Building a Long Text Privacy Policy Corpus with Multi-Class Labels

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Abstract

This work introduces a new hand-coded dataset for the interpretation of privacy policies. The dataset captures the contents of 162 privacy policies, including documents they incorporate by reference, on 64 dimensions that map onto commonly found terms and applicable legal rules. The coding approach is designed to capture complexities inherent to the task of legal interpretation that are not present in current privacy policy datasets. These include addressing textual ambiguity, indeterminate meaning, interdependent clauses, contractual silence, and the effect of legal defaults.

1 Introduction

Privacy policies are important legal documents; they govern how firms collect, use, share, and secure personal information. They have become a prime target for automated interpretation. Despite their importance, they are rarely read. Privacy policies are long, complex, and require legal expertise to understand. At the same time, many privacy policies are publicly available and map to a consistent set of well-defined legal questions. This presents an opportunity to represent policy content in a reasonably consistent and somewhat objective manner against which automated interpreters can be tuned and measured.

Recent advancements in machine learning, especially the introduction of the large language model (LLM), increased interest in automating long-text interpretation. Practical legal use of NLP has expanded from term- and clause-level classification to nuanced interpretation of long bodies of legal text. Legal interpretation presents an especially challenging interpretative task. Privacy policies are a stereotypical legal document, as they are drafted by experts and include domain-specific vocabulary and interpretation [\(Zheng et al.,](#page-9-0) [2021;](#page-9-0) [Mellinkoff,](#page-8-0)

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[2004;](#page-8-0) [Mertz,](#page-8-1) [2007\)](#page-8-1); they can contain inconsistencies and be susceptible to multiple valid interpretations [\(Reidenberg et al.,](#page-8-2) [2016\)](#page-8-2); and they often contain interdependent clauses—sometime spread across multiple documents—whose meaning is best understood when read wholesale. Like other legal texts, privacy policies must be interpreted in the context of applicable legal rules, which can define terms and provide guidance on issues not explicitly addressed in the text.

Current privacy policy datasets either offer highgranularity labels for short samples of policy text, or low-granularity classification of longer text. These approaches may not capture many domainspecific aspects of legal interpretation that are relevant to the expanding range of automated legal tasks. For example, neither approach accounts for how documents that are "incorporated by reference" may affect the way a policy restricts (or doesn't restrict) the ways in which a company can use user data. As legal interpretation increasingly becomes the target of automation, new datasets are needed. This paper aims to help address that need.

We provide a legal dataset of labeled online privacy policies coded by legally-trained experts. It contains 162 privacy policies along with the documents they incorporate by reference, including Terms of Use, Cookie Policies, California Consumers Privacy Act (CCPA) disclosures, and documents pertaining to compliance with the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). Our coding accounts for the ways in which applicable legal rules and referenced documents can affect the meaning of terms. It also tracks relevant legal terms and reflects aspects of the legal interpretation task, including accounting for ambiguity and reasonable disagreements, and interpreting silence.

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2 Related Work

Prior work building datasets for privacy policies mostly focuses on expert annotation or classification of short text. [\(Lippi et al.,](#page-8-3) [2019;](#page-8-3) [Bui et al.,](#page-8-4) [2021;](#page-8-4) [Ahmad et al.,](#page-7-0) [2021\)](#page-7-0). Some investigation has also looked into crowd-sourcing annotation [\(Wilson et al.,](#page-9-1) [2018\)](#page-9-1). One privacy-policy-adjacent dataset involving classification of longer legal text labels the content of cookie banner disclosures with the stated purposes for data collection [\(Santos et al.,](#page-8-5) [2021\)](#page-8-5). In addition to annotated datasets, there are large-scale compilations of privacy policies scraped from the Internet and Internet Archive[\(Amos et al.,](#page-7-1) [2021;](#page-7-1) [Srinath et al.,](#page-8-6) [2021\)](#page-8-6).

