Artificial Intelligence and Law

ECHR-DB: On Building an Integrated Open Repository of Legal Documents for Machine Learning Applications --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	ARTI-D-20-00035
Full Title:	ECHR-DB: On Building an Integrated Open Repository of Legal Documents for Machine Learning Applications
Article Type:	Original Research
Keywords:	open data repository; legal documents repository; judgment documents; European Court of Human Rights; machine learning; classification of legal documents
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Funding Information:	
Abstract:	This paper presents a unified and comprehensive repository of judgments documents, called ECHR-DB, which is based on the European Court of Human Rights. The need of such a repository is explained through the prism of the researcher, the data scientist, the citizen, and the legal practitioner. Contrarily to many open data repositories, the full creation process of ECHR-DB, from the collection of raw data to the feature transformation, is provided by means of a collection of fully automated and open-source scripts. It ensures reproducibility and a high level of confidence in the processed data, which is one of the most important issues in data governance nowadays. The experimental evaluation was performed on ECHR-DB to study the problem of predicting the outcome of a case, and to establish baseline results of popular machine learning algorithms. The obtained results are consistently good across the binary datasets with an accuracy ranging from 75.86\% to 98.32\%. The average accuracy is equal to 96.45%, which is 14pp higher than the best known result. We show that in a multilabel setting, the features available prior to a judgment are good predictors of the outcome, opening the road to practical applications.

Artificial Intelligence and Law manuscript No. (will be inserted by the editor)

ECHR-DB: On Building an Integrated Open Repository of Legal Documents for Machine Learning Applications

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Received: date / Accepted: date

Remarks:

The following notice has been removed from the manuscript to avoid self-reference:

This paper substantially extends our initial work on ECHR-DB [?]. The major extensions include: (1) the development of an end-to-end process of integrating and cleaning legal documents, (2) the development of a user interface to access ECHR-DB, and (3) the multiclass and multilabel experiments. These experiments lead to the some conclusions that are opposed to what was observed in previous studies and that we reproduced in our binary classification experiments. We also extended the previous work on the binary classification problem.

References

1. A. Quemy and R. Wrembel. On integrating and classifying legal text documents. In *Proc. of Int. Conf. on Database and Expert Systems Applications (DEXA)*. LNCS, to appear, 2020.

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Abstract This paper presents a unified and comprehensive repository of judgments documents, called ECHR-DB, which is based on the European Court of Human Rights. The need of such a repository is explained through the prism of the researcher, the data scientist, the citizen, and the legal practitioner. Contrarily to many open data repositories, the full creation process of ECHR-DB, from the collection of raw data to the feature transformation, is provided by means of a collection of fully automated and open-source scripts. It ensures reproducibility and a high level of confidence in the processed data, which is one of the most important issues in data governance nowadays. The experimental evaluation was performed on ECHR-DB to study the problem of predicting the outcome of a case, and to establish baseline results of popular machine learning algorithms. The obtained results are consistently good across the binary datasets with an accuracy ranging from 75.86% to 98.32%. The average accuracy is equal to 96.45%, which is 14pp higher than the best known result. We show that in a multilabel setting, the features available prior to a judgment are good predictors of the outcome, opening the road to practical applications.

Keywords open data repository \cdot legal documents repository \cdot judgment documents \cdot European Court of Human Rights \cdot machine learning \cdot classification of legal documents

1 Introduction

The legal environment is a $messy\ concept\ ([19])$ that intrinsically poses some of the most challenging problems for the artificial intelligence research community, i.e., gray areas of interpretation, many exceptions, non-stationarity, presence of deductive and inductive reasoning, non-classical logic. For some years

XXXXXXX

and in several areas of the law, some "quantitative" approaches have been developed, based on the use of either more explicit or less explicit mathematical models. With the availability of massive data, those trends have been accented and brand-new opportunities are emerging at a sustained pace. Among the stakes of those studies, one can mention a better understanding of the legal system and the consequences of some decisions on the society, but also the possibility to decrease litigation in a context of cost rationalization. For a survey on legal analytic methods, we refer the reader to [4, 15].

We observe a shift from reasoning techniques and expert systems to datacentric approaches [8, 3], which use machine learning (ML) algorithms. However, ML algorithms to provide satisfactory prediction models need to be trained on large datasets. The availability of such real datasets is limited in practice, and it remains a major problem for researchers and practitioners, especially in the legal domain. There exist few initiatives to provide unified repositories of clean legal data. Moreover, they are limited to specific courts, rather incomplete, or behind paywalls (see Section 2). For the European Court of Human Rights, there exists database HUDOC¹ that contains all judgments since its creation. However, it is impossible to access multiple documents at once and case documents are not unified in the way that they offer data in a tabular format and free unstructured texts. In other words, despite their public availability, it is difficult to access the data and work with them.

These observations motivated us to build an open repository of judgment documents. Therefore, the overall **goal** of this project is to provide a unified and exhaustive set of data, along with metadata, about one of the main European legal institution, namely the European Court of Human Rights. The importance of such work is as follows:

- to draw the attention of researchers on this domain that has important consequences on the society;
- to allow researchers and practitioners to easily study the European Court of Human Rights;
- to provide a unified benchmark to compare ML algorithms dedicated to the legal domain;
- to provide a similar and more complete repository for the European Union as it already exists for the United States judicial system, notably because the law systems are different in both sides of the Atlantic.

Thus, the **contributions** of this paper can be summarized as follows.

- First, we provide a benchmark for ML algorithms. It is composed of (almost) all cases judged by the European Court of Human Rights since its creation. The data are cleaned and transformed to ease the exploration and usage of ML algorithms.
- Second, we provide the whole data extraction, transformation, integration, and loading (ETL) pipeline used to generate the benchmark data repository, as the open-source software. This technical contribution aims at in-

https://hudoc.echr.coe.int

creasing the trust in the processed data and ease future iterations of the benchmark, to integrate new cases and data per case.

- Third, we provide exhaustive and high-quality repository, called ECHR-DB, of judicial documents for diverse ML problems in the legal domain, based on the European Court of Human Rights documents.
- Fourth, we present the first analysis of the benchmark with standard classification algorithms, in order to predict the outcome of cases and establish baseline models for comparison with future studies. The experiments study binary classification, like previous studies, but also multiclass and multilabel classification, which represent more complex and realistic situations.

The paper comes with *supplementary material* available on GitHub². It contains additional examples about the data format, as well as all secondary results of the experiments that we omitted due to space constraint.

The plan of this paper is as follows. In Section 2 we present related approaches. The whole ETL pipeline is presented in details in Section 4. Section 5 presents the datasets for our experiments. Sections 6, 7, and 8 discuss the results of experiments on the quality of prediction models built by binary, multiclass, and multilabel classification algorithms, respectively. Finally, Section 9 concludes the paper by discussing the remaining challenges and future work. Appendix A outlines the functionality of *ECHR-DB* and its user interface.

2 Related Work

Predicting the outcome of a justice case is challenging, even for the best legal experts. As shown in [20], 67.4% and 58% accuracy was achieved, respectively for the judges and the whole case decision, using cases from the Supreme Court of the United States. Using crowds, the $Fantasy\ Scotus^3$ project reached 85.20% and 84.85% correct predictions, respectively. In [13], the authors proposed to apply an SVM-based classificator and they were able to correctly predict about 75% of the cases.

A success of research in ML for the legal domain depends on the availability of large datasets of legal cases with judicial decisions. There are a few open data repositories of judicial cases available. The most known ones include: the SCOTUS repository⁴ of the Supreme Court of the United States and the HUDOC database⁵ of the European Court of Human Rights. SCOTUS is composed of structured data (in a tabular format) about every case since the creation of the court but it lacks textual information about decisions. HUDOC contains all legal cases with judgments. However, its interface has some flaws, e.g., it does not offer any API to allow to access several documents at once

 $^{^2\ \}mathtt{https://echr-od.github.io/ECHR-OD_project_supplementary_material/}$

³ https://fantasyscotus.lexpredict.com/

⁴ http://scdb.wustl.edu/

 $^{^{5}}$ https://hudoc.echr.coe.int/eng

and case documents are not unified in the way that they could offer tabular and natural language data. In other words, despite its public availability, the data are hard to retrieve and to work with.

The prediction of the Supreme Court of the United States has been widely studied, notably through the SCOTUS repository [10, 12, 9]. To the best of our knowledge, the only predictive models that used the content of HUDOC were reported in [1, 13]. The data used in [1] are far from being exhaustive: only 3 articles considered (3, 6 and 8) with respectively 250, 80 and 254 cases per article. Using SVM with linear kernel, the authors achieved 79% accuracy to predict the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights. SVM is also used in [13] to reach an overall of 75% accuracy on judgment documents up to September 2017. In [15], the author outlined some practical problems in the field of legal analytics, notably the prediction and the justification problem.

New studies tend to suggest that there will always be a limit in reasoning systems to handle new cases presenting novel situations [5], which emphasize the interest for data-centric methods, hence the need for large and adequate sets of legal data (mainly cases and their justifications) available to researchers and practitioners. Such datasets should be equipped with: (1) a user-friendly interface to access and analyze the data and (2) rich metadata to offer means for browsing the content of a repository and to tune ML algorithms. Unfortunately, the aforementioned databases do not fully meet these requirements. This observation motivated us to start the project on building an open European Court of Human Rights repository (ECHR-DB).

3 ECHR-DB Overview

The ECHR-DB repository aims at providing exhaustive and high-quality database of legal documents for diverse problems, based on the European Court of Human Rights documents from HUDOC. The main objectives of this project are as follows: (1) to draw the attention of researchers on this domain that has important consequences on the society and (2) to provide a similar and more complete database for the European Union as it already exists in the United States, notably because the law systems are different in both sides of the Atlantic.

The data in *ECHR-DB* are available through a portal available at https://echr-opendata.eu under the **Open Database Licence (ODbL)**. The creation scripts and website sources are provided under **MIT Licence** and they are available on GitHub [17]. The project offers data in several format:

- The unstructured format is a JSON file containing a list of all the information available about each case, including a tree-based representation of the judgment document (cf., Section 4).
- Structured information files are provided in JSON and CSV and are meant to be directly readable by popular data manipulation libraries, such as pandas or numpy. Thus, they are easy to use with machine learning libraries such as scikit-learn. It includes the description of cases in a flat JSON

and the adjacency matrix for some important variables. Additionally, the ready-to-use Bag-of-Words and TF-IDF representations of judgments are also available.

We also provide a normalized SQL database. Finally, the portal allows to explore online the data or to interaface it with external applications through a well documented REST API. More details about its implementation and user interface is provided in Appendix A.

ECHR-DB is guided by three core values: **reusability**, **quality** and **availability**. To reach those objectives:

- each version of the database is carefully versioned and publicly available, including the intermediate files,
- the integrality of the process and files produced are documented in details,
- the scripts to retrieve raw documents and to build the database from scratch are open-source and versioned to maximize reproducibility and trust.
- no data is manipulated by hand at any stage of the creation process to make it fully automated,
- ECHR-DB is augmented with rich metadata that allow to understand and use its content more easily.

4 Data Processing Pipeline of ECHR-DB

In this section we discuss a full data processing pipeline used to build the integrated repository (database) of judicial cases - *ECHR-DB*. *ECHR-DB* is guided by three core values: **reusability**, **quality** and **availability**. To reach those objectives:

The processing pipeline that we have used to build *ECHR-DB* is shown in Figure 1. The process of ingesting data is broken down into the following five steps discussed in this section, i.e.,: (1) retrieving judgment documents and basic metadata, (2) cleaning cases, (3) pre-processing documents, (4) normalizing documents, and (5) generating the repository.

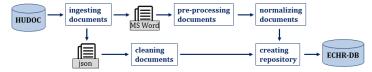


Fig. 1 The processing pipeline for building ECHR

4.1 Retrieving Judgment Documents and Basic Metadata

Using web scrapping, we retrieved all entries from HUDOC. The available data consist in basic metadata and sometimes the judgment document in natural

language. Common metadata include among others: case name, the language used, the conclusion in a natural language. When available, we also retrieved the judgments that are available only in Microsoft Word format.

4.2 Cleaning Cases

HUDOC includes cases in various languages, cases without judgments, cases without or with vague conclusions. For this reason, its content needs to be cleaned before making it available for further processing. To clean the content of HUDOC we applied a standard extract-transform-load (ETL) process [2]. As part of the ETL process, we also parsed and formatted some raw data: parties are extracted from a case title and many raw strings are broken down into lists. In particular, a string listing articles discussed in a case are transformed into a list and a conclusion string is transformed into a slightly more complex JSON object. For instance, string Violation of Art. 6-1; No violation of P1-1; Pecuniary damage - claim dismissed; Non-pecuniary damage - financial award becomes the following list of elements:

In general, each item in the conclusion can have the following elements: (1) article: a number of the concerned articles, if applicable, (2) details: a list of additional information (a paragraph or aspect of the article), (3) element: a part of a raw string describing the item, (4) mentions: diverse mentions (quantifier, e.g., 'moderate', country...), (5) type: of value violation, no violation, or other.

To ensure a high quality and usability of the data, the process cleaned and filtered out the cases. As a consequence, *ECHR-DB* includes: (1) only cases in English, (2) only cases accompanied by their adequate judgment documents, and (3) only cases with a clear conclusion, i.e., containing at least one occurrence of *violation* or *no violation*.

Finally, on top of saving the case information in a JSON file, we output a JSON file for each unique article with at least 100 associated cases⁶. Additionally, some basic statistics about the attributes are generated, e.g. the cardinality of the domain and the density (i.e. the cardinality over the total

⁶ This constant is a parameter of the script and can thus be modified for additional experimentations.

number of cases). For instance, the attribute itemid is unique and thus, as expected, its density is 1, as shown in the listing below.

```
"itemid":
{"cardinal": 12075,
"density": 1.0}
```

In comparison, the field article_ (raw string containing a list of articles discussed in a case) and article (its parsed and formatted counterpart) have a density of respectively 0.26 and 0.01. This illustrates the interest of our processing method: using the raw string, the article attribute is far more unique than it should be. In reality, there are about 130 different values that are really used across the datasets.

```
"articles_":
    {"cardinal": 3104,
    "density": 0.26}
"article":
    {"cardinal": 131,
    "density": 0.01}
```

4.3 Pre-processing Judgment Documents

The pre-processing task consists in parsing jugdment documents in MS Word format to extract additional information and create a tree structure of a judgment file. For each case, the metadata are extended with some additional information such as the decision body, i.e., with the list of persons involved in a decision, including their roles. The most important extension of a case description is the tree representation of the whole judgment document, under the field *content*. The content is described in an ordered list where each element has two fields: (1) *content* that describes the element (paragraph text or title) and (2) *elements* that represents a list of sub-elements. This tree representation eases the identification of some specific sections or paragraphs (e.g., facts or conclusion) or explore judgments with a lower granularity.

