

ALMMIT: Agent-Guided Active Learning for Multimodal Misinformation Detection on Temporal Graph Data

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Abstract

Posting information on a social platform is effortless, often just a single click away; yet, fact-checking mechanisms remain limited, and authenticating information is challenging due to the dynamism of misinformation propagation. The existing misinformation detection frameworks over-rely on annotated data and fall short in managing various modalities (Text, Images, conversational structure) that contribute to misinformation evolution. To mitigate this challenge, we propose ALMMIT, an *Active Learning multimodal framework for Misinformation Detection, guided by a Reinforcement Learning (RL) agent*. The RL agent adaptively directs the active learning process, maintaining momentum across rounds and avoiding bias towards the majority class while operating effectively in few-label and semi-supervised settings to overcome data scarcity within an imbalanced dataset. In addition, ALMMIT employs a modality-aware loss to dynamically adjust modality weights during fine-tuning and active learning, and introduces a composite reward mechanism that balances momentum gain with targeted attention to minority classes. Experimental results show that ALMMIT consistently outperforms recently developed state-of-the-art few-label and supervised approaches.

1 Introduction

The widespread dissemination of misinformation on online social platforms would threaten and negatively affect social stability and well-being. This is worsened particularly by the absence of effective fact-checking systems. Hence, communities can be negatively influenced and manipulated by the propagation of rumors, even when these originate from authenticated entities. For instance, as revealed and highlighted by Tasnim et al. (Tasnim et al., 2020), during the COVID-19 pandemic, health systems worldwide faced enormous and significant challenges while simultaneously contend-

ing a wave of misinformation. This misinformation undermined and jeopardized appropriate health practices, encouraged harmful behaviors, and accelerated disease transmission, ultimately leading to adverse physical and psychological outcomes for individuals. Consequently, the field of misinformation detection, which leverages advanced technologies such as Large Language Models (LLMs), has gained considerable academic attention. Early approaches revolved around textual features and sentiment analysis (Castillo et al., 2011; Ma et al., 2015; Tolosi et al., 2016; Enayet and El-Beltagy, 2017; Kumar et al., 2022). While these methods achieved a degree of breakthrough, one of their main drawbacks and limitations was the neglect of temporal dynamics in misinformation propagation. User interactions such as sharing, commenting, and replying play a critical role in shaping the spread of misinformation, and underestimating these patterns limits the ability to accurately capture how misinformation evolves (Lin et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Li et al., 2023; Hao et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024b).

Beyond temporal and interaction-based signals, modalities such as images and videos are also essential and vital for misinformation detection. However, despite the mentioned notable advances (Zhao et al., 2023), prior studies have largely underutilized visual information. Hence, current works aim to bridge this gap and address the aforementioned limitations by synchronizing synthetic and real data (Zeng et al., 2024), as well as constructing cross-modal graphs through label propagation (Zhao et al., 2023). Also, GAMED was a multi-model misinformation detection framework with modal decoupling, multi-expert networks, and veto voting (Shen et al., 2025). FCN-LP builds CLIP-based tweet graphs with domain generalization (Zhao et al., 2023), while MMAdapt addresses health misinformation via leveraging knowledge graphs with uncertainty-aware adapta-

tion (Shang et al., 2024). Moreover, (Bartlett et al., 2025) insisted that short-form videos with misleading superimposed captions emerged and presented as a critical modality contributing to the spread of misinformation on social media platforms. Nevertheless, these methods still rely heavily on annotated data and often overlook the dynamic contributions of different modalities to misinformation detection (Thibault et al., 2025). To address these gaps, we therefore introduce **ALMMIT**, an oracle-free adaptive active learning framework with the following novel contributions:

1. **Stage-aware multimodal segmentation:** ALMMIT is the first misinformation detection framework to introduce temporal variable-length stage partitioning while aligning text, image, and graph modalities within conversation threads.
2. **Modality-aware loss with presence gating:** a learnable objective that dynamically reweights modalities and remains robust under missing inputs (absent modalities), thereby tackling a key limitation of prior multimodal approaches.
3. **Dual-adaptive active learning:** a reinforcement learning controller that simultaneously and adaptively tunes and adjusts acquisition weights (α) and modality weights (β), thereby unifying sample selection and modality fusion.
4. **Composite reward for fairness:** a reinforcement-driven reward that balances learning momentum with minority-class rarity, ensuring stable training and resilience to class imbalance.

2 Related Work

2.1 Misinformation Propagation

Disinformation on social media often follows identifiable and recognizable propagation patterns and attributes. These circumstances have led researchers to analyze the problem from three main perspectives: sequence, structure, and stage. Early works have revolved around sequential dynamics, focusing on how messages evolve and how contextual signals would shift during propagation (Tsallis, 2022; Anand et al., 2014; Schmid Jr, 1947; Zubiaga et al., 2015). While useful, sequential modeling

alone cannot capture the complex web of interactions that drive diffusion in real-world networks. To address this limitation, scholars proposed a range of graph-based approaches concerning representation learning and classification (Yu et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2019; Bian et al., 2020; Khoo et al., 2020). These methods leverage graph neural networks to represent structural relationships and incorporate semantic information. However, they often fall short in timely detection and devote limited attention to how interactions evolve. Building on these directions, MsDD (Hao et al., 2024) have segmented conversation thread evolution into variable-length stages using graph entropy to capture more meaningful temporal patterns, while ADAAT (Wang et al., 2025) emphasizes robustness by combining adaptive augmentation, adversarial training, and contrastive learning. Nevertheless, both approaches remain limited to text-graph modalities under full supervision, without handling multimodal posts, adaptive modality weighting across stages, or scenarios with few labeled examples.

