

KaLM: Knowledge-aligned Autoregressive Language Modeling via Dual-view Knowledge Graph Contrastive Learning

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Autoregressive large language models (LLMs) pre-trained by next token prediction are inherently proficient in generative tasks. However, their performance on knowledge-driven tasks such as factual knowledge querying remains unsatisfactory. Knowledge graphs (KGs), as high-quality structured knowledge bases, can provide reliable knowledge for LLMs, potentially compensating for their knowledge deficiencies. Aligning LLMs with explicit, structured knowledge from KGs has been a challenge; previous attempts either failed to effectively align knowledge representations or compromised the generative capabilities of LLMs, leading to less-than-optimal outcomes. This paper proposes **KaLM**, a *Knowledge-aligned Language Modeling* approach, which fine-tunes autoregressive LLMs to align with KG knowledge via the joint objective of explicit knowledge alignment and implicit knowledge alignment. The explicit knowledge alignment objective aims to directly optimize the knowledge representation of LLMs through dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning. The implicit knowledge alignment objective focuses on incorporating textual patterns of knowledge into LLMs through triple completion language modeling. Notably, our method achieves a significant performance boost in evaluations of knowledge-driven tasks, specifically embedding-based knowledge graph completion and generation-based knowledge graph question answering¹.

1 Introduction

Large language models (LLMs) like PaLM 2 (Anil et al., 2023) and GPT-4 (Achiam et al., 2023) have recently made remarkable advancements in a wide range of natural language processing tasks (Li et al., 2022; Su et al., 2019). However, LLMs still face challenges in tasks requiring factual or domain-specific knowledge, resulting in unsatisfactory per-

formance in knowledge-driven tasks. From the perspective of knowledge representation, LLMs serve as parametric knowledge bases, providing implicit, non-deterministic knowledge, while knowledge graphs (KGs) function as structured knowledge bases, offering explicit, deterministic knowledge. KGs, commonly organized as factual knowledge triples describing relations between entities, can serve as a reliable knowledge source for LLMs. Aligning LLMs with KG knowledge can enhance the knowledge reasoning capabilities of LLMs and improve their performance on knowledge-driven tasks, such as knowledge graph completion (KGC) and knowledge graph question answering (KGQA).

Autoregressive LLMs pre-trained through next token prediction tasks often exhibit limitations in knowledge representation, leading to embeddings that lack diversity and specificity. This limitation becomes evident in tasks that demand distinctive sentence embeddings, such as dense retrieval and semantic search (Muennighoff, 2022; Ma et al., 2023). As demonstrated in Figure 1(a), the representations generated by LLMs tend to be overly homogeneous across different pieces of knowledge, undermining their effectiveness in applications requiring fine-grained semantic distinctions.

The concept of explicit knowledge alignment is introduced to directly optimize the knowledge representation within language models by devising direct knowledge training objectives. This strategy emerges in response to the observed degradation in knowledge representation within autoencoder-based pre-trained language models (PLMs), a phenomenon termed *representation anisotropy* (Ethayarajh, 2019). This issue is characterized by the clustering of learned token and sentence embeddings within a constrained area of the representation space, leading to a lack of distributional uniformity (Li et al., 2020). While previous efforts to address representation anisotropy have largely concentrated on promoting uniformity among to-

¹Our code is available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/KaLM-ARR>.

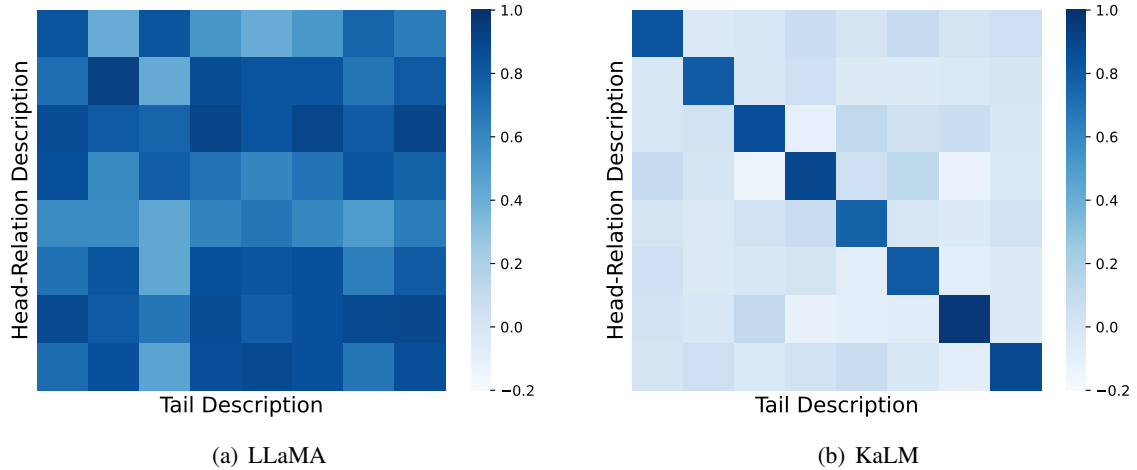


Figure 1: Similarity matrix of knowledge representations of (a) LLaMA and (b) KaLM. The values denote the cosine similarity between the head-relation embedding and tail embedding. The diagonal elements represent positive $\langle \text{head-relation}, \text{tail} \rangle$ pairs from the same KG triple, which should maintain high similarity (darker color); off-diagonal elements represent negative $\langle \text{head-relation}, \text{tail} \rangle$ pairs from different KG triples, which should have lower similarity (lighter color). In an ideal setting, knowledge representations should be able to distinguish between different triples, while maintaining alignment and uniformity of the representation, as shown in Figure 1(b).

