—highlighting the shallow generalization of even well-curated datasets. Therefore, large datasets that accurately reflect real-world scenarios are crucial for effectively fine-tuning models and enhancing their per-

formance (Wang et al., 2024; Bao et al., 2023). To overcome these shortcomings, synthetic data has been used to enhance model performance. Initially, generative adversarial networks (GANs) (Goodfellow et al., 2014) were popular for creating synthetic data closely resembling real samples. More recently, language models and other generative AI systems have been employed to create datasets for various training tasks. He et al. (2022) introduced the Generate-Annotate-Learn (GAL) framework, which uses synthetic text data to improve classification performance. Similar approaches have been applied in other domains as well: for instance, synthetic speech has been used to train automatic speech recognition (ASR) models (Rosenberg et al., 2019), and synthetic visual data has supported semantic segmentation in autonomous driving (Ros et al., 2016). More recently, the emergence of LLMs has enabled the generation of high-quality synthetic labels, further enhancing model compression and distillation techniques. Fu et al. (2022) demonstrated this by using pseudo-labels from a fine-tuned teacher model, enabling a student model to achieve a 75 times speedup with only a 1% drop in accuracy.

For model optimizations and fine-tuning, prompt-based learning has emerged as a powerful paradigm for adapting large models to downstream tasks (Brown et al., 2020a; Wei et al., 2022). However, prompt engineering for entity extraction remains a trial-and-error process, especially when dealing with unpredictable user input. Recent frameworks like DSPy (Khatab et al., 2024) provide a principled way to optimize prompts using differentiable feedback, but their effectiveness is limited by the availability of diverse high-coverage datasets.

To train generalizable models with minimal human effort, we are proposing a synthetic dataset generation pipeline tailored for entity extraction from phone call transcriptions. We leverage LLMs to simulate realistic transcripts with controlled LVPs and use DSPy to optimize prompts that generalize across these variants. This enables rapid iteration and robust evaluation without relying on expensive human annotation. In this work, we instantiate the pipeline using three commercially available LLMs: GPT 4, Gemini 2.0 Flash, and Gemini 2.5 Pro, allowing us to evaluate cross-model consistency and robustness.

## 3 Methodology

### 3.1 Problem Definition

Our problem formulation is grounded in the assumption that instruction-tuned language models implicitly model how humans realize structured values as spoken language, capturing diverse paraphrases, disfluency and surface forms for the same underlying value (Brown et al., 2020b; Ouyang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2025). We operationalize this “verbalization prior” by conditioning the LLM on a value and a LVP, and then using it to sample candidate transcripts that we later validate for value consistency. Formally, given a target entity type  $e \in \mathcal{E}$ , a structured field description  $d \in \mathcal{D}$ , and a LVP  $v \in \mathcal{V}$ , our goal is to generate a transcript  $u \in \mathcal{U}$  such that (i) the transcript  $u$  contains a valid instantiation of the entity  $e$ , consistent with the field description  $d$ ; (ii)  $u$  reflects the specified linguistic variation  $v$ ; (iii) the distribution of  $u$  approximates the distribution of real-world phone call transcripts for the given entity and variation type. We model a novel function  $G$  as a composition of three components. The overall generative function is

$$G(d, v) = \mathcal{C}(T(V(d), v)),$$

where  $G : (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{V}) \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}, e)$ ,  $V : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$  is a *Value Generator* that samples a plausible entity value from a field description,  $T : \mathbb{V} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$  is a *Transcript Generator* that produces a natural-language utterance embedding the value with the desired variation, and  $\mathcal{C} : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow (\mathcal{U}, e)$  is a *Consistency Checker* that enforces value consistency and ensures the generated transcript is semantically correct and contains a recoverable entity  $e$ .

### 3.2 LINGVARBENCH Overview

We developed three key modules—Value Generator, Transcript Generator, and Consistency Checker, using LLMs. The data flow between these modules is illustrated in Figure 2. The process begins with the Value Generator, which takes a task description as input and produces plausible values aligned with the specified description. These generated values, along with predefined linguistic verbalization types, are then passed to the Transcript Generator, which constructs transcripts embedding the provided values. Finally, the Consistency Checker module verifies the plausibility and consistency between the generated transcripts and the corresponding values. Only those transcripts that pass this step are retained for use. We next highlight the key challenge

and how our design enforces controllability and reliability.

Beyond simply prompting an LLM, the key technical challenge is ensuring that generated transcripts are both (i) linguistically diverse and (ii) semantically correct with respect to the intended structured value. In LINGVARBENCH, controllability comes from explicitly composing each example from a field description and an LVP, while reliability comes from enforcing two constraints: distributional coverage (uniform coverage across value–variation pairs via recursive balancing) and semantic consistency (filtering out generations where the transcript does not unambiguously support the target value). Together, these constraints turn LLM generation into a repeatable benchmark construction procedure that supports fine-grained robustness evaluation and prompt optimization.

### 3.2.1 Inputs

We represent each field description using three components: the field name (e.g., ZIP code), the data type (e.g., integer), and a natural language description that specifies the format or constraints of the field (e.g., “Zip code is a 5-digit number, with optional 4-digit add on code”). To better reflect real-world spoken language, we also define a set of LVPs that capture speech phenomena such as disfluencies, informal syntax, entity format variability, and self-corrections—features that are typically underrepresented in conventional benchmarks.

In our experiments, we evaluated model performance on the following entities: ZIP code, DOB, name, pain rating, respiratory issues, and hearing issues. Together, these entities span a range of types, including integers, strings, dates, booleans, and multi-select enums. Although our experiments instantiate LINGVARBENCH on these six entities, the framework is entity-agnostic: adding a new field requires only a schema-level description (name, type, and constraints) plus optional entity-specific LVP templates for common readout conventions. We view broader entity coverage (e.g., additional intake fields and open-vocabulary clinical concepts) as an important next step. We selected this set because it reflects the core fields used in our production intake flows: ZIP, DOB, and name are high-stakes authentication fields, while pain rating and respiratory/hearing issues are clinically relevant screening questions that stress both numerical and yes/no/multi-select reasoning under noisy speech.