2.2 Active Learning

Active learning aims to select the most informative samples to improve model performance while reducing annotation cost, initially relying on uncertainty-based criteria such as entropy (Ren et al., 2021), EMCM (Cai et al., 2013), and Bayesian approaches including BALD and its extensions (Gal et al., 2017; Kirsch et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2019). Subsequent studies emphasized consistency (Gao et al., 2020), diversity and distributional similarity (Margatina et al., 2021; Sener and Savarese, 2017), VAE-based selection (Sinha et al., 2019), and hybrid strategies that combine informativeness and representativeness (Zhang et al., 2022a; Zhdanov, 2019; Ash et al., 2019), with extensions to multimodal settings (Shen et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024a). In graph-based active learning, methods exploiting entropy, density, structural signals, and reinforcement learning have been proposed (Cai et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2021a,b; Hu et al., 2020; Cui et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022b), while class imbalance is partially mitigated by GraphCBAL (Yu et al., 2024); however, these approaches largely overlook modality-specific contributions within threads and lack adaptive weighting of acquisition components.

3 Methodology

3.1 Our Novel ALMMIT Model

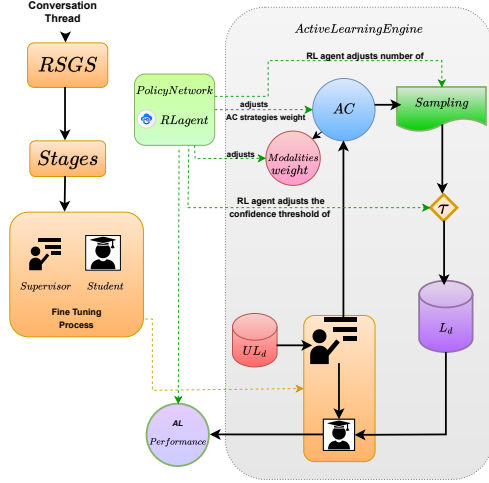


Figure 1: **Abstract ALMMIT diagram:** Student and Supervisor have been fine-tuned, and then these fine-tuned models have been used in the active learning engine.

ALMMIT (Figure 1) is a dual-adaptive framework for detecting misinformation in conversation threads. Initially, Remarkable Sub-Graph Selectors (RSGS) is responsible of capturing stage-aware sub-graphs that preserve temporal propagation while combining text, image, and structural signals. These sub-graphs are processed by a Supervisor, trained under limited annotations. On top of this, the Active Learning Engine grows the training set by scoring unlabeled samples using strategies such as uncertainty, diversity, representativeness, and curriculum easiness. A reinforcement learning controller adjusts the weighting of these strategies and modalities as training progresses, while the loop also incorporates high-quality pseudo-labels to refine stage-level weighting and acquisition strategies (AC). This design allows the model to adapt both within stages (through modality fusion) and across rounds (through strategy adjustment), delivering strong performance even with few labels.

3.2 Notations and Problem Description

Let $\mathcal{C} = (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{G})$ denote a conversation thread, where $\mathcal{T} = \{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$ is the set of textual posts, $\mathcal{I} = \{i_1, \dots, i_n\}$ are the associated images (if present), and $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ is the interaction graph with V the set of posts/users and E the reply or retweet relations. Each thread \mathcal{C} is associated with a binary label $y \in \{0, 1\}$ indicating whether it

propagates misinformation. We further assume that \mathcal{G} can be segmented into K temporal stages $\{S_1, \dots, S_K\}$, where each stage contains a subset of posts and their corresponding interactions.

The training data consists of a small labeled subset $L = \{(\mathcal{C}_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^{\ell}$ and a large unlabeled pool $U = \{\mathcal{C}_j\}_{j=\ell+1}^N$, with $\ell \ll N$. The task is to learn a classifier

$$f : (\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{G}) \mapsto y$$

that generalizes to unseen threads while operating under annotation scarcity. This setting requires the learner to jointly address three challenges: (i) adaptively weight modality contributions (text, image, and graph) across stages, (ii) capture dynamic interaction evolution through stage segmentation, and (iii) actively select or pseudo-label samples from U under a strict budget.

To formalize adaptivity, let $\alpha^{(k)} = (\alpha_T^{(k)}, \alpha_I^{(k)}, \alpha_G^{(k)})$ denote the modality weights assigned at stage S_k , and let $\beta^{(t)} = (\beta_u^{(t)}, \beta_r^{(t)}, \beta_d^{(t)}, \beta_c^{(t)})$ denote the acquisition weights for uncertainty, representativeness, diversity, and curriculum at active learning round t . The optimization objective is to learn parameters θ of f such that performance on a held-out test set T_{test} is maximized while respecting limited supervision and adaptivity constraints:

$$\theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} E_{(\mathcal{C}, y) \in T_{test}} \mathbb{1} [f_{\theta}(\mathcal{C}; \alpha^{(1..K)}, \beta^{(1..R)}) = y],$$

where R is the number of AL rounds. This definition not only extends stage segmentation to multimodal alignment (text, image, and graph) but also captures the dual adaptivity of our setting: modality weights $\beta^{(k)}$ vary with stage evolution, while acquisition weights $\alpha^{(t)}$ evolve across AL iterations to balance competing selection objectives.