Perhaps the most widely-used privacy policy dataset is the OPP-115 dataeset introduced by Wilson et. al. in 2016. OPP contains 115 privacy policies that were annotated paragraph-by-paragraph to identify phrases related to 36 data practices grouped into 10 categories. The OPP dataset was used to train prominent tools used to pick out specific clauses from privacy policies [\(Harkous](#page-8-7) [et al.,](#page-8-7) [2018;](#page-8-7) [Mousavi Nejad et al.,](#page-8-8) [2020\)](#page-8-8). It has also been used to generate related datasets, either by transforming its annotations for use in a new task like question-answering or GDPR compliance [\(Poplavska et al.,](#page-8-9) [2020;](#page-8-9) [Ahmad et al.,](#page-7-2) [2020\)](#page-7-2), or as an input into composite legal-task benchmarks like LEGALBENCH and PRIVACYGLUE [\(Guha](#page-8-10) [et al.,](#page-8-10) [2023;](#page-8-10) [Chalkidis et al.,](#page-8-11) [2022\)](#page-8-11). The OPP taxonomy scheme has also been used to organize other privacy-related datasets [\(Ravichander et al.,](#page-8-12) [2019\)](#page-8-12). Another notable privacy policy dataset—the *unfair-TOS* dataset introduced by Lippi et. al.—annotates "potentially unfair" clauses in privacy practices and is also incorporated into some composite benchmarks, including the privacy-policy-specific PRI-VACYGLUE benchmark [\(Shankar et al.,](#page-8-13) [2023\)](#page-8-13).

Benchmarking legal AIs goes beyond the traditional metrics-and-datasets approach. Alternative evaluation approaches include having NLP systems take the bar exam [\(Bommarito II and Katz,](#page-8-14) [2022;](#page-8-14) [Katz et al.,](#page-8-15) [2024\)](#page-8-15) (though some have questioned the efficacy of that evaluation approach [\(Martínez,](#page-8-16) [2024\)](#page-8-16)), grading LLM-generated law school exam answers [\(Choi et al.,](#page-8-17) [2021\)](#page-8-17), and measuring how law student performance is affected by LLM use [\(Choi and Schwarcz,](#page-8-18) [2023\)](#page-8-18).

3 Dataset Preparation

3.1 Document Selection

Privacy policies are the legal documents that govern the relationship between data collectors (usually firms) and data subjects (usually consumers) regarding the collection, use, sharing, and security of their personally identifiable information. They create rights and obligations and comply with legal requirements, such as the Children Online Privacy Protection Act (COPPA). Most privacy policies are posted online on companies' websites. They "incorporate by reference" other documents with additional terms that also govern the user/firm relationship, such as Terms of Use, Cookie Policies, CCPA, GDPR disclosures. For example, all terms related to tracking may only appear in a linked Cookie Policy document.

Taken together, this constellation of documents comprises the scope of terms on personal information privacy. Our approach focuses on collecting the set of all interrelated documents. For each website in our sample, we collect the privacy policy, Terms of Use (if available), documents incorporated by reference (either directly or indirectly), and documents referred to in connection to an "I agree" button in an account-creation flow (if applicable).

Privacy policies vary significantly between services. Prior research reported statistically significant differences in the content across markets and website popularity [\(Marotta-Wurgler,](#page-8-19) [2016b\)](#page-8-19). Our dataset includes samples distributed roughly logarithmically by traffic rank and includes examples from each tier-1 industry category in the IAB Content Taxonomy 2.0 [\(IAB Tech Lab,](#page-8-20) [2024\)](#page-8-20). We compiled our sample by selecting from websites bucketed by order-of-magnitude rank. If a bucket contained websites from prior privacy policy datasets [\(Marotta-Wurgler,](#page-8-19) [2016b;](#page-8-19) [Wilson et al.,](#page-9-2) [2016\)](#page-9-2), we selected randomly from those previously encoded websites. We selected randomly from the relevant rank bucket in the few cases where no previously encoded side was available. Our initial selection process contained representatives from all industry categories; we did not re-sample to adjust coverage. Figure [1](#page-2-0) shows the distribution of policies collected.

3.2 Coding Process

Each policy was coded independently by two law students who had completed relevant coursework

Figure 1: The documents in the dataset. The X axis shows the website's Tranco traffic rank. The Y axis reflects the number of documents collected for that site. Color shows the website's industry category. Radius corresponds to total word count. An 18-document outlier is omitted from this chart.

on contracts and received training regarding legal interpretation of privacy policies. We presented each coder with all relevant legal documents corresponding to a firms' website and multiple-choice questions about those documents. For each question, coders were asked to highlight any and all text (including text in documents incorporated by reference) they found relevant to answering the question. They answered each question by selecting from a set of choices describing possible policy content, including, when applicable, the possibility that the policy was silent on a question. They also recorded their confidence in their answer on a Likert scale.

We reviewed the entries of each coder, resolving disagreements and coding errors where appropriate, as described in detail in the next subsection. For every question where we resolved disagreements or corrected errors, we also highlighted text we found relevant, recorded our answer, and rated our confidence. Our responses are included in the complete dataset. They are not used in this paper's summary statistics or benchmarks.

Coding, review, and project management were all performed using a suite of custom web tools we developed, as shown in figure [2.](#page-3-0) We provide a hosted version of the tools on our website. The source code is available on our GitHub repository and a hosted version of the tool is available at documentcoding.com.

3.3 Coding Schema

We generated our coding schema following the procedure developed by Marotta-Wurgler [\(Marotta-](#page-8-21) [Wurgler,](#page-8-21) [2016a\)](#page-8-21). The approach has been used in legal empirical scholarship to make quantitative comparisons of privacy policy content and compliance between industries and over time [\(Marotta-Wurgler,](#page-8-19) [2016b,](#page-8-19)[c;](#page-8-22) [Davis and Marotta-Wurgler,](#page-8-23) [2019\)](#page-8-23). The schema represents a policy content as a set of labels derived from significant and influential privacy guidelines and applicable rules that have shaped the content and structure of privacy policies. These are: the 1973 HEW Fair Information Practice Principles, the 2012 Federal Trade Commission's Information Privacy Guidelines, the 2012 White House Privacy Bill of Rights, the GDPR of 2018, and the CCPA of 2020, and contract law—the background rules courts have employed to enforce privacy policy. The resulting coding provides a granular representation of privacy policy content mentioned in relevant guidelines and laws. For example, there are three labels that encode the rights users and firms have with respect to changes to the policy (can the firm make changes, does a user have to assent to that change before it takes effect, and are changes retroactive). Another label marks whether the set of documents includes a class action waiver. The goal of a granular approach was to minimize ambiguity in representation of policy content and enhance consistency among coders. We translate these variables into 64 multi-choice questions, which we group into 11 categories:

- 1. *CCPA* (10 labels): Tracks requirements unique to the California Consumer Protection Act, such as whether the subject can request that their personal information not be sold.
- 2. *GDPR* (5 labels): Tracks requirements unique to the GDPR, such as whether the entity has designated a Data Privacy Officer.
- 3. *Data Practices (DP)* (1 label): whether the firm has procedures to safely dispose of personal information.
- 4. *Enforcement (E)* (8 labels): Tracks mechanisms of legal reddress.
- 5. *Notice (N)* (13 labels): Tracks notices pertaining to data collection and mandatory disclosures with state privacy laws.
- 6. *Contract (K)* (1 label): Tracks whether policy incorporates terms by reference.
- 7. *Privacy by Design (PBD)* (2 labels): Tracks general data practices in management and design.
- 8. *Security (SE)* (8 labels): Tracks information security practices.

Figure 2: The highlight tool

- 9. *Sharing (SH)* (7 labels): Tracks sharing with third and other parties.
- 10. *User Control (UC)* (8 labels): Tracks user rights regarding personal information access and control.

For each question we drafted a set of answers designed to minimize ambiguity while providing granular representation of policy content. These include choice sets that are binary (*"Do the Terms of Use or Terms of Service incorporate the Privacy Policy by reference?" [yes/no]*), single-class (*"Does the Privacy Policy offer data requests by consumers explicitly free of charge?" [Not Applicable/Yes/No]*), and multi-class (*"Does the privacy policy provide means by which a user can contact the company with any privacy concerns or complaints? [select all that apply...]"*). Response options also include and distinguish between policies being silent regarding a term or the particular term being not applicable (e.g., a policy that states that no personal information is collected does not need to provide information about how such information is stored).

In contrast to other privacy policy datasets, which make efforts to maximize inter-coder agreement and often discard points of disagreement, we preserve disagreement and low-confidence coding. Because ambiguity is feature of many legal texts, the ground truth is effectively probabilistic, meaning disagreement and low confidence are expected features of a classification task that capture a particular nuance of the task of legal interpretation. To ensure that disagreements and reported low confidence correspond to ambiguity in the policy rather than unclear coding instructions, we engaged in an iterative process to reduce exogenous sources of ambiguity from our coding.

Once a week during the 10-week iterative revision period, we met with coders and discussed each of their coding choices. The recorded highlights for each question helped coders recall and explain their decision-making. We qualitatively assessed the source of each instance of inter-coder disagreement or or low reported confidence, choosing between five possible causes:

- 1. *Questions*: coders interpret the question in conflicting ways due to poor or confusing wording
- 2. *Choices*: the answer choice sets did not fully map onto the text and law
- 3. *Defaults*: the answer choice set does not properly account for the existence of default rules that alter the meaning of contractual silence
- 4. *Coder Error*: a coder made a mistake.
- 5. *Policy Text*: the text of the policy is ambiguous or susceptible to reasonable disagreements in interpretation

We addressed disagreements or confusion resulting from Categories 1, 2, and 3 by either adding clarifying details to the language of questions and answer choice sets, or adjusting the set of choices to better reflect the range of observed practices.

Figure 3: Agreement rate among coders, by average self-reported confidence on a Likert scale.

When we detected coder error we corrected it and send updated training guidance to other coders. We made no changes following disagreements and low confidence caused by unclear policy text. After any change to a question we removed any coding recorded using an outdated version of that question from the dataset. Coders relabeled those questions at the end of the iterative adjustment period.

Not every policy implicates the same questions or choices; some issues arose later in our revision window. After five rounds of iteration and revision, we stopped observing instances of the first three categories. The final set of coding instructions, including the history of changes corresponding to each variable, is included as an online appendix.

As an initial sanity check on our data, we compare confidence and inter-coder agreement rates, as shown in figure [3.](#page-4-0) We observe that inter-coder agreement has a roughly linear relationship with self-reported confidence. This suggests that both disagreement and confidence correspond with situations where coders see multiple potentially appropriate answers. Our efforts to remove other sources of confusion and our use of expert coders mean that this ambiguity should largely come from the text of the policy.

3.4 Insights from Iterative Schema Refinement

To test whether our coding scheme and iterative refinements actually reduce measurement errors by reducing exogenous sources of ambiguity, we included the OPP annotation scheme for the first five weeks of our iterative process. OPP is a nat-

Figure 4: Portion of questions changed during iterative refinement, by coding scheme. OPP was removed from the scheme after week 5.

ural baseline to measure against: it is cited as the current "gold standard" privacy policy annotation scheme [\(Mousavi Nejad et al.,](#page-8-8) [2020\)](#page-8-8), and has been used to train numerous automated privacy policy interpreters and included in the LEGALBENCH and PRIVACYGLUE composite legal reasoning benchmarks. While the OPP taxonomy was originally designed to annotate short phrases by their associated data practices, the taxonomy and dataset has been adapted for several other contexts and tasks.

While initial inter-coder agreement rates were similar between our questions and the OPP schema, we found that clarity issues in the OPP scheme held steady week-over-week while our scheme's error rate went down. This was true for both the classifications selected by coders, and the text coders marked as relevant to each question. Figure [4](#page-4-1) shows the portion of questions changed after each week in our scheme and OPP. After four rounds of iterative adjustment, we removed the OPP annotations from our coding scheme because we felt each change to the OPP annotations made meaningful comparisons between our coding and the original OPP-115 dataset more difficult.

These results demonstrate how ambiguity and noise can come from the coding scheme or the way in which it is presented. While these results caution against uncritical reuse of the OPP taxonomy in new contexts, they do not apply directly to the OPP dataset. OPP was designed to pick out phrases disclosing data practices from short text samples; our scheme is designed to record the ways in which the full text of a privacy policy implicates the rights and responsibilities of firms and users.

We think that these differences in coder convergence between our scheme and OPP help justify our label selection method and iterative approach. There are two potential exogeneities worth addressing here. First, if training and regular meetings were only reason for convergence then we would expect all questions to converge. The OPP questions questions did not, which might suggest that our labels correspond more closely to the terms contained in a privacy policy. Second, if the difference between the two schemes were the result of our initial drafting choices, we would expect to see lower rates of confusion at the outset. Instead, we see similar rates of initial confusion that improve once we detect and correct our drafting issues, further supporting the notion that our labels are better-aligned with policy content.

4 Dataset Contents

The dataset comprises annotations for 162 documents, 88 of which were coded by at least two coders and 74 of which were coded by a single coder. For each document and question, the dataset contains classifications selected by each coder, along with a list of sentences the coder marked as relevant to answering the question and their selfreported confidence ranked on a Likert scale. The dataset includes 64 variables motivated by 11 legal categories.

For a subset of documents and questions, the dataset also includes the amount of time each coder spent answering the question. Coders were all upper-level law students who had completed coursework covering the relevant topics in contract law. Table [1](#page-5-0) provides additional descriptive statistics about the dataset.

Except for the CCPA category, correlation between question responses is low, as shown in Figure [5.](#page-5-1) Since answers to one question are not highly predictive of answers to another, we feel that this set of questions provides reasonable coverage over distinct legal interpretation tasks.

While achieving high intercoder agreement was explicitly not our goal, the dataset exhibits a moderate to high level of intercoder agreement, with Krippendorff's Alpha ranging from 0.40 to 0.96, averaging at 0.55. Absolute agreement rates across

Questions	64		
Categories	11		
Total Coders	18		
Coders per Policy	$2+$		
Policies	88	74	
Paragraphs	29,359	27,372	
Words	937,943	977,364	
Highlight Annotations	14,811	7,218	
Policy Classifications	11,718	4,733	
Confidence Scores	9,608	4,464	

Table 1: Summary statistics on the corpus at time of submission to GenLaw.

Figure 5: Correlation between question codings.

the dataset are 79%, though most disagreement is concentrated in 7 questions. This may suggest that there are a few areas where firms are more likely to use opaque language when describing their terms.

5 Results

Using our dataset, we evaluate models on their ability to perform two tasks. The first task ("holistic classification") is a multi-classification task that uses the entire policy as input: given our questions and a policy from our dataset, select the most likely answers for each question. The second task ("highlight prediction") is an annotation task that targets individual paragraphs: given a question from our dataset and a paragraph from one of the policies in our sample, predict whether a coder marked that paragraph as relevant to answering the question.

	Average BCE Loss			
Category	Claude 3	GPT-4	random	
			guesses	
overall	0.292	0.212	0.467	
CCPA	0.301	0.202	0.475	
COVID	0.007	0.007	0.476	
DP	0.098	0.333	0.503	
E	0.180	0.171	0.474	
GDPR	0.253	0.168	0.441	
K	0.112	0.086	0.413	
N	0.360	0.202	0.456	
PRD	0.254	0.302	0.473	
SЕ	0.254	0.245	0.488	
SН	0.333	0.296	0.463	
UС	0.406	0.204	0.467	

Table 2: Average cross-entropy on holistic classification task, by category. At time of writing, few publicly available models have a large enough context window (40k tokens) to perform the task.

We evaluate the *holistic classification* task using batched cross-entropy loss. Each of the k policies in the dataset is associated with n sets of labels, ${L_1, L_2, ..., L_n}$, each corresponding to a question in our coding scheme. For each label L_i , has set of options M_i . Given the ambiguity present in some privacy policies, the ground-truth value of L_i^k may not be a single value, but rather a probability distribution over M_i . Coder responses are therefore definitionally noisy. We compute the goal probability distribution y_i^k as $([c_{i1}^k, ..., c_{im}^k])$ normalized to sum to 1, where c_{ij}^k represents the number of coders who selected option j for question i on document k . We apply label smoothing to account for noise, as described in [\(Müller et al.,](#page-8-24) [2020\)](#page-8-24), setting α to .1. We use LLMs to generate a probability distributions p_i^k over the set of options for each label. When logprobs are available, we generate the distribution by crawling the response tree of each branch until an answer is selected or the net probability is negligible. We evaluate model responses by computing binary cross-entropy loss between model response and the reference distribution, $\frac{1}{m_i} \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} (y_{ij}^k \log(p_{ij}^k) + (1-y_{ij}^k) \log(1-p_{ij}^k)).$ We record the average loss by question, category, and across the entire dataset.

Because some policies contain more than 32 thousand tokens, we can only test LLMs with sufficiently large context windows without resorting to context-expanding techniques or alternative models, which are out of scope for this project. The

model		acc. recall	
LEGAL-BERT	87.16 14.04		1.58
BERT-BASE	63.69 22.05		1.73

Table 3: Average zero-shot performance on highlighting task, optimizing for f_1 . Because highlighting is noisy and heavily skewed, we suspect a certain number of false positives are unavoidable.

performance of the major commercial LLMs with sufficiently large context windows appears in table [2.](#page-6-0) For some of the questions in our dataset, the models performed worse than random guessing, a result we found surprising. The errors appear to be caused by the models incorrectly selecting "not applicable" and "does not disclose" options far too often.

We evaluate *highlight predictions*, a binary classification task, by concatenating individual paragraphs with question text and option descriptions. $y_{ij} = 1$ if at least one coder flagged paragraph j as relevant when answering question i , and 0 otherwise. We tested zero-shot labeling, prompting the model to answer whether the paragraph was relevant and computing the relative likelihood of an affirmative or negative response using the treecrawling approach described above. The zero-shot accuracy, precision, and f_1 scores of several models are shown in table [3.](#page-6-1)

We note that performance varies significantly across categories and questions, including questions within the same category. While differences in performance between models may be an artifact of our prompt design, we found the variance between similar questions about similar topics striking. At least for the systems we tested, an LLM's ability to answer one legal question appears to not be predictive of that LLM's ability to answer other questions, even within extremely narrow domains like "properties of sharing practices described within a privacy policy."

6 Future Directions

This project is designed to contribute to the growing body of legal task corpora. We plan to add it to open-source legal benchmarks, such as the LEGALBENCH consolidated corpus.

One of the challenges of analyzing legal documents is how work-intensive it is, how ephemeral some documents are, and how difficult it can be to comparing documents across time, especially if they incorporate changing (external) legal contexts by reference. By releasing these tools and putting greater emphasis on reproducability, we plan to extend this dataset to observe how privacy policies change over time.

Our tools for classifying legal documents were intentionally designed to apply to other legal tasks, or to support future extensions of the question set and dataset. We hope to partner with other legal experts to expand this dataset to cover a broader range of legal questions and documents.

Finally, we have begun investigating the underlying cause of uneven rates of disagreement by question among coders (and, to a lesser extent, similarly uneven response rates between state-of-the-art LLMs). We would like to determine whether firms are intentionally ambiguous to obscure practices or add flexibility, whether a mismatch between technology and law makes certain disclosure difficult or nonsensical, or whether some other factor is at play.

7 Conclusion

We have described our motivation, creation method, and initial analysis of a hand-coded dataset for the interpretation of privacy policies. This new dataset the captures granular multi-class data about 162 privacy policies and their associated documents along 64 dimensions provides a new resource for the development and benchmarking of NLP systems that interpret long legal text. Our coding approach is designed to capture complexities inherent to the task of legal interpretation that are not present in current privacy policy datasets, such as addressing textual ambiguity, indeterminate meaning, interdependent clauses, contractual silence, and the effect of legal defaults. Along with our classification data, we include relevant-text annotations and confidence scores from each labeller. We supplement this dataset with our own coding of the questions where labellers disagree or report low confidence, which may provide additional insight into the textual ambiguities in the underlying policies.

We include the tools we used to produce this dataset, including a hosted online tool that (nontechnical) domain experts can use to produce similar classification datasets in other areas of expertise.

Limitations (not part of page limit)

All but one of our population of coders learned consumer contracts (the relevant class for privacy policy interpretation) at the same law school from the same two law professors. They may have adopted some of those professors biases, or approach contract interpretation in similar ways. That overlap may have obscured lingering ambiguities in our coding scheme. It may also have biased them towards understanding a coding scheme designed by one of those professors. We think the latter possibility is fairly remote–privacy policies are a sufficiently esoteric corner of contract law; it receives very little dedicated class time.

As noted above, the "ground truth" meaning of a contract can be probabilistic. Our coders effectively took a noisy sample of each contract with $n = 2$ or $n = 1$. (At time of GenLaw submission, 74 contracts are still $n = 1$, but we RAs ready to fill in those blanks over the summer). We think this is reasonable for two reasons. First, the two-coder approach matches the current state of the art for privacy policy datasets. Second, confidence seems to be a decent predictor of disagreement, which opens mitigation options. We didn't, but potentially could, explore mitigation options.

The noisiness of our measurements also means that our benchmarks in part 5 necessarily contain a (somewhat arbitrary) smoothing factor. We suspect that specific tasks might be better measured using other metrics, and that the smoothing factor could be tuned to reflect confidence.

Likert scores are notoriously messy, meaning our confidence measurements may not contain as much information as we'd ideally like to capture.

Our reported benchmark performance rely on the quality of our prompt design. We have more experience designing prompts for LEGALBERT and GPT-4; our measurement of Claude 3 and other BERT models may be influenced by a prompt that is better suited for GPT. (our prompts are included in our appendices and github repo for reference).

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Appendices

A Question List

B Average BCE for Holistic Reading Task

C Performance on Highlighting Task

C.1 BERT

C.2 LEGAL-BERT

