

000 001 002 003 004 005 006 007 008 009 010 011 012 013 014 015 016 017 018 019 020 021 022 023 024 025 026 027 028 029 030 031 032 033 034 035 036 037 038 039 040 041 042 043 044 045 046 047 048 049 050 051 052 053 SELECT THE KEY, THEN GENERATE THE REST: IMPROVING MULTI-MODAL LEARNING WITH LIMITED DATA BUDGET

006 **Anonymous authors**

007 Paper under double-blind review

010 ABSTRACT

013 Multimodal learning serves as a promising approach for applications with diverse
014 information sources. However, there are numerous challenges when scaling up
015 multimodal learning data from all modalities due to availability or varied cost of
016 data collection. We are the first to demonstrate that multimodal models with only a
017 subset of modalities available for new data could reach and even surpass models
018 continuously trained with full modalities. Our research problem is formulated as:
019 *given a limited data collection budget, how to find the appropriate modalities to
020 collect new data and generate for the rest to maximize model performance gain?*
021 To answer this, we propose a new novel paradigm - Select the Key modality, then
022 generate the rest to enable learning with limited data (SK-11). SK-11 contains
023 two essential components: (1) *Select the key*. We propose a modality importance
024 indicator to find the optimal modalities by assessing their single modal marginal
025 contribution and cross-modal interactions. (2) *Generate the rest*. We substitute
026 with generated embeddings for the rest of modalities, . We conducted extensive
027 experiments applying SK-11 across affection computing, healthcare with diverse
028 multimodal learning backbones, obtaining average accuracy gains of {2.37%,
029 6.55%, 6.73%} on {MOSI, MOSEI, ADNI} respectively. Meanwhile, we present
030 interesting empirical insights such as the data efficiency. Codes are provided in the
supplement material.

031 1 INTRODUCTION

033 Multimodal learning (MML) integrates information from different modalities, such as text, visual,
034 sensor, biomarkers to learn implicit representation, which has been applied to diverse areas including
035 visual question answering (Ilievski & Feng, 2017; Ding et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2023), sentiment
036 analysis (Soleymani et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2017; Gandhi et al., 2023), robotics (Sun et al., 2021a),
037 and healthcare application (Yun et al., 2024). Despite its great potential in these applications,
038 collecting data with full modalities in real-world scenarios can be challenging and costly. This
039 is due to restrictions in real life, for example in biomedical settings, measurement devices would
040 destroy paired samples (Xi et al., 2024). In addition, the cost of collecting different modalities varies
041 significantly, with easily accessible image-text data being far more abundant than more complex
042 modalities such as depth or thermal maps (Zhu et al., 2024; Girdhar et al., 2023), tactile data requires
043 specialized sensors (Zou et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Meribout et al., 2024). Previous studies have
044 devised various approach on multimodal learning with missing modalities (Qiu et al., 2023; Wang
045 et al., 2023a; Wu et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2023a; Guo et al., 2024). However, the missing case is
046 created on full available data by randomly dropout, some even utilize the dropped modality data for
047 reconstruction learning (Wang et al., 2023a), thus does not reflect reality. In sum, there is still no
comprehensive solution to MML under limited data.

048 We conducted preliminary experiments over a few affection computing datasets (Zadeh et al., 2016;
049 2018) to show the importance of multimodal learning, while the contribution of different modality
050 combinations differs substantially. We first investigate the efficiency of data utilization of multi-modal
051 learning compared to unimodal learning. This is experimented with evaluating the performance of a
052 multimodal transformer (Yu et al., 2019) across different training data ratios against the performance
053 of the best unimodal transformer model trained with the complete dataset. As illustrated in Figure 1
(Upper) for both the MOSI and MOSEI affection computing datasets, the models trained with full

multimodality surpass the best unimodal baseline even when using as little as 10% of the total training data. However, not all modalities or their combinations contribute equally to the performance of multimodal learning. To further assess the potential of utilizing a subset of modalities, we trained multimodal models with various combinations of the available modalities. Their test accuracies were then compared to a model trained on the full set of modalities. As depicted in Figure 1 (Bottom), specific subsets of modalities (indicated by the green line) can achieve strong performance relative to other subsets, and in some cases, can approach the performance of the model trained with all modalities (indicated by the orange line). For example, in the MOSI dataset, the Audio+Text combination is a notably high-performing subset. For the MOSEI dataset, combinations such as Video+Text and Audio+Text also yield strong results. The observation that the most effective modality subsets can vary by dataset highlights that a strategic selection of modalities is crucial. This approach can lead to superior or more efficient performance, particularly when data acquisition or processing resources are constrained, potentially without needing a complete set of all available modalities.

Inspired by the findings from the preliminary experiment and data collection difficulty in reality, we introduce a new research problem: *given a certain limited data collection budget, how to determine which modalities should be collected and the rest should be generated for improved multimodal learning?* To address this question, we propose a novel multimodal paradigm, Select the Key, then generate the rest to enable learning with limited data (SK-11). Specifically, SK-11 consists of two key components: the modality importance indicator and the missing modality generation.

Firstly, the modality importance indicator selects the key modality combination by evaluating both the marginal contribution of each modality and their cross-modality interactions. Given a multimodal dataset, we apply our proposed Step-wise Maximization of Modality Selection algorithm to identify the most informative modality combination. We then allocate the data collection budget to the key combination to ensure that the most informative modalities are prioritized. Secondly, we generate the missing modalities based on the combination to ensure the completion of multimodal data while mitigating modality interference. This approach enables more effective model training even with a limited data collection budget. To validate the effectiveness of SK-11, we conduct experiments across MML backbones and applications. The contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- We have conducted pioneering investigation into multimodal learning under limited data collection budgets, addressing the practical constraint of varying modality acquisition costs. We reveal that MML is more data-efficient than unimodal approaches, while performance varies significantly across modality subsets, necessitating principled modality selection for achieving optimal MML performance under budget constraints.
- We introduce a novel framework that first Select the Key modality subsets for new data collection, then generate for the rest modalities, thus enable Learning with Limited new data. Then, We develop indicator for assessing the relative importance of each modality subset, which guides modality selection in SK-11. Experiments demonstrate a strong correlation between the rankings of this indicator and the accuracy of actual MML task across different subsets of modality.
- Our framework offers flexibility by adapting to any available data at any new data budget constraint, enhancing performance across diverse MML tasks. We validate the effectiveness of SK-11 through extensive experiments across multiple multimodal backbones. Our approach demonstrates consistent

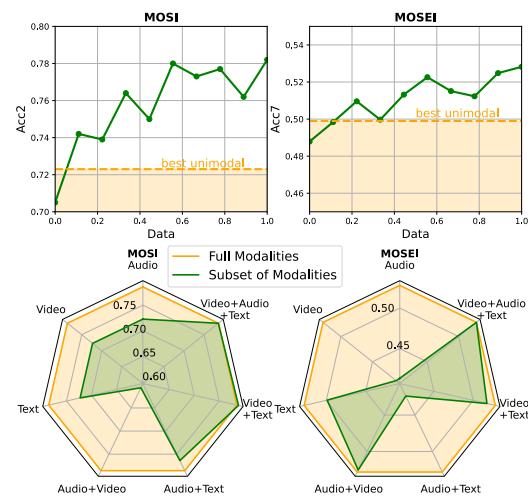


Figure 1: **Top:** Accuracy of multimodal model at different training data ratios (0.1 to 1.0) across affection computing datasets, compared to best unimodal learning (orange area) at full training data. **Bottom:** Test accuracy of multimodal models learned on different modality combination (green line) compared to the model trained on full modalities (orange line) across 2 affection computation datasets. Acc2 denotes binary accuracy, while Acc7 denotes 7-class accuracy.

108 performance improvements across affective computing and healthcare. For example, SK-11 obtains
 109 average accuracy gains of {2.37%, 6.55%, 6.73%, 0.59%} on {MOSI, MOSEI, ADNI, MIMIC}
 110 compared to baseline approach.
 111

112 2 RELATED WORK 113

114 **Multimodal Learning with Missing Modality.** Real-world multimodal systems often face the
 115 challenge of uncertain modality missingness due to various factors such as environmental interference,
 116 sensor malfunctions, and privacy concerns, which can significantly degrade model performance.
 117 Consequently, developing robust MML models that can effectively handle missing modalities has
 118 become a critical focus in the field (Ma et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2023; Lee et al., 2023b; Qiu et al.,
 119 2023; Zhang et al., 2023b; Wu et al., 2024). Recent studies have further explored modality robustness
 120 and unified frameworks to mitigate these effects. For instance, Hazarika et al. (2022) and Lin & Hu
 121 (2023) analyze the robustness of sentiment analysis models against modality drops, while UniMF
 122 (Huan et al., 2023) proposes a unified framework for unaligned and missing sequences. Techniques
 123 to address this range from simple imputation (Tran et al., 2017; Pham et al., 2019; Wang et al.,
 124 2023b) to sophisticated strategies like noise imitation (Yuan et al., 2023) and multimodal mixup
 125 (Lin & Hu, 2024) to enhance representation robustness. Other approaches utilize deep generative
 126 models to synthesize either the missing data itself or its latent representation (Hoffman et al., 2016;
 127 Zheng et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021; Zhi et al., 2024). Huang et al. (2025) push this boundary
 128 by exploring out-of-modal generalization without relying on instance-level modal correspondence.
 129 However, these studies predominantly focus on the retrospective problem of handling missing values
 130 or ensuring robustness within a fixed, pre-existing dataset. In contrast, we focus on the critical,
 131 practical constraint of a limited data collection budget. Our work addresses the prospective challenge
 132 of creating a systematic methodology to prioritize which modalities to collect initially, aiming to
 133 maximize performance gain from new data acquisition.