3.3 ALMMIT Description

3.3.1 Remarkable Sub-Graph Selectors (RSGS)

RSGS decomposes a conversation thread into variable-length, stage-level sub-graphs that retain both structural and semantic evolution. Let the thread interaction graph be $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ with per-node timestamps $\{t_v\}_{v \in V}$. For any time u , we define the cumulative subgraph

$$\begin{aligned} G(u) &= (V(u), E(u)), \\ V(u) &= \{v \in V : t_v \leq u\}, \\ E(u) &= \{(i, j) \in E : \max(t_i, t_j) \leq u\}. \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

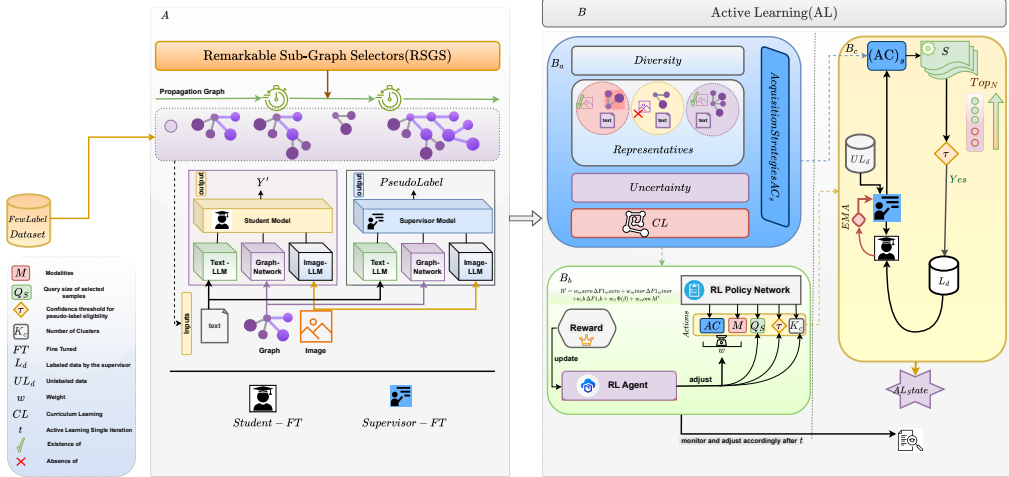


Figure 2: **ALMMIT**: Agent-Guided Active Learning for Multimodal Misinformation Detection. In Phase A, both the Student and Supervisor are fine-tuned. In Phase B, Active Learning leverages these fine-tuned models. Consistent coloring illustrates the connections between phases.

Let $d_i(u)$ be the degree of node i in $G(u)$ and $D(u) = \sum_{i \in V(u)} d_i(u)$. We measure structural complexity using the degree entropy:

$$H(u) = - \sum_{i \in V(u)} \frac{d_i(u)}{D(u)} \ln \left(\frac{d_i(u)}{D(u)} \right). \quad (2)$$

Starting from a stage start time s , RSGS advances a *cumulative window* in steps of length τ , i.e., $u_k = s + k\tau$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots$. At each step it computes the entropy increment

$$\Delta H_k = H(u_k) - H(u_{k-1}), \quad (3)$$

normalizes by τ , and evaluates a *tangent-like contrast* between consecutive normalized changes:

$$\tan \theta_k = \frac{\left| \frac{\Delta H_k}{\tau} - \frac{\Delta H_{k-1}}{\tau} \right|}{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta H_k}{\tau} \right) \left(\frac{\Delta H_{k-1}}{\tau} \right)}. \quad (4)$$

A *stage boundary* is declared at u_k if $\tan \theta_k > \mu$, and the stage sub-graph S is instantiated as the nodes and edges whose timestamps fall in $[s, u_k]$. If no boundary is detected, the remainder $[s, t_{\max}]$ forms the final stage.

Each detected stage inherits all modalities (text, image, graph) active within its temporal span, yielding a compact and temporally coherent *multimodal stage unit*. These stage units are then passed downstream for *adaptive fusion* and *active learning*: the fusion module reweights modality contributions per stage via $\alpha^{(k)}$, while the active learning engine iteratively updates acquisition weights across rounds via $\beta^{(t)}$.

3.3.2 Supervisor Fine-Tuning

The second stage of our framework is a multimodal *Supervisor* that learns to integrate text, image, and graph signals into a unified prediction. Each conversation thread is represented as a sequence of posts enriched with visual features and structured by stage-level sub-graphs. The Supervisor employs three modality-specific encoders: a transformer-based language model for textual embeddings, a vision backbone for image features, and a dynamic graph neural network for structural representations. These three embeddings are concatenated and mapped to logits by a lightweight fusion head:

$$\mathbf{z} = [f_T(\mathcal{T}) \parallel f_I(\mathcal{I}) \parallel f_G(\mathcal{G})], \quad \ell = \text{MLP}(\mathbf{z}), \quad (5)$$

where f_T , f_I , and f_G denote the modality encoders, \mathbf{z} is the fused embedding, and ℓ the output logits.

A critical design choice is that the Supervisor is *fine-tuned under few-label supervision*. Instead of relying on large fully annotated corpora, it is trained with only a small fraction of labeled threads (e.g., 15% of the dataset), reflecting realistic annotation scarcity in misinformation detection. This few-label fine-tuning not only makes the Supervisor robust in low-resource conditions but also primes it to provide reliable pseudo-labels and teacher guidance during the subsequent active learning process.

The primary training objective is a class-weighted cross-entropy loss that compensates for label imbalance by assigning larger weights to

under-represented classes:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = -\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B \sum_{c=1}^C w_c 1[y_b = c] \log \hat{p}_{b,c}, \quad (6)$$

where w_c denotes the class weights and $\hat{p}_{b,c}$ the predicted probability for class c of sample b . A distinctive feature of our Supervisor is the introduction of a *modality-aware loss*, which explicitly distinguishes between samples that are text-only, samples with visual content, and the conversational graph. Let \mathcal{L}_T , \mathcal{L}_V , and \mathcal{L}_G denote the class-weighted cross-entropy losses for each group. Instead of manually assigning weights, we introduce learnable parameters $\theta = (\theta_T, \theta_V, \theta_G)$ and normalize them via softplus:

$$w_k = \frac{\text{softplus}(\theta_k)}{\sum_{j \in \{T, V, G\}} \text{softplus}(\theta_j)}, \quad k \in \{T, V, G\}. \quad (7)$$