In this work, we focus on direct-answer turns,

i.e., utterances that explicitly contain (or directly state) the target value in response to the system question. This isolates robustness to linguistic realization (LVPs) while keeping supervision well-defined. We do not yet model multi-turn resolution or dialogue acts such as refusals (“I’d rather not say”), topic shifts, clarification questions (“Which date do you mean?”), or pragmatic/implicit answers (“same as last time”), which are common in real phone calls and require additional dialogue-state or answerability modeling.

### 3.2.2 Value Generation Module

The Value Generation component uses an LLM prompted with the field description to produce sample values. The quantity of generated values is configurable, allowing for increased diversity in the output. An abstracted template prompt is shown in Figure 3 (in Appendix A).

### 3.2.3 Transcript Generation Module

The transcript generation modules generate all possible pairs of a) the values generated by the Value generation module and b) the LVPs. For each pair, the module prompts the LLM to generate a phone call transcription that will provide the specific value with the specific LVP. To prevent over-representation of certain value–variation pairs, the module employs a recursive generation strategy: underrepresented pairs are identified and re-prompted until a balanced distribution is achieved. This ensures uniform coverage across the dataset while preserving linguistic diversity. The output of this module is a list of transcripts for every generated value. An abstracted transcript-generation prompt appears in Figure 4 (in Appendix A).

**Linguistic Verbalization Patterns (LVPs)** To simulate the variability of real-world speech, we define a set of LVPs applied during transcript generation. These patterns fall into two categories: (a) *general variations*, which capture stylistic or pragmatic features such as disfluencies, hesitations, or confirmation-seeking, and (b) *entity-specific variations*, which reflect how different structured fields (e.g., ZIP codes) are naturally expressed in spoken language. For example, the general variation self-correction is defined such that the model includes self-corrections in its response, e.g., “it’s one two... no wait, four five”. Our LVPs model variation within direct answers; We isolate robustness to linguistic realization (LVPs)

by mainly focusing on direct-answer turns, providing a controlled environment to measure information extraction accuracy specifically independently of multi-turn dialogue state modeling (refusals, topic shifts, multi-turn grounding), which allows for a more precise evaluation of the model’s sensitivity to spoken-language variation.

Entity-specific variations introduce structural diversity. For date-of-birth, for instance, we include types like `spoken_date_8_digits`, which verbalizes the full date using individual spoken digits. An example would be: "one two zero two one nine four seven". These curated types enable precise control over linguistic diversity and support fine-grained robustness evaluation for extraction models. A detailed description of all LVPs that we used is available in Tables 6-11, in Appendix D.

**Design and extensibility of LVPs.** We intentionally define LVPs as a lightweight, modular inventory (Appendix D) rather than learning a latent variation model, because our goal is controllable stress-testing of extractors under specific spoken-language phenomena. The inventory is structured to be extensible: (i) *general* LVPs capture broadly reusable dialogue surface phenomena (e.g., hesitation, self-correction, confirmation-seeking), while (ii) *entity-specific* LVPs encode formatting conventions tied to an entity schema (e.g., digit grouping for DOB/ZIP, name variants). To extend LINGVARBENCH to a new domain or language, one typically keeps the general LVPs and adds/edits a small set of entity-specific templates reflecting local conventions; the rest of the pipeline remains unchanged. Newly added LVPs can be sanity-checked automatically by generating samples and retaining only those where the intended value is recoverable under the same consistency validation used in the pipeline.

### 3.2.4 Transcript Consistency Checker Module

Recent work shows that LLMs can behave unpredictably under knowledge conflicts, sometimes readily incorporating external evidence and sometimes stubbornly adhering to their internal parametric memory (Xie et al., 2023; Mohammadi et al., 2025). Motivated by these findings, we incorporate a *Transcript Consistency Checker* module within the pipeline. This module reuses the same LLM as a verifier to determine whether a generated transcript correctly contains the intended value. To mitigate the impact of false positives on the data dis-

tribution, the system recursively invokes the Transcript Generation Module until the target number of valid samples is achieved. In our current setup, the checker filters out non-answer turns (e.g., refusals or off-topic responses), reflecting our direct-answer scope. Although false negatives pose a risk by introducing labeling noise, this can be mitigated through more stringent validation criteria (e.g., requiring exact value recovery or higher confidence).

### 3.3 Prompt Optimization with DSPy

For every entity, we used the LINGVARBENCH Synthetic Data Generation framework to generate about a thousand labels of ground truth data. This was then split into training and test dataset. We used the training data to optimize the prompts for entity extraction using DSPy (Khattab et al., 2024) and SIMBA optimization engine. The optimized prompt was then tested with the test split of the dataset. We then used our proprietary real phone call dataset from calls to patients to verify that the optimized prompt works in the real world. The base instruction used for DSPy optimization is shown in Figure 6 (Appendix A).

## 4 Experimental Setup and Results

### 4.1 Proprietary Dataset

We deploy voice AI agents to automate patient-facing phone calls in healthcare settings. Every call is reviewed by a human-in-the-loop before submitting to the customer. Our customers also audit the data for correctness providing us with a second layer of validation. For each question asked by the voice agent, the dataset includes the corresponding patient utterance and the extracted entity response. The two layer validation process leads to a high-quality ground-truth dataset for entity extraction from real-world phone interactions. Due to the sensitive nature of healthcare data, this dataset cannot be open-sourced or publicly released. However, we used it internally to validate the performance of our optimized prompts. Figure 7, in Appendix A, presents fabricated examples to illustrate the structure and content of the dataset.

**Data availability and reproducibility.** Due to privacy, consent, and organizational constraints, we do not release the proprietary real-call dataset used for external validation, the generated synthetic benchmark dataset, or our internal codebase. We therefore provide a detailed benchmark specification (entity schemas and LVP inventory in Ap-

pendix D), generation/validation protocol, prompt templates in Appendix A, and complete experimental settings to support independent reimplementa-tion and analysis.