134 **Modality Imbalance and Selection in MML.** By learning complementary information from
 135 multiple sources, it is expected that MML can achieve better performance than using a single modality.
 136 However, recent works have shown that some modalities are more dominant than others (Du et al.,
 137 2023; Peng et al., 2022), and different modalities overfit and converge at different rates (Wang et al.,
 138 2020), leading to the modality imbalance problem and counterproductive MML performance (Ismail
 139 et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021b). Fan et al. (2023) found that the dominant modality not only suppresses
 140 the learning rates of other modalities but also interferes with their update direction. Several methods
 141 have been proposed to address this, such as modulating learning pace (Zhang et al., 2023a), alternating
 142 unimodal learning (Zhang et al., 2024), or using sparse mixture-of-experts (Peng et al., 2023). Wei
 143 & Hu (2024) propose boosting multimodal learning via innocent unimodal assistance to achieve
 144 Pareto optimality. Yang et al. (2024) facilitate classification by dynamically learning and bridging the
 145 modality gap. While gradient conflicts have been studied to mitigate modality collapse (Javaloy et al.,
 146 2022), the selection of optimal modalities remains a challenge. Recently, He et al. (2024) proposed
 147 selecting modalities based on Shapley values to improve inference efficiency. However, their work
 148 focuses on reducing computational FLOPs during inference by pruning modalities, whereas our
 149 work focuses on the *data acquisition* stage. We aim to optimize the collection budget by selecting
 150 synergistic modalities and generating the rest, thereby addressing both the cost of acquisition and the
 151 issue of detrimental modality interference.

152 3 METHODOLOGY 153

154 3.1 TASK FORMULATION OF MULTIMODAL LEARNING UNDER LIMITED DATA BUDGET

155 In this section, we describe the resource-constrained multimodal learning problem in which we have a
 156 limited data collection budget B in addition to available data. Formally, let $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, \dots, M_{|\mathcal{M}|}\}$ be
 157 a set of m modalities, e.g., video (V), audio (A), and text (T). Let $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{|\mathcal{D}|}, y_{|\mathcal{D}|})\}$
 158 denote the available training data, where $|\mathcal{D}|$ refers to the number of samples in the dataset. The input
 159 x_i belongs to the input space \mathcal{X} , and the output y_i belongs to the output space \mathcal{Y} . Specifically, \mathcal{Y}
 160 can represent a finite set of discrete classes for classification tasks or the space of possible output
 161 sequences for generation tasks. We further assume that each input x_i can be decomposed into
 162 components corresponding to each modality: $x_i = x_i^1, \dots, x_i^{|\mathcal{M}|}$, where x_i^j indicates the data for the
 163 modality M_j associated with the i -th sample. Given a fixed data collection budget $B = M * N$.

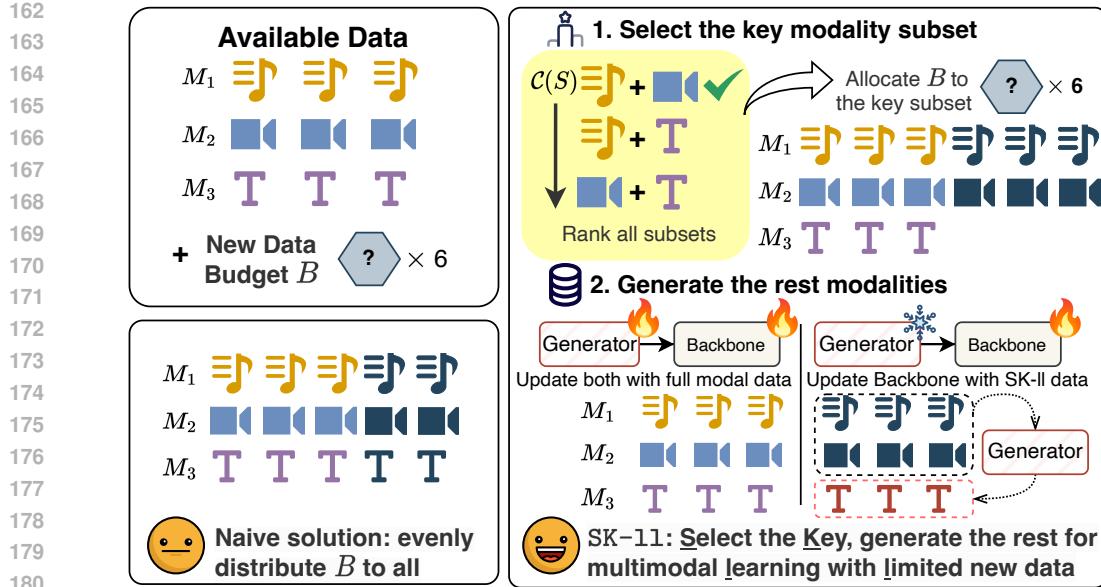


Figure 2: Overview of SK-11. *Top-left* shows the task setting, where there are some available multimodal data along with a limited new data budget B . *Right* illustrates SK-11 framework approaching MML under limited new data with two steps. (1) We first select the key modality subset by evaluating the cooperation indicator $C(S)$, ranking all possible subsets, and allocating the data budget B to the top subset. (2) We then synthesize missing modalities corresponding to increased sample amounts through generators. In the second step, we start model training by updating both the generator and multimodal backbone with available full modal data, then continue improving the multimodal backbone with new data from SK-11. *Bottom-left* contrasts with a naive solution that evenly distributes the new data budget to all modalities.

Our goal is to find an optimal allocation strategy defined by $\{\beta_j\}_{j=1}^m$, where each element $\beta_j \in \mathbb{N}_0$ represents the number of additional samples to be collected for modality M_j . The allocation must satisfy the following budget constraint: $\sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j \leq B$. The objective of this multimodal data allocation strategy is to maximize the performance of a model trained in the data set that combines existing data \mathcal{D} and newly collected samples \mathcal{D}' according to the allocation strategy.

3.2 SELECT THE KEY: MODALITY IMPORTANCE INDICATOR

The introduction of a new modality usually could bring a non-negative effect, as prior work shows that learning with more modalities provably achieves a smaller population risk (Huang et al., 2021). However, the marginal benefit from new modalities may also decrease as more modalities are included. Therefore, being able to proactively select the most useful modalities can help reduce the cost of collecting and maintaining weak modalities, and improve computational efficiency.

There is a line of works that explore how to quantify the contributions of modality and modalities interaction in multimodal learning. (Gat et al., 2021) introduce the perceptual score that assesses the degree to which a model relies on the different subsets of the input features. (Hu et al., 2022) use the Shapley value to evaluate the cross-modal cooperation for the whole dataset. (Wei et al., 2024) further improve the multimodal cooperation at the sample level using the introduced Shapley-based metric. (Wenderoth et al., 2024) introduces InterSHAP that dissects cross-modal interaction from multimodal learning uses the Shapley interaction index.

Our work focuses on measuring the importance of individual modalities and cooperation in a data-limited scenario. We formalize this intuition by defining an indicator of importance for the combination of modality that captures both the marginal contribution of the individual modalities involved and the degree of complementarity between the modalities.

Inspired by the cooperative game theory, the Shapley value (Roth, 1988) $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ measures each player's contribution to overall performance via the weighted average of their marginal contributions to all possible coalitions. Multimodal learning is considered a coalition game of $|\mathcal{M}|$ modalities, and the

216 Shapley value of modality M_j is defined as in Equation 1:
 217

$$218 \quad \phi_{M_j}(\mathcal{M}, f_u) := \sum_{S \subseteq \mathcal{M} \setminus \{j\}} \frac{|S|!(|\mathcal{M}| - |S| - 1)!}{|\mathcal{M}|!} (f_u(S \cup \{M_j\}) - f_u(S)) \quad (1)$$

221 where S is a modality subset of \mathcal{M} , and $j \notin S$. The contribution of each modality and modality
 222 subset is measured by the utility function $f_u(\cdot) : 2^M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

223 We quantify the utility of a set of input modalities S by measuring the reduction in the best achievable
 224 expected loss when using S , compared to that when models have access to no modalities (*i.e.* only a
 225 constant prediction). Formally, let $\ell(\cdot, \cdot)$ be a loss function, and $G(S)$ be the set of predictors from
 226 observing modality subset S , and $G(\emptyset)$ be predicting the same constant c .

$$228 \quad f_u(S) = \min_{c \in G(\emptyset)} \mathbb{E}[\ell(Y, c)] - \min_{g \in G(S)} \mathbb{E}[\ell(Y, g(X))] \quad (2)$$

230 The first term in equation 2 represents the minimal loss achieved by any constant predictor, providing
 231 a baseline level of performance, while the second term is the minimal loss achieved by an optimal
 232 predictor using modality subset S . This definition captures the intuition that multimodal input, by
 233 incorporating diverse sources of information, typically reduces prediction loss. The utility score
 234 thus facilitates ranking and selecting the most informative modalities based on their contribution to
 235 predictive accuracy. When all modalities are independent, their marginal contributions are distinct; in
 236 such cases, greedily selecting the modality with the highest contribution iteratively builds a subset
 237 that optimizes the data collection strategy for maximizing model performance.