To ensure that absent modalities (e.g., no images in the batch) do not contribute, we apply *presence gating*. Define $\pi_k = 1$ if \mathcal{L}_k is computable in the current batch and $\pi_k = 0$ otherwise. The weights are then re-normalized over the present groups:

$$\tilde{w}_k = \frac{\pi_k w_k}{\sum_{j \in \{T, V, G\}} \pi_j w_j}, \quad \mathcal{L}_{\text{mod}} = \sum_{k \in \{T, V, G\}} \tilde{w}_k \mathcal{L}_k. \quad s_{\text{unc}}(x) = -\sum_{c=1}^C p(c|x) \log p(c|x), \quad (9)$$

This design enables the Supervisor to adaptively learn how to balance supervision from threads with and without images, preventing bias toward vision-rich samples and ensuring robustness in settings where images are scarce. The modality-aware loss is therefore not only a stabilizing mechanism but also a novel contribution of our framework, supporting the broader theme of adaptivity. In summary, the Supervisor serves as a strong teacher model *trained under few-label conditions*, producing high-quality multimodal representations and pseudo-labels that directly fuel the dual-adaptive active learning engine. Unlike existing multimodal misinformation detection methods that assume full supervision, our Supervisor is deliberately designed for few-label fine-tuning, enabling practical deployment in real-world low-annotation scenarios.

3.3.3 B Active Learning Engine

In the final stage of our framework, we employ a dedicated Active Learning (AL) engine that connects the supervisor to the unlabeled pool. The engine determines which samples to query or

pseudo-label, how to balance acquisition criteria and modality contributions, and how to refine the student under limited supervision. It is structured into three parts: **B_a) Acquisition Strategies (AC_s)**, which score and filter candidate samples, **B_b) Reinforcement Learning Policy**, which adaptively adjusts acquisition and modality weights, and **B_c) Active Learning Training**, which integrates pseudo-labels, optimizes the student, and updates the teacher via EMA.

3.3.4 B_a) Acquisition Strategies (AC_s)

The acquisition module is responsible for selecting the most valuable conversation threads from the unlabeled pool U to be queried or pseudo-labeled. To balance informativeness and coverage, we integrate four complementary criteria: *uncertainty*, *representativeness*, *curriculum*, and a *lightweight diversity guard*. Each criterion produces a score, which is combined adaptively using policy-controlled weights.

Uncertainty. We estimate predictive uncertainty via the entropy of the calibrated teacher distribution:

where $p(c|x)$ is the softmax probability for class c after temperature calibration.

Curriculum. To promote stable training, we incorporate a curriculum signal that prioritizes confident (easy) samples in early rounds and gradually shifts emphasis toward harder ones as learning progresses:

$$s_{\text{cur}}(x) = \gamma_t \cdot \max_c p(c|x), \quad (10)$$

where $\gamma_t = \min(1, t/T_{\text{warm}})$ is a warm-up factor depending on round t and curriculum horizon T_{warm} .

Representativeness. To ensure that queried samples reflect the global pool distribution, we compute representativeness by clustering embeddings $\mathbf{h}(x)$ of pool samples using KMeans or a Bayesian Gaussian mixture. For each item x , the score is inversely related to its squared distance from the cluster center:

$$s_{\text{rep}}(x) = 1 - \frac{\|\mathbf{h}(x) - \mu_{c(x)}\|^2}{d_{\text{max}}}, \quad (11)$$

where $\mu_{c(x)}$ is the assigned cluster centroid and d_{\max} the maximum observed distance for normalization, ensuring scores fall in a bounded range.

Diversity. While representativeness prevents the system from focusing on outliers, it does not guarantee diversity in the selected batch. To avoid redundancy, we enforce a diversity guard by allocating quotas across clusters and classes, ensuring that each batch covers multiple regions of the pool space. This cluster-quota mechanism provides implicit diversity without adding an additional scoring dimension.

Final Score. For each sample x , the overall acquisition score is a weighted combination of the three principal signals:

$$s(x) = \alpha_{\text{cur}} s_{\text{cur}}(x) + \alpha_{\text{rep}} s_{\text{rep}}(x) + \alpha_{\text{unc}} s_{\text{unc}}(x), \quad (12)$$

where $\alpha = (\alpha_{\text{cur}}, \alpha_{\text{rep}}, \alpha_{\text{unc}})$ are policy-controlled weights that evolve across rounds (see Sec. B_b). Diversity guards are applied after scoring to regulate cluster balance in the selected batch.

This acquisition design not only combines informativeness and representativeness but also ensures stability (via curriculum) and coverage (via diversity guard). Unlike prior graph-based active learning methods that emphasize single criteria (e.g., uncertainty or centrality), our approach introduces a *dual-adaptive mechanism*: acquisition weights α are dynamically adjusted by the RL agent, while modality weights β (Sec. B_c) are concurrently optimized to handle multimodal imbalance.

3.3.5 B_b) Reinforcement Learning (RL) Policy Network and Agent

While acquisition scores provide candidate utilities, their relative importance changes across rounds. To adaptively control this balance, we introduce a reinforcement learning (RL) agent that dynamically tunes acquisition weights and other hyperparameters of the AL loop. The agent follows a Gaussian REINFORCE framework.

Policy Network. Let the environment state at round t be represented by a feature vector $\mathbf{s}^{(t)} \in R^{10}$ that encodes progress and model status (e.g., budget remaining, class entropy, recent validation performance). A shared trunk projects $\mathbf{s}^{(t)}$ into a hidden representation $h^{(t)}$, which is mapped into action heads. Each head outputs a Gaussian distribution with mean μ and log-variance $\log \sigma$:

$$\mu, \log \sigma = Wh^{(t)} + b, \quad a \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2). \quad (13)$$

The policy controls five sets of actions:

- $\alpha \in \Delta^2$: simplex weights over acquisition criteria $\{s_{\text{cur}}, s_{\text{rep}}, s_{\text{unc}}\}$,
- $\beta \in \Delta^2$: modality weights (text, image, graph) in the modality-aware loss,
- $q \in [q_{\min}, q_{\max}]$: query fraction of the pool to be selected,
- $\tau \in [\tau_{\min}, \tau_{\max}]$: confidence threshold for pseudo-label acceptance,
- $K \in [K_{\min}, K_{\max}]$: number of clusters for representativeness/diversity balancing.