Each judgment has the same structure, which includes the following sections: (1) *Procedure*, (2) *Facts*, (3) *Law* that is further composed of: *Circumstances of the Case* and *Relevant Law*, as well as (4) *Operative Provision*. In [13] and [1] it has been shown that each section has a different predictive power. The representation that we propose allows to go further to identify each individual paragraph.

4.4 Normalizing Documents

In this task, judgment documents (without the conclusion) are normalized by means of: (1) part-of-speech tagging, (2) tokenization, (3) stopwords removal, followed by a lemmatization, and (4) n-gram generation for $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

Part-of-speech tagging. This step consists in associated words with their category depending on the context. For instance, "fire" can be either a noun or a verb depending on the sentence. This is particularly useful to extract entities but also to properly clean the documents from words that carry no semantic.

Tokenization. This step consists in breaking down sentences into words. It is greatly helped by the Part-of-speech tagging.

Stopwords removal. Once the Part-of-speech and tokenization is done, we removed words that do not carry any semantic (stopwords) such as "a", "the", etc.

n-gram generation. A n-gram is a contiguous sequence of n words from a text. For intance, the sequence "new york city" provides three unigram, two 2-grams ("new york" and "york city") and one single 3-gram. For probabilistic models which cover most machine learning algorithms, n-grams are important to statistically address such ambiguous statements. The true semantic of "new york city" is lost when considering only the three separate words. In addition, the 2-grams cannot distinguish between the city of New-York and the state of New-York.

To construct the final dictionary of tokens, we use an open-source library for unsupervised topic modeling and natural language processing - Gensim [18]. The dictionary includes the 5000 most common tokens, based on normalized documents. The number of tokens to use in the dictionary is a parameter of the script. The judgment documents are thus represented as a Bag-of-Words and TD-IDF matrices on top of the tree representation.

4.5 Creating Repository

Once data and metadata have been generated, to ease data exploration, notably the connections between cases, we generated adjacency matrices for the following variables: decision body, extracted application, representatives and Strasbourg case law citations. Finally, using all the generated data, we created a normalized SQL database to allow for more complex queries then what is possible to achieve on JSON or CSV.

5 Datasets For Classification

In this section, we describe the datasets extracted from *ECHR-DB* for the purpose of our experiments. The **goal of the experiments** is twofold. First, to study the predictability offered by the database. Second, to provide the first baseline by testing the most popular machine learning algorithms for classification. In this paper we have focused the experiments on determining the outcome of new cases. The problem can be seen as a classification problem: is a law article being violated or not?

In these experimental evaluations, we are interested in answering the following four questions, in particular:

- what is the predictive power of the data in ECHR-DB,
- are all the articles equal w.r.t. predictability,
- are some methods performing significantly better than others, and
- are all data types (textual or descriptive) equal w.r.t. predictability?

To answer these questions, we studied three variations of the classification problem, namely: binary (described in Section 6, multiclass (cf. Section 7), and multilabel classification (cf. Section 8).

All the experiments are implemented using Scikit-Learn [14]. All the experiments and scripts to analyze the results as well as to generate the plots and tables are open-source and are available on a separated GitHub repository [17] for repeatability and reusability.

5.1 Data Preparation

From ECHR-DB we created 11 datasets for the binary classification problem, one for the multiclass problem and one for the multilabel problem. Each dataset comes in different flavors, based on the descriptive features and bagof-words representations. These different representations (listed below) allow to study the respective importance of descriptive and textual features in the predictive models build upon the datasets:

- 1. descriptive features: structured features retrieved from HUDOC or deduced from the judgment document,
- 2. bag-of-words (BoW) representation: based on the top 5000 tokens (normalized n-grams for $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$),
- 3. $descriptive\ features + Bo\ W$: combination of both sets of features.

For binary classification, each dataset corresponds to a specific article. We kept only the articles with a clear output, without consideration of the prevalence. Notice that the same case can appear in several datasets if it has in its conclusion several elements about different articles. A *label* corresponds to a violation or no violation of a specific article.

The descriptive features have been one-hot encoded for non-numeric variables.

	# cases	min #features	max #features	avg #features	prevalence
Article 1	951	131	2834	1183.47	0.93
Article 2	1124	44	3501	2103.45	0.90
Article 3	2573	160	3871	1490.75	0.89
Article 5	2292	200	3656	1479.60	0.91
Article 6	6891	46	3168	1117.66	0.89
Article 8	1289	179	3685	1466.52	0.73
Article 10	560	49	3440	1657.22	0.75
Article 11	213	293	3758	1607.96	0.85
Article 13	1090	44	2908	1309.33	0.91
Article 34	136	490	3168	1726.78	0.64
Article p1	1301	266	2692	1187.96	0.86

Table 1 Datasets description for binary classification.

Columns min, max, and avg #features indicate the minimal, maximal, and average number of features, respectively, in the cases for the representation descriptive features and bag-of-words.

A basic description of these datasets is given in Table 1.

Bag-of-Words is a rather naive representation that loses a substantial amount of information. However, we justify this choice by two reasons. First, so far, the studies on predicting the violation of articles for the *ECHR* cases use only the BoW representation. To be able to compare the interest of the proposed data with the previous studies, we need to use the same semantic representation. Second, from a scientific point of view, it is important to provide baseline results using the most common and established methods in order to be able to quantify the gain of more advanced techniques. Future work will consist in investigating advanced embedding techniques that are context aware such as LSTM or BERT-like networks. In particular, we hope not only to improve the prediction accuracy by a richer semantic, but also being able to justify a decision in natural language.

For multiclass classification, there exists 18 different classes in total (the number of different articles multiplied by two possible decisions: violation or no violation). To create the multiclass dataset, we aggregated different binary classification datasets by removing the cases present in several datasets.

Multiclass and multilabel datasets are not obtained by simply merging the binary datasets. As the corpus of judgment documents differs between the datasets, the most frequent n-grams also change. It implies that for a given case, its BoW representation is different in the binary, multiclass and multilabel datasets. The descriptive features are, however, not modified.

For multilabel classification, there exists 22 different labels and the main difference with the multiclass is that there is no need to remove cases that appear in multiple binary classification datasets. The labels are simply stacked. Table 3 summarizes the dataset composition.

Figure 2 show the labels repartition among the multiclass and multilabel datasets. Figure 3 shows the histogram of label numbers and cases per label.

Table 2 Dataset description for the multiclass dataset.

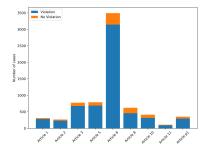
	# cases	violation	no-violation	prevalence
Article 1	310	280 (0.039)	30 (0.004)	0.90
Article 2	267	230 (0.032)	37(0.005)	0.86
Article 3	775	676 (0.095)	99 (0.014)	0.87
Article 5	791	689 (0.097)	102 (0.014)	0.87
Article 6	3491	3143 (0.441)	348 (0.049)	0.90
Article 8	623	457 (0.064)	166 (0.023)	0.73
Article 10	413	315(0.044)	98 (0.014)	0.76
Article 11	110	92 (0.013)	18 (0.003)	0.84
Article p1	353	294 (0.041)	59 (0.008)	0.83

For each article the following features are indicated: (1) the number of cases, (2) the number of cases labeled as violated and not violated (in parenthesis), and (3) the prevalence w.r.t. the whole dataset.

Table 3 Dataset description for the multilabel dataset.

	# cases	violation	no-violation
Article 1	951	882 (0.082)	69 (0.006)
Article 2	1124	1017 (0.095)	107 (0.010)
Article 3	2573	2295 (0.214)	278 (0.026)
Article 5	2292	2081 (0.194)	211 (0.020)
Article 6	6891	6152 (0.574)	739 (0.069)
Article 8	1289	940 (0.088)	349 (0.033)
Article 10	560	418 (0.039)	142 (0.013)
Article 11	213	180 (0.017)	33(0.003)
Article 13	1090	997 (0.093)	93(0.009)
Article 34	136	87 (0.008)	49 (0.005)
Article p1	1301	$1120 \ (0.105)$	181 (0.017)

For each article the following features are indicated: (1) the number of cases, (2) the number of cases labeled as violated and not violated (in parenthesis), and (3) the prevalence w.r.t. the whole dataset.



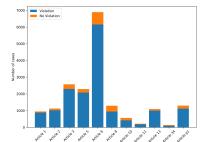
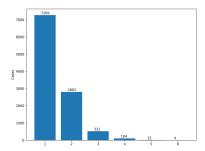


Fig. 2 The number of cases depending on the article and the outcome for the multiclass dataset (left) and multilabel dataset (right).



 ${f Fig.~3}$ The number of cases depending on the number of labels for the multilabel dataset.

6 Experiments: Binary Classification

6.1 Protocol

We compared 13 standard classification algorithms, namely: AdaBoost with Decision Tree, Bagging with Decision Tree, Naive Bayes (Bernoulli and Multinomial), Decision Tree, Ensemble Extra Tree, Extra Tree, Gradient Boosting, K-Neighbors, SVM (Linear SVC, RBF SVC), Neural Network (Multilayer Perceptron), and Random Forest.

For each article, we used the following three flavors: (1) descriptive features only, (2) bag-of-words only, and (3) descriptive features combined with bag-of-words. For each method, each article, and each flavor, we performed a 10-fold cross-validation with stratified sample, for a total of 429 validation procedures. Due to this important amount of experimental settings, we discarded the TF-IDF representation. For the same reason, we did not perform any hyperparameter tuning at this stage.

To evaluate the performances, we reported some standard performance metrics, namely: (1) accuracy, (2) F_1 -score, and (3) Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC). We recall the definition of these metrics. Denoting by: TP - the number of true positives, TN - the number of true negatives, FP - the number of false positives, and FN - the number of false negative. For completeness of the paper, we include the standard definitions of these metrics.

$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \tag{1}$$

$$F_1 = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN} \tag{2}$$

$$MCC = \frac{TP \times TN - FP \times FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}}$$
(3)

The values of accuracy, F_1 -score, and MCC are within ranges [0, 1], [0, 1] and [-1, 1], respectively (values closer to 1 are better). MCC has been shown to be more informative than other metrics derived from the confusion matrix [7], in particular with imbalanced datasets.

Additionally, we report the learning curves to study the limit of the model space. The learning curves are obtained by plotting the accuracy as a function

Article Method Flavor Accuracy Article 1 0.9832 (0.01) Linear SVC desc & BoW Article 2 0.9760(0.02)Linear SVC desc & BoW desc & BoW ${\bf Bagging Classifier}$ Article 3 0.9588(0.01)Gradient Boosting Article 5 0.9651(0.01)desc & BoW Article 6 0.9721(0.01)Linear SVC desc & BoW Article 8 0.9542(0.03)Gradient Boosting desc & BoW 0.9392(0.04)BoW only Article 10 Ensemble Extra Tree Article 11 0.9671 (0.03) Ensemble Extra Tree desc & BoW Article 13 0.9450(0.02)Linear SVC desc only Article 34 0.7586(0.09)AdaBoost desc only Gradient Boosting desc & BoW Article p1 0.9685(0.02)Average 0.9443 0.9644 Micro average

Table 4 The best accuracy obtained for each article. Legend: desc - descriptive features; BoW - bag of words.

of a training set size, for both the training and the test sets. The learning curves help to understand if a model underfits or overfits and thus, shape future axis of improvements to build better classifiers.

To find out what type of features are the most important w.r.t. predictability, we used a Wilcoxon signed-rank, i.e., a non-parametric paired difference test at 5%, in order to compare the accuracy obtained on bag-of-words representation to the one obtained on the bag-of-words combined with the descriptive features. Given two paired samples, the null hypothesis assumes that the difference between the pairs follows a symmetric distribution around zero. The test is used to determine if the changes in the accuracy are significant when the descriptive features are added to the textual features.

6.2 Results

Table 4 shows the best accuracy obtained for each article as well as the method and the flavor of the dataset. For all articles, the best accuracy obtained is higher than the prevalence. Linear SVC offers the best results on 4, out of 11 articles. Gradient Boosting accounts for 3, out 11 articles and Ensemble Extra Tree accounts for 2 articles.

The standard deviation is rather low and ranges from 1% up to 4%, at the exception of article 34, for which it is equal to 9%. This indicates a low variance for the best models. The accuracy ranges from 75.86% to 98.32%, with the average of 94.43%. The micro-average that ponders each result by the dataset size is 96.44%. In general, the datasets with higher accuracy are larger and more imbalanced. For the datasets being highly imbalanced, with a prevalence from 0.64 to 0.93, other metrics may be more suitable to appreciate the quality of the results. In particular, the micro-average could simply be higher due to the class imbalance rather than the availability of data.

Regarding the flavor, 8 out 10 best results are obtained on descriptive features combined to bag-of-words. BoW only is the best flavor for article 10,

desc only

desc & BoW

Article 34

Article p1

Average Micro average

Article MCC Method Flavor desc & BoW Article 1 0.8654 Linear SVC 0.8609 Linear SVC $\operatorname{desc} \,\&\, \operatorname{BoW}$ Article 2 BaggingClassifier Article 3 0.7714 $\operatorname{desc} \,\&\, \operatorname{BoW}$ Article 5 0.7824 Gradient Boosting desc & BoW Article 6 0.8488 Linear SVC desc & BoW Gradient Boosting 0.8829 $\operatorname{desc} \,\&\, \operatorname{BoW}$ Article 8 Article 10 0.8411 Gradient Boosting BoW only Article 11 0.8801Ensemble Extra Tree $\operatorname{desc}\ \&\ \operatorname{BoW}$ Article 13 0.5770 Ensemble Extra Tree BoW only

AdaBoost

Gradient Boosting

0.4918

0.8656

0.7879

0.8163

Table 5 The best MCC obtained for each article. The flavor and method achieving the best score for both metrics are the same for every article. Legend: desc - descriptive features; BoW - bag of words.

whereas descriptive features are the best for articles 13 and 34. This seems to indicate that combining information from different sources improves the overall results.

Figure 4 displays the normalized confusion matrix for the best methods on article 1 and 13. Similar results are observed for all the other articles. The normalization is done per line and it allows to quickly figure out how the true predictions are balanced for both classes. As expected due to the prevalence, true negatives are extremely high, ranging from 0.82 to 1.00, with an average of 97.18. On the contrary, the true positive rate is lower, ranging from 0.47 to 0.91. For most articles, the true positive rate is higher than 80% and it is lower than 50% only for article 34. This indicates that despite the classes being highly imbalanced, the algorithms are capable of producing models that are fairly balanced.

Additionally, we provide the values of the MCC in Table 5. The MCC is generally superior to the accuracy because it takes into account the class prevalence. Therefore, it is a far better metric to estimate model quality. The MCC ranges from 0.4918 - on article 34 to 0.8829 - on article 10. The best score is not obtained by the same article as for the accuracy (article 10 achieved 93% accuracy, below the average). Interestingly, the MCC reveals that the performances on article 34 are rather poor in comparison to the other articles and close to the performance on article 13. Surprisingly, the best method is not Linear SVC anymore (best on 3 articles) but Gradient Boosting (best on 4 articles). While the descriptive features were returning the best results for two articles, according the MCC, it reaches the best score only for article 34.

Once again, the micro-average is higher than the macro-average. As the MCC takes into account class imbalance, it supports the idea that adding more cases to the training set could still improve the result of these classifiers. This will be confirmed by looking at the learning curves.

Table 6 The overall ranking of methods according to the average accuracy obtained for every article.

Method	Accuracy	Micro Accuracy	Rank
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.9420	0.9627	1
Linear SVC	0.9390	0.9618	2
Random Forest	0.9376	0.9618	3
BaggingClassifier	0.9319	0.9599	4
Gradient Boosting	0.9309	0.9609	5
AdaBoost	0.9284	0.9488	6
Neural Net	0.9273	0.9535	7
Decision Tree	0.9181	0.9419	8
Extra Tree	0.8995	0.9275	9
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.8743	0.8907	10
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.8734	0.8891	11
K-Neighbors	0.8670	0.8997	12
RBF SVC	0.8419	0.8778	13
Average	0.9086	0.9335	

Table 6 ranks the methods according to the average accuracy performed on all articles. For each article and method, we kept only the best accuracy among the three dataset flavors.

Surprisingly, the best method is neither Linear SVC nor Gradient Boosting, but Ensemble Extra Tree. Random Forest and Bagging with Decision Tree are the second and third ones, respectively, and they never achieved the best result on any article. It simply indicates that these methods are more consistent across the datasets than Linear SVC and Gradient Boosting.

Figure 5 displays the learning curves obtained for the best methods on articles 10 and 11. The training error becomes (near) zero on every instance after the model has been trained with only few examples, except for article 13 and 34. The test error converges rather fast and remains relatively far from the training error, which is synonym of high bias. The two abovementioned observations indicate underfitting. Similar results are observed for all methods. Usually, more training examples would help, but since the datasets are exhaustive w.r.t. the European Court of Human Rights cases, this is not possible. As a consequence, we recommend using a more complex model space and hyperparameter tuning. In particular, as mentioned above, the usage of more advanced embedding techniques is an obvious way to explore. Finally, an exploratory analysis of the datasets may also help in removing some noise and finding the best predictors.

On article 13 and 34, the bias is also high, and variance relatively higher than for the other articles, clearly indicating the worst possible case. Again, adding more examples is not an option. However, if we assume that the process of deciding if there is a violation or not is the same, independently of the article, a solution might be a transfer learning, to leverage what can be learned from the other articles. We let this research axis for future work.

Finally, we used a Wilcoxon signed-rank test at 5% to compare the accuracy obtained on the BoW representation to the one obtained on the BoW combined with descriptive features. The difference between the samples has been found

to be significant only for article 6 and article 8. The best result obtained on BoW is improved by adding descriptive features for every article. However, statistically, for a given method, adding descriptive features does not improve the result. Additionally, we performed the test per method. The results are significant for every method.

In conclusion, the datasets for binary classification demonstrated a strong predictability power. Apart from article 13 and 34, each article seems to provide similar results, independently of the relatively different prevalence. The accuracy is rather high and a more informative metric, such as MCC, shows that there are still margins of improvements. Hyperparameter tuning [16] is an obvious way to go, and this work has shown that good candidates for fine tuning are Ensemble Extra Tree, Linear SVC, and Gradient Boosting as shown by Tables 5 and 4.

6.3 Discussion

To sum up, we achieved an average accuracy of 94% which is respectively 15pp and 19pp higher than best results reported in [1] and [13]. The size of the dataset does matter since we showed that the model underfits. Also, we showed that SVM is far from being the best method for all articles. However, such a huge gap cannot be explained only by those two factors.

In our opinion, the main problem with the previous studies is that the authors rebalanced their datasets. As those datasets were highly imbalanced, they used undersampling, which resulted in a very small training dataset. Most likely, the training dataset was not representative enough of the feature space which leads to underfitting (even more than in our experiments). They justified that rebalancing was necessary to ensure that the classifier was not biased towards a certain class. For this reason, we argue that they modified the label distribution. As some classification methods rely on the label distribution to learn, they introduce themselves a prior shift [11]. In general, rebalancing is necessary only when, indeed, the estimator is badly biased. It is true that the accuracy is meaningless on imbalanced datasets but we can still control the quality of the model using a collection of more robust indicators, including among others: F1-score, MCC, and normalized confusion matrices.

To sum up, our approach discussed in this paper is more neutral in the sense we do not change the label distribution, and it still offers a robust classifier. This is confirmed in Section 8 on multilabel classification.

Our in-depth experimental evaluation has demonstrated that the textual information provides better results than descriptive features alone, but the addition of the descriptive feature improved in general the result of the best method (obtained among all methods). We emphasize the best method because for a given method adding the descriptive feature are not significantly improving the results.



 ${\bf Fig.~4~Normalized~Confusion~Matrices~for~the~best~methods~as~described~by~Table~4}.$

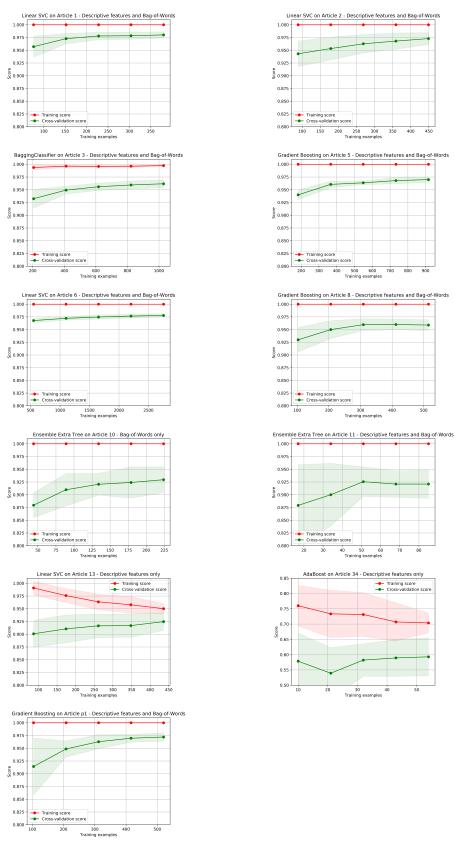


Fig. 5 Learning Curves for the best methods as described by Table 4.

	Accuracy - Multiclass			
	desc	BoW	both	
AdaBoost	0.7789 (0.04)	0.5451 (0.15)	0.5720 (0.04)	
BaggingClassifier	0.8998 (0.01)	0.8794 (0.01)	0.9499 (0.01)	
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	0.5096 (0.01)	0.7516 (0.01)	0.7464 (0.01)	
Decision Tree	0.8897(0.02)	0.8457 (0.01)	0.9434 (0.01)	
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.8788(0.01)	0.8904 (0.01)	0.9195 (0.01)	
Extra Tree	0.7776 (0.03)	$0.7164\ (0.03)$	0.7458 (0.02)	
Gradient Boosting	$0.8911\ (0.01)$	0.8904 (0.01)	0.9494 (0.01)	
Linear SVC	0.9141 (0.01)	0.9136 (0.01)	0.9420 (0.01)	
Multinomial Naive Bayes	$0.7980\ (0.01)$	0.7784 (0.01)	0.7829 (0.01)	
Neural Net	0.8813(0.01)	0.9072 (0.01)	0.9231 (0.01)	
Random Forest	0.8669(0.01)	0.8825 (0.01)	0.9125 (0.01)	

Table 7 The accuracy obtained for each method on the multiclass dataset.

Another way of improving the results is to tune the different phases of the dataset generations. In particular, [16] has shown that 5000 tokens and 4-grams might not be enough to take the best out of the documents. It might seem surprising, but the justice language is codified and standardized in a way that n-grams for large n might contain better predictors for the outcome.

7 Experiments: Multiclass Classification

In the previous section, we showed that most methods could obtain an accuracy higher than the dataset prevalence, and more generally, good performance metrics. Usually algorithms for binary classification adapt relatively well to multiclass problems, however, in the case of *ECHR-DB*, the labels come by pair (violation or no-violation of a given article), which may confuse the classifiers.

The experimental protocol for these experiments is identical to the one of the previous section. For computational purposes, we dropped the two worst classifiers from the binary datasets, namely RBF SVM and KNN.

7.1 Results

Table 7 presents the accuracy obtained on the multiclass dataset. The best accuracy for descriptive features only and BoW only is linear SVM with 91.41% and 91.36% correctly labeled cases, respectively. This is aligned with the results obtained on binary datasets. However, the top score of 94.99% is obtained by Bagging Classifier that only ranked 4th on binary datasets. In other words, SVM ranked first on two types of features individually, but the improvement of combining the features is lower than the one obtained by Bagging Classifier. The same can be observed for Gradient Boosting that outperforms SVM. Except from Ada Boost, the standard deviation is mostly lower than 1%.

For most methods, BoW only scores better than descriptive features. This observation is reversed by looking at the MCC provided by Table 7.1. However, for both indicators, combining both types of features increases performances at

	MCC - Multiclass		
	desc	BoW	both
AdaBoost	0.7171 (0.04)	0.4416 (0.14)	0.4580 (0.05)
BaggingClassifier	$0.8700 \ (0.02)$	0.8435 (0.02)	0.9353 (0.01)
Bernoulli Naive Bayes	$0.2750 \ (0.02)$	0.6845 (0.01)	0.6664 (0.01)
Decision Tree	0.8572 (0.02)	0.8004 (0.02)	0.9268 (0.01)
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.8419 (0.01)	0.8576 (0.01)	0.8956 (0.01)
Extra Tree	0.7103 (0.04)	0.6343 (0.04)	0.6700 (0.02)
Gradient Boosting	0.8580(0.01)	0.8568 (0.01)	0.9346 (0.01)
Linear SVC	0.8886 (0.01)	0.8883 (0.01)	0.9251 (0.01)
Multinomial Naive Bayes	0.7323 (0.01)	0.7193 (0.01)	0.7190 (0.02)
Neural Net	0.8452(0.01)	0.8795 (0.01)	0.9001 (0.01)
Random Forest	0.8262 (0.01)	0.8472 (0.01)	0.8864 (0.01)

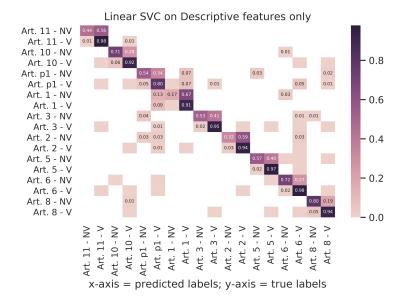
Table 8 Matthew Correlation Coefficient obtained for each method on the multiclass dataset. Legend: desc - descriptive features; BoW - bag of words

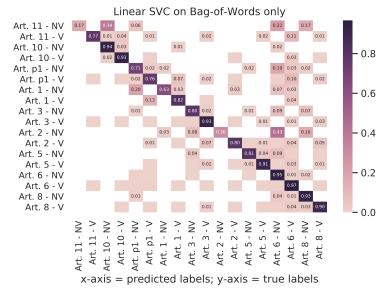
the notable exceptions of Extra Tree, Multinomial Naive Bayes, and Ada Boost with Decision Tree. This highly contrasts with the binary setting for which descriptive features were quantitatively far below textual features, in particular w.r.t. MCC. For binary datasets, descriptive features only was mostly scoring below the BoW only, for any article and any method (cf. GitHub⁷). On top of that, taking only the best result per flavor, the descriptive features score better than purely textual features. The explanation can be found by studying the confusion matrix.

Figure 6 shows the normalized confusion matrix for Linear SVM. The normalization has been done per line, i.e. each line represents the distribution of cases according to their ground truth. For instance, on *descriptive features only*, for class *Article 11*, *no-violation*, 44% only were correctly classified and 56% assigned to a violation of article 11. The perfect classifier should thus have a diagonal of 1. The diagonal is equivalent to the recall for the corresponding class and the average the diagonal terms is the balanced accuracy [6].

Flavor descriptive features only has a sparser normalized confusion matrix than the counterpart with BoW. The fact that the flavor descriptive features only returns a lower accuracy is explained by looking at the 2x2 blocks on the diagonal. These blocks are the normalized confusion matrix of the subproblem restricted to find a specific article. For instance, 100% of non-violation of article 10 has been labeled in one of the two classes related to article 10 (99% for a violation). In general, the classifiers on descriptive features only are good at identifying the article but generates a lot of false negatives, most likely due to the imbalance between violation and non-violation labels for a given article. Adding BoW to the case representation slightly lowers the accuracy in average but largely rebalances the 2x2 blocks on the diagonal. On the other hand, it seems that the textual information does not hold enough information

 $^{^{7}\ \}mathtt{https://echr-od.github.io/ECHR-OD_project_supplementary_material/}$





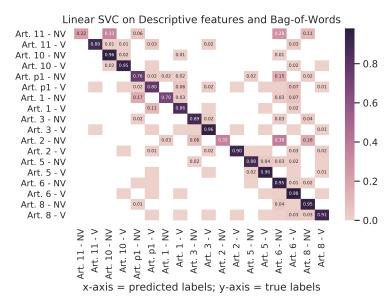


Fig. 6 Normalized Confusion Matrix for multiclass dataset. The normalization is performed per line. A white block indicates that no element has been predicted for the corresponding label. Percentages are reported only if above 1%.

to identify the article, which explain why classifiers perform in general lower on BoW only.

We performed two Wilcoxon signed-rank tests: first between the samples of results on BoW and BoW + descriptive features, then between descriptive features and BoW + descriptive features. The first result is clearly significant while the second is not significant, comforting us in the idea that for the multiclass domain, Bag-of-Words flavor alone is unlikely to give good results compared to descriptive features.

7.2 Discussion

The main conclusion to draw from the multiclass experiment is that the descriptive features are excellent at identifying the article while the text offers more elements to predict the outcome. It is not surprising since descriptive features are available before the judgment while the judgment itself discuss specifically the violation or not. However, the fact that descriptive features hold the best predictive power supports the realism theory which considers that judges do not simply apply objective and neutral legal reasonings. Indeed, descriptive features has little to do with legal arguments and facts but more about judges and parties.

Using only BoW leads to the worst possible results, while adding textual information to the descriptive features slightly increases the accuracy and has a strong beneficial effect on discriminating between violations and non-violations. This is quite in opposition with the conclusion drawn from the experiments on the binary datasets where the textual representation clearly overperformed while the descriptive features had only a marginal effect.

This indicates that it might be more interesting to create a two-stage classifier, namely: a multiclass classifier - for determining an article based on descriptive features, followed by an article-specific classifier - for determining if the article is violated or not. Over-sampling techniques to deal with imbalanced classes constitute another axis of improvement to explore in future work.

Finally, we conclude that the benefit of combining sources of information is not monotonic: the best scoring method on individual types of features might not be the best method overall.

8 Experiments: Multilabel Classification

A multilabel dataset generalizes the multiclass one in a way there is not only one article to identify before predicting the outcome, but an unknown number. The multilabel dataset better reflects a real-life situations in which, when a complaint is filled, the precise articles to be discussed are yet to be determined. In such a case, on top of analyzing the usual performance metrics, we would like to quantify how good are the methods to identify all the articles in each

case. From the multiclass results, it is expected that the textual information alone will provide the lowest results among all flavors.

8.1 Protocol

Appreciating the results of a multilabel classifier is not as easy as in the binary or multiclass case. For instance, having wrongly added one label to 100 cases is not exactly the same as adding 100 wrong labels to a single case. Similarly, being able to correctly predict at least one correct label per case, is not the same as predicting all good labels for a fraction of the cases, even if the total amount of correct labels is the same in both scenarios. The distributions of ground truth and predicted labels among the dataset are important for evaluating the quality of a model.

For this reason, we reported the following multilabel-specific metrics: subset accuracy, precision, recall, F₁-score, Hamming loss, and the Jaccard index. The subset accuracy is the strictest metric since it measures the percentage of samples such that all the labels are correctly predicted. It does not account for partly correctly labeled vectors. The Hamming loss calculates the percentage of wrong labels in the total number of labels. The Jaccard index measures the number of correctly predicted labels divided by the union of prediction and true labels. Let T (resp. P) denotes the true (resp. predicted) labels, n- the size of the sample, and l - the number of possible labels and Y_i the set of correct labels for case i. Then the standard definitions of these metrics are defined as follows:

$$ACC = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(Y_i = \bar{Y}_i)$$

$$\tag{4}$$

$$RECALL = \frac{T \cap P}{T}$$
 (5)

$$PRECISION = \frac{T \cap P}{P}$$
 (6)

$$F_1 = \frac{\text{RECALL} \times \text{PRECISION}}{\text{RECALL} + \text{PRECISION}} \tag{7}$$

$$\text{HAMMING} = \frac{1}{nl} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{xor}(y_{i,j}, \bar{y}_{i,j})$$

$$\text{JACCARD} = \frac{T \cap P}{T \cup P}$$
(9)

$$JACCARD = \frac{T \cap P}{T \cup P}$$
 (9)

We are interested in quantifying how much a specific article was properly identified, as well as how many cases with a given number of labels are correctly labeled, taking into account their respective prevalence in the dataset reported in Figure 3. Indeed, about 70% of cases in the multilabel dataset have only one label such that a classifier assigning only one label to each case could reach about 70% of subset accuracy.

Not all binary classification algorithms can be extended for the multilabel problem. Therefore, in our experiments we used the following five algorithms: Extra Tree, Decision Tree, Random Forest, Ensemble Extra Tree, and Neural Network. As previously, a 10-fold cross-validation has been performed on each flavor.

Table 9 The accuracy of each method on the multilabel dataset.

	Multilabel			
	desc	BoW	both	
Decision Tree	0.7837 (0.02)	0.6612 (0.02)	0.7966 (0.02)	
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.7252 (0.03)	0.6643 (0.02)	0.6954 (0.02)	
Extra Tree	0.5978 (0.03)	$0.5410 \ (0.02)$	0.5407 (0.03)	
Neural Net	0.6914 (0.03)	0.6745 (0.02)	0.7159 (0.02)	
Random Forest	0.7061 (0.03)	0.6438 (0.02)	0.6674 (0.02)	

Table 10 The precision of each method on the multilabel dataset.

	Multilabel		
	desc	BoW	both
Decision Tree	0.8470	0.7780	0.8705
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.8808	0.8957	0.9147
Extra Tree	0.7202	0.6786	0.6780
Neural Net	0.8674	0.8719	0.8995
Random Forest	0.8698	0.8929	0.9120

Table 11 The recall of each method on the multilabel dataset.

	Multilabel		
	desc	BoW	both
Decision Tree	0.8482	0.7688	0.8611
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.7635	0.7049	0.7261
Extra Tree	0.6999	0.6575	0.6564
Neural Net	0.7615	0.7671	0.7792
Random Forest	0.7440	0.6821	0.6996

8.2 Results

The accuracy is reported in Table 9 and it shows that Decision Tree outperforms with 79.66% of cases that have been totally correctly labeled. Similarly to the multiclass setting, descriptive features provide a better result than BoW. Decision Tree scores also the best for the F_1 -score (Table 12) and recall (Table 11). However, Ensemble Extra Tree overperforms Decision Tree w.r.t. precision (Table 10). Decision Tree provides the best results for the *strict* metrics (highest accuracy and lowest Hamming loss) but also on more permissive metrics (best F_1 -score and Jaccard index). Therefore, Decision Tree is clearly the top classifier for multilabel which is a bit surprising, since it ranked 8th over the binary datasets and 3rd on the multiclass one.

As expected, the BoW flavor provides the worst possible results. Similarly to the experiments on the multiclass dataset, the textual information is inefficient for identifying the article.

Figure 7 shows the accuracy, recall, and precision depending on the number of labels assigned by Decision Tree on the test dataset. It also indicates the number of cases for each label count. It is striking to observe how the distribution of cases depending on the labels is close to the real distribution shown in Figure 3. Therefore, we can reasonably assume that the model cor-

Table 12 The F_1 -score of each method on the multilabel dataset.

	Multilabel		
	desc	BoW	both
Decision Tree	0.8446	0.7711	0.8639
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.7917	0.7720	0.7923
Extra Tree	0.7066	0.6651	0.6642
Neural Net	0.7938	0.7991	0.8174
Random Forest	0.7733	0.7533	0.7720

Table 13 The Hamming loss of each method on the multilabel dataset.

	Multilabel			
	desc BoW both			
Decision Tree	0.0188	0.0286	0.0169	
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.0195	0.0226	0.0203	
Extra Tree	0.0350	0.0412	0.0412	
Neural Net	0.0209	0.0210	0.0183	
Random Forest	0.0208	0.0239	0.0219	

Table 14 The Jaccard Similarity Score of each method on the multilabel dataset.

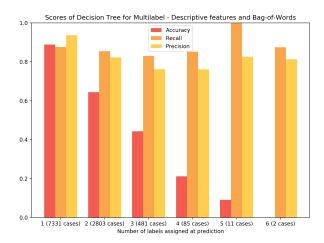
	Multilabel		
	desc	BoW	both
Decision Tree	0.8424	0.7591	0.8672
Ensemble Extra Tree	0.7877	0.7376	0.7652
Extra Tree	0.6911	0.6431	0.6452
Neural Net	0.7673	0.7596	0.7888
Random Forest	0.7700	0.7160	0.7394

rectly identifies the articles of a given case. The subset accuracy for cases with a single label is consistent with the score on the multiclass dataset.

The subset accuracy decreases linearly with the number of labels, which is not surprising, since the metric becomes stricter with the number of labels. However, the recall and precision remain stable, above 80% in average, indicating that not only the algorithm carefully identifies the labels (recall) but also identify a large portion of labels (precision). Thus, from these observations, we can clearly discard the possibility that the algorithm mostly focuses on cases with a single label.

8.3 Discussion

The multilabel experiment is, as far as we know, the first experiment in the legal domain to predict a more structured outcome than a binary outcome. On top of that, it showed that, contrarily to all past studies, textual features are not necessarily holding the most adequate information for prediction. In particular, the multilabel experiment showed that descriptive features only are enough to obtain results that are quantitatively close to the combination of both sources of information. We are confident that this conclusion is valid despite being in opposition with all previous conclusions. Indeed, not only



 ${\bf Fig.~7~~} {\rm Multilabel~scores~depending~on~the~number~of~labels~assigned}.$

the corpus of documents we used is larger but also our models provide better results.

This opens the road to practical applications, while previous studies used only data known a posteriori. For instance, knowing a basic description of a case, a citizen might quickly determine the part of the law that apply to her case, and a reasonable estimation of the outcome. This might help her to find an advisor or representative specialized in this area of the law.

9 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented an open repository, called *ECHR-DB*, of legal cases and judicial decision justifications. The main purposes of constructing the repository are as follows. First, to provide cleaned and transformed content from the repository of the European Court of Human Rights, that is ready to be used by researchers and practitioners. Second, to augment original legal documents with metadata, which will ease the process of analyzing these documents. Third, to provide a benchmark with baseline results for classification models in the legal domain, for other researchers. The repository will be iteratively corrected and updated along with the European Court of Human Rights new judgments.

Currently, ECHR-DB is the largest and most exhaustive repository of legal documents from the European Court of Human Rights. It includes several types of data that can be easily used to reproduce various experiments, which have been done so far by other researchers. We argue that providing the final data is not enough to ensure quality and trust. In addition, there are always some alternative choices in the representation, such as the number of tokens, the value of n for the n-grams calculation, or the weighting schema in the TF-IDF transformation. As a remedy, we provide the whole pipeline of dataset

construction from scratch. The pipeline was implemented by means of Python scripts and available on GitHub 8 .

The experiments on ECHR-DB provide a 15pp improvement compared to the previous studies on binary classification. They also allow us to draw the following conclusions.

- 1. The models for binary classification clearly underfit while the data are already exhaustive. Therefore, to provide a larger training set, we need to consider the more complex and realistic multiclass or multilabel problem. Despite this additional complexity, the multiclass and multilabel models provide as good results as the binary counterparts thanks to this larger training set.
- 2. Textual features are good at finding if there is a violation or not for a given article, while the descriptive features alone are good at identifying the article. Descriptive features surprisingly hold reasonable predictive power.
- 3. For the most complex problem that is the multilabel setting, using descriptive features only provides equivalent results as textual features. This is particularly important, since descriptive features are available mostly before a verdict contrarily to the judgment document, by definition available after. This opens the road to more practical applications, especially if the results are reproducible with any type of judgments, beyond the European Court of Human Rights.

The experiments indicated several axes of improvements, e.g., better embedding with state of the art encoders, hyperparameter tuning, multi-stage classifiers, and transfer learning. From the obtained results, it seems clear that predicting if an article has been violated or not can be handled with the current state of the art in artificial intelligence. However, other interesting research questions and problems arise from the proposed repository, e.g. can we provide legal justification in natural language to a prediction?, which will be addressed in the future work.

Last but not least, we encourage all researchers to explore the data, generate new datasets for various problems and submit their contributions to the project.

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⁸ https://github.com/aquemy/ECHR-OD_predictions

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Supplementary Material

https://echr-od.github.io/ECHR-OD_project_supplementary_material

A Additional features of ECHR-DB

In addition to the final database and files of *ECHR-DB*, a portal has been developed with two main features: (1) an online explorer to browse cases and (2) an API to interface the database with external applications.

A.1 The Explorer

The explorer is a web application that allows to sort and search cases in real time and display every information gathered about a specific case, including the members of the decision body, the timeline, associated documents and detailed conclusion. Additionally, the judgment document is displayed as a tree and the cross-citations are extracted from each document. Figures 8 and 9 show the interface displaying the list of cases and a particular case, respectively.

Note that the explorer always uses the SQL database available, such that the explorer is always up to date with the latest version of the database.

A.2 REST API

The standardized REST API provides a convenient programmatic way to retrieve data from ECHR-DB. The API allows to download specific documents, access cases, parties, representatives, citations, and conclusions. The documentation is available at https://echr-opendata.eu/api/v1/docs and it allows to try any request. Figure 10 shows the documentation interface and most of the available endpoints.

Two examples of manual API calls are provided below. The first one returns the version of ECHR-DB used by the API, and the second returns the list of documents available for a specific case and how to download them.

```
curl -X GET "https://echr-opendata.eu/api/v1/version" -H "accept: application/json"
"2.0.0"
```

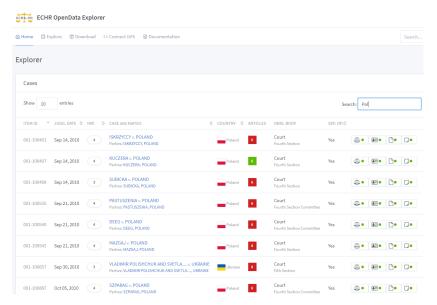
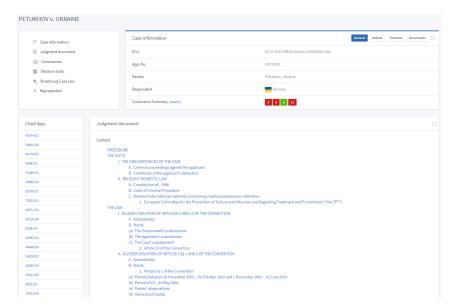


Fig. 8 Listing of cases with real time sorting and search. Each row provides the judgment date, the parties, the country(ies), the main conclusion, and the information whether the raw judgment file and processed documents are available.



 ${\bf Fig.~9}$ Partial display of a case. In particular, the cited applications are extracted. The table of content shows the tree nature of a judgment document.

```
curl -X GET "https://echr-opendata.eu/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs" -H "accept: application/json"
{
    "judgment": {
        "available": true,
        "uri": "/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs/judgment"
},
    "bow": {
        "available": true,
        "uri": "/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs/bow"
},
    "tfidf": {
        "available": true,
        "uri": "/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs/tfidf"
},
    "parsed_judgment": {
        "available": true,
        "uri": "/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs/parsed_judgment"
}
```

Therefore, to download the Bag-of-Words representation of case 001-100018, it is enough to call:

curl -X GET "https://echr-opendata.eu/api/v1/cases/001-100018/docs/bow"

European Court of Human Rights OpenData API 000

/api/v1/conclusions Get Conclusions

 ${\bf Fig.~10~}$ Documentation of the REST API. Each endpoint can be tested online.