238 In such cases, we use a scaled Shapley value to measure each modality’s individual contribution,
 239 where Z is the total utility gain of the full model, acting as a dataset-level normalization factor (Gat
 240 et al., 2021):

$$241 \quad \widehat{\phi}_{M_j}(\mathcal{M}; f_u) = \frac{1}{Z} \phi_{M_j}(\mathcal{M}; f_u) \quad (3)$$

243 However, the Shapley value is an additive measure that allocates the total payoff to individual
 244 players, effectively marginalizing out specific interaction structures. To explicitly capture how
 245 modalities cooperate within a specific subset S (*e.g.*, identifying whether they provide complementary
 246 information beyond their individual capabilities), we propose a measure of **Interaction Synergy**.

247 Specifically, let $S \subseteq \mathcal{M}$ be a subset of modalities. We define the normalized cooperation score $\mathcal{C}(S)$
 248 as the utility gain of the subset adjusted by the sum of independent unimodal utilities:

$$249 \quad \mathcal{C}(S) = \frac{1}{Z_S} \left(f_u(S) - \sum_{M_j \in S} f_u(\{M_j\}) \right), \quad (4)$$

253 where $f_u(S)$ is the actual utility gain of the combined subset, and $\sum f_u(\{M_j\})$ represents the
 254 baseline utility if modalities were assumed to be independent. To ensure this metric is comparable
 255 across subsets with varying performance scales, we normalize it by $Z_S = f_u(S)$, which denotes the
 256 performance capacity of the subset itself. Intuitively, a positive $\mathcal{C}(S)$ indicates a synergistic effect
 257 (the joint performance exceeds the mere sum of individual contributions), whereas a negative score
 258 suggests redundancy or interference between modalities.

259 Table 1 presents the modality importance scores over a few affection computing datasets under limited
 260 data availability, using classification accuracy as the utility function. We take the majority-class
 261 accuracy as a baseline when certain modalities are absent. All possible permutations are evaluated so
 262 that both unimodal contributions and cross-modal interactions are thoroughly assessed.

263 3.3 GENERATE THE REST: MODALITY-INTERFERENCE-AWARE INCOMPLETE MODALITY 264 GENERATION

266 Informed by SK-11, we obtain the most useful subset of all modalities $S_{\text{ava}} = \{M_1, M_2, \dots, M_p\}$,
 267 while the other modalities could not be observed, *i.e.*, $S_{\text{miss}} = M \setminus S_{\text{ava}}$. With available modalities
 268 S_{ava} , the subsequent task is to recover missing modalities S_{miss} conditioned on the available ones
 269 for better fusion. The incomplete modality generation process consists of the following three parts:
(1) Shallow feature extraction. We first extract the shallow features of all available modalities and

project them into the same dimensional space, the input features being $X_{\text{ava}} = \mathbf{X}^{(M_i)}$, $M_i \in S_{\text{ava}}$. Under a fixed missing protocol, various available modality combinations are included, which are presented in Table 1. **(2) Missing Modality Generation.** For classification task, we then use a class-specific flow generation model to recover missing modalities from the perspective of data distribution (Wang et al., 2023a). It is important to note that the feature reconstruction module was canceled due to the lack of ground truth samples for the additionally allocated portion. We also preserve the class-specific design to enhance the discriminability for different classes of samples. Given a sample subset X_{ava} of class c , the normalizing flows $\mathbf{Z}^{(M_i)}$ is thus optimized only by a cross-modal distribution transfer loss defined as:

$$l_{\text{gen}} = - \sum_{M_i \in S_{\text{ava}}} \left[\log p_{Z^{(M_i)}}(\mathbf{Z}^{(M_i)} | y = c) + \log \left| \det \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{Z}^{(M_i)}}{\partial \mathbf{X}^{(M_i)}} \right) \right| \right] \quad (5)$$

where the first term denotes the log-density of $\mathbf{Z}^{(M_i)}$ on the condition of the label category c , and the second term is the log-determinant of normalizing flow model for modality M_i . In detail, $Z^{(M_i)} = \mathcal{F}^{(M_i)}(X^{(M_i)}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_c, \Sigma_c)$, $M_i \in S_{\text{ava}}$, where $Z^{(M_i)}$ is the latent state of the modality M_i , $\mathcal{F}^{(M_i)}$ is the corresponding forward flow function, and c is the class label of the input sample X_{ava} . The generation objective forces the representations from different modalities to have a similar distribution over the discrete feature space.

The entire training is implemented in an end-to-end manner, jointly optimizing the model parameters for both multimodal fusion and incomplete modality generation components. We integrate the above losses to reach the full optimization objective as $\mathcal{L} = l_{\text{task}} + \alpha \times l_{\text{gen}}$, where l_{task} is the task-specific loss defined as the mean absolute error for the regression task, and α control the importance of the generation loss function and modality conflict loss, respectively.

3.4 OVERVIEW OF OUR FRAMEWORK

The overview of our method is illustrated in Figure 2. The complete algorithm for crafting a recipe for dataset in the limited data regime is summarized in Algorithm 1. Algorithm 1 starts with an empty set, and subsequently adds to the current set the new modality that maximizes the marginal gain at each iteration. For each candidate modality M_i , we (1) train two models on S and $S \cup M_i$ respectively until training losses converge, and (2) record the difference between two sets of performance metrics, and compute the importance scores; (3) select the top p modalities (where p is the cardinal constraint of modalities that can be selected) based on the ranked importance score, and add the selected modality to S to construct S_{i+1} . Normally we end up with more complementary modalities, ensuring that the modality learning utility (i.e., f_1 or f_2 values) selected in each iteration is a positive value. That is to say, the modality selection process terminates when no modality with a positive effect on the current combination can be found in any iteration. Given the optimal modality combination, we next utilize available data modalities to generate missing modality, to form full modal representations that will be then used in multimodal fusion and prediction.

4 EXPERIMENT

4.1 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

Backbone Models and Benchmarks. We evaluate our proposed SK-11 across below multimodal learning backbones and application:

Table 1: Accuracy (Acc.) of MuLT on MOSI and MOSEI, all with 40% training data. The cooperation $\mathcal{C}(\cdot)$ scores over each modality subset S , and our proposed indicator to measure the importance of modality in multimodal learning. Rank.: the rank of each subset in $\mathcal{C}(S)$.

Datasets	S	Acc.	$\mathcal{C}(S)$	Rank.
MOSI	T, A	75.02	-0.015	2
	T, V	77.52	0.014	1
	A, V	55.63	-0.066	3
MOSEI	T, A	70.92	0.037	1
	T, V	70.35	0.029	2
	A, V	52.57	-0.101	3

Algorithm 1 Step-wise Maximization of Modality Selection

```

1: Data: Full modality set  $M = \{M_1, \dots, M_{|M|}\}$ , fixed sampling budget  $B$ 
2: Input: Unimodal contribution  $f_1$  (Eq. 3), cross-modal cooperation  $f_2$  (Eq. 4), max number of modalities to select  $k$ 
3: Output:  $S_k$ 
4:  $S_0 = \emptyset$ 
5: for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, k - 1$  do
6:   if  $i = 0$  then
7:      $M^i = \arg \max_{M_j \in M} f_1(M_j)$ 
8:   else
9:      $M^i = \arg \max_{M_j \in M \setminus S_i} f_2(S_i, M_j)$ 
10:  end if
11:   $S_{i+1} = S_i \cup \{M^i\}$ 
12: end for

```

324 • **Affection computing:** We apply SK-11 on Multimodal Transformer (Yu et al., 2019) with Flow-
 325 based generation model (Wang et al., 2023a) with the **MOSI** (Zadeh et al., 2016) and **MOSEI** (Zadeh
 326 et al., 2018) datasets, which provide multimodal data consisting of Text (T), Video (V), and Audio (A),
 327 all aligned at the clip level. **Specially, the modality Video refers strictly to visual frame features.** The
 328 **MOSI** dataset contains 1,284 training, 229 validation, and 686 testing samples, each annotated with
 329 sentiment labels. The **MOSEI** dataset, an extension of **MOSI**, includes a larger collection with 16,326
 330 training, 1,871 validation, and 4,659 samples, and also provides continuous sentiment intensity labels.
 331 Each sample is labeled with a sentiment valence ranging from -3 (strongly negative) to +3 (strongly
 332 positive). In addition, we apply SK-11 on a multimodal pre-training CoMM (Dufumier et al.,
 333 2025), a multimodal pre-training architecture, with another two affection computing benchmarks
 334 **UR-Funny** (Hasan et al., 2019), **MUSTARD** (Castro et al., 2019). For evaluation metrics, we use
 335 Accuracy2 on all affection computing benchmarks.
 336

336 • **Healthcare Application:** We apply SK-11 on Flex-MoE (Yun et al., 2024), a MoE-based mul-
 337 timodal model achieving SOTA performance on healthcare benchmarks. We test SK-11 with
 338 Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) (Weiner et al., 2010), which involves four
 339 key modalities for AD stage prediction, and the Medical Information Mart for Intensive Care IV
 340 (MIMIC-IV) dataset (Johnson et al., 2019) spanning across ICD-9 codes, clinical text, and vital
 341 values modalities. We only keep the samples with all modalities in MIMIC and ADNI for training.
 342 For evaluation, we use F1 as the performance indicator.
 343

343 **Baselines.** For lower bound of SK-11, we train a model using a minimal amount of data, repre-
 344 senting the base scenario. The baseline approach allocates the data collection budget evenly across
 345 all modalities. In the SK-11 experiment, the modality importance indicator selects the key modality
 346 combination, and the budget is evenly distributed across this combination. Missing modalities are
 347 generated to complete the data. Finally, the **upper bound** scenario allocates a separate, dedicated
 348 budget to each modality.