Learning. At each round, the agent samples actions $a^{(t)}$ from the policy and receives a reward $R^{(t)}$ derived from validation performance improvements (macro-F1, minority-F1, class balance) and modality-balance shaping. The policy parameters are updated using the REINFORCE gradient:

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = E \left[(R^{(t)} - b^{(t)}) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a^{(t)} | \mathbf{s}^{(t)}) + \lambda H(\pi_{\theta}) \right], \quad (14)$$

where $b^{(t)}$ is a moving-average baseline, and $H(\pi_{\theta})$ is an entropy regularizer encouraging exploration.

Reward Shaping. Instead of using raw accuracy gains, the reward $R^{(t)}$ integrates multiple signals to ensure stable and balanced progress. It combines improvements in macro- and minority-class F1, class-balance metrics, a modality-balance bonus derived from loss variance, and a momentum term computed from exponential moving averages of recent validation trends:

$$R^{(t)} = w_{\text{macro}} \Delta \text{F1}_{\text{macro}} + w_{\text{minor}} \Delta \text{F1}_{\text{minor}} + w_{\text{cb}} \Delta \text{F1}_{\text{cb}} + w_{\beta} \Phi(\beta) + w_{\text{mom}} M^{(t)}. \quad (15)$$

Here $\Phi(\beta)$ penalizes imbalance among modality weights, while $M^{(t)}$ rewards sustained positive momentum. Rewards are clipped to a bounded range and normalized by an EMA baseline, which reduces variance in policy updates.

Stability Aids. To prevent collapse, we enforce action constraints: (i) q is bounded below by an annealed floor $q_{\text{floor}}(t)$, (ii) α may be reset to uniform when a round yields highly negative rewards, and (iii) β is updated using an exponential moving average (EMA) to smooth fluctuations. These safeguards ensure that the RL controller remains stable even under noisy pseudo-label training.

Overall, the RL module empowers the engine to *adaptively re-weight both acquisition signals and modality contributions across AL rounds*, a dual-adaptive feature absent in prior AL frameworks.

3.3.6 B_c) Active Learning Training

Once candidate samples are selected, the training phase integrates pseudo-labels generated by the teacher. To mitigate noise, we adopt strict eligibility checks based on confidence, class-proportion gating, and margin thresholds. Let \hat{y} denote the pseudo-label and $p(c|x)$ the calibrated teacher probability. A sample x is eligible if

$$p(\hat{y}|x) \geq \tau, \quad (p_1 - p_2) \geq \delta, \quad \rho(\hat{y}) < \rho_{\max},$$

where $p_1 - p_2$ is the top-2 margin, δ a margin floor, and $\rho(\hat{y})$ the relative class proportion.

Loss formulation. The student is trained using a combination of class-balanced cross-entropy (CE), modality-aware CE, and KL divergence. First, the class-balanced CE compensates for skewed label distributions:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} = - \sum_i w_{y_i} \log p_{\theta}(y_i|x_i), \quad (16)$$

where w_{y_i} is the effective weight derived from inverse class frequency. Second, the modality-aware CE computes class-balanced losses individually for text-only (\mathcal{L}_T), image-present (\mathcal{L}_I), and graph (\mathcal{L}_G) samples, and recombines them using learnable weights β :

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{mod}} = \tilde{\beta}_T \mathcal{L}_T + \tilde{\beta}_I \mathcal{L}_I + \tilde{\beta}_G \mathcal{L}_G, \quad (17)$$

where $\beta = \text{softmax}(\theta)$ ensures non-negativity and normalization. To handle absent modalities, we apply *presence gating*: if \mathcal{L}_k is undefined in the current batch, the corresponding weight is set to zero and the remaining weights are renormalized, i.e.,

$$\tilde{\beta}_k = \frac{\pi_k \beta_k}{\sum_{j \in \{T, I, G\}} \pi_j \beta_j}, \quad \pi_k \in \{0, 1\}, \quad (18)$$

so that $\sum_k \tilde{\beta}_k = 1$ holds over the modalities present. Finally, we impose KL consistency between student and teacher distributions:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{KL}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \text{KL}(p_T(\cdot|x_i) \| p_S(\cdot|x_i)), \quad (19)$$

with annealed weight $\lambda_{\text{KL}}(t)$ that increases over rounds to stabilize pseudo-label guidance.

Overall objective. The student optimization at round t is:

$$\mathcal{L}^{(t)} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{CE}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{mod}} + \lambda_{\text{KL}}(t) \mathcal{L}_{\text{KL}}. \quad (20)$$

Note that both \mathcal{L}_{CE} and \mathcal{L}_{mod} are computed against pseudo-labels provided by the teacher, ensuring that training remains fully oracle-free.

Teacher update. To avoid teacher drift, we adopt an exponential moving average (EMA) update:

$$\theta_T \leftarrow \tau \theta_T + (1 - \tau) \theta_S, \quad (21)$$

where θ_T and θ_S are teacher and student parameters, and τ is a decay rate that anneals with the round index. This gradually improves the teacher while preserving stability.

4 Experiments and Results

To evaluate the effectiveness of ALMMIT in misinformation detection, we conducted a comprehensive set of experiments.

4.1 Datasets

We have utilized the PHEME (Zubiaga et al., 2016) dataset that comprises conversation threads from X (formerly Twitter), centered on five breaking news events. Each event includes a set of sources (The main post and its interactions), including a large number of texts and images. We have considered features including conversation threads, texts, images, and temporal data. To demonstrate flexibility, we also incorporated the Twitter15 (Ma et al., 2017) dataset, which provides only text and conversational structure without images. Detailed statistical characteristics are reported in Appendix 6.