## 4.2 Metrics

To evaluate the effectiveness of our approach, we conducted experiments to measure (i) the entity extraction accuracy achieved using prompts opti-mized with *LingVarBench*-generated data; (ii) the similarity between real transcripts and LINGVAR-BENCH-generated synthetic transcripts.

**Entity extraction accuracy** We used LINGVAR-BENCH to optimize entity extraction prompts for three general entities, zip code, name, DOB, and three specific entities, pain rating, respiratory is-sues, and hearing issues, for which human-labeled data are available. We compared the accuracy of prompts optimized using LINGVARBENCH against two baselines: (a) a zero-shot human-written prompt, and (b) a human-written prompt optimized through evaluation and tuning on historical data. We compute F1 scores using binary correctness at the sample level.

**Similarity scores** We used text embedding mod-els in conjunction with cosine similarity to assess the similarity between LINGVARBENCH-generated transcripts and real phone call transcripts.

$$\text{Similarity}(T_{\text{real}}, T_{\text{synthetic}}) = \frac{\vec{E}_{\text{real}} \cdot \vec{E}_{\text{synthetic}}}{\|\vec{E}_{\text{real}}\| \|\vec{E}_{\text{synthetic}}\|}$$

where:  $T_{\text{real}}$  is the real phone call transcript anno-tated with ground truth entities,  $T_{\text{synthetic}}$  is the cor-responding synthetic transcript generated by LING-VARBENCH using the same entity values and LVP,  $\vec{E}_x$  is the embedding vector of the input text.

## 4.3 Implementation Details

We implemented the pipeline in Python using DSPy (Khattab et al., 2024). We instantiate the pipeline using three commercially available LLMs: GPT 4 (via Azure OpenAI), Gemini 2.0 Flash, and Gemini 2.5 Pro (via Google Vertex AI). All models are used across the generation, validation, and extraction stages. Prompt formats were standardized across models, and decoding parameters (temperature = 0, top-p = 1.0) were kept consistent. This setup allows us to evaluate the framework’s robustness across models. We chose GPT-4 and Gemini 2.5 Pro be-cause they are the state of the art cloud-hosted

models for which we have appropriate Business Associate Agreements (BAAs). We tested with Gemini 2.0 flash because we leverage faster LLMs in production to deliver low-latency experience to patients. For semantic similarity evaluations, we used the text-embedding-3-large (OpenAI) and gemini-embedding-001 (Google) models.

## 4.4 Results and Discussion

We evaluate LINGVARBENCH on six entities for which our proprietary dataset provides high-quality, human-validated ground truth. We group these into *general entities* (ZIP code, DOB, name) and *task-specific entities* (pain rating, respiratory is-sues, hearing issues). Together, they span integers, strings, dates, booleans, and multi-select enums, and cover both common patient-identifying infor-mation and clinically relevant screening questions. We focus on this set because it is the subset for which our production evaluation data provides con-sistent, human-validated ground truth. Our frame-work is designed to be entity-agnostic. Although we demonstrate its efficacy on a core set of six critical healthcare and authentication fields, the ar-chitecture allows for seamless extension to new domains and tasks via schema-level descriptions for future work. Summary statistics of the synthetic transcripts and DSPy training/validation/test splits are reported in Appendix B (Tables 3 and 4).

Table 1 reports the performance of zero-shot, human-written, and LINGVARBENCH-optimized prompts on real production calls. For general en-tities, LINGVARBENCH-optimized prompts trained *only* on synthetic data achieve approximately 90% accuracy for ZIP and name, matching or exceeding human-tuned prompts. DOB accuracy is somewhat lower, largely due to synthetic samples that use less common date formats (e.g., dd-mm-yyyy) in U.S. speech, highlighting the importance of domain-aware formatting priors when generating synthetic transcripts.

Among task-specific entities, pain rating is more challenging because patients often respond with ambiguous phrases such as “none”, “high”, or “low”, which reduces accuracy despite strong per-formance on canonical numerical answers. Respi-ratory issues are asked via a yes/no question (“Do you have any respiratory issues?”), yielding gen-erally high accuracy and F1. Hearing issues are selected from a small, fixed set of options; because the response space is highly constrained, variation is limited and all prompt types perform similarly.

Prompt Type	Model	ZIP(%)		Name(%)		DOB(%)		Pain Rt.(%)		Resp. Iss.(%)		Hearing Iss.(%)	
		Acc	F1	Acc	F1	Acc	F1	Acc	F1	Acc	F1	Acc	F1
0-shot	GPT 4	88.62	93.93	78.19	87.77	74.52	85.42	80.18	81.41	96.18	95.04	87.43	87.88
	Gem 2.5	89.37	94.34	79.15	88.38	77.04	87.01	82.28	85.10	96.84	95.77	82.94	83.70
	Gem 2.0	88.50	93.85	47.87	64.75	72.50	84.04	80.97	82.51	96.18	94.92	84.18	84.84
Human	GPT 4	88.87	94.06	79.16	88.38	80.28	89.05	<b>86.22</b>	<b>87.33</b>	81.18	63.50	<b>89.79</b>	<b>90.09</b>
	Gem 2.5	89.75	94.54	79.56	88.59	81.84	90.00	82.15	85.36	<b>97.50</b>	<b>96.65</b>	82.94	83.61
	Gem 2.0	89.76	94.58	83.38	90.97	<b>82.62</b>	90.47	81.10	82.7	97.11	96.04	84.06	84.65
Optimized (Ours)	GPT 4	89.79	<b>94.66</b>	<b>90.18</b>	<b>94.84</b>	78.59	<b>94.84</b>	80.05	81.53	96.71	95.67	88.44	88.74
	Gem 2.5	<b>95.07</b>	94.61	85.20	94.15	80.80	89.38	82.94	85.93	96.58	95.56	88.78	89.15
	Gem 2.0	89.14	89.30	<b>90.18</b>	<b>94.84</b>	80.66	89.30	85.43	86.8	96.84	95.86	88.10	88.45

Table 1: Accuracy and F1 on real-world production data using zero-shot, human-written (tuned on real data for Gemini 2.0), and optimized prompts. Our prompts are optimized using only synthetic data generated by LINGVARBENCH, yet outperform zero-shot and match or exceed human-tuned prompts for ZIP and Name, and improve over 0-shot for DOB.

Model	Var.	ZIP	Name	DOB	Pain	Resp.	Hear.
text-embedding-3-large	Match	<b>0.81</b>	<b>0.81</b>	<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.66</b>	<b>0.57</b>	<b>0.69</b>
	Super	0.78	0.77	0.58	0.65	0.55	0.58
	Sub	0.72	0.65	0.62	0.64	0.53	0.59
	Null	0.67	0.55	0.55	0.42	0.43	0.39
gemini-embedding-001	Match	<b>0.91</b>	<b>0.92</b>	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.75</b>	<b>0.65</b>	<b>0.78</b>
	Super	0.90	0.91	0.82	0.72	0.62	0.70
	Sub	0.87	0.83	<b>0.83</b>	0.71	0.62	0.71
	Null	0.85	0.77	0.80	0.70	0.58	0.67

Table 2: Cosine similarity between real and synthetic transcripts. Let  $V_r$  = variation types in real transcripts,  $V_s$  = variation types in synthetic transcripts. Match refers to the similarity scores when  $V_s = V_r$ ; Super refers to the similarity scores when  $V_s \supseteq V_r$ ; Sub refers to the similarity scores when  $V_s \subseteq V_r$ ; and Null refers to the case when:  $V_s \cap V_r = \emptyset$ . Full results with standard deviations are in Table 5 in Appendix C.

In real-world conversations, entities may not appear immediately or directly in response to a question, introducing labeling noise because human annotators do not mark the exact utterance span; as a result, 100% accuracy is effectively unattainable. Moreover, the human-crafted prompt was optimized specifically for Gemini 2.0 Flash, so it is expected to outperform other models when re-used without further tuning.

Table 2 presents cosine similarity between synthetic and real transcripts with matched entity values. We observe that similarity increases as the alignment of LVPs between real and synthetic transcripts improves, and this trend holds across both embedding models. This supports that our synthetic generation pipeline produces transcripts that closely resemble real-world conversational data, even though both sides share the same underlying entity values. Additional similarity results with standard deviations are included in the Appendix. We hypothesize that incorporating an even broader

range of LVPs could further sharpen the separation between variation-matched and variation-mismatched conditions.

## 5 Conclusion

This work presents LINGVARBENCH, a synthetic data generation pipeline leveraging large language models to produce NER datasets tailored for phone call transcripts, guided by human-defined entity specifications and linguistic verbalization patterns. We demonstrate that entity extraction models trained on LINGVARBENCH-generated data for various entities achieve performance comparable to that obtained via human-crafted prompt tuning on large-scale real-world call datasets.

## 6 Limitations

The framework presently models only direct answers that explicitly respond to the question; it does not yet capture indirect, ambiguous, or off-topic utterances (e.g., refusals, topic shifts, or pragmatic answers). Extending the framework to simulate such complex dialogue phenomena remains an important direction for future work.

Our LVP inventory is curated for controllable variation but is not exhaustive; expanding to new domains or languages may require new templates. We also evaluate six structured entities with reliable ground truth, and leave broader coverage (e.g., additional intake fields or open-vocabulary concepts) to future work.

We note that the human-optimized prompt underperformed relative to the zero-shot GPT-4 prompt when extracting respiratory-issue entities, because the human prompt was optimized for the Gemini 2.0 Flash model.

## Ethical Considerations

This research centers on using large language models to generate synthetic data for training NER systems tailored to phone-call transcripts. We do not release any real customer transcripts, and we also do not release the generated synthetic benchmark dataset due to organizational data-sharing constraints. To support transparency, we document the full benchmark specification (entity schemas and LVP inventory) and the generation/validation protocol.

## Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Manas Gaur (Prof. at University of Maryland, Baltimore County) for providing valuable feedback on the manuscript. We also thank Amanda Griffin for her assistance with preparing the figures. Finally, we thank Infinitus System, Inc. for providing access to the real-world production transcripts used for evaluation, as well as for the financial support and computational resources that enabled this research.

## References

- Oluwatomisin Arokodare, Hayden Wimmer, and Jie Du. 2025. Clinical Text Summarization using NLP Pre-trained Language Models: A Case Study of MIMIC-IV-Notes. *Journal of Information Systems Applied Research and Analytics*, 18(1):17–31.
- Augnito. 2024. Voice ai in healthcare: Statistics and trends for 2024. <https://augnito.ai/resources/stats-on-voice-ai-in-healthcare/>.
- Jianzhu Bao, Rui Wang, Yasheng Wang, Aixin Sun, Yitong Li, Fei Mi, and Ruifeng Xu. 2023. A synthetic data generation framework for grounded dialogues. In *Proceedings of the 61st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pages 10866–10882, Toronto, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Tom B Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, and et al. 2020a. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, volume 33, pages 1877–1901.
- Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Saxena, Amanda Bosma, and 1 others. 2020b. Language models are few-shot learners. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 33, pages 1877–1901. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Sam Davidson, Jordan Hosier, Yu Zhou, and Vijay Gurbani. 2021. Improved named entity recognition for noisy call center transcripts. In *Proceedings of the Seventh Workshop on Noisy User-generated Text (W-NUT 2021)*, pages 361–370, Online. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Steffen Eger, Abdelrahman Youssef, and Iryna Gurevych. 2020. Is it time to swish? comparing deep learning activation functions across nlp tasks. In *Proceedings of EMNLP*, pages 4263–4273.
- Ian J. Goodfellow, Jean Pouget-Abadie, Mehdi Mirza, Bing Xu, David Warde-Farley, Sherjil Ozair, Aaron Courville, and Yoshua Bengio. 2014. Generative adversarial nets. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, volume 27. Curran Associates, Inc.
- Xuanli He, Islam Nassar, Jamie Kiros, Gholamreza Hafari, and Mohammad Norouzi. 2022. Generate, annotate, and learn: NLP with synthetic text. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:826–842.
- Omar Khattab, Arnav Singhvi, Paridhi Maheshwari, Zhiyuan Zhang, Keshav Santhanam, Sri Vardhamanan, Saiful Haq, Ashutosh Sharma, Thomas T. Joshi, Hanna Moazam, and 1 others. 2024. Dspy: Compiling declarative language model calls into self-improving pipelines. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*. DSPy framework for programming language models with automated prompt optimization using techniques like SIMBA (Stochastic Introspective Mini-Batch Ascent).
- Hyunjae Kim and Jaewoo Kang. 2022. How do your biomedical named entity recognition models generalize to novel entities? *IEEE Access*, 10:31513–31523.
- Liu Liu, Zhaoyuan Wu, Yirong Wu, Yuxia Wang, Rui Yao, Xin Li, Jiani Hu, Lixia Ruan, and Yi Zhou. 2025. Using natural language processing to extract information from clinical text in electronic medical records for populating clinical registries: a systematic review. *Journal of the American Medical Informatics Association*.
- Foley & Lardner LLP. 2024. Hipaa compliance for ai in digital health: What privacy officers need to know. Overview of HIPAA requirements for AI systems handling PHI in digital health.
- Seyedali Mohammadi, Bhaskara Hanuma Vedula, Hemank Lamba, Edward Raff, Ponnurangam Kumaraguru, Francis Ferraro, and Manas Gaur. 2025. Do llms adhere to label definitions? examining their receptivity to external label definitions. In *Proceedings of the 2025 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 32368–32381.
- Long Ouyang, Jeffrey Wu, Xu Jiang, Diogo Almeida, Carroll Wainwright, Pamela Mishkin, Chong Zhang, Sandhini Agarwal, Katarina Slama, Alex Ray, and 1

- others. 2022. Training language models to follow instructions with human feedback. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 35:27730–27744.
- Grand View Research. 2024. Ai voice agents in healthcare market | industry report, 2030. <https://www.grandviewresearch.com/industry-analysis/ai-voice-agents-healthcare-market-report>. Market size estimated at \$468M in 2024, projected CAGR of 37.79% through 2030.
- German Ros, Laura Sellart, Joanna Materzynska, David Vazquez, and Antonio M. Lopez. 2016. [The synthia dataset: A large collection of synthetic images for semantic segmentation of urban scenes](#). In *2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pages 3234–3243.
- Andrew Rosenberg, Yu Zhang, Bhuvana Ramabhadran, Ye Jia, Pedro Moreno, Yonghui Wu, and Zelin Wu. 2019. [Speech recognition with augmented synthesized speech](#). In *2019 IEEE Automatic Speech Recognition and Understanding Workshop (ASRU)*, pages 996–1002.
- Erik F. Tjong Kim Sang and Fien De Meulder. 2003. [Introduction to the CoNLL-2003 shared task: Language-independent named entity recognition](#). In *Proceedings of the Seventh Conference on Natural Language Learning at HLT-NAACL 2003*, pages 142–147, Edmonton, Canada. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Yuxin Wang, Duanyu Feng, Yongfu Dai, Zhengyu Chen, Jimin Huang, Sophia Ananiadou, Qianqian Xie, and Hao Wang. 2024. Harmonic: Harnessing llms for tabular data synthesis and privacy protection. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:100196–100212.
- Jason Wei, Xuezhi Wang, Dale Schuurmans, and et al. 2022. Chain of thought prompting elicits reasoning in large language models. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS)*, volume 35, pages 24824–24837.
- Jian Xie, Kai Zhang, Jiangjie Chen, Renze Lou, and Yu Su. 2023. Adaptive chameleon or stubborn sloth: Revealing the behavior of large language models in knowledge conflicts. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Xiao Zhan, Noura Abdi, William Seymour, and Jose Such. 2024. [Healthcare voice ai assistants: Factors influencing trust and intention to use](#). *Proc. ACM Hum.-Comput. Interact.*, 8(CSCW1).
- Jian Zhang, Junyi Guo, Junyi Yuan, Huanda Lu, Yanlin Zhou, Fangyu Wu, Qiufeng Wang, and Dongming Lu. 2025. Llm-driven completeness and consistency evaluation for cultural heritage data augmentation in cross-modal retrieval. In *Proceedings of the 2025 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 19418–19428.

## A Prompt Templates

**Abstracted Prompt for Value Generation**

**Input Fields:**

- **Field Name:** {field\_name}
- **Field Description:** {field\_description}
- **Question:** {question}
- **Expected Output Type:** {output\_type}
- **Number of Values:** {num\_values}

---

**Output Format (JSON):**

```
{ "values": [ "value_1", "value_2", "...", value_N ] }
```

Figure 3: Abstracted Prompt for Value Generation

**Abstracted Prompt for Transcript Generation**

**Input Fields:**

- **Question:** {question}
- **Output Type:** {output\_type}
- **Target Value:** {ground\_truth}
- **Existing Transcripts:** {existing\_transcript\_list}
- **Variation Types:** {variation\_types\_str}
- **Variation Instructions:** {variation\_descriptions\_str}

---

**Task:** Generate additional *natural spoken transcripts* that verbalize the target value without altering its meaning.

**Key Constraints:**

- Always express the target value ({ground\_truth}) in natural spoken form
- For dates: include both spoken and digit-only formats (e.g., "January fifth, 1989" and "1589")
- For names: add a realistic last name to the first name

**Variation Type Assignment:**

- Assign **one or more** variation types per transcript from {variation\_types\_str}
- Ensure even distribution across all variation types
- Use "not\_listed" if the transcript doesn't match any type

**Diversity Rule:** Be creative in *how* the value is spoken, but do not change *what* the value is. **Output Format (JSON):**

```
{ "transcripts": [ { "transcript": "spoken response", "variation_types": ["type1", "type2"] } ] }
```

**Output Constraints:**

- Return only valid JSON — no markdown, no extra text
- Each transcript must clearly verbalize the value
- All responses must match the specified output type

Figure 4: Abstracted Prompt for Transcript Generation

**Abstracted Prompt for Validation**

**Input Fields:**

- **Transcript:** {transcript}
- **Ground Truth:** {ground\_truth}
- **Action Name:** {action\_name}

---

**Task:** Determine if the ground truth value can be extracted from the transcript.

**Rules:**

- If the transcript contains the value (even with corrections) → true
- If the transcript is vague or doesn't contain the value → false
- If the value is mentioned at any point → true

**Examples:**

- "My zip is one two three four five", 12345 → true
- "I don't know", 12345 → false
- "seven oh ... no, nine oh two one oh", 90210 → true

**Date Format Considerations:**

- Accept continuous digit formats: e.g., 01-15-2024 → 01152024, 11524, etc.
- Spoken digit sequences: e.g., "zero one one five two zero two four" are valid

**Output:** true or false

Figure 5: Abstracted Prompt for Validation

**Base Extraction Instructions used in DSPy optimization (ZIP Code)**

**General Extraction Instructions:**

- Extract the value from the transcript using the given question, field type, and field description.
- **Question:** {question}
- **Field Type:** {output\_type}
- **Field Description:** {action\_description}

**Output Format:**

- Return only the extracted value
- Do not include any symbols, labels, or extra text

**Example:**

Input: transcript: "...", Output: predicted: "..."

**ZIP Code Specific Guidelines:**

- Extract exactly **5 numeric digits**
- Do not interpret ZIP codes as dates
- Return the raw 5-digit number only
- Example: "one two three four five" → "12345"

Figure 6: Base Extraction Instructions used in DSPy optimization (ZIP Code)

**Agent:** Could you tell me your name please?  
**Patient:** It is John.  
→ *Entity extracted: Name Entity value: John*

**Agent:** What is your zip code?  
**Patient:** It is nine double one oh one.  
→ *Entity extracted: ZIP Code Entity value: 91101*

**Agent:** Do you have any respiratory issues?  
**Patient:** Yes, I have asthma.  
**Agent:** What about any of these hearing issues? Deafness, hard of hearing, or do you use hearing aids?  
**Patient:** Hearing aid.

Figure 7: Fabricated examples reflecting the structure of real patient-agent interactions used in evaluation. Real transcripts cannot be shown due to HIPAA constraints.

## B Dataset and Implementation Details

Entity	Model	# Samples	Split (Train/Valid/Test)	# Tags	# Tag Occ.	# Values	Avg Len ( $\pm$ std)
ZIP code	GPT 4	5635	3944 / 845 / 846	33	12449	10	41.7 $\pm$ 10.0
	Gem 2.5	1332	932 / 199 / 201	33	2539	5	41.3 $\pm$ 20.0
	Gem 2.0	6467	4526 / 970 / 971	31	12101	12	41.1 $\pm$ 11.2
Name	GPT 4	2550	1785 / 382 / 383	46	5466	12	26.0 $\pm$ 8.5
	Gem 2.5	2164	1514 / 324 / 326	51	3468	5	29.7 $\pm$ 11.1
	Gem 2.0	6631	4641 / 994 / 996	46	12397	12	31.3 $\pm$ 13.0
DOB	GPT 4	1055	739 / 158 / 158	36	2314	7	54.63 $\pm$ 10.74
	Gem 2.5	821	574 / 123 / 124	34	1436	3	48.66 $\pm$ 19.31
	Gem 2.0	682	477 / 102 / 103	33	682	5	63.3 $\pm$ 34.0
Pain Rt.	GPT 4	296	207 / 44 / 45	19	490	11	39.7 $\pm$ 16.8
	Gem 2.5	885	619 / 132 / 134	19	1055	11	38.0 $\pm$ 16.6
	Gem 2.0	823	576 / 123 / 124	19	1082	11	39.4 $\pm$ 17.8
Resp. Iss.	GPT 4	2114	1479 / 317 / 318	21	4056	2	56.4 $\pm$ 20.6
	Gem 2.5	886	620 / 132 / 134	21	1111	2	40.9 $\pm$ 20.5
	Gem 2.0	704	492 / 105 / 107	22	886	2	61.9 $\pm$ 38.0
Hearing Iss.	GPT 4	795	556 / 119 / 120	37	861	7	45.5 $\pm$ 19.2
	Gem 2.5	992	694 / 148 / 150	37	1733	7	57.7 $\pm$ 25.5
	Gem 2.0	4530	3171 / 679 / 680	37	5846	7	43.6 $\pm$ 19.5

Table 3: Dataset statistics by entity and model. Totals or averages are reported per entity and across all entities for applicable columns. The total number of valid samples varies because, although we request five samples per prompt per iteration, this is not strictly enforced. Hence, the LLM may produce fewer than five samples. The proportion of invalid samples was below 1%. Note that “# Tag Occ.” is the total count of variation tags assigned across all transcripts. Since transcripts can have multiple tags, this exceeds the number of samples.

Entity	Model	Valid Acc.(%)	Test Acc.(%)
ZIP code	GPT 4	96.92	96.93
	Gem 2.5	80.90	78.11
	Gem 2.0	89.59	89.19
Name	GPT 4	96.34	97.34
	Gem 2.5	72.22	70.25
	Gem 2.0	79.58	79.51
DOB	GPT 4	98.10	98.11
	Gem 2.5	100	97.58
	Gem 2.0	94.12	99.03
Pain Rt.	GPT 4	100	100
	Gem 2.5	100	100
	Gem 2.0	99.19	100
Resp. Iss.	GPT 4	100	100
	Gem 2.5	100	96.58
	Gem 2.0	97.29	100
Hearing Iss.	GPT 4	68.91	79.17
	Gem 2.5	84.46	84.91
	Gem 2.0	78.64	80.44

Table 4: Validation and test accuracy on synthetic data during DSPy-based prompt optimization. All results are based on LINGVARBENCH-generated transcripts for each entity type.

## C Additional Results

Variation Type	ZIP code	Name	DOB	Pain Rt.	Resp. Iss.	Hearing Iss.
Match	<b>0.81</b> ±0.13	<b>0.81</b> ±0.15	<b>0.62</b> ±0.14	<b>0.66</b> ±0.10	<b>0.57</b> ±0.02	<b>0.69</b> ±0.2
Superset variation	0.78±0.13	0.77±0.15	0.58±0.17	0.65±0.10	0.55±0.02	0.58±0.18
Subset variation	0.72±0.14	0.65±0.17	0.62±0.14	0.64±0.15	0.53±0.03	0.59±0.20
Null overlap	0.67±0.14	0.55±0.17	0.55±0.17	0.42±0.15	0.43±0.03	0.39±0.21

(a) text-embedding-3-large (OpenAI)

Variation Type	ZIP code	Name	DOB	Pain Rt.	Resp. Iss.	Hearing Iss.
Match	<b>0.91</b> ±0.07	<b>0.92</b> ±0.08	<b>0.83</b> ±0.08	<b>0.75</b> ±0.05	<b>0.65</b> ±0.02	<b>0.78</b> ±0.11
Superset variation	0.90±0.07	0.91±0.1	0.82±0.09	0.72±0.05	0.62±0.03	0.70±0.11
Subset variation	0.87±0.07	0.83±0.08	<b>0.83</b> ±0.09	0.71±0.05	0.62±0.02	0.71±0.11
Null overlap	0.85±0.07	0.77±0.1	0.80±0.09	0.70±0.06	0.58±0.02	0.67±0.11

(b) gemini-embedding-001 (Google)

Table 5: Similarity scores across different embedding models. “Match” indicates identical variation types in both generated and reference transcripts. “Superset variation” refers to generated transcripts containing all variation types from the reference plus additional ones. “Subset variation” uses a non-empty subset of the reference’s variation types. “Null overlap” indicates no shared variation types.

## D Linguistic Verbalization Patterns

**Extending the LVP inventory (domains, languages, new phenomena).** Each LVP is specified as a short *instruction template* plus an *example* (Tables 6–11). Extending the inventory is straightforward: (1) reuse general LVPs (disfluency, self-correction, confirmation cues) across entities and domains; (2) add entity-specific LVPs by enumerating plausible surface realizations implied by the entity schema (e.g., alternative date/number readouts, spelling, honorifics); and (3) iteratively validate candidates using the same value–transcript consistency check, discarding patterns that frequently produce non-recoverable values. For new languages, the same structure applies: general LVPs are translated/parameterized, and entity-specific LVPs are adapted to locale-specific conventions (e.g., date order, numeral grouping, name particles).

Type	Instruction and Example
filler_words	Include filler words like “um”, “uh”, “you know”. Example: um, it’s one two three four five
hesitation	Include hesitations and pauses. Example: it’s... one... two... three...
correction	Include self-corrections. Example: one two three... no wait, four five
repetition	Repeat parts for emphasis. Example: one two three, one two three, four five
pause	Insert natural pauses. Example: one two, pause, three four five
formal	Use formal, precise language. Example: the number is one two three four five
casual	Use relaxed language. Example: it’s one two three four five
polite	Use polite language. Example: please, it’s one two three four five
confident	Sound confident. Example: definitely one two three four five
uncertain	Sound unsure. Example: I think it’s one two three four five
rushed	Speak quickly. Example: onetwothreefourfive
careful	Speak slowly and carefully. Example: carefully, one two three four five
confirmation	Ask for confirmation. Example: one two three four five, is that right?
clarification	Clarify the answer. Example: one two three four five, does that make sense?
direct and simple	Be direct and simple. Example: one two three four five
brief_confirmation	Use brief confirmation. Example: yes, one two three four five
concise_confirmation	Use concise confirmation. Example: confirmed, one two three four five

Table 6: linguistic verbalization patterns: **General** category.

Type	Instruction and Example
digit_by_digit	Say each digit separately. Example: one two three four five
grouped_two	Group digits in twos. Example: twelve thirty-four five
grouped_three	Group digits in threes. Example: one twenty-three forty-five
hundred	Use “hundred”. Example: three hundred two five
mixed_grouping	Use mixed digit groupings. Example: twelve three four five
spoken_number_split	Split number words into digits. Example: thirty two five eight
reversed	Say digits in reverse. Example: five four three two one
with_pause	Add pauses. Example: one two... three four... five
with_repetition	Repeat groups. Example: one two, one two, three four five
with_correction	Self-correct. Example: one two three... no wait, four five
with_hesitation	Add hesitation. Example: one... two... three... four... five
with_filler	Use filler words. Example: um, one two three, you know, four five
formal	Formal phrasing. Example: the digits are one two three four five
casual	Casual phrasing. Example: yeah, it’s one two three four five
polite	Polite phrasing. Example: please, it’s one two three four five
confident	Confident tone. Example: definitely one two three four five
uncertain	Uncertain tone. Example: I think it’s one two three four five
spelled_out	Spell digits with hyphens. Example: one-two-three-four-five

Table 7: linguistic verbalization patterns: **ZIP code**-specific category.

Type	Instruction and Example
date_as_4_digits	4-digit format. Example: 1267 → 01-02-1967
spoken_date_4_digits	Spoken version of 4-digit. Example: one two six seven → 01-02-1967
date_as_5_digits	5-digit format. Example: 32584 → 03-25-1984
spoken_date_5_digits	Spoken version of 5-digit. Example: five one seven eight two → 05-17-1982
date_as_6_digits	6-digit format MMDDYY. Example: 120285 → 12-02-1985
spoken_date_6_digits	Spoken 6-digit format. Example: one two zero two eight five → 12-02-1985
date_as_8_digits	Full 8-digit date. Example: 12021947 → 12-02-1947
spoken_date_8_digits	Spoken 8-digit format. Example: one two zero two one nine four seven → 12-02-1947
spoken_month_day_year	Natural spoken format. Example: January second, nineteen ninety
mixed_spoken_and_digits	Mixed formats. Example: January zero two, nineteen ninety
filler_or_correction	Includes filler or correction. Example: uh, zero one zero two one nine nine zero
casual_or_polite_digits	Casual/polite phrasing. Example: please, one five, eighty five

Table 8: linguistic verbalization patterns, **Date of Birth (DOB)**-specific category.

Type	Instruction and Example
name_with_last	Full name. Example: John Smith → John
name_with_prefix	Prefix + name. Example: My name is John Smith → John
name_reverse_order	Last name first. Example: Smith, John → John
name_with_title	Name with title. Example: Mr. John Smith → John
name_with_middle	Name with middle. Example: John Michael Smith → John
name_with_suffix	Name with suffix. Example: John Smith Jr. → John
name_with_initials	Initials format. Example: J. M. Smith → John
name_with_correction	Correction. Example: James–no, I mean John Smith → John
name_partial_spelling	Partial spelling. Example: John, that’s J–O–H–N Smith → John
name_with_apostrophe	Apostrophe in last name. Example: O’Connor, John → John
name_hyphenated	Hyphenated last name. Example: John Smith–Jones → John
nickname	Nickname. Example: Johnny → John

Table 9: linguistic verbalization patterns: **Name**-specific category.

Type	Instruction and Example
pain_scale	Uses pain scale numbers or descriptive pain levels. Example: seven, three out of ten, about a five
comparative_language	Uses comparative language when describing pain rating. Example: worse than last time, about eight, not as bad, maybe four
symptom_description	Describes pain symptoms along with the rating. Example: it's a seven, sharp and throbbing, about five, dull ache
health_assessment	Includes health context with pain rating. Example: considering my condition, I'd say seven, for someone my age, probably a six
confident	Shows confidence when stating pain rating. Example: definitely seven, it's absolutely an eight, for sure five
hesitant	Shows hesitation when stating pain rating. Example: um... maybe seven?, I guess... five?, well... probably six
uncertain	Expresses uncertainty about pain rating. Example: I'm not sure, maybe seven, I think it's around five, probably six, I guess
formal	Uses formal language when stating pain rating. Example: I would rate it at seven, the pain level is approximately five, my pain rating is eight
casual	Uses casual language when stating pain rating. Example: yeah, it's like a seven, oh, maybe five, I'd say six
polite	Uses polite language when stating pain rating. Example: I would say seven, please, it's five, thank you for asking, about six, if I may
filler_words	Includes filler words when stating pain rating. Example: um, it's like, you know, seven, well, uh, about five, so, like, maybe six
hesitation	Includes pauses and false starts when stating pain rating. Example: it's... seven, I would say... five, um... eight
correction	Includes self-corrections when stating pain rating. Example: six... no wait, seven, I said five, but actually six, eight... or maybe seven
repetition	Repeats the pain rating for emphasis. Example: seven, seven, it's five, five out of ten, eight, definitely eight
pause	Includes natural pauses when stating pain rating. Example: it's... about seven, let me think... five, I'd say... six
thoughtful	Speaks slowly and deliberately when stating pain rating. Example: let me think carefully... seven, well... I would say... five, hmm... probably six
confused	Shows confusion about how to rate pain. Example: I'm not sure how to rate it... seven?, is five a lot? I'll say five, what does seven mean exactly?
frustrated	Shows frustration when stating pain rating. Example: ugh, it's like a seven, I already said eight, for the last time, five
rushed	Speaks quickly when stating pain rating. Example: seven quickly, just five, six let's move on

Table 10: linguistic verbalization patterns: **Pain Rating**-specific category.

Type	Instruction and Example
condition_specific	Specify the exact condition (asthma, COPD, or both). Example: Yes, I have asthma
severity_level	Mention severity or frequency of the condition. Example: Yes, severe asthma
treatment_mention	Reference treatment while answering. Example: Yes, I use an inhaler for asthma
doctor_reference	Reference doctor or medical diagnosis. Example: My doctor diagnosed me with asthma
medical_terminology	Use formal medical terminology. Example: I have chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
health_concern	Express health concerns or impact. Example: Yes, asthma, it affects my breathing
confident	Answer with confidence. Example: Yes, definitely have asthma
hesitant	Answer with hesitation. Example: Well... I think I have asthma
uncertain	Express uncertainty about the condition. Example: I think it's asthma
formal	Use formal language. Example: Yes, I have been diagnosed with asthma
casual	Use casual language. Example: Yeah, got asthma
polite	Use polite, respectful language. Example: Yes, I do have asthma, thank you for asking
filler_words	Include filler words. Example: Um, yes, I have asthma
hesitation	Include hesitations and pauses. Example: Yes... I have... asthma
correction	Include self-corrections. Example: Asthma... no wait, COPD
repetition	Repeat parts for emphasis. Example: Yes, yes, I have asthma
pause	Include natural pauses. Example: Yes, [pause] asthma
thoughtful	Sound thoughtful or reflective. Example: Let me think... yes, asthma
confused	Sound confused about the question. Example: Wait, asthma or COPD? I have asthma
frustrated	Express frustration. Example: Yes, I already said, asthma!
rushed	Answer quickly or hurriedly. Example: Yeah-asthma

Table 11: linguistic verbalization patterns: **Respiratory Issues**-specific category.