349 **Training and Evaluation Details.** We conduct four groups of experiments for each dataset, with
 350 the lower bound set to 10%, 20%, 30%, and 40%, respectively. Each experiment is repeated five
 351 times with different random seeds, and the final results are reported as the mean \pm standard deviation.
 352 For all experiments, the data collection budget is fixed at 10%. For example, when the lower bound
 353 is set to 10%, the Baseline setting trains the model with 13.33% of the full modalities data, while
 354 the upper bound trains with 20% of the full modalities data. For unimodal training, the maximum
 355 number of epochs is set to 100, the learning rate is set to 1e-4, the batch size is set to 128, and weight
 356 decay is set to 0.005, with the patience for early stopping set to 8. These settings are consistent across
 357 all modalities in both the **MOSI** and **CMU-MOSEI** datasets. For multimodal training, the maximum
 358 number of epochs is set to 100, the learning rate is set to 1e-4, batch size is set to 128, weight decay is
 359 set to 0.005, and patience is set to 10. These settings are applied to all possible modality combinations
 360 in the affection computing datasets. On the **ADNI** and **MIMIC** datasets, we follow the training and
 361 evaluation setting as (Yun et al., 2024).

362 Our experimental setup guarantees fair comparison under the same New Data Budget B by ensuring
 363 that the effective increase in complete multi-modal training instances, enabled by the new data budget
 364 B , is consistent across our method (SK-11) and baselines. The budget B defines the total number of
 365 new samples introduced. Baselines typically allocate this budget evenly; for example, with $B=10\%$
 366 and three modalities ($|\mathcal{M}| = 3$), each modality receives about 3.33% new data, resulting in a 3.33%
 367 increase in paired triplets. In contrast, SK-11 focus the budget, e.g., selecting two modalities and
 368 acquiring one new data for each. To equalize the comparison, for every new sample pair acquired
 369 in the selected modalities, SK-11 generates the corresponding features for the unselected modality.
 370 This yields a 5% increase in total sample pairs.

370 4.2 SUPERIOR PERFORMANCE OF SK-LL

371 Based on the results presented in Table 2, serval key observations can be drawn regarding the
 372 performance of our proposed SK-11 compared to the baselines across affection computing (**MOSI**,
 373 **MOSEI**, **UR-Funny**, and **MUSTARD**) and healthcare (**MIMIC** and **ADNI**).

374 **Naively allocating new data budget to all modalities results in suboptimal performance gain
 375 and even decrease.** Simply augmenting data by allocating the budget evenly across all modalities
 376 (Baseline) is often suboptimal and can even be detrimental. As observed on the **MOSI** dataset at
 377 10% and 40% available data, the Baseline method performs worse than the configuration using only

378
 379 Table 2: Performance of SK-11 across applied to classification tasks and traditional multimodal model. There
 380 are in total 4 groups of experiments, shown in rows with same color (pink, blue, green, orange), with upper and lower adjacent
 381 experiments trained on full modality data as upper and lower bound. Best results are **bolden**. “Ava. \mathcal{D} ” stand for
 382 available data ratio. “Gen.” stand for whether we generate data embedding for missing modalities. “Baseline”
 383 method simply allocate quota to all modalities evenly. For Baseline and SK-11 we select data budget B as
 384 10%.

384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393 394 395 396 397	Ava. \mathcal{D}	Gen.	Method	MulT		CoMM		Flex-MoE	
				MOSI	MOSEI	UR-Funny	MUSTARD	ADNI	MIMIC
10%	-	-	Baseline	72.01 \pm 2.54	69.83 \pm 1.43	51.79 \pm 2.02	59.07 \pm 0.32	30.61 \pm 7.15	57.34 \pm 0.85
			SK-11	70.52 \pm 3.83	71.94 \pm 0.33	51.10 \pm 2.82	59.60\pm0.47	32.34 \pm 4.95	57.70 \pm 0.61
	20%	✓	Baseline	75.18\pm1.36	76.82\pm6.67	51.62\pm1.11	59.19 \pm 0.04	48.87\pm3.65	58.41\pm1.05
			SK-11	71.78 \pm 2.32	71.07 \pm 0.67	50.16 \pm 2.65	59.67 \pm 0.82	40.90 \pm 7.24	59.16 \pm 0.55
30%	-	-	Baseline	76.24 \pm 0.77	70.63 \pm 1.28	57.72\pm1.11	59.73 \pm 0.15	44.44 \pm 6.91	59.78 \pm 0.75
			SK-11	77.93\pm0.60	80.81\pm0.37	52.06 \pm 3.20	61.61\pm1.02	54.06\pm5.49	60.13\pm0.81
	40%	✓	Baseline	76.24 \pm 0.72	71.29 \pm 0.65	52.99 \pm 0.97	59.27 \pm 0.37	49.69 \pm 4.55	60.37 \pm 0.73
			SK-11	76.53\pm1.42	71.71 \pm 0.89	54.28\pm3.15	61.61 \pm 0.20	54.11 \pm 2.12	61.52\pm0.83
50%	-	-	Baseline	77.26 \pm 0.82	71.21 \pm 1.14	53.86 \pm 1.52	60.37 \pm 0.22	53.70 \pm 4.32	60.48 \pm 0.82
			SK-11	77.11\pm1.70	71.10 \pm 0.84	55.93 \pm 3.36	61.51 \pm 0.29	54.28 \pm 2.23	61.30 \pm 1.03
	-	-	Baseline	79.94\pm0.87	80.16\pm0.25	57.70\pm2.16	62.24\pm0.19	61.76\pm0.43	62.87\pm0.80
			SK-11	76.82 \pm 1.93	71.84 \pm 0.52	56.82 \pm 1.58	61.40 \pm 0.48	63.96 \pm 3.20	62.19 \pm 1.78

398 the initial available data, with performance drops. Similarly, on the UR-Funny at 10% available
 399 data and MUSTARD at 40% available data, the Baseline yields lower results compared to the results
 400 with initial available data. While adding data evenly does provide improvements in some cases (e.g.,
 401 ADNI), it underscore that naive data augmentation does not guarantee performance gains, particularly
 402 in very limited data regimes if the added data modalities does not effectively contribute to multimodal
 403 learning.

404 **SK-11 surpasses Baseline with significant margins.** Our proposed method SK-11, which first
 405 determines key modalities for budget allocation and generates missing data, demonstrates substantial
 406 performance improvements across the all benchmarks. It consistently outperforms the initial available
 407 data setting and, in most cases, surpasses the Baseline approach, often by significant margins. ①
 408 SK-11 generalizes across tasks and multimodal backbones: The effectiveness of SK-11 is not
 409 confined to a specific problem type or model architecture, showing robust performance across diverse
 410 settings. On affective computing we experiment with both fusion MML model (MulT) and self-
 411 supervised learning MML model (CoMM). On the MOSI and MOSEI datasets using MulT, SK-11
 412 consistently yields significant gains over Baselines. While on healthcare tasks (ADNI and MIMIC)
 413 with Mixture-of-Experts style MML model Flex-MoE, SK-11 also consistently delivers strong
 414 results. On more abundant benchmark ADNI, SK-11 even achieves a 6.726% average increase over
 415 Baseline. These consistent improvement across different task domains and underlying multimodal
 416 architectures highlights the broad applicability of our selective budget allocation strategy. ② SK-11
 417 generalizes across data availability ratios: Furthermore, the advantages of SK-11 hold across the
 418 spectrum of initial data availability ratios tested from 10% to 40%. On relative low available data
 419 ratios, SK-11 provides substantial benefits even when starting with minimal data. The improvement
 420 on MOSEI at the 10% lower bound (76.82 vs 71.94 Baseline) exemplifies this. Moreover, SK-11
 421 continues to outperform as initial data increases, even with a relatively larger initial dataset (40% lower
 422 bound), SK-11 maintains its edge, as seen on MIMIC (62.87 vs 61.30 Baseline) and MOSEI (80.16
 423 vs 71.10 Baseline). This underscores the robustness of our approach. These findings demonstrate
 424 effective budget utilization regardless of the initial data scale. The overall trend strongly supports that
 425 SK-11 offers a robust, generalizable, and data-efficient approach to enhancing multimodal model
 426 performance through strategic data collection under limited data scenario.