4.2 Discussion and result

Table 1 indicates and illustrates a detailed comparative analysis of our ALMMIT framework performance, evaluated under the few-label and semi-supervised setting, against a group of recent state-of-the-art baselines on both the PHEME and Twitter15 datasets. The evidence from these experiments indicates the superior performance of our proposed framework, particularly in its ability to combine multimodal reasoning with adaptive active learning to achieve high-quality misinformation detection under conditions of limited supervision. Concerning the PHEME dataset, ALMMIT has attained and achieved an overall accuracy of 82.64%

Table 1: Comparison between ALMMIT and baselines on PHEME and Twitter15 datasets. The best results are highlighted in bold.

Method	Acc	Real News			Fake News		
		P	R	F1	P	R	F1
PHEME dataset							
FLAL	79.4	83.3	76.7	80.1	81.7	71.9	76.7
IdoFew	73.8	80.7	62.9	70.7	69.5	84.9	76.4
BERTIT:Cluster	76.0	83.1	65.4	73.2	71.4	86.6	78.3
ALMMIT	82.64	91.38	81.35	86.08	70.19	85.13	76.94
Twitter15							
FLAL	80.2	81.1	19.0	27.7	74.0	30.1	48.5
IdoFew	74.9	56.2	13.4	21.6	76.1	96.4	85.1
BERTIT:Cluster	74.4	51.5	19.0	27.7	76.8	93.8	84.5
ALMMIT	82.35	65.625	64.61	65.116	87.958	88.42	88.18

Table 2: Comparison with fully supervised text-based approaches on the PHEME dataset. **ALMMIT* is under the Semi-supervised setting.** The best results are highlighted in bold.

Method	Accuracy	F1
ACAMI	75.78	61.66
HGCN-RNN	85.28	81.18
Bi-GCN	84.97	80.32
StA-PLAN	83.36	79.78
RDLNP	84.31	80.78
DynGCN	86.78	82.40
ALMMIT*	86.89	84.07

Table 3: Comparison with multimodal baselines on the PHEME dataset. **ALMMIT* is under the semi-supervised setting.** The best results are highlighted in bold.

Method	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1
EANN	70.17	71.28	67.36	69.10
SpotFake	81.37	79.53	81.22	79.43
MVAE	77.83	73.82	73.45	72.21
SAFE	81.25	79.92	79.11	79.69
MCAN	80.74	79.21	79.64	80.15
HMCAN	86.36	83.18	83.81	83.45
CLIP	80.36	84.43	89.12	86.71
CLIP + FCN-LP	84.65	88.79	89.81	89.30
ALMMIT*	86.89	84.74	97.70	84.07

and an F1 score of 84.07, respectively. That represents a significant leap over the leading few-label baselines. Notably, it secures a recall of 85.13% for the *Fake News* class and a Real News-F1 of 86.08, thereby ALMMIT is outperforming FLAL, IdoFew, and BERTIT:Cluster across both global and class-level measures. These results are particularly significant because high recall in the misinformation category directly translates into a lower incidence of false negatives. ALMMIT’s capacity to identify misinformation with such sensitivity demonstrates the strength of its stage-aware design and its synergy between acquisition strategies and modality-aware supervision. On Twit-

ter15, ALMMIT continues to prove its robustness by achieving 82.35% accuracy, which is consistently superior to FLAL (80.2%), IdoFew (74.9%), and BERTIT:Cluster (74.4%). Beyond accuracy, it also records an Fake News-F1 of 65.12 and the Real News (R) F1 of (88.18%). This thereby balances misinformation detection across both fake and true categories. It appears that in the table, some of the mentioned models have exhibited imbalance by excelling in distinguishing one class while deteriorating in another. ALMMIT, as the results indicate, has maintained high effectiveness across both classes, underscoring its adaptability and resilience in few-label scenarios. Despite being trained under semi-supervised conditions, ALMMIT matches or surpasses fully supervised text-based baselines on PHEME (Table 2), including Bi-GCN, RDLNP, and DynGCN, demonstrating strong label efficiency. When compared with recent multimodal approaches (Table 3), ALMMIT achieves the highest overall accuracy (86.89%) while remaining competitive in F1 despite CLIP+FCN-LP attaining higher precision and F1. Overall, these results confirm the stability and robustness of ALMMIT across evaluation metrics. An ablation study is provided in Appendix B.

5 Conclusion

We presented ALMMIT, a novel framework for misinformation detection that achieves strong performance under few-label and semi-supervised settings. By introducing a modality-aware loss and a reinforcement learning-driven adaptive active learning strategy that dynamically adjusts modality weights across propagation stages, ALMMIT effectively addresses limitations of existing multimodal approaches. Extensive experiments on the PHEME and Twitter15 datasets demonstrate that ALMMIT outperforms several recent state-of-the-art methods.

6 Limitations

While the framework demonstrates strong performance, incorporating a more explicit explainability layer to justify classification decisions and the underlying reasoning remains a worthwhile direction for future work. In addition, extending the framework to integrate additional modalities and evaluating LLMs under more extreme zero-shot conditions would be critical for more faithfully simulating real-world misinformation scenarios.

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A Appendix

A.1 ALMMIT Hyperparameters and Settings

After preprocessing, the dataset was partitioned into 15% training, 70% validation (serving as the unlabeled pool), and 15% testing, with additional threads forming the active learning pool. Each conversation thread contained text, images, and propagation graphs: text was encoded with GPT-2 (768-dim, 100 tokens), images with ViT-Base-Patch16-224 (224×224, 768-dim), and graph structure with a GNN-GAT encoder (two LSTMs, four attention heads, 128-dim output). Supervisor training used AdamW (4×10^{-5} LR, batch size 1 with accumulation to 8, 10 epochs), while the Student was initialized from the Supervisor and trained with AdamW, cosine scheduling, batch size 4, and 30 acquisition rounds under a 650-query budget. Pseudo-label self-training combined class-balanced CE, KL divergence, and modality-aware losses with annealing. Results were reported using accuracy, macro-F1, and per-class F1, with all experiments fixed at seed 42 for reproducibility.

A.2 Comparative Models

To evaluate the proposed ALMMIT framework, we compare it against three categories of models: few-label approaches, text-supervised baselines, and multimodal methods. **Few-label approaches.** *Cluster & Tune* inter-trains language models on clustering-based pseudo-labels to boost cold-start performance (Shnarch et al., 2022). *IDoFew* has enhanced this idea by employing dual-stage clustering (SIB \rightarrow KMeans), improving the reliability of pseudo-labeling (Alsuhaibani et al., 2024). *FLAL* integrates few-label learning with margin-sampling active learning, enabling efficient annotation while achieving strong misinformation detection results on PHEME, Twitter15/16, and AraFacts (Alalawi et al., 2025). **Text-supervised approaches.** *ACAMI* (Yu et al., 2019) has taken into consideration content temporal co-attention for event-level representation (Yu et al., 2019), while *HGCN-RNN* introduces a hierarchical multi-task framework capturing stance and conversation structure (Wei et al., 2019). *Bi-GCN* (Bian et al., 2020) adopts bidirectional graph convolutional networks to model propagation and dispersion, and *StA-PLAN* (Khoo et al., 2020) leverages transformer-based attention for long-distance relational modeling. *RDLNP* (Lao et al., 2021) combines linear sequence learning and nonlinear struc-

Table 4: Final test set results for Ablation A1 (removing modality-aware loss). Numbers outside parentheses show the A1 scores; values in parentheses indicate the baseline ALMMIT (with modality-aware loss). Arrows denote whether performance improved (\uparrow) or degraded (\downarrow) compared to baseline.

Metric	A1 w/o modality-aware loss vs. ALMMIT
Accuracy	75.98 \downarrow (82.64)
Macro-F1	75.40 \downarrow (81.51)
Minor-F1	71.64 \downarrow (76.95)
Class-Bal. F1	75.40 \downarrow (81.51)
Cohen’s κ	52.16 \downarrow (63.23)

ture learning with attention dependencies, whereas *DynGCN* (Choi et al., 2021) employs temporal snapshots with GAT layers and Bi-LSTMs for dynamic propagation modeling. **Multimodal approaches.** *EANN* (Wang et al., 2018) adversarially learns event-invariant multimodal features, *Spot-Fake* (Singhal et al., 2019) concatenates pre-trained text and image embeddings, and *MVAE* (Khatter et al., 2019) employs a bimodal variational autoencoder with a binary classifier. *SAFE* (Zhou et al., 2020) tried to learn cross-modal similarity, while *MCAN* (Wu et al., 2021) and *HMCAN* (Qian et al., 2021) exploit co-attention and hierarchical contextual attention to predict inter- and intra-modal relationships. More recent *CLIP*-based detectors leverage large-scale vision language pretraining for misinformation classification (Radford et al., 2021). In addition, *FCN-LP* detects misinformation by connecting tweets via multimodal similarity (CLIP), propagating labels across them with positive/negative correlations, and regularizing for unseen events (Zhao et al., 2023). We selected these models because they represent competitive baselines across few-label learning, text-supervised propagation modeling, and multimodal detection, which directly align with the challenges that ALMMIT is designed to address.

B Ablation Study

For the ablation study, we have fixed the reference configuration and toggled one mechanism and strategy at a time. All variants were evaluated on the PHEME dataset in terms of accuracy, macro-F1, minority-class F1, and budget efficiency.

B.1 Ablation A1: removing modality-aware loss

The results outlined in table 4 present a comparative evaluation of **Ablation A1**, where the modality-

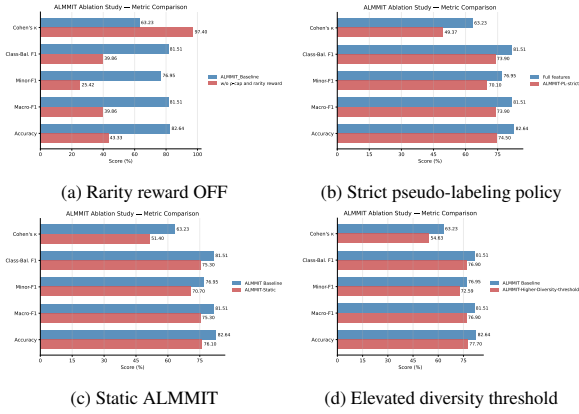


Figure 3: **ALMMIT Ablation Studies.** Each panel shows the effect of disabling or altering a mechanism: (a) removing rarity reward, (b) enforcing strict pseudo-labeling, (c) replacing adaptive scheduling with a static variant, (d) tightening diversity thresholds.

aware loss was removed from ALMMIT, against the ALMMIT model that retained this component. Across all reported metrics, including Accuracy, Macro-F1, Minor-F1, Class-Balanced F1, and Cohen’s κ , the ablated variant exhibits consistent declines in performance, as indicated by the downward arrows. Accuracy decreases from 82.64% in ALMMIT with modality-aware loss to 75.98% under Ablation A1, while Macro-F1 and Minor-F1 fall from 81.51% to 75.40% and from 76.95% to 71.64%, respectively. Similarly, Class-Balanced F1 shows a reduction from 81.51% to 75.40%, and Cohen’s κ drops substantially from 63.23% to 52.16%. These results underscore the importance of incorporating the β -weighted modality-aware loss as an integral part of ALMMIT, as its removal negatively impacts both overall predictive Accuracy and balanced class representation, thereby weakening the system’s stability and reliability.

B.2 Ablation A2: disabled Rarity Reward

In Ablation A2 see Figure 3a, where rarity reward was disabled and only class-proportion gating (ρ -cap) was applied, ALMMIT suffered a severe performance collapse. Macro-F1 dropped to 40% and Accuracy to 43%, with Minority-F1 falling below 26%, indicating that the model largely ignored rare classes. The per-class breakdown confirmed this: recall for one class approached 99% with poor precision, while the other class had recall under 15%. This pattern indicates that the model is biased towards the dominant class. The experiment highlights that while ρ -cap can mitigate over-representation, it cannot substitute for rarity-aware

reward; instead, it is considered a complement to rarity reward, which explicitly reinforces minority gains. However, this approach can lead to a skewed training signal, resulting in degraded overall performance.

B.3 Ablation A3: Strict pseudo-label consistency

In Figure 3b, we evaluate enforcing strict pseudo-label consistency weighting, where ALMMIT’s performance dropped noticeably compared with the full-feature baseline. On the final test set, the model reached a Macro-F1 of 73.9%, Accuracy of 74.5%, and Minor-F1 of 70.1%, all well below the baseline scores (Macro-F1 \approx 81.5%, Accuracy \approx 82.6%, Minor-F1 \approx 77.0%). Looking at the per-class results, Class 0 recall fell sharply to 67.6% (down from 81.4%), which lowered its F1 to 77.8%. By contrast, Class 1 recall increased slightly to 87.8% (from 85.1%), but this came at the expense of precision, which fell to 58.3% (from 70.2%), yielding an F1 of 70.1%. In other words, the model leaned toward higher recall for the minority class but introduced more false positives and lost balance across classes. These results suggest that tightening pseudo-label consistency too much makes the student over-rely on the teacher’s confident predictions, while ignoring harder or ambiguous cases that normally provide valuable learning signal.

B.4 Ablation A4: Static query number and confidence threshold

Using static query number and confidence threshold while disabling momentum and round-annealed scheduling removes the feedback loops that normally couple selection pressure to validation dynamics and pool statistics. In the ALMMIT Baseline, the reinforcement learning policy would adaptively adjust (q, τ) via a floor, momentum scaling, and eligibility filters, allowing it to relax and smooth the confidence threshold τ when learning improves or tighten it when pseudo-label noise or class skew increases. By contrast, the ablation with fixed $q = 0.12$ and $\tau = 0.66$ constrained the eligible set regardless of pool dynamics and weakened the diversity guard. As a result, performance was significantly below the ALMMIT equipped with dynamic confidence threshold and momentum scaling. The chart 3c has shown that Accuracy dropped from **82.6%** to **76.1%**, Macro-F1 from **81.5%** to **75.3%**, Minority-F1 from **77.0%** to **70.7%**, and Cohen’s κ by nearly twelve points

(63.2% \rightarrow 51.4%). These findings suggest that the dynamic q/τ schedule and momentum-aware gating play a crucial role, delivering better calibration, earlier and higher peaks, and a more balanced error profile than the fixed alternative.

B.5 Ablation A5: Aggressive diversity threshold

The ablation experiment with an elevated diversity threshold highlights both the benefits and drawbacks of enforcing stronger diversity constraints during acquisition. As illustrated on Figure 3d On the final ablation test set, performance decreased relative to the reference configuration: Accuracy fell to **77.7%** (-4.9 points), Macro-F1 to **76.9%** (-4.6 points), Minority-F1 to **72.6%** (-4.4 points), and Cohen’s κ to **54.6%** (-8.6 points). The per-class analysis would reveal the underlying the fact that while minority class recall increase to **86.8%**, its precision dropped to **62.4%**. This can be interpreted as an indication of a higher rate of false positives; conversely, Class 0 maintained strong precision (**91.5%**) but with reduced recall (**73.0%**). This precision recall imbalance explains the decline in overall macro-averaged scores. These results suggest that while diversity mechanisms play a crucial role in preventing selection collapse, setting the diversity guard too aggressively reduces representativeness and calibration.

B.6 Active Learning Engine Added Value

Table 5: Comparison of Supervisor baseline vs. ALMMIT (Active Learning) on the PHEME dataset. \uparrow indicates performance gain.

Method	Acc	Real News			Fake News		
		P	R	F1	P	R	F1
Supervisor	78.73	82.97	85.25	84.10	69.79	66.08	67.88
ALMMIT	82.64 \uparrow	91.38 \uparrow	81.35	86.08 \uparrow	70.19 \uparrow	85.13 \uparrow	76.94 \uparrow

To quantify the added value of our active learning framework, which operates on self-training and an oracle-needless manner, we compare the baseline Supervisor model against the proposed ALMMIT system, which integrates reinforcement-driven querying and modality-aware adaptation. As shown in Table 5, active learning yields consistent improvements across all metrics. Overall accuracy increases by **+3.9%** (from 78.7% to 82.6%), while macro-F1 rises by **+1.2%**. More importantly, active learning substantially enhances performance on the minority class: the recall of fake news improves by **+19.0%** (from 66.1% to 85.1%), leading

to a fake news F1 gain of **+9.1%** (from 67.9% to 76.9%). These results demonstrate that active learning not only improves aggregate accuracy but also effectively addresses class imbalance by prioritizing informative samples under limited annotation budgets. This validates the critical role of active learning in building robust multimodal misinformation detection systems.

B.7 Dataset Statistics

Table 6 presents the statistical characteristics of the selected datasets.

Table 6: Dataset statistics. PHEME threads are segmented into multiple stages, while Twitter15 is treated as single-stage.

Statistic	PHEME	Twitter15
Real News	3830	372
Fake News	1972	1086
Total threads	5802	1458
Total stages	37809	1458
Mean stages per thread	6.52	1.00
Min stages per thread	1	1
Max stages per thread	60	1
Mean posts per thread	17.79	28.23
Total posts	103212	41154
Total images	6698	0
Total edges	198390	80850