

LeGen: End-to-end Legal Information Extraction using Generative Models

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Despite the rapid growth in access to digital devices, the new users of the devices, especially in developing countries like India, are not able to access information on their rights and entitlements, jobs and livelihood, healthcare, education, etc. as the information is in the form of very long, complex sentences and heavy in legal parlance. Open information extraction techniques can be used to convert unstructured legal text into triples of the form $\langle \text{subject}, \text{relation}, \text{object} \rangle$ in a domain-independent manner. However, the legal text is long and complex which calls for extracting structure beyond triples, also called complex information extraction. This paper proposes a generative approach to perform complex information extraction from legal statements. We achieve this by encoding legal statements as trees to capture their complex structure and semantics. This end-to-end modeling reduces the propagation of errors across complicated pipelines. We experimented with multiple generative architectures to conclude that our proposed approach reports up to 14.7 % gain on an Indian Legal benchmark and is competitive on open information extraction benchmarks.

1 Introduction

The number of people with access to smartphones and other computing devices is on a constant rise. Some data sources point to there being a 71% reach of smartphones in 2023 [39, 17]. This should lead to greater access to information and data for a large part of the population, however we observe that the new users of digital devices (often called the Next Billion Users) [16] is not able to leverage the access to devices to access information about their rights and entitlements, jobs, livelihood, health or education. One primary reason for this phenomenon is that information in these domains, if they exist, exist in textual formats, in legal parlance, with long and complex sentence structures [1]. Understanding the textual information and taking action on

them puts substantial cognitive load on the new users, who often do not have the educational training and agency to consume and act on the information [20].

NLP techniques can assist in structuring and organizing legal data to enable automatic search and retrieval [11, 43]. Open information extraction (OIE) techniques [23, 38, 13] can be used to extract structured information such as triples of the form $\langle \text{subject}, \text{relation}, \text{object} \rangle$ from a sentence in a domain-independent manner. However, legal text poses unique challenges - Legal sentences and documents are lengthy with complex inter-clausal relationships between them [8]. Existing OIE techniques are unable to return the best results on legal sentences. For instance, the output of OpenIE6 [23] on *If over 50 percent of a company's workers take concerted casual leave, it will be treated as a strike* are 2 triples - *i*) $\langle \text{it}, \text{will be treated}, \text{as a strike} \rangle$, *ii*) $\langle \text{over 50 percent of a company's workers}, \text{take concerted}, \text{casual leave} \rangle$. The model fails to identify that a condition connects the two extractions. Apart from condition, clauses can have relations such as contrast or disjunction, etc (Table 1) among them. Identifying such relations is important to design systems that empower users interpret complex legal information.

The problem of extracting structure beyond triples is handled by a relatively new area of research known as complex information extraction [26]. However, most of these techniques [32, 33] involve multiple-step pipelines for identifying clauses and relationships between them that propagate errors. They also lack language understanding and generalization capabilities. This paper proposes *LeGen*, an end-to-end generative approach for complex information extraction from legal sentences. Generative architectures, such as T5 [35], BART [25], or GPT [34] have been very successful in understanding text and generalization. By encoding legal sentences as a discourse tree

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Sentence	Clauses	Relations	Relations among Clauses
If over 50 percent of a company's workers take concerted casual leave, it will be treated as a strike	1) Over 50 percent of a company's workers take concerted casual leave 2) It will be treated as a strike	CONDITION	$R_{CONDITION}$ (Over 50 percent of a company's workers take concerted casual leave, It will be treated as a strike)
A non-resident can open an NPS account, but the account will be closed if the citizenship status of the NRI has been changed.	1) A non-resident can open an NPS account 2) The account will be closed 3) The citizenship status of the NRI has been changed	CONTRAST, CONDITION	$R_{CONTRAST}$ (A non-resident can open an NPS account, $R_{CONDITION}$ (The account will be closed, The citizenship status of the NRI has been changed))
If balance amount in the account of a deceased is higher than 150,000 then the nominee or legal heir has to prove the identity to claim the amount	1) Balance amount in the account of a deceased is higher than 150,000 then 2) The nominee has to prove the identity to claim the amount 3) Legal heir has to prove the identity to claim the amount	CONDITION, DISJUNCTION	$R_{CONDITION}$ (Balance amount in the account of a deceased is higher than 150,000 then, $R_{DISJUNCTION}$ (The nominee has to prove the identity to claim the amount, Legal heir has to prove the identity to claim the amount))