ken representations, they often overlook the critical alignment of similar sentence representations (Su et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020; Su et al., 2022). More recent works advocate for integrating KG triples and using knowledge graph embedding losses to fine-tune PLMs, aiming to bolster their knowledge representation abilities (Shen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b). Nonetheless, such approaches may limit themselves to optimizing at the token level or reduce the model to a mere text encoder, thereby diminishing its inherent generative capabilities.

Conversely, implicit knowledge alignment leverages the pre-training or fine-tuning of language models with external knowledge sources, employing the vanilla language modeling objective or its variations. This approach predominantly preserves the next token prediction framework, essentially retaining the native text generation prowess of LLMs. In the realm of implicit knowledge alignment, the prevalent practice involves the fine-tuning of LLMs with KG triples and their textual descriptions, as opposed to directly altering the hidden knowledge representations (Chen et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2023). Nevertheless, the efficacy of these methods on knowledge graph completion tasks remains substantially inferior when compared to strategies that directly fine-tune knowledge representations (Wang et al., 2022b,a). Intriguing findings from (Fu et al., 2023) reveal that fine-tuning PLMs with randomly unaligned KG triples can achieve per-

formance on par with that obtained through fine-tuning with aligned triples in various tasks, including named entity recognition and relation classification. Their findings suggest that the hidden states of entities, whether infused with aligned or random knowledge, exhibit remarkable similarity. Consequently, existing implicit alignment methods fail to effectively utilize the injected knowledge or accurately discern the connection between newly introduced knowledge and the model’s inherent knowledge, culminating in suboptimal performance.

In this paper, we propose **KaLM**, a *Knowledge-aligned Language Modeling* approach for aligning LLMs with KG knowledge. Specifically, we use KG triples and their textual descriptions to fine-tune LLMs via the joint objective of *explicit knowledge alignment* and *implicit knowledge alignment*.

The explicit knowledge alignment objective aims to directly optimize the hidden representations of knowledge in LLMs through *dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning*. We theoretically prove and empirically show that this objective can facilitate knowledge representation alignment and alleviate representation anisotropy. For KG triples, we consider tail entity description and the concatenation of head entity description and relation description as two distinct views of the same knowledge. *The key insight is that: (1) representations of two different views of the same knowledge (i.e., from the same triple) should be pulled together, while (2)*

142 *representations of different knowledge (i.e., from*
143 *different triples) should be pushed apart.* The first
144 term encourages semantically similar knowledge to
145 remain close in the representation space, promoting
146 knowledge representation alignment. The second
147 term forces dissimilar knowledge to be as far apart
148 as possible in the vector space, improving knowl-
149 edge representation uniformity and mitigating rep-
150 resentation anisotropy. As shown in Figure 1(b),
151 our method can obtain the ideal knowledge repre-
152 sentations that are both aligned and uniform.

153 The implicit knowledge alignment objective fo-
154 cuses on incorporating textual patterns of knowl-
155 edge into LLMs through *triple completion lan-*
156 *guage modeling*, which can maintain the gener-
157 ative capability of LLMs and boost performance on
158 knowledge inference tasks. We constructed a triple
159 completion dataset based on the KG triples to fine-
160 tune LLMs, improving their instruction-following
161 ability and facilitating implicit knowledge align-
162 ment. We also show the implicit knowledge align-
163 ment objective can further boost knowledge repre-
164 sentation performance. This confirms that both ex-
165 plicit alignment and implicit alignment are crucial
166 for knowledge alignment, as they both essentially
167 require a deep understanding of knowledge.

168 Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- 169 • We introduce **KaLM**, a *knowledge-aligned*
170 *language modeling* approach that aligns au-
171 toregressive LLMs with KG knowledge via
172 the joint objective of *explicit knowledge align-*
173 *ment* and *implicit knowledge alignment*.
- 174 • We *theoretically prove and empirically demon-*
175 *strate* that the explicit knowledge alignment
176 objective achieved through dual-view knowl-
177 edge graph contrastive learning can facilitate
178 knowledge representation alignment and alle-
179 viate the issue of representation anisotropy.
- 180 • The experimental results on knowledge-driven
181 tasks demonstrate the effectiveness of *KaLM*.
182 In the embedding-based KGC task, KaLM sig-
183 nificantly improves Mean Rank and Hit@10
184 metrics compared to previous state-of-the-art
185 methods. In the generation-based KGQA task,
186 KaLM achieves a notable improvement in an-
187 swering accuracy compared to the base LLM.

188 2 Related Work

189 Our work is closely related to Knowledge Enhance-
190 ment for LLMs and Representation Anisotropy of

Language Models. A more detailed review of re- 191
lated work can be found in Appendix A. 192

Knowledge Enhancement for LLMs Knowl- 193
edge enhancement aims to incