

# SGMEA: Structure-Guided Multimodal Entity Alignment

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## Abstract

Multimodal Entity Alignment (MMEA) aims to identify equivalent entities across different multimodal knowledge graphs (MMKGs) by integrating structural information, entity attributes, and visual data, thereby promoting knowledge sharing and deep multimodal data integration. However, existing methods often overlook the deeper connections between multimodal data. They primarily focus on the interactions between neighboring entities in the structural modality while neglecting the interactions between entities in the visual and attribute modalities. To address this, we propose a structure-guided multimodal entity alignment method (SGMEA), which prioritizes structural information from knowledge graphs to enhance the visual and attribute modalities. By fusing multimodal representations, SGMEA improves the accuracy of entity alignment. Experimental results demonstrate that SGMEA achieves state-of-the-art performance across multiple datasets, validating its effectiveness and superiority in practical applications.<sup>1</sup>

## 1 Introduction

Knowledge Graphs (KGs) organize and represent real-world knowledge through a graph structure, and they have become powerful tools in fields such as question answering (Chen et al., 2021, 2022b; Lan et al., 2021) entity linking (Radhakrishnan et al., 2018), text generation (Koncel-Kedziorski et al., 2019) and information retrieval (Han et al., 2018). In recent years, as application scenarios have become increasingly complex, Multimodal Knowledge Graphs (MMKGs) have emerged (Chen et al., 2020a). MMKGs integrate multimodal data, such as visual information, into traditional KGs (Lehmann et al., 2015; Vrandečić and Krötzsch, 2014; Liu et al., 2019;

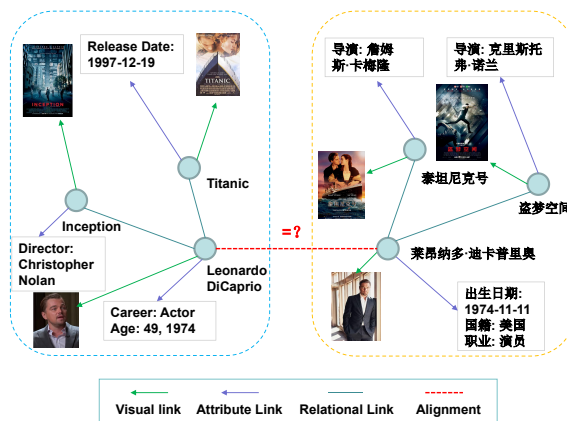


Figure 1: An example of multimodal entity alignment.

Chen et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2021), thereby providing richer knowledge representations. In the process of MMKG integration, Multimodal Entity Alignment (MMEA) is a core task. As illustrated in Figure 1, MMEA aims to identify equivalent entities across different MMKGs by comprehensively considering the structural information of the graphs, entity attributes, and visual information. This process not only facilitates knowledge sharing between different MMKGs but also lays a solid foundation for the deep integration of multimodal data. However, existing methods typically leverage multimodal knowledge by simply combining unimodal features heuristically. These approaches overlook the deeper connections between multimodal data, resulting in the underutilization of potential cues within cross-modal information (Chen et al., 2022a). They focus only on the interaction between adjacent entities in the structural modality, while neglecting the interactions of entities in other modalities, such as visual and attribute modalities. MSNEA (Chen et al., 2022a) attempts to enhance this interaction through image-guided methods, yielding promising results. However, structural modality occupies a pivotal role among all modalities (Liu et al., 2021; Lin et al.,

<sup>1</sup>Code: <https://github.com/gmx1625/SGMEA>

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2022). Consequently, structural modality should receive more attention and utilization during the multimodal alignment process. We speculate that a deeper exploration of intra-modality neighbor interactions will further enhance the accuracy and effectiveness of multimodal entity alignment.

To this end, we propose a structure-guided multimodal entity alignment method. This method prioritizes leveraging structural information from knowledge graphs to enhance both visual and attribute modalities, and by integrating multimodal representations, it more effectively identifies equivalent entities across different knowledge graphs. By emphasizing the core role of the structural modality, our method not only significantly improves alignment accuracy but also deeply explores potential connections between multimodal data, achieving more precise and comprehensive entity alignment. The experimental results clearly demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach.

In this paper, our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- We innovatively propose a method called SG-MEA, which prioritizes the use of structural information to enhance the visual and attribute modalities in knowledge graphs, by integrating multimodal representations to achieve more precise entity alignment.
- We particularly emphasize the importance of the structural modality in multimodal alignment and explore intra-modality interactions, thereby enhancing the accuracy and effectiveness of multimodal entity alignment.
- Our method achieves SOTA performance on three most widely used datasets, FB15K-DB15K, FB15K-YAGO15K and DBP15K datasets, validating its effectiveness and superiority in practical applications.

## 2 Related Work

### 2.1 Entity Alignment

Entity Alignment (EA) aims to identify equivalent entities across different Knowledge Graphs (KGs) to facilitate knowledge integration. Early work employed symbolic or schematic methods to address the EA problem (Wijaya et al., 2013; Suchanek et al., 2011). In recent years, embedding-based methods have gained increasing attention. These methods mainly fall into two categories: one category is translation-based methods (Bordes et al.,

2013; Chen et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Trisedya et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019; Xin et al., 2022; Cai et al., 2022), which capture the structural information between entities through the translational properties of relations. They optimize the objective function to ensure that the distance between known aligned entity pairs in the embedding space is as small as possible, while the distance between non-aligned entity pairs is as large as possible. The other category is Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)-based methods (Wang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Mao et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2020a; Mao et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2020b; Liu et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2022), which learn richer entity representations by aggregating the features of neighboring entities, effectively handling the structural information of knowledge graphs and enhancing alignment performance. Although embedding-based entity alignment methods have made significant progress in capturing the structural information of knowledge graphs and improving alignment performance, these methods mainly focus on single-modal (e.g., structural or textual) information. With the widespread application of multimodal data (e.g., images, audio, video, etc.), how to utilize multimodal information in knowledge graphs to further improve entity alignment performance has become a new research hotspot.

### 2.2 Multimodal Entity Alignment

Multimodal Entity Alignment (MMEA) effectively improves entity alignment performance by introducing multiple modalities of information. In recent years, researchers have proposed various methods to fully utilize these different modalities of information. PoE (Liu et al., 2019) integrates the outputs of single-modal experts by assigning probabilities to triples; MMEA (Chen et al., 2020a) generates multimodal entity representations and performs transfer learning; EVA (Liu et al., 2021) leverages visual knowledge and other auxiliary information to facilitate both supervised and unsupervised learning for entity alignment; MSNEA (Chen et al., 2022a) uses an image-guided multimodal Siamese network; MCLEA (Lin et al., 2022) explores intra- and inter-modal interactions through contrastive learning to bridge the gap between modalities; MEAformer (Chen et al., 2023a) is based on a multimodal Transformer architecture for alignment; and ACK-MMEA (Li et al., 2023) enhances knowledge graph entity alignment performance by con-

sidering multimodal attribute consistency. These methods significantly improve the accuracy and robustness of entity alignment by integrating multimodal information, providing a wealth of directions and ideas for multimodal entity alignment research. We propose a structure-guided multimodal entity alignment method that leverages knowledge graph structures to enhance visual and attribute modalities, improving the performance of knowledge graph entity alignment.

### 3 Method

#### 3.1 Problem Definition

A multimodal knowledge graph can be represented as  $G = (E, R, I, A, V, T_R, T_A)$ , where  $E, R, I, A,$  and  $V$  are finite sets of entities, relations, images, attributes, and values, respectively. A knowledge graph consists of two types of triples: the set of relational triples  $T_R$  contains triples of the form  $(h, r, t)$ , representing that entity  $h$  is related to entity  $t$  through relation  $r$ ; the set of attribute triples  $T_A$  contains triples of the form  $(e, a, v)$ , representing that entity  $e$  has an attribute  $a$  with value  $v$ . The goal of the multimodal entity alignment task is to identify equivalent entity pairs between two multimodal knowledge graphs. Given two multimodal knowledge graphs  $G^s$  and  $G^t$ , represented as  $G^s = (E, R, I, A, V, T_R, T_A)$  and  $G^t = (E', R', I', A', V', T_R', T_A')$ , respectively, the cross-graph alignment seed set is defined as  $H = \{(e, e') \mid e \in E, e' \in E', e \equiv e'\}$  where  $\equiv$  denotes the equivalence between two entities. The objective of multimodal entity alignment is to find corresponding entity pairs that describe the same real-world concept in different multimodal knowledge graphs.

#### 3.2 Framework Description

The overall framework is shown in Figure 2 and consists of three main components: the initial embedding acquisition module, the structure-guided module, and the modality fusion module.

#### 3.3 Initial Embedding Acquisition

##### 3.3.1 Structural Embedding

To model the structural relationships between modalities effectively, we employ a Graph Attention Network (GAT) for structural embedding (Velickovic et al., 2018). GAT adaptively assigns different attention weights to each node’s neighbors, thereby capturing complex interaction

information within the graph structure. For a given node in the graph, its initial feature representation is  $h_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . GAT generates a new representation  $h_i^g$  by aggregating weighted features of the node and its neighbors as follows:

$$h_i^g = \text{GAT}(W_g, M_g; x_i^g), \quad (1)$$

where  $M_g$  denotes the adjacency matrix of the graph, and  $W_g$  is a learnable diagonal matrix (Yang et al., 2015).

##### 3.3.2 Relation, Attribute, and Visual Embedding

In the process of obtaining initial features, we employ a simple feedforward network to map relations, attributes, and visual features into a low-dimensional space. For relation features, we represent them using a bag-of-words model, where the core idea is to convert the relation name into a term frequency vector  $x^r$ . For attribute features, we utilize a pre-trained language model to process the textual information of attributes and attribute values, generating attribute features  $x^a$  through the BERT model. For visual features, we extract image features  $x^v$  using a pre-trained visual model such as ResNet-152 (He et al., 2016). The mapping for each feature type can be expressed as:

$$h_i^m = \mathbf{W}_m \cdot x^m + b_m, \quad m \in \{r, a, v\}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}_m$  is the weight matrix for the linear transformation of relational, attribute, or visual feature, and  $b_m$  is the bias term.

#### 3.4 Structure-guided

##### 3.4.1 Structure-Guided Visual Embedding

To ensure that the image embedding not only captures visual information but also incorporates structural information from adjacent entities, we process the initial image embedding  $h_i^v$  with a one-layer Graph Attention Network (GAT) to generate a structure-guided image embedding  $h_i^{v+g}$ .

Specifically, we input the image embedding  $h_i^v$  and the adjacency matrix  $M_g$  into the GAT, and the updated image embedding representation is given by:

$$h_i^{v+g} = \text{GAT}(\mathbf{W}^v, M_g; h_i^v), \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}^v$  is the weight matrix for the linear transformation. Through multi-layer processing by the GAT, the image embedding not only integrates visual features but also incorporates graph structural

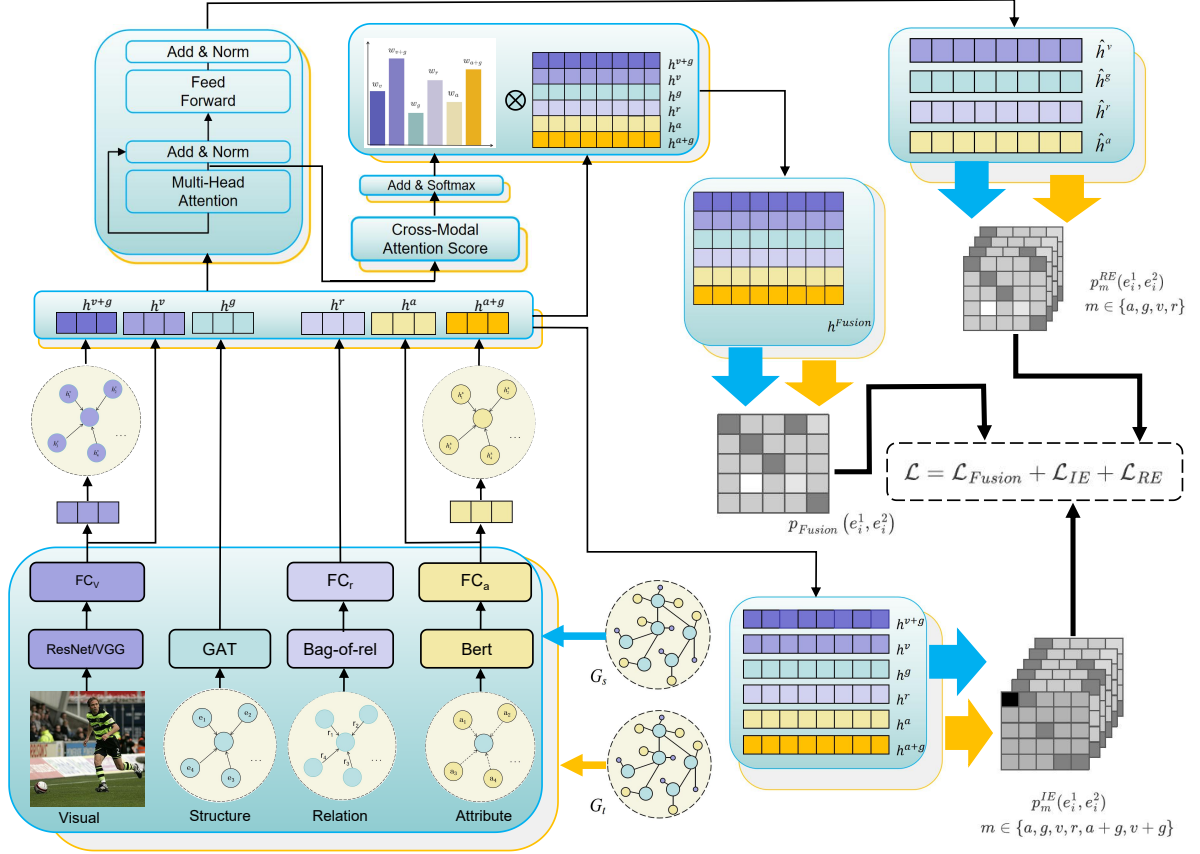


Figure 2: The overall framework of SGMEA

information, resulting in a more enriched embedding representation.

Ultimately, we obtain two levels of visual embeddings: the initial image embedding  $h_i^v$  and the structure-guided image embedding  $h_i^{v+g}$  obtained through further processing by the GAT. These provide a richer representation of the entity by integrating structural information at different levels.

### 3.4.2 Structure-Guided Attribute Embedding

Similar to the structure-guided image embedding, we also apply a Graph Attention Network (GAT) to guide the attribute embedding so that it can better integrate the structural information from neighboring entities. This results in a structure-guided attribute embedding, denoted as  $h_i^{a+g}$ .

### 3.4.3 Rationale for Not Applying Structure Guidance to Relations

We choose not to apply structural guidance to relations because relations inherently exist between two neighboring entities and are already explicitly modeled through their interactions. In the graph structure, relations naturally capture seman-

tic information between entities, making additional GAT guidance unnecessary. Compared to attributes or image embeddings, the representation of relations is sufficiently robust, and further guidance may introduce redundancy or negatively impact the model’s performance.

## 3.5 Modality Fusion

In this module, we follow Chen et al. (2023a) to adapt the vanilla Transformer (Zhou et al., 2021)

### 3.5.1 Modal representation generation and interaction

We first perform a linear transformation on the input representation of each modality  $h_m$ , mapping them into query vectors  $Q_m^{(i)}$ , key vectors  $K_m^{(i)}$ , and value vectors  $V_m^{(i)}$ . The specific calculation formulas are as follows:

$$Q_m^{(i)}, K_m^{(i)}, V_m^{(i)} = h^m \mathbf{W}_q^{(i)}, h^m \mathbf{W}_k^{(i)}, h^m \mathbf{W}_v^{(i)}, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}_q^{(i)}$ ,  $\mathbf{W}_k^{(i)}$ , and  $\mathbf{W}_v^{(i)}$  are linear transformation matrices, and  $m \in \{a, g, r, v, a+g, v+g\}$ .

The interaction between modality  $m$  and modality  $j$  is computed using the scaled dot-product at-

tention mechanism, as defined by the following formula:

$$\beta_{mj} = \text{Softmax} \left( \frac{Q_m^\top K_j}{\sqrt{d_h}} \right), \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Attention}(Q_m, K_j, V_j) = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{M}} \beta_{mj} V_j, \quad (6)$$

where  $d_h$  is the hidden layer dimension, used to scale the dot product to keep it within a reasonable range.

### 3.5.2 Multi-head cross-attention and processing

To further enhance the model's ability to capture cross-modal interactions, we employ a Multi-Head Cross Attention (MHCA) mechanism. Multiple attention heads are calculated in parallel, and the formula for each head  $i$  is:

$$\text{head}_i = \text{Attention}(Q_m^{(i)}, K_j^{(i)}, V_j^{(i)}), \quad (7)$$

The outputs of all attention heads are then concatenated and mapped to the final output using a linear transformation matrix  $\mathbf{W}_o$ , as shown below:

$$\text{MHCA}(h_m) = \mathbf{W}_o \left( \bigoplus_{i=1}^H \text{head}_i^m \right), \quad (8)$$

$H$  denotes the number of attention heads, and  $\bigoplus$  represents the concatenation operation.

To further refine the modality representations, the output of MHCA is combined with the original input  $h_m$  through a residual connection and then processed with Layer Normalization, which is given by:

$$\hat{h}_m = \text{LayerNorm}(\text{MHCA}(h_m) + h_m), \quad (9)$$

After the multi-head cross-attention mechanism, a Feed-Forward Neural Network (FFN) further processes the modality representations. The FFN consists of two linear layers with ReLU activation to introduce non-linearity, defined as:

$$\text{FFN}(\hat{h}_m) = \text{ReLU}(\hat{h}_m \mathbf{W}_1 + b_1) \mathbf{W}_2 + b_2, \quad (10)$$

where  $\mathbf{W}_1$  and  $\mathbf{W}_2$  are linear transformation matrices, and  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are bias terms. The output of the FFN is then combined with the input through a residual connection and processed with Layer Normalization:

$$\hat{h}_m = \text{LayerNorm}(\text{FFN}(\hat{h}_m) + \hat{h}_m), \quad (11)$$

### 3.5.3 Fusion representation generation

To generate the fused modality representation  $h_{\text{Fusion}}$ , we assign dynamic fusion weights  $w_m$  for each modality. The weights are dynamically calculated based on the interaction strength between modalities, as defined by:

$$w_m = \frac{\exp \left( \sum_{j \in M} \sum_{i=0}^{N_h} \beta_{mj}^{(i)} / \sqrt{|M| \times N_h} \right)}{\sum_{k \in M} \exp \left( \sum_{j \in M} \sum_{i=0}^{N_h} \beta_{kj}^{(i)} / \sqrt{|M| \times N_h} \right)}, \quad (12)$$

where  $M$  is the set of modalities,  $N_h$  is the number of attention heads, and  $\beta_{mj}^{(i)}$  represents the interaction weight between modality  $m$  and  $j$  in the  $i$ -th attention head.

Finally, the fused representation is obtained by performing a weighted concatenation of each modality's unimodal representation  $h_m$  with its corresponding weight  $w_m$ , as shown below:

$$h_{\text{Fusion}} = \bigoplus_{m \in \{a, g, r, v, a+g, v+g\}} w_m \cdot h_m, \quad (13)$$

### 3.6 Optimization Objective

We employ contrastive learning to construct a loss function that ensures the representations of the same entity under different modalities are as close as possible in the vector space while enlarging the distance between different entities. We calculate the matching probability of entity pairs and design the loss function based on this probability.

Given an entity pair  $(e_i^1, e_i^2)$ , where  $e_i^1$  and  $e_i^2$  represent the entity  $e_i$  under two different KG, we compute the matching probability of entity pair  $(e_i^1, e_i^2)$  as follows:

$$p_m(e_i^1, e_i^2) = \frac{\gamma_m(e_i^1, e_i^2)}{\gamma_m(e_i^1, e_i^2) + \sum_{e_j \in N_i^{\text{neg}}} \gamma_m(e_i^1, e_j^2)}, \quad (14)$$

where  $\gamma_m(e_i^1, e_i^2) = \exp \left( h_i^{mT} h_j^m / \tau \right)$  denotes the similarity measure between entities  $e_i^1$  and  $e_i^2$ .  $N_i^{\text{neg}}$  represents the union of two negative sample sets (Sun et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2020b):  $N_i^{\text{neg}1}$ , which is the negative sample set from the source knowledge graph, containing all entities  $e_j^1$  except for entity  $e_i^1$ ; Similarly,  $N_i^{\text{neg}2}$  is the negative sample set from the target knowledge graph. This formulation allows us to measure the relative importance of entity pairs between positive and negative samples, thereby adaptively adjusting the model's focus on positive and negative samples.

To ensure matching consistency, i.e., the symmetry between  $p_m(e_i^1, e_i^2)$  and  $p_m(e_i^2, e_i^1)$ , we take

the average of the matching probabilities in both directions and using a logarithmic loss function. The specific loss function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_m = -\log\left(\frac{p_m(e_i^1, e_i^2) + p_m(e_i^2, e_i^1)}{2}\right), \quad (15)$$

The goal of this loss function is to maximize the matching probability of positive sample pairs.

We need to consider not only the alignment loss of single modalities before cross-modal fusion but also the alignment loss of single modalities after cross-modal fusion, as well as the overall joint alignment loss. To this end, we compute the alignment loss of single-modality features before cross-modal fusion,  $\mathcal{L}_{IE}$  (using the pre-fusion single-modality features  $h_m$ ) (Lin et al., 2022), the alignment loss of multimodal features after cross-modal fusion,  $\mathcal{L}_{RE}$  (using the post-fusion multimodal features  $\hat{h}_m$ ), and the overall joint loss  $\mathcal{L}_{Fusion}$  (for aligning multimodal features  $h_{Fusion}$ ). For  $\mathcal{L}_{RE}$ , we do not compute the alignment loss for the modality guided by structure. We speculate that the Graph Attention Network (GAT) has already enhanced the structural representation of the features during the guiding stage, and further enforcing alignment may weaken the consistency by the Transformer layer (Zhou et al., 2021).

$$\mathcal{L}_{IE} = \sum_{m \in \{a, g, r, v, a+g, v+g\}} \mathcal{L}_m, \quad (16)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{RE} = \sum_{m \in \{a, g, r, v\}} \hat{\mathcal{L}}_m, \quad (17)$$

where  $\hat{\mathcal{L}}_m$  is a variant of  $\mathcal{L}_m$ , calculated using  $\hat{\gamma}_m(e_i, e_j) = \exp\left(\frac{\hat{h}_i^m \hat{h}_j^m}{\tau}\right)$ . Finally, our training objective is:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{Fusion} + \mathcal{L}_{IE} + \mathcal{L}_{RE} \quad (18)$$

## 4 Experiment

### 4.1 Experiment Setup

#### 4.1.1 Datasets

We evaluate the performance of the model using three popular datasets, including the bilingual dataset DBP15K (ZH-EN, JA-EN, FR-EN) (Sun et al., 2017) and the monolingual datasets FB15K-DB15K and FB15K-YAGO15K (Liu et al., 2019). DBP15K contains around 400K triples and 15K aligned entity pairs, with 30% used as seed alignments. The monolingual datasets FB15K-DB15K

and FB15K-YAGO15K cover different alignment ratios (20%, 50%, 80%). Additionally, we address the issue of missing images in our experiments by assigning a random vector sampled from a normal distribution to entities without images, where the distribution is parameterized by mean and standard deviation (Liu et al., 2021).

#### 4.1.2 Iterative Training

We adopted a preparatory iterative training technique (Lin et al., 2022). Specifically, during each epoch ( $K_e = 5$ ), we consider cross-KG entity pairs as mutual nearest neighbors in the vector space and add these pairs to the candidate list  $N^{cd}$ . Furthermore, if entity pairs remain as mutual nearest neighbors for consecutive  $K_s$  rounds ( $K_s = 10$ ), they are included in the training set.

#### 4.1.3 Baseline Methods

We use Hits@ $N$  and Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR) to evaluate the performance of our model and the baseline methods. Hits@ $N$  (expressed as a percentage) represents the proportion of correctly aligned entities among the top  $N$  ranked candidates. MRR is the average of the reciprocal ranks of correctly aligned entities, where the reciprocal rank reports the rank of the correct entity alignment. Higher values for Hits@ $N$  and MRR indicate greater entity alignment accuracy. We selected the following baseline methods for comparison: MUGNN (Cao et al., 2019), AliNet (Sun et al., 2020b), BootEA (Sun et al., 2018), NAEA (Zhu et al., 2019), MMEA (Chen et al., 2020a), MSNEA (Chen et al., 2022a), MCLEA (Lin et al., 2022), MEAformer (Chen et al., 2023a), UMAEA (Chen et al., 2023b) and ACK-MMEA (Li et al., 2023).

#### 4.1.4 Implementation Details

To ensure fairness and consistency in our experiments, all networks utilize a 300-dimensional hidden layer and are trained for 500 epochs (Chen et al., 2023a). We implement a cosine learning rate warm-up strategy with 15% warm-up, along with early stopping and gradient accumulation techniques. The optimizer used is AdamW with  $\beta_1 = 0.9$  and  $\beta_2 = 0.999$ , and the batch size is set to 3500. For the visual encoder (Chen et al., 2020a, 2023a), we follow the ResNet-152 architecture on DBP15K, with a visual dimension of  $d_v = 2048$ , and the VGG-16 (Simonyan and Zisserman, 2015) architecture on FBDB15K/FBYG15K, with

	DBP15K <sub>ZH-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>JA-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>FR-EN</sub>		
	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR
MUGNN (Cao et al., 2019)	.494	.844	.611	.501	.857	.621	.495	.870	.621
AliNet (Sun et al., 2020b)	.539	.826	.628	.549	.831	.645	.552	.852	.657
EVA (Liu et al., 2021)	.680	.910	.762	.673	.908	.757	.683	.923	.767
MSNEA (Chen et al., 2022a)	.601	.830	.684	.535	.775	.617	.543	.801	.630
MCLEA (Lin et al., 2022)	.715	.923	.788	.715	.909	.785	.711	.909	.782
MEAformer (Chen et al., 2023a)	.771	.951	.835	.764	.959	.834	.770	.961	.841
UMAEA (Chen et al., 2023b)	<u>.800</u>	<u>.962</u>	<u>.860</u>	<u>.801</u>	<u>.967</u>	<u>.862</u>	<u>.818</u>	<u>.973</u>	<u>.877</u>
<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.852</b>	<b>.975</b>	<b>.899</b>	<b>.866</b>	<b>.979</b>	<b>.908</b>	<b>.882</b>	<b>.983</b>	<b>.920</b>

Table 1: Results without iteration on three bilingual datasets. The best results are marked with **bold**, and the second-best results are marked with underline.

	DBP15K <sub>ZH-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>JA-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>FR-EN</sub>		
	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR
BootEA (Sun et al., 2018)	.629	.847	.703	.622	.845	.701	.653	.874	.731
NAEA (Zhu et al., 2019)	.650	.867	.720	.641	.873	.718	.673	.894	.752
EVA (Liu et al., 2021)	.746	.910	.807	.741	.918	.805	.767	.939	.831
MSNEA (Chen et al., 2022a)	.643	.865	.719	.572	.832	.660	.583	.841	.671
MCLEA (Lin et al., 2022)	.811	.954	.865	.806	.953	.861	.811	.954	.865
MEAformer (Chen et al., 2023a)	<u>.847</u>	<u>.970</u>	<u>.892</u>	<u>.842</u>	<u>.974</u>	<u>.892</u>	<u>.845</u>	<u>.976</u>	<u>.894</u>
<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.899</b>	<b>.984</b>	<b>.931</b>	<b>.901</b>	<b>.985</b>	<b>.933</b>	<b>.917</b>	<b>.990</b>	<b>.945</b>

Table 2: Results with iteration on three bilingual datasets.

$d_v = 4096$ . A bag-of-words (BoW) model (Yang et al., 2019) is employed to encode relations into 1000-dimensional vectors, while pre-trained BERT is used to initialize attribute embeddings, with a dimension of 768. All experiments are conducted on an RTX 3090 GPU.

	Models	FB15K-DB15K			FB15K-YAGO15K		
		Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR
20%	MMEA	.265	.541	.357	.234	.480	.317
	EVA	.199	.448	.283	.153	.361	.224
	MSNEA	.114	.296	.175	.103	.249	.153
	MCLEA	.295	.582	.393	.254	.484	.332
	ACK-MMEA	.304	.549	.387	.289	.496	.360
	MEAformer	<u>.417</u>	<u>.715</u>	<u>.518</u>	<u>.327</u>	<u>.595</u>	<u>.417</u>
	<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.543</b>	<b>.777</b>	<b>.625</b>	<b>.587</b>	<b>.826</b>	<b>.670</b>
50%	MMEA	.417	.703	.512	.403	.645	.486
	EVA	.334	.589	.422	.311	.534	.388
	MSNEA	.288	.590	.388	.320	.589	.413
	MCLEA	.555	.784	.637	.501	.705	.574
	ACK-MMEA	.560	.736	.624	.535	.699	.593
	MEAformer	<u>.619</u>	<u>.843</u>	<u>.698</u>	<u>.560</u>	<u>.778</u>	<u>.639</u>
	<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.716</b>	<b>.882</b>	<b>.775</b>	<b>.780</b>	<b>.924</b>	<b>.832</b>
80%	MMEA	.590	.869	.685	.598	.839	.682
	EVA	.484	.696	.563	.491	.692	.565
	MSNEA	.518	.779	.613	.531	.778	.620
	MCLEA	.735	.890	.790	.667	.824	.722
	ACK-MMEA	.682	.874	.752	.744	.676	.86
	MEAformer	<u>.765</u>	<u>.916</u>	<u>.820</u>	<u>.703</u>	<u>.873</u>	<u>.766</u>
	<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.815</b>	<b>.931</b>	<b>.828</b>	<b>.857</b>	<b>.951</b>	<b>.894</b>

Table 3: The results on two monolingual datasets without iteration

## 4.2 Main Results

To ensure fair comparisons, we followed the approach of Chen et al. by excluding surface-level information interference (Chen et al., 2023b).

	Models	FB15K-DB15K			FB15K-YAGO15K		
		Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR
20%	EVA	.231	.448	.318	.188	.403	.260
	MSNEA	.149	.392	.232	.138	.346	.210
	MCLEA	.395	.656	.487	.322	.546	.400
	MEAformer	<u>.578</u>	<u>.812</u>	<u>.661</u>	<u>.444</u>	<u>.692</u>	<u>.529</u>
	<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.661</b>	<b>.847</b>	<b>.729</b>	<b>.750</b>	<b>.901</b>	<b>.805</b>
	50%	EVA	.364	.606	.449	.325	.560
MSNEA		.358	.656	.459	.376	.646	.472
MCLEA		.620	.832	.696	.563	.751	.631
MEAformer		<u>.690</u>	<u>.871</u>	<u>.755</u>	<u>.612</u>	<u>.808</u>	<u>.682</u>
<b>SGMEA</b>		<b>.752</b>	<b>.894</b>	<b>.802</b>	<b>.827</b>	<b>.938</b>	<b>.868</b>
80%		EVA	.491	.711	.573	.493	.695
	MSNEA	.565	.810	.651	.593	.806	.668
	MCLEA	.741	.900	.802	.681	.837	.737
	MEAformer	<u>.784</u>	<u>.921</u>	<u>.834</u>	<u>.724</u>	<u>.880</u>	<u>.783</u>
	<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.828</b>	<b>.921</b>	<b>.861</b>	<b>.882</b>	<b>.967</b>	<b>.915</b>

Table 4: The results on two monolingual datasets with iteration

### 4.2.1 Non-Iterative Results

Under non-iterative training conditions, the results on the cross-lingual DBP15K dataset highlight the superior performance of our model. For example, in Table 1, on the DBP15K FR-EN dataset, our model achieved 88.2% Hits@1, outperforming the best baseline model UMAEA by 6.4%. Hits@10 and MRR were 98.3% and 0.920, respectively, leading across all metrics. These results fully demonstrate the significant advantages of our model in non-iterative training.

In monolingual tasks, such as in Table 3 the FB15K-DB15K and FB15K-YAGO15K datasets, our model also exhibited outstanding performance. Notably, Hits@1 with 20% of the training data surpassed the previous best baseline model by 26%. Furthermore, in many cases, our model using 20%

	DBP15K <sub>ZH-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>JA-EN</sub>			DBP15K <sub>FR-EN</sub>		
	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR	Hits@1	Hits@10	MRR
<b>SGMEA</b>	<b>.852</b>	.975	<b>.899</b>	<b>.866</b>	.979	<b>.908</b>	<b>.882</b>	.983	<b>.920</b>
w/o Guiding img and att	.834	.973	.886	.847	.975	.895	.862	.981	.907
w/o Guiding att	.841	.970	.889	.854	.975	.899	.875	.983	.916
w/o Guiding img	.850	<b>.977</b>	.898	.861	<b>.980</b>	.906	.877	<b>.985</b>	.917

Table 5: The ablation results on the DBP15K.

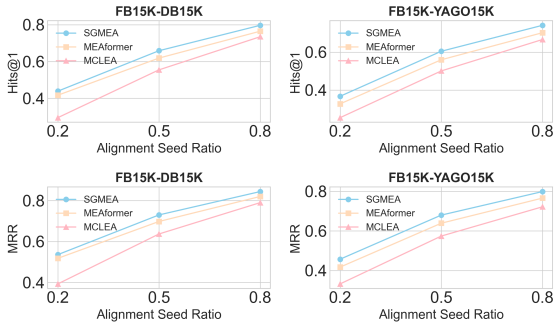


Figure 3: Attribute embedding uses the bag-of-words model on datasets FB15K-DB15K and FB15K-YAGO15K.

of the training data already outperformed the baseline models trained with 50% of the data.

#### 4.2.2 Iterative Results

In the iterative training experiments, our model consistently demonstrated clear performance advantages across multiple datasets. As shown in Table 2, on the cross-lingual DBP15K datasets, our model excelled across all three language pairs (ZH-EN, JA-EN, FR-EN), significantly surpassing the best baseline model, MEAformer. In Table 4 On the monolingual FB15K-DB15K and FB15K-YAGO15K datasets, our model also performed exceptionally well across different training data ratios (20%, 50%, 80%). Particularly on the FB15K-YAGO15K dataset, with 20% of the training data, the model achieved 75% Hits@1, surpassing the MEAformer model by 30.6%.

#### 4.3 Ablation Study

We conducted ablation experiments on the DBP15K dataset across three language pairs (ZH-EN, JA-EN, FR-EN). We removed the image guiding module, the attribute guiding module, and both modules together to analyze the impact of these components on the model’s performance. The experimental results presented in Table 5.

First, we observe that whether image guidance or attribute guidance is added individually, the model’s performance improves significantly com-

pared to when no guidance is provided, with an average increase of 2%. This further demonstrates the importance of attribute values in multimodal entity alignment. While dual guidance from both images and attention enhances overall matching accuracy, in broader alignment metrics (such as Hits@10), attribute guidance may be more effective in some cases.

We speculate that although images provide high precision, they primarily rely on visual features. On the other hand, attribute information typically describes entities from multiple dimensions, covering a broader range of semantic features, thus helping the model match entities more effectively over a larger search space. The ablation study clearly shows that our proposed structural guidance modules play a crucial role in improving the performance of multimodal alignment tasks. These modules enable the model to better capture structural information across different languages, thereby enhancing matching accuracy.

#### 4.4 Model Variants

To ensure a fair comparison and validate the superiority of our model, we developed a version of the model that uses a Bag-of-Words (BoW) representation for attribute embeddings, consistent with previous studies. We conducted experiments on the FB15K-DB15K and FB15K-YAGO15K datasets. The experimental results are shown in Figure 3, where we performed statistical analysis on Hits@1 and MRR under 20%, 50%, and 80% seed settings. The results demonstrate that our model architecture still achieves significant improvements across all metrics. Compared to the best-performing baseline model, MeaFormer, our model achieves average improvements of 4% and 0.04 in Hits@1 and MRR, respectively. Overall, the experimental results strongly demonstrate the effectiveness and robustness of our model, especially as it consistently outperforms across different seed ratios, further validating the effectiveness of the guiding theory.



## 5 Conclusion

This paper proposes a new method called SGMEA, which aims to address the issue of insufficient interaction between attribute and visual unimodal neighbors in multimodal entity alignment. SGMEA prioritizes the utilization of structural information from knowledge graphs to enhance the performance of the visual and attribute modalities. We conducted extensive experiments on several public datasets, and the results fully validate the effectiveness and soundness of SGMEA.

## Limitation

In this study, while the proposed Structure-Guided Multimodal Entity Alignment (SGMEA) method achieves promising results in integrating structural information to enhance the performance of visual and attribute modalities, its over-reliance on structural information also reveals potential limitations. The structural information in knowledge graphs may suffer from insufficient heterogeneity, meaning that the structures of different knowledge graphs may not be completely consistent or may have partial omissions. This issue could lead to insufficiencies or inaccuracies during the alignment process. To address this problem, future research can draw inspiration from the concept of graph structure completion to further expand and refine the structural information in heterogeneous knowledge graphs, thereby improving the accuracy and robustness of entity alignment.

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