Table 1: Examples of clauses and relations CAUSE, CONDITION, CONTRAST, and DISJUNCTION among clauses

[32], (Section 4.1) we use BART and T5 architectures to capture both the structure and semantics of a complex sentence more accurately. Such end-to-end modeling reduces the propagation of errors across multiple steps. Our salient contributions are:

1. We introduce the problem of information extraction for Indian Law
2. We introduce the idea of using complex information extraction for legal statements
3. We propose *LeGen*, an end-to-end generative approach for legal information extraction using a novel tree-based encoding technique
4. We release a new benchmark for legal information extraction, curated from Indian Law statements

5. We report substantial gain over Graphene [32], a state-of-the-art complex information extraction technique on the Indian Legal benchmark.

6. We show *LeGen*'s flexibility by training it as an OIE task, and conclude that it is competitive on an OIE benchmark.

Our paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss work related to legal, complex, and open information extraction. We formally describe the problem in Section 3 and introduce *LeGen* in Section 4. We discuss our experiments and results in Section 5 and 6 and discuss future work in Section 7. The limitations of our approach are described in Section 8.

2 Related Work

2.1 Legal Information Extraction

As mentioned in [11], NLP or machine learning can be applied to legal research for multiple tasks not limited to finding information relevant to a legal decision [2, 30, 6], contract review (checking that a contract is complete and avoids risk) [7, 24], legal entity recognition [4], generating legal documents – includes legal systems that generate legal documents by filling the blanks in the already existing templates and another kind in which, based on set of questions asked by the system, a tailored or custom made legal document is produced, and providing legal advice using QA system [1]. Such contributions have been made to both Indian and non-Indian legal systems.

In India, various efforts have been made to automate the judicial pipeline. The SemEval task [31] introduced 3 problems to be tackled on the ILDC corpus [27]. – *i*) legal named entity recognition [21] performs named entity recognition on the ILDC corpus, *ii*) rhetorical role prediction structures legal transcripts into rhetorical roles [22] and *iii*) court case judgment prediction proposes using AI-based techniques to automate court case judgments. However, to the best of our knowledge, accurately extracting structure from unstructured legal sentences in the Indian Legal domain has not been studied.

Among the datasets, there is the Chinese legal dataset LEVEN [40] which detects legal events (charge-related events including general events in legal documents), the Indian Legal dataset, ILDC [27] containing Supreme Court cases annotated with court decisions which can be used for predicting justice and explanation, CaseHold [42] dataset comprising of multiple choice questions to identify the relevant cases, CUAD [19], an annotated legal data set for contract review and various others.

As mentioned above, these data sets and research’s primary focus is understanding the court cases, judgments, prediction tasks, or segmentation. Our work focuses on extracting structural information from complex legal sentences.

2.2 Open Information Extraction

Open Information Extraction uses an independent paradigm to extract the information as a triple, $\langle \text{subject}, \text{relation}, \text{object} \rangle$. Banko et al., [41] introduced the concept of Open Information Extraction and proposed Text Runner. Following this,

many rule-based systems were developed like REVERB [13] and OpenIE5 [36]. Moving from rule-based system, we have RNNOIE ¹ [38] which uses a neural-based approach to open information extraction and is trained by extracting non-neural systems.

The state-of-the-art in Open Information Extraction, OpenIE6 ² uses iterative grid labeling with BERT architecture to generate triples from input sentences. It combines the results from the three models (coordination model, OIE model, and Allennlp models) to generate triples from input sentences.

2.3 Complex Information Extraction

Many OIE systems have been developed which cater to identifying triples in a complex sentence [26] like OLLIE [37], MinIE [15], ClausIE [12], StuffIE [33] and Graphene [5].

ClausIE ³, MinIE ⁴ and OLLIE ⁵ uses a linguistic-based approach to information extraction. OLLIE open information system uses a set of pre-defined templates and rules to identify the relation present in the sentence. MinIE also uses a linguistic approach to extract information with a difference that enhances the output by adding other semantic information like polarity, modality, attribution, and quantities. StuffIE [33]⁶, another open information system that aims to extract complex information which is referred to as facets in this work, uses syntactical dependency to tag facets or relations in the sentence. Graphene [32]⁷ uses 39 handcrafted rules to construct a discourse tree and then obtain the triples from the sub-sentences of the input sentences. These techniques are either rule-based or use a pipeline of techniques to extract the structure of a complex sentence. To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first attempt at using generative neural architectures to model complex information extraction.

3 Problem Definition

We use the sentences from Table 1 for demonstration. We denote them by \mathcal{S} . Our goal is to identify from \mathcal{S} :

¹<https://github.com/gabrielStanovsky/supervised-oie>

²<https://github.com/dair-iitd/openie6>

³<https://gate.d5.mpi-inf.mpg.de/ClausIEGate/ClausIEGate/>

⁴<https://github.com/uma-pi1/minie>

⁵<https://github.com/knowitall/ollie>

⁶<https://gitlab.inf.unibz.it/rprasojo/stuffie>

⁷<https://github.com/Lambda-3/Graphene>

- A set C of all clauses in \mathcal{S} . A clause refers to an indivisible, atomic sentence in \mathcal{S} . $C = \{\text{"it will be treated as a strike"}, \text{"over 50 percent of a company's workers, take concerted, casual leave"}\}$ for the first sentence in Table 1.
- A set $COMP$ of complex sentences that are obtained either by *i*) combining N clauses using an N -ary relation, or, *ii*) by combining subsets of C and $COMP$ using N -ary relation.
- A set R of N -ary relations that relate N clauses or complex sentences and generate a new complex sentence. In other words, $R_{r_i}: \{C \cup COMP\}^N \rightarrow COMP$, where $R_{r_i} \in R$. For \mathcal{S} , $R = \{R_{\text{condition}}\}$. The output of $R_{\text{condition}}$ ("it will be treated as a strike", "over 50 percent of a company's workers, take concerted, casual leave") is \mathcal{S} .

Three properties that should be satisfied by C , $COMP$ and R are:

- **Correct:** Every $c \in C$, $c' \in COMP$ and $r \in R$ should convey the same meaning as expressed in \mathcal{S}
- **Non-redundant:** C , R , and $COMP$ should not contain repeated information
- **Complete:** All information conveyed in the sentence should be expressed by C , R , and $COMP$

4 LeGen

We propose *LeGen*, an end-to-end generative model to perform complex information extraction from legal sentences. *LeGen* is based on the idea of discourse trees which are defined in the next subsection. We model it as a generation task, that outputs discourse trees for a sentence.

The Discourse tree as proposed in Graphene [5, 32] employs a top-down approach to break longer text into smaller parts in contrast to the bottom-up approach employed for RST trees. Simplified sentences can not be decided beforehand because they're not consistent and may need changes (like rephrasing) depending on their specific sentence structures. An example of Discourse Tree structure is shown in Figure 1 (left). The leaf nodes are the clauses (defined in Section 3, 'Balance amount in the account of a deceased is higher

than 150,000 then', 'The nominee has to prove the identity to claim the amount .' and 'Legal heir has to prove the identity to claim the amount .') . Each non-leaf node represents a complex sentence formed by combining the clauses represented by its children nodes. They are combined using the relation label on the non-leaf node, (SUB/CONDITION, CO/DISJUNCTION). Relations in a discourse tree fall under two categories: coordinations and sub-ordinations.

4.1 Discourse Tree

Discourse Tree originated from Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) [28]. RST identifies the hierarchical structure of the text and the rhetorical relations between the text parts. Rhetorical relations are split into classes of coordinates and subordinations and can be mapped to the span of text or words.

Co-ordinations. Coordinating sentences are a type of sentence structure in which two or more independent clauses are joined together using coordinating conjunctions. These clauses are typically of equal importance, and they are combined to create a more complex and informative sentence. Coordinating conjunctions are 'and', 'or' and 'but'.

Sub-ordinations. Subordination sentences are a type of sentence structure in which one main or independent clause is combined with one or more subordinate or dependent clauses. These clauses are linked together to form a single sentence, with the main clause expressing a complete thought, while the subordinate clauses provide additional information, clarification, or context. Some of the subordinations are 'while', 'because', 'if', 'when-ever', 'since' etc.

4.2 Generating Discourse Trees

Any existing rule-based approach can be used to generate the discourse trees for sentences. Currently, Graphene [32] generates discourse trees with good precision and recall. Graphene uses a set of 39 hand-crafted rules to identify 19 relations [5]. However, on analyzing these rules, we observed redundancies and inconsistencies. *i*) For instance, it is very difficult to distinguish between BACKGROUND, ELABORATION, or EXPLANATION relations. *ii*) the rules proposed for identifying TEMPORAL_BEFORE and TEMPORAL_AFTER relations from the text are not accurate. *iii*) Does not identify the date and named entities correctly . To ad-

If balance amount in the account of a deceased is higher than ₹150,000 then the nominee or legal heir has to prove the identity to claim the amount.

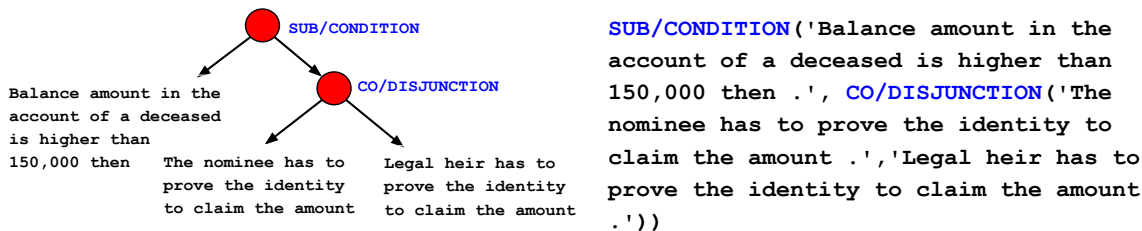


Figure 1: Discourse tree for an example law sentence (on the left). Corresponding linear encoding of the Discourse tree (on the right). SUB and CO refer to subordination and coordination, respectively.

dress *i*) and *ii*), we merged BACKGROUND, ELABORATION, and EXPLANATION into ELABORATION. We converted TEMPORAL_BEFORE and TEMPORAL_AFTER into a single TEMPORAL relation. We didn't address *iii*), but we show in Section 6 that *LeGen* is robust to these issues. The final list of relations that were kept is in the Appendix.

4.3 Encoding of Discourse Tree

Figure 1 shows how we convert a discourse tree of any sentence into a sequence encoding. This allows complex information extraction to be simplified by expressing discourse trees as a sequence of text. We view it as a language translation task where the output language is the tree encoding. In the context of a translation task, teacher forcing utilizes pairs of text written in two different languages by influencing the generated text based on the provided input. During the training process, the encoder processes text in one language, while the decoder processes text in the other language and predicts the next token for each position. In our method, we convert an original input sentence, which includes clauses and their relationships, into a discourse tree that explicitly denotes those relationships.

We encode the discourse tree by doing a pre-order traversal of the tree. Algorithm 1 discusses our steps.

5 Experiments

5.1 Datasets

5.1.1 Training

We trained *LeGen* using 17k sentences from Penn Tree Bank [29] dataset. We perform our experiments on 32x2 cores AMD EPYC 7532, 1 TB of memory, and 8x A100 SXM4 80GB GPU systems. We train the models using BART-base (139 M),

Algorithm 1 Generating encoding \mathcal{E} for a Discourse Tree T .

Input: Discourse Tree \mathcal{T} with root $root$

Output: Encoding, \mathcal{E}

Append ' $root.label()$ ' to \mathcal{E}

foreach $child$ of $root$ in \mathcal{T} **do**

if $child$ is a leaf **then**

 Append ' $child.label,$ ' to \mathcal{E}

end

else

 Generate encoding \mathcal{E}' of Discourse Sub-Tree with $child$ as root

 Append \mathcal{E}' to \mathcal{E}

end

end

Append ')' to \mathcal{E}

return \mathcal{E}

BART-small (70.5 M), T5-base (246 M), and T5-small (77M) architectures. BART trained faster (2 hours on small and 2.5 hours on base). T5 took considerably longer time (3 hours for small and 4 hours for base). We train it separately for 2 tasks:

Task 1: Identifying Sub-ordinations and Co-ordinations. We encoded every sentence into a discourse tree structure as described in Section 4.

We trained BART [25] and T5 [1] models for 30 epochs using cross-entropy loss with a learning rate of e^{-5} . We trained our models on 3 seeds and report averaged results.

Task 2: Identifying Co-ordinations. In order to test *LeGen*'s flexibility, we also separately trained it as a coordinate boundary detection task [36]. The purpose of this study was to test the competency of BART and T5 models in splitting sentences over state-of-the-art non generative techniques like Ope-

nIE6. We converted the OpenIE6 coordinate boundary labels into a discourse tree and generated its encoding. The non-leaf nodes in this tree represented only the coordination relation. We kept the same hyperparameters that we used for the subordination task and obtained the best results for batch size 3. We trained our model on 3 seeds and report averaged results (Section 6).

5.1.2 Test

1) Indian Legal Dataset. There are Indian Legal datasets such as the ILDC [27] for legal named entity recognition, rhetorical role identification, and court judgment prediction tasks from court transcripts. There are non-Indian legal datasets such as ECtHR [9] or Pile of Law [18] used to build pre-trained language models for law. However, we are unaware of any datasets that annotate individual legal sentences for information extraction. We closed this research gap by creating an Indian Legal Benchmark for information extraction by including 107 sentences from Wiki⁸ on Labour Law⁹.

2) Penn Tree Bank. Penn Tree Bank [29] consists of sentences from articles in the Wall Street Journal. It is annotated with coordinate boundaries ('and', 'or', 'but', comma-separated list) and the text spans it connects. This test set containing 985 sentences was used to evaluate *LeGen*'s flexibility in identifying co-ordinations.

5.2 Metrics

5.2.1 Metrics for Task 1

While discourse trees have been used to improve downstream tasks such as text classification [14] or open information extraction [32], we are unaware of any metric used to evaluate them directly. So, we evaluate the trees based on: *i*) structure of the tree and *ii*) content of the tree, i.e. the relation labels. For both, we performed a human evaluation since there can be more than one correct tree for a sentence.

Tree Structure Evaluation (TSE). We employed a strict evaluation technique, i.e. it was marked as correct only if all the 3 requirements cited in Section 3 were satisfied.

- Every node in the tree was correctly split. For instance, a tree that splits sentence on a nondistributive coordination like 'between' – "*The*

term 'industry' infuses a contractual relationship between the employer and the employee" into "*The term 'industry' infuses a contractual relationship between the employer*" and "*The term 'industry' infuses a contractual relationship between the employee*" will be marked as incorrect.

- Tree does not contain multiple nodes with the same information
- All information in the sentence was conveyed in the tree.

TSE reports the percentage of sentences that generated correct trees.

Tree Content Evaluation (TCE). To evaluate the content of the tree, we asked the annotators to mark each relation in the tree as correct/incorrect. The annotators were briefed about the different relations in the test set. A relation was marked wrong if it could have been expressed using some other relation or if it connected incorrect clauses.

5.2.2 Metrics for Task 2

We employed a **mapping-based approach** proposed in CalmIE [36] to compare the clauses generated by our technique with the gold set. For every conjunctive sentence, we evaluate it by matching its collection of system-generated clauses with the reference set. This involves establishing the most optimal one-to-one correspondence between the clauses in both sets. Subsequently, precision is determined for each mapping by calculating the ratio of shared words to the total words in the generated sentence, while recall is calculated as the ratio of shared words to the total words in the reference sentence.

Let $G = \{G_1, G_2, G_3 \dots\}$ be gold/reference clauses each represented as a bag of words model, i.e. $G_i = \{G_i^{a1}, G_i^{a2}, G_i^{a3} \dots\}$ where each G_i^{aj} denotes a token in a clause. Similarly let $T = \{T_1, T_2, T_3 \dots\}$ be clauses generated by a model where $T_i = \{T_i^{a1}, T_i^{a2}, T_i^{a3} \dots\}$. CalmIE performs matching in a greedy fashion, however, this type of matching is not optimal and might change based on the order in which greedy matching is performed. So, we perform matching to get the global maximum. This problem of finding the global optimum from a distance or similarity matrix can be treated as a linear sum assignment problem [10]. We match clauses from Gold Set G and Predicted

⁸https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page

⁹https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indian_labour_law

Set T to maximize the F1 score. The F1 score will be computed using precision and recall metrics.

$$p = \text{precision}(G_i, T_j) = \frac{|G_i \cap T_i|}{|T_i|} \quad (1)$$

$$r = \text{recall}(G_i, T_j) = \frac{|G_i \cap T_i|}{|G_i|} \quad (2)$$

$$f1(G_i, T_j) = \frac{2pr}{p+r} \quad (3)$$

Let $m(\cdot)$ be matching function such that G_i matches with $T_{m(i)}$ and conversely $G_{m(j)}$ matches with T_j . If $|G| \neq |T|$, then only $k = \min(|G|, |T|)$ matches are possible. Thus in such cases, $m(i)$ will not return valid value for all i and $\text{precision}(G_i, T_{m(i)})$ and $\text{recall}(G_i, T_{m(i)})$ will be zero.

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\text{example}} &= \text{precision}(G, T) \\ &= \frac{1}{|T|} \sum_{i=1}^{|T|} \text{precision}(G_{m(i)}, T_i) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

$$\begin{aligned} r_{\text{example}} &= \text{recall}(G, T) \\ &= \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i=1}^{|G|} \text{precision}(G_i, T_{m(i)}) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

$$f1_{\text{example}}(G, T) = \frac{2p_{\text{example}}r_{\text{example}}}{p_{\text{example}} + r_{\text{example}}} \quad (6)$$

Please note that (4) to (6) represent scores for only one example in the test set.

5.3 Baselines

Graphene. We used Graphene [32] as the competing technique for Task 1.

OpenIE6. We used the Coordination Boundary Detection Model released with OpenIE6 as our baseline for Task 2.

6 Results

6.1 Task 1

We asked 2 annotators (authors of the paper) to evaluate the trees. Each tree was evaluated by 1 annotator according to the metrics described in Section 5.2.1.

Inter-annotator Agreement. We sampled 50% of the sentences annotated by Annotator 1 and asked Annotator 2 to evaluate them. We obtained a Cohen’s Kappa agreement value of 86.3, indicating near-perfect agreement [3].

Table 2 shows the TSE, TCE, and the number of clauses and relations generated in the discourse trees by each of these 3 techniques. It is clear that

	TSE	TCE	#Relations and Clauses (c, r)
Graphene	0.6168	0.9242	(247, 377)
T5 - BASE	0.7076	0.9618	(191, 349)
BART	<u>0.6977</u>	0.9210	(183, 281)
BASE			

Table 2: TSE and TCE results of Graphene, T5, and BART, averaged over 3 seeds. The best values are in bold. Second best are undelined.

Input	Clauses generated by Graphene	Clauses generated by T5 BASE
The Factories Act 1948 and the Shops and Establishment Act 1960 mandate 15 working days of fully paid vacation leave each year to each employee with an additional 7 fully paid sick days.	1) This was with an additional 7 fully paid 2) This was to each employee 3) The Factories leave each year sick days 4) Act 1948 mandate 15 working days of fully paid vacation The Factories 5) The Shops and Establishment Act 1960 mandate 15 working days of fully paid vacation The Factories	1) This was to each employee with an additional 7 fully paid sick days 2) The Factories Act 1948 mandate 15 working days of fully paid vacation leave each year 3) The Shops and Establishment Act 1960 mandate 15 working days of fully paid vacation leave each year.

Table 3: Examples showing the superiority of generative architectures in identifying correct clauses. Their strength also lies in accurate detection of named entities

the generative approach for discourse tree creation outperforms Graphene. T5-Base performs the best and beats Graphene by 9 pts with a TSE score of 70%. BART-Base hallucinates more and the reason for its underperformance is the generation of terms not present in the original sentence. Graphene underperforms on sentences where domain-specific named entities such as statutes, laws, or case names are present, e.g. *Shops and Establishment Act 1960* or *The Factories Act 1948* (Table 3). Graphene also cannot identify nondistributive coordination like ‘between’ and splits sentences on them. All these issues are handled very well by generative models even though they were trained on Graphene’s output.

While evaluating for TCE, we took into consideration the fact that there could be multiple ways of representing sentences with different relations. There are situations, where models are able to split the sentences but unable to identify the relations and BART has made spelling mistakes in identifying the relation. Although such scenarios were rare in T5, we came across them in Graphene and BART.

Model		OpenIE	T5-small	T5-base	BART-small	BART-base
Mapping based Approach	Precision	0.9803	0.9647	<u>0.9747</u>	0.8215	0.8369
	Recall	0.9845	0.9544	<u>0.9730</u>	0.7391	0.7574
	F1-score	0.9816	0.9571	<u>0.9726</u>	0.7682	0.7859

Table 4: Mapping based Scores for OpenIE6, T5, and BART averaged over 3 seeds. The best values are in bold. The second best is underlined.

Level	Mapping Based Approach	OpenIE	T5-base	T5-small	BART-base	BART-small	Count
Level 0	Precision	0.9796	0.9632	0.9182	<u>0.9755</u>	0.9714	163
	Recall	0.9816	0.9632	0.9182	<u>0.9755</u>	0.9714	
	F1 Score	0.9816	0.9632	0.9182	<u>0.9755</u>	0.9714	
Level 1	Precision	0.9856	<u>0.9800</u>	0.9789	0.8240	0.8126	716
	Recall	0.9866	<u>0.9773</u>	0.9669	0.7418	0.7287	
	F1 Score	0.9856	<u>0.9781</u>	0.9717	0.7720	0.7580	
Level 2	Precision	<u>0.9465</u>	0.9518	0.9428	0.7287	0.6789	98
	Recall	0.9737	<u>0.9685</u>	0.9348	0.5790	0.4900	
	F1 Score	0.9564	0.9567	0.9365	0.6321	0.5611	
Level 3	Precision	<u>0.9354</u>	0.9607	0.9144	0.5454	0.6330	6
	Recall	0.9914	<u>0.8823</u>	0.8178	0.3574	0.3227	
	F1 Score	0.9606	<u>0.9168</u>	0.8536	0.4252	0.4155	
Level 4	Precision	<u>0.7975</u>	0.9100	0.8848	0.7666	0.6772	2
	Recall	1.0000	<u>0.8950</u>	0.8183	0.3480	0.3216	
	F1 Score	<u>0.8814</u>	0.9008	0.8416	0.4432	0.4334	

Table 5: Level-wise scores aggregated across 3 seeds. The best values are in bold. The second best is underlined.

6.2 Task 2

Table 4 shows our results. We obtained competent results from the T5-base against OpenIE6. The slight drop in the performance of T5-Base could be attributed to ambiguous labels in the Penn Tree Bank dataset. For instance, one split in the gold for "He retired as senior vice president, finance and administration, and chief financial officer of the company Oct. 1" is "He retired as senior vice president, finance Oct. 1", while T5 generates "He retired as senior vice president, finance, of the company Oct. 1". T5 generates a better split but it gets penalized because this is not captured in gold.

BART did not perform well as it hallucinated while generating the output where it used words that are not in the input. BART was also unable to split all elements of comma-separated lists. The same problem was observed for T5-small which improved with T5-base.

We also evaluated the performance of our model against sentences with different levels of complexity. Conjunctive sentences are likely to have multiple conjunctions and thus produce complicated coordination tree structures with greater height. We evaluated models for sentences with different coordination tree heights in the gold set (Table 5). In the test and train set, at level 0, we have 163 and 2426 sentences, level 1 has 716 and 12958, level 2 has 98 and 1716, level 3 has 6 and 153, level 4 has

2 and 26 and level 5 has 0 and 1 sentences. Level 0 indicates that a sentence cannot be split into simpler sentences. The model will generate NONE as output for these sentences. We see a similar trend with OpenIE6 slightly outperforming the generative approach. One reason for this is the presence of ambiguous labels in the test set for hierarchies with multiple levels. On such sentences, even though T5 generates a better split, it is still penalized. BART does well on identifying sentences that should not be split, however, it hallucinates when sentences become more complex.

7 Conclusion

We proposed an end-to-end generative legal information extraction technique that can improve the understanding of long and complex legal sentences. We model this as complex information extraction. We achieved this by learning the discourse tree of the sentence using generative models like T5 and BART. We outperformed Graphene, a state-of-the-art complex information extraction technique on an Indian Legal Benchmark, and achieved competitive results on the task of the coordinate boundary detection technique. We plan to extend the generative-based complex information extraction for rhetorical role prediction and extend support for Indian languages.

8 Limitations

- Generative models are prone to hallucinations.
- Systems running these models should have the computational capacity to process large models like T5 or BART.

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		9 Appendix	762
		9.1 Graphene Relations used for LeGen training	763 764
		1. SPATIAL : This relation is used to denote the place of occurrence of an event .	765 766
		Eg: The Inter-state Migrant Workmen Act ’s purpose was to protect workers whose services are requisitioned outside their native states in India .	767 768 769 770

771	SUB/ELABORATION('The Inter-state Migrant	Eg: The carpet division had 1988 sales of \$	818
772	Workmen Act 's purpose was to protect workers	368.3 million , or almost 14 % of Armstrong	819
773	., SUB/SPATIAL('This is in India .', 'Workers	's \$ 2.68 billion total revenue .	820
774	's services are requisitioned outside their	CO/DISJUNCTION('The carpet division	821
775	native states .'))	had 1988 sales of \$ 368.3 million	822
776	2. ATTRIBUTION : This relation is used when	., 'The carpet division had 1988	823
777	a statement is being made by some person or	sales of almost 14 % of Armstrong 's	824
778	institution.	\$ 2.68 billion total revenue .')	825
779		6. CAUSE : Indicates the presence of the word -	826
780	Eg: But some militant SCI TV junk-holders	'because' or 'since'.	827
781	say that 's not enough .	Eg: Jaguar 's own defenses against a hostile	828
782		bid are weakened , analysts add , because	829
783	SUB/ATTRIBUTION('This is what some	fewer than 3 % of its shares are owned by	830
784	militant SCI TV junk-holders say	employees and management .	831
785	., 's not enough .')	SUB/CAUSE('Jaguar 's own defenses	832
786	3. CONTRAST : This relation is indicated by	against a hostile bid are weakened	833
787	the words "although", "but", "but now", "de-	, analysts add .', 'Fewer than 3 % of	834
788	spite", "even though", "even when", "except	its shares are owned by employees and	835
789	when", "however", "instead", "rather", "still"	management .')	836
790	, "though", "thus", "until recently", "while"	7. CONDITION : When multiple sentences are	837
791	and "yet".	connected by phrase 'if' 'in case', 'unless' and	838
792	Eg: This can have its purposes at times , but	'until', CONDITION relationship phrase is	839
793	there 's no reason to cloud the importance and	used to denote the connection between the	840
794	allure of Western concepts of freedom and	sentences.	841
795	justice .	Eg: Unless he closes the gap , Republicans	842
796	CO/CONTRAST(SUB/ELABORATION('This is	risk losing not only the governorship but also	843
797	at times .', 'This can have its	the assembly next month .	844
798	purposes .') , 'There 's no reason	SUB/CONDITION('He closes the gap	845
799	to cloud the importance and allure	., 'Republicans risk losing not	846
800	of Western concepts of freedom and	only the governorship but also the	847
801	justice .')	assembly next month .')	848
802	Eg2: No one has worked out the players ' av-	8. ELABORATION : Identified by the presence	849
803	erage age , but most appear to be in their late	of words such as "more provocatively", "even	850
804	30s .	before" , " for example", "recently" , " so" , "so	851
805	CO/CONTRAST('No one has worked out	far" , " where" , "whereby" and "whether" .	852
806	the players ' average age .', ' most	REGEX:	853
807	appear to be in their late 30s .')	``since(\\W(. * ? \\W) ?)now"	854
808	4. LIST : This is used to indicate conjunctions (855
809	'and' or comma seperated words) between the	Eg: Not one thing in the house is where it is	856
810	sentences	supposed to be , but the structure is fine .	857
811	Eg: He believes in what he plays , and he		858
812	plays superbly .	CO/CONTRAST(SUB/ELABORATION('Not one	859
813	CO/LIST('He believes in what he plays	thing in the house is .', 'It is	860
814	., 'He plays superbly .')	supposed to be .') , 'The structure	861
815		is fine .')	862
816	5. DISJUNCTION : This is used to show the		863
817	presence of 'OR' in the sentences.		

864 9. **TEMPORAL** : Denotes the time or date of
865 occurrence of the event.

866 Eg: These days he hustles to house-painting
867 jobs in his Chevy pickup before and after train-
868 ing with the Tropics .

869 SUB/TEMPORAL('These days he hustles
870 to house-painting jobs in his Chevy
871 pickup before and after .', 'These
872 days he is training with the Tropics
873 .')

874 10. **PURPOSE**: This kind of relation is identified
875 by the presence of words such as "for" or "to".

876 Eg: But we can think of many reasons to stay
877 out for the foreseeable future and well beyond
878 .

879 SUB/PURPOSE('But we can think of many
880 reasons .', 'This is to stay out
881 for the foreseeable future and well
882 beyond .')