4.3 EXTRA STUDIES

427 **SK-11 Performs Consistently Under Varied New Data Budgets** In our primary experiments, we
 428 fixed the new data budget to 10% across varying availability levels. To examine the generalizability
 429 of SK-11 across different data budget scenarios, we conduct additional experiments using three
 430 different budget ratios (10%, 30%, and 50%), representing multimodal learning contexts ranging
 431 from low to high resource availability. The results presented in Table 3 demonstrate consistent and

432

433
434
435
Table 3: Performance of SK-11 across applied to multimodal models trained with 10%, 30%, 50% data, with
varied data increment 10%, 30%, 50% . The dataset is MOSI and metrics is Acc. New data collection quota is
set to $i \times \frac{1}{|M|}$ per increment, where M is the number of modalities.

Ava. \mathcal{D}	+10% Data		+30% Data		+50% Data	
	Baseline	SK-11	Baseline	SK-11	Baseline	SK-11
10%	70.52 \pm 3.83	75.18\pm1.36	71.78 \pm 2.32	75.83\pm1.42	73.61 \pm 4.84	76.12\pm0.71
30%	76.53 \pm 1.42	79.18\pm0.56	77.26 \pm 0.82	77.67\pm0.95	77.63 \pm 1.58	79.59\pm0.39
50%	77.93 \pm 0.99	79.24\pm0.70	78.68 \pm 2.56	79.49\pm0.68	79.13 \pm 1.94	80.10\pm0.44

440

441

442
443
444
significant performance improvements by SK-11 across all tested budget settings, highlighting its
robustness and flexibility in managing data resource constraints.

445

446
447
448
Table 4: **Ablation study on the Budget Allocation Strategy.** We fix the modality subset from the “Selection”
step and vary the budget ratio assigned to the identified “Primary Modality.” The baseline is a uniform split (50%
for 2 modalities). The dataset is MOSI and metrics is Acc2.

Ava. \mathcal{D}	Modality Subset		Ratio for Primary Modality			
	Selected	Primary	50%	60%	70%	80%
10%	<i>T, A</i>	<i>T</i>	75.18\pm1.36	74.17 \pm 0.92	73.89 \pm 1.70	74.05 \pm 1.09
30%	<i>T, V</i>	<i>T</i>	79.18\pm0.56	78.20 \pm 1.36	77.86 \pm 0.61	77.67 \pm 0.60
50%	<i>T, V</i>	<i>T</i>	79.24\pm0.70	78.24 \pm 0.70	77.90 \pm 0.58	77.36 \pm 0.76

454

455
456
457
458
459
460
461
462
463
Balanced Data Allocation Strategy Improves Efficiency and Stability We investigate the effectiveness of different budget allocation strategies for newly collected data. Specifically, we compare a weighted allocation strategy, where modalities within a subset are ranked according to their single-modal Shapley values, prioritizing modalities with higher contributions (denoted as the “Primary Modality”) against a balanced allocation. Results summarized in Table 4 indicate that performance differences among various allocation strategies are marginal, with excessively emphasizing the primary modality potentially harming overall performance. Consequently, for simplicity and pipeline efficiency, we uniformly distribute the data budget among modalities, as applied in our primary results.

474

475
476
477
478
Evaluating the Modality Importance Indicator. First, to evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed modality importance indicator, we conduct a case study using the MOSI dataset. We separately allocate data collection budgets to all possible modality combinations and compare the modality importance ranks from the indicator with the actual experimental results. With a lower bound set at 20%, we rank the combinations using Algorithm 1, which orders them as $\{T, A\}$, $\{T, V\}$, and $\{A, V\}$. The experimental results align with the indicator’s ranking, with $\{T, A\}$ yielding the best performance and $\{A, V\}$ the poorest. Detailed results can be found in Appendix A.1. Second, to verify the reliability of the indicator, we test its stability under varying amounts of initial available data. We compute the cooperation score $\mathcal{C}(S)$ and the actual downstream task accuracy for all modality pair combinations on the MOSI dataset, with available data ratios ranging from 10% to 40%. As presented in Table 5, the optimal modality subset for data collection can shift as more data becomes available—for instance, changing from $\{T, A\}$ at 10% and 20% data to $\{T, V\}$ at 30% and 40% . Our indicator $\mathcal{C}(S)$ correctly tracks this shift, consistently identifying the best-performing combination at each stage. This result confirms that our indicator is robust and reliably adapts to different data-limited scenarios, providing a solid foundation for our selection strategy.

485

486
487
488
489
Fairness Audit in Healthcare Application To evaluate the fairness and potential biases of our method in sensitive domains, we conducted a fairness audit on the ADNI healthcare dataset. We disaggregated the model’s performance by gender and age subgroups, comparing our SK-11 framework against the uniform-allocation baseline and no-generation models under a 40% available data and 10% new data budget setting. As shown in Table 6, SK-11 mitigates the age-related accuracy gap observed in the baseline (0.067 vs. 0.094) while maintaining a comparable gender gap. This analysis suggests that our strategic data selection and generation process not only enhances overall accuracy but also promotes more equitable performance across different patient populations.

486
 487 Table 5: The stability of our modality importance indicator $\mathcal{C}(S)$ on MOSI. The indicator’s ranking
 488 aligns with the actual subset performance (Acc2) as the amount of available data changes. Best
 489 performing subset at each data ratio is bolded.

Ava. \mathcal{D}	Accuracy (Acc)			Indicator $\mathcal{C}(S)$ Value		
	T+A	T+V	A+V	T+A	T+V	A+V
10%	71.05\pm1.16	68.48 \pm 2.26	48.57 \pm 4.63	0.120	0.035	0.078
20%	76.33\pm0.48	73.00 \pm 1.16	52.65 \pm 2.05	0.092	0.035	-0.010
30%	75.54 \pm 1.44	76.70\pm1.39	55.02 \pm 1.50	-0.008	0.041	0.006
40%	75.02 \pm 1.31	77.52\pm0.64	55.63 \pm 1.29	-0.015	0.014	-0.066

490
 491
 492
 493
 494
 495
 496
 497 Table 6: Model performance by subgroups on the ADNI dataset.

Model and Ava. \mathcal{D}	Male Acc.	Female Acc.	Gender Gap (Abs.)	Young Acc.	Old Acc.	Age Gap (Abs.)
No-Gen (40%)	0.489	0.485	0.004	0.457	0.492	0.035
Baseline (40%+10%)	0.552	0.549	0.003	0.457	0.551	0.094
SK-11 (40%+10%)	0.631	0.655	0.024	0.571	0.638	0.067
No-Gen (50%)	0.659	0.645	0.014	0.714	0.647	0.067

503
 504
 505 5 CONCLUSION

506 In this paper, we address the practical challenge of enhancing multimodal learning in data-limited
 507 scenarios where new data acquisition is constrained by a finite budget. We propose SK-11, a novel
 508 framework designed to strategically maximize the performance gain from this budget. Our framework
 509 operates in two stages: it first utilizes a modality importance indicator, grounded in Shapley values,
 510 to identify the most synergistic subset of modalities for data collection. Then, it allocates the entire
 511 budget to this key subset and employs a generative model to synthesize the missing modalities,
 512 creating complete data for robust training on downstream tasks.

513 Our extensive experiments across diverse affective computing and healthcare benchmarks demonstrate
 514 that SK-11 consistently and significantly outperforms naive, uniform budget allocation strategies.
 515 We show that this strategic selection leads to more stable training dynamics and that the approach
 516 is robust across various initial data availability ratios and generalizes across different multimodal
 517 backbones. Ultimately, SK-11 presents a principled and data-efficient paradigm for resource-
 518 constrained MML, shifting the focus from retrospectively handling missing data to prospectively
 519 optimizing data collection.

520
 521 REFERENCES

522 Santiago Castro, Devamanyu Hazarika, Verónica Pérez-Rosas, Roger Zimmermann, Rada Mihalcea,
 523 and Soujanya Poria. Towards multimodal sarcasm detection (an _obviously_ perfect paper). In
 524 Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL),
 525 pp. 4619–4629, 2019.

526 Minghai Chen, Sen Wang, Paul Pu Liang, Tadas Baltrušaitis, Amir Zadeh, and Louis-Philippe
 527 Morency. Multimodal sentiment analysis with word-level fusion and reinforcement learning. In
 528 Proceedings of the 19th ACM international conference on multimodal interaction, pp. 163–171,
 529 2017.

530 Yang Ding, Jing Yu, Bang Liu, Yue Hu, Mingxin Cui, and Qi Wu. Mukea: Multimodal knowledge
 531 extraction and accumulation for knowledge-based visual question answering. In Proceedings of
 532 the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pp. 5089–5098, 2022.

533 Chenzhuang Du, Jiaye Teng, Tingle Li, Yichen Liu, Tianyuan Yuan, Yue Wang, Yang Yuan, and
 534 Hang Zhao. On uni-modal feature learning in supervised multi-modal learning. In International
 535 Conference on Machine Learning, pp. 8632–8656. PMLR, 2023.

536 Benoit Dufumier, Javiera Castillo-Navarro, Devis Tuia, and Jean-Philippe Thiran. What to align in
 537 multimodal contrastive learning? In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2025.

540 Yunfeng Fan, Wenchao Xu, Haozhao Wang, Junxiao Wang, and Song Guo. Pmr: Prototypical modal
 541 rebalance for multimodal learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer*
 542 *Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 20029–20038, 2023.

543

544 Ankita Gandhi, Kinjal Adhvaryu, Soujanya Poria, Erik Cambria, and Amir Hussain. Multimodal senti-
 545 ment analysis: A systematic review of history, datasets, multimodal fusion methods, applications,
 546 challenges and future directions. *Information Fusion*, 91:424–444, 2023.

547

548 Itai Gat, Idan Schwartz, and Alex Schwing. Perceptual score: What data modalities does your model
 549 perceive? *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 34:21630–21643, 2021.

550

551 Rohit Girdhar, Alaaeldin El-Nouby, Zhuang Liu, Mannat Singh, Kalyan Vasudev Alwala, Armand
 552 Joulin, and Ishan Misra. Imagebind one embedding space to bind them all. In *IEEE/CVF*
 553 *Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, CVPR 2023, Vancouver, BC, Canada,*
 June 17-24, 2023, pp. 15180–15190. IEEE, 2023.

554

555 Zirun Guo, Tao Jin, and Zhou Zhao. Multimodal prompt learning with missing modalities for
 556 sentiment analysis and emotion recognition. In *Proceedings of the 62nd Annual Meeting of the*
 557 *Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 1726–1736, 2024.

558

559 Md Kamrul Hasan, Wasifur Rahman, Amir Zadeh, Jianyuan Zhong, Md Iftekhar Tanveer, Louis-
 560 Philippe Morency, et al. UR-FUNNY: A multimodal language dataset for understanding humor.
 561 In *Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*
 562 and the 9th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP),
 pp. 2046–2056, 2019.

563

564 Devamanyu Hazarika, Yingting Li, Bo Cheng, Shuai Zhao, Roger Zimmermann, and Soujanya Poria.
 565 Analyzing modality robustness in multimodal sentiment analysis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.15465*,
 566 2022.

567

568 Yifei He, Runxiang Cheng, Gargi Balasubramaniam, Yao-Hung Hubert Tsai, and Han Zhao. Efficient
 569 modality selection in multimodal learning. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 25(47):1–39,
 2024.

570

571 Judy Hoffman, Saurabh Gupta, and Trevor Darrell. Learning with side information through modality
 572 hallucination. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*,
 573 pp. 826–834, 2016.

574

575 Pengbo Hu, Xingyu Li, and Yi Zhou. Shape: An unified approach to evaluate the contribution and
 576 cooperation of individual modalities. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2205.00302*, 2022.

577

578 Ruohong Huan, Guowei Zhong, Peng Chen, and Ronghua Liang. Unimf: A unified multimodal
 579 framework for multimodal sentiment analysis in missing modalities and unaligned multimodal
 sequences. *IEEE Transactions on Multimedia*, 26:5753–5768, 2023.

580

581 Yu Huang, Chenzhuang Du, Zihui Xue, Xuanyao Chen, Hang Zhao, and Longbo Huang. What
 582 makes multi-modal learning better than single (provably). In *Proceedings of the 35th International*
 583 *Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 13, 2021.

584

585 Zhuo Huang, Gang Niu, Bo Han, Masashi Sugiyama, and Tongliang Liu. Towards out-of-modal
 586 generalization without instance-level modal correspondence. In *The Thirteenth International*
 587 *Conference on Learning Representations*, 2025.

588

589 Ilija Ilievski and Jiashi Feng. Multimodal learning and reasoning for visual question answering.
 590 *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017.

591

592 Aya Abdelsalam Ismail, Mahmudul Hasan, and Faisal Ishtiaq. Improving multimodal accuracy
 593 through modality pre-training and attention. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.06102*, 2020.

594

595 Adrián Javaloy, Maryam Meghdadi, and Isabel Valera. Mitigating modality collapse in multimodal
 596 vaes via impartial optimization. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2022.

594 Alistair E. W. Johnson, Tom J. Pollard, Seth J. Berkowitz, Nathaniel R. Greenbaum, Matthew P.
 595 Lungren, Chih ying Deng, Roger G. Mark, and Steven Horng. Mimic-cxr, a de-identified publicly
 596 available database of chest radiographs with free-text reports. *Scientific Data*, 6, 2019.
 597

598 Yi-Lun Lee, Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Wei-Chen Chiu, and Chen-Yu Lee. Multimodal prompting with miss-
 599 ing modalities for visual recognition. In *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern*
 600 *Recognition (CVPR)*, 2023a.

601 Yi-Lun Lee, Yi-Hsuan Tsai, Wei-Chen Chiu, and Chen-Yu Lee. Multimodal prompting with missing
 602 modalities for visual recognition. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer*
 603 *Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 14943–14952, 2023b.

604 Ronghao Lin and Haifeng Hu. Missmodal: Increasing robustness to missing modality in multimodal
 605 sentiment analysis. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 11:1686–1702,
 606 2023.

607 Ronghao Lin and Haifeng Hu. Adapt and explore: Multimodal mixup for representation learning.
 608 *Information Fusion*, 105:102216, 2024.

609 Siyu Lu, Mingzhe Liu, Lirong Yin, Zhengtong Yin, Xuan Liu, and Wenfeng Zheng. The multi-modal
 610 fusion in visual question answering: a review of attention mechanisms. *PeerJ Computer Science*,
 611 9:e1400, 2023.

612 Mengmeng Ma, Jian Ren, Long Zhao, Davide Testuggine, and Xi Peng. Are multimodal transformers
 613 robust to missing modality? In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision*
 614 and *Pattern Recognition*, pp. 18177–18186, 2022.

615 Mahmoud Meribout, Natnael Abule Takele, Olyad Derege, Nidal Rifiki, Mohamed El Khalil, Varun
 616 Tiwari, and Jing Zhong. Tactile sensors: A review. *Measurement*, pp. 115332, 2024.

617 Jie Peng, Kaixiong Zhou, Ruida Zhou, Thomas Hartvigsen, Yanyong Zhang, Zhangyang Wang, and
 618 Tianlong Chen. Sparse moe as a new treatment: Addressing forgetting, fitting, learning issues in
 619 multi-modal multi-task learning. 2023.

620 Xiaokang Peng, Yake Wei, Andong Deng, Dong Wang, and Di Hu. Balanced multimodal learning via
 621 on-the-fly gradient modulation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision*
 622 and *pattern recognition*, pp. 8238–8247, 2022.

623 Hai Pham, Paul Pu Liang, Thomas Manzini, Louis-Philippe Morency, and Barnabás Póczos. Found
 624 in translation: Learning robust joint representations by cyclic translations between modalities. In
 625 *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial intelligence*, pp. 6892–6899, 2019.

626 Yansheng Qiu, Delin Chen, Hongdou Yao, Yongchao Xu, and Zheng Wang. Scratch each other's
 627 back: Incomplete multi-modal brain tumor segmentation via category aware group self-support
 628 learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision*, pp.
 629 21317–21326, 2023.

630 Alvin E Roth. Introduction to the shapley value. *The Shapley value*, 1, 1988.

631 Mohammad Soleymani, David Garcia, Brendan Jou, Björn Schuller, Shih-Fu Chang, and Maja Pantic.
 632 A survey of multimodal sentiment analysis. *Image and Vision Computing*, 65:3–14, 2017.

633 Charles Sun, Jkderzej Orbik, Coline Devin, Brian Yang, Abhishek Gupta, Glen Berseth, and Sergey
 634 Levine. Fully autonomous real-world reinforcement learning with applications to mobile manipu-
 635 lation. In *Conference on Robot Learning*, 2021a.

636 Ya Sun, Sijie Mai, and Haifeng Hu. Learning to balance the learning rates between various modalities
 637 via adaptive tracking factor. *IEEE Signal Processing Letters*, 28:1650–1654, 2021b.

638 Luan Tran, Xiaoming Liu, Jiayu Zhou, and Rong Jin. Missing modalities imputation via cascaded
 639 residual autoencoder. In *Proceedings of the IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern*
 640 *recognition*, pp. 1405–1414, 2017.

648 Laurens van der Maaten and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Visualizing data using t-sne. *Journal of Machine*
 649 *Learning Research*, 9:2579–2605, 2008.

650

651 Weiyao Wang, Du Tran, and Matt Feiszli. What makes training multi-modal classification networks
 652 hard? In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition*,
 653 pp. 12695–12705, 2020.

654

655 Yuanzhi Wang, Zhen Cui, and Yong Li. Distribution-consistent modal recovering for incomplete
 656 multimodal learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer*
 657 *Vision*, pp. 22025–22034, 2023a.

658

659 Yuanzhi Wang, Yong Li, and Zhen Cui. Incomplete multimodality-diffused emotion recognition.
 660 *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 36:17117–17128, 2023b.

661

662 Shicai Wei, Chunbo Luo, and Yang Luo. Mmanet: Margin-aware distillation and modality-aware
 663 regularization for incomplete multimodal learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference*
 664 *on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*, pp. 20039–20049, 2023.

665

666 Yake Wei and Di Hu. Mmpareto: Boosting multimodal learning with innocent unimodal assistance.
 667 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.17730*, 2024.

668

669 Yake Wei, Ruoxuan Feng, Zihe Wang, and Di Hu. Enhancing multimodal cooperation via sample-
 670 level modality valuation. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and*
 671 *Pattern Recognition*, pp. 27338–27347, 2024.

672

673 Michael W. Weiner, Paul S. Aisen, Clifford R. Jack, William J. Jagust, John Q. Trojanowski, Les
 674 Shaw, Andrew J. Saykin, John C. Morris, Nigel J. Cairns, Laurel A Beckett, Arthur W. Toga,
 675 Robert C. Green, Sarah Walter, Holly D. Soares, Peter J. Snyder, Eric R. Siemers, William Z.
 676 Potter, Patricia E. Cole, and Mark E. Schmidt. The alzheimer’s disease neuroimaging initiative:
 677 Progress report and future plans. *Alzheimer’s & Dementia*, 6:202–211.e7, 2010.

678

679 Laura Wenderoth, Konstantin Hemker, Nikola Simidjievski, and Mateja Jamnik. Measuring cross-
 680 modal interactions in multimodal models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.15828*, 2024.

681

682 Zhenbang Wu, Anant Dadu, Nicholas Tustison, Brian Avants, Mike Nalls, Jimeng Sun, and Faraz
 683 Faghri. Multimodal patient representation learning with missing modalities and labels. In *The*
 684 *Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024.

685

686 Johnny Xi, Jana Osea, Zuheng Xu, and Jason S Hartford. Propensity score alignment of unpaired
 687 multimodal data. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:141103–141128, 2024.

688

689 Tingting Yang, Dan Xie, Zhihong Li, and Hongwei Zhu. Recent advances in wearable tactile sensors:
 690 Materials, sensing mechanisms, and device performance. *Materials Science and Engineering: R: Reports*, 115:1–37, 2017.

691

692 Yang Yang, Fengqiang Wan, Qing-Yuan Jiang, and Yi Xu. Facilitating multimodal classification
 693 via dynamically learning modality gap. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 37:
 694 62108–62122, 2024.

695

696 Jun Yu, Jing Li, Zhou Yu, and Qingming Huang. Multimodal transformer with multi-view visual rep-
 697 resentation for image captioning. *IEEE transactions on circuits and systems for video technology*,
 698 30(12):4467–4480, 2019.

699

700 Ziqi Yuan, Yihe Liu, Hua Xu, and Kai Gao. Noise imitation based adversarial training for robust
 701 multimodal sentiment analysis. *IEEE Transactions on Multimedia*, 26:529–539, 2023.

702

703 Sukwon Yun, Inyoung Choi, Jie Peng, Yangfan Wu, Jingxuan Bao, Qiyiwen Zhang, Jiayi Xin,
 704 Qi Long, and Tianlong Chen. Flex-moe: Modeling arbitrary modality combination via the flexible
 705 mixture-of-experts, 2024.

706

707 Amir Zadeh, Rowan Zellers, Eli Pincus, and Louis-Philippe Morency. Mosi: multimodal cor-
 708 pus of sentiment intensity and subjectivity analysis in online opinion videos. *arXiv preprint*
 709 *arXiv:1606.06259*, 2016.

702 AmirAli Bagher Zadeh, Paul Pu Liang, Soujanya Poria, Erik Cambria, and Louis-Philippe Morency.
 703 Multimodal language analysis in the wild: Cmu-mosei dataset and interpretable dynamic fu-
 704 sion graph. In Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational
 705 Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers), pp. 2236–2246, 2018.

706 707 Qingyang Zhang, Haitao Wu, Changqing Zhang, Qinghua Hu, Huazhu Fu, Joey Tianyi Zhou, and
 708 Xi Peng. Provable dynamic fusion for low-quality multimodal data. In International conference
 709 on machine learning, pp. 41753–41769. PMLR, 2023a.

710 711 Xiaohui Zhang, Jaehong Yoon, Mohit Bansal, and Huaxiu Yao. Multimodal representation learning
 712 by alternating unimodal adaptation. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer
 713 Vision and Pattern Recognition, pp. 27456–27466, 2024.

714 715 Yunhua Zhang, Hazel Doughty, and Cees Snoek. Learning unseen modality interaction. Advances in
 716 Neural Information Processing Systems, 36:54716–54726, 2023b.

717 718 Aihua Zheng, Zi Wang, Zihan Chen, Chenglong Li, and Jin Tang. Robust multi-modality person re-
 719 identification. In Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, pp. 3529–3537,
 720 2021.

721 722 Zhuo Zhi, Ziquan Liu, Moe Elbadawi, Adam Daneshmend, Mine Orlu, Abdul Basit, Andreas
 723 Demosthenous, and Miguel Rodrigues. Borrowing treasures from neighbors: In-context learning for
 724 multimodal learning with missing modalities and data scarcity. arXiv preprint arXiv:2403.09428,
 725 2024.

726 Tongxue Zhou, Stéphane Canu, Pierre Vera, and Su Ruan. Latent correlation representation learning
 727 for brain tumor segmentation with missing mri modalities. IEEE Transactions on Image Processing,
 728 30:4263–4274, 2021.

729 730 Bin Zhu, Bin Lin, Munan Ning, Yang Yan, Jiaxi Cui, Hongfa Wang, Yatian Pang, Wenhao Jiang,
 731 Junwu Zhang, Zongwei Li, Caiwan Zhang, Zhifeng Li, Wei Liu, and Li Yuan. Languagebind:
 732 Extending video-language pretraining to n-modality by language-based semantic alignment. In
 733 The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2024, Vienna, Austria,
 734 May 7-11, 2024. OpenReview.net, 2024.

735 736 Liang Zou, Chang Ge, Z Jane Wang, Edmond Cretu, and Xiaou Li. Novel tactile sensor technology
 737 and smart tactile sensing systems: A review. Sensors, 17(11):2653, 2017.

738 739
 740 741
 742 743
 744 745
 746 747
 748 749
 749 750
 750 751
 751 752
 752 753
 753 754
 754 755

756 **A APPENDIX**
757758 **A.1 EXTRA EXPERIMENTS**
759760 **Table 7: Results of different modality combination for generation.**
761

Combination	Acc2	F1 Score	Acc7
T+A	77.29±0.78	77.33±0.72	29.26±0.60
T+V	75.88±2.00	75.91±2.06	28.69±1.92
A+V	63.14±11.72	59.11±15.78	20.44±6.89

766 **Evaluating Modality Importance Indicator** As shown in Table 7, we allocate extra data collection
767 budget to all possible modality combinations and then report corresponding results. When setting
768 lower bound to 10%, our modality importance indicator orders the modality combinations as T+A,
769 followed by T+V, then A+V. The results shown in Table 7 is consistent with the order obtained by
770 indicator, proving the effectiveness of our proposed modality importance indicator.

771 **Evaluating SK-11 under Different Testing Conditions.** To assess the robustness of SK-11, we take MOSI as an
772 example, evaluating it under various testing conditions
773 using combinations of T , A , and V modalities: $\{T, A\}$,
774 $\{T, V\}$, $\{A, V\}$, and $\{T, A, V\}$. For instance, the T+A
775 condition uses only the Text and Audio modalities during
776 testing. All results are based on the best models validated
777 with the full validation set. As shown in Table 8, the
778 $\{T, A\}$ and $\{T, V\}$ conditions perform similarly to the
779 full testing set $\{T, A, V\}$, demonstrating the model’s ro-
780 bustness. In contrast, $\{A, V\}$ yields lower results, which
781 aligns with the indicator’s findings that $\{A, V\}$ is less suitable for budget allocation.
782

783 **Table 8: Ablation results under different**
784 **testing conditions across different available data (Ava. \mathcal{D}) on MOSI.**

Ava. \mathcal{D}	Testing Conditions			
	$\{T, A\}$	$\{T, V\}$	$\{A, V\}$	$\{T, A, V\}$
0.1	72.26	73.72	44.34	75.65
0.2	73.96	76.44	47.82	77.95
0.3	72.77	79.19	36.84	79.08
0.4	74.26	72.81	44.84	80.07

785 **Table 9: Comparison of different generative models on MOSI (20% available data + 10% new data**
786 **budget).**

Generator Model	Accuracy (Acc2)	Avg. Training Time per Epoch
Normalizing Flow (Ours)	77.93±0.60	~3s
Diffusion	75.49±1.28	~15s

787 **Ablation Study on Generative Models** To evaluate our choice of the generative model, we conduct
788 a comparative study between our normalizing flow-based approach and a diffusion-based alternative.
789 The experiment was performed on the MOSI dataset, using 20% available data with an additional 10%
790 new data budget allocated according to SK-11. The results, summarized in Table 9, demonstrate that
791 the normalizing flow model not only achieves superior accuracy but also exhibits significantly higher
792 computational efficiency, with a much shorter training time per epoch. Given that our framework
793 prioritizes both budget and resource efficiency, this outcome validates that the normalizing flow
794 model offers the best trade-off between predictive performance and computational cost for our task.
795

796 **Computational Cost and Scalability Analysis** A practical consideration for our SK-11 framework
797 is the up-front computational cost required to calculate the modality importance indicator, as this
798 process involves training or evaluating a model for each modality subset. To address this concern,
799 we provide a concrete benchmark of this one-time cost. As shown in Table 10, we measured the
800 total wall-clock time for the indicator computation on a single NVIDIA A6000 GPU. The results
801 show that this one-time cost is moderate and practical for model deployment, especially considering
802 that we utilize early stopping to reduce actual training time. Furthermore, we demonstrate that this
803 up-front cost can be drastically reduced without compromising the outcome of modality selection.
804 We conducted an experiment on the MOSI dataset where we computed the indicator using just 100
805 random samples and compared the resulting subset ranking to that derived from all available data.
806 The results in Table 11 show that while the absolute $\mathcal{C}(S)$ scores differ, the relative ranking of the
807 modality subsets is perfectly preserved. This finding confirms that the indicator can be reliably
808 estimated from a small data sample, significantly enhancing the efficiency and practical applicability
809 of SK-11 framework.

810
 811 Table 10: **One-Time Indicator Computation and Model Training Time.** We report the total wall-clock
 812 time (in minutes) for the modality selection process on a single NVIDIA A6000 GPU across different
 813 datasets and data availability ratios.

Dataset	Modalities	Available Data	SK-11 Indicator Computation	SK-11 Model Training	Baseline Model Training
MOSI	3	10%	8.13	~2.5	~1.8
		50%	13.99	~3.5	~2.5
MOSEI	3	10%	12.07	~3.8	~3.0
		50%	22.2	~6.5	~5.0
ADNI	4	10%	73	~12	~9
		50%	147	~25	~18
MIMIC	3	10%	39	~8	~6
		50%	137	~28	~22

814
 815
 816
 817
 818
 819
 820
 821
 822
 823 Table 11: Indicator Scores $C(S)$ on MOSI computed from all available data versus **5 non-overlap**
 824 **small random subset of 100 samples**. The relative ranking of subsets (T,V > T,A > A,V) is preserved,
 825 demonstrating the feasibility of using a small sample for efficient estimation.

Modality Subset	Acc. with All Data	$C(S)$ with All Data	$C(S)$ with 100 Samples
T, V	77.52	0.014	0.121 ± 0.008
T, A	75.02	-0.015	0.062 ± 0.007
A, V	55.63	-0.066	-0.094 ± 0.005

830 831 A.2 THE USAGE OF LLM

832 GPT-5 was employed for language refinement purposes only. Its application was confined to: (1)
 833 proofreading for typographical errors, and (2) correcting grammatical mistakes. The AI tool had no
 834 role in the formulation of research ideas, experimental design, data analysis, or the generation of any
 835 scientific content.

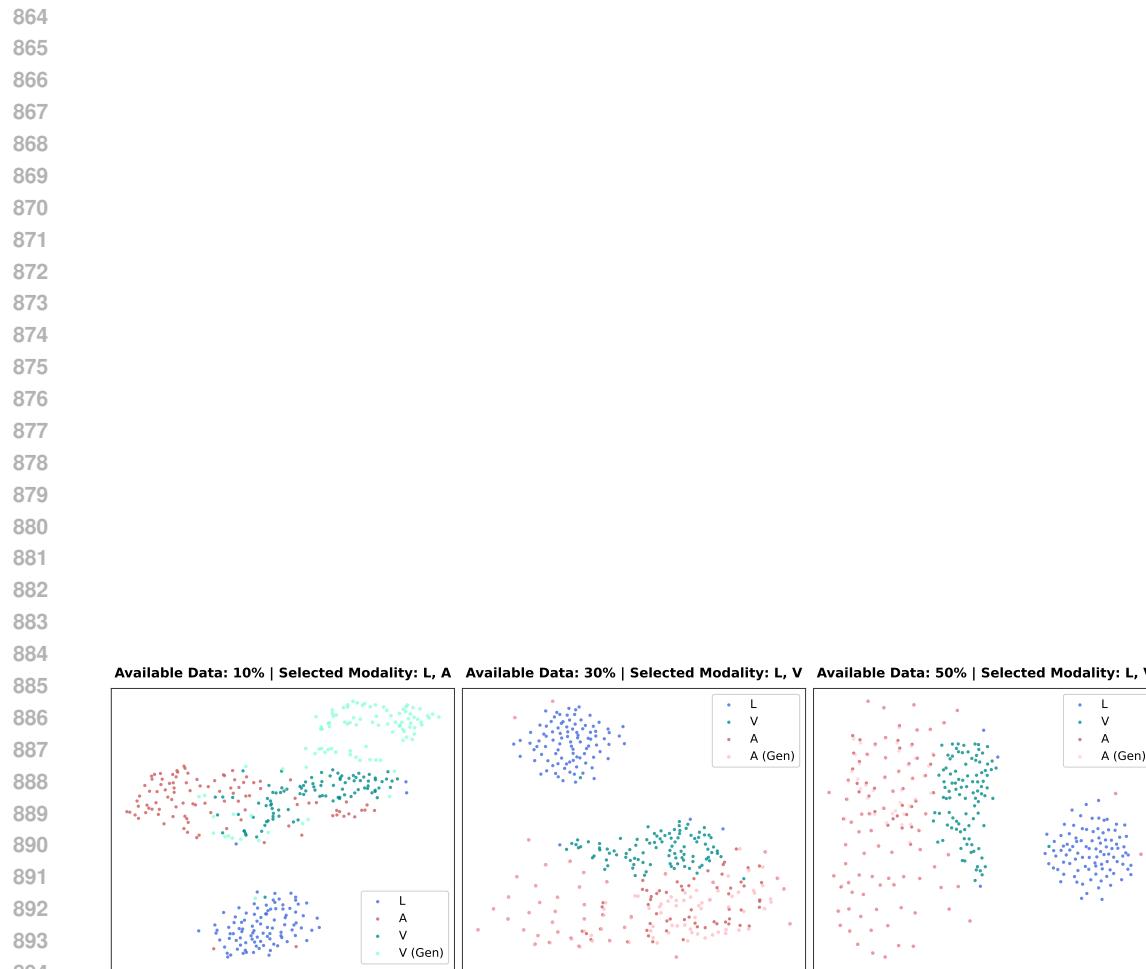
836 837 A.3 EXTRA IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

838
 839 **Generation Model Details** For the MuLT and CoMM backbones, we employ a class-conditional
 840 Normalizing Flow to synthesize missing modalities. The architecture comprises a shallow feature
 841 extractor (kernel size 5), a cross-modal distribution transfer module consisting of 32 invertible layers,
 842 and a reconstruction decoder utilizing 20 Residual Channel Attention Blocks. To accommodate
 843 varying dataset complexities, the hidden dimensions are set to 64 for CMU-MOSI and 128 for
 844 CMU-MOSEI. Conversely, for Flex-MoE, we utilize its learnable missing modality bank rather than
 845 a separate generator network. This framework is configured with a hidden dimension of 128 across
 846 tasks; specifically, on the ADNI dataset, it employs 16 experts with a Top-4 gating strategy, while on
 847 MIMIC-IV, it scales to 32 experts with a Top-3 gating strategy to effectively model diverse modality
 848 combinations.

849 A.4 VISUALIZATION OF GENERATED DATA

850 To qualitatively evaluate feature generation quality, we visualize the distributions of real and generated
 851 data using t-SNE (van der Maaten & Hinton, 2008). We randomly select 100 testing samples
 852 from MOSI, projecting their multimodal features onto a 2D plane. As illustrated in Figure 3, the
 853 generated features reside in the same latent manifold as the authentic data, preserving modality-
 854 specific structures. This confirms that SK-11 effectively synthesizes realistic representations without
 855 additional data collection. Furthermore, comparing the visualization across different data settings
 856 reveals that the feature clusters become more distinct and structured with increased availability of
 857 initial training data (from 10% to 50%). This suggests that SK-11 effectively leverages richer data
 858 contexts to refine the separability and quality of the synthetic features.

859
 860
 861
 862
 863



895 Figure 3: Visualization of real and synthetically generated multimodal features (MOSI), at different availability
 896 levels (10%, 30%, and 50%) with an additional 10% data budget. Modality abbreviations: Text (T), Video (V),
 897 Audio (A).

898
 899
 900
 901
 902
 903
 904
 905
 906
 907
 908
 909
 910
 911
 912
 913
 914
 915
 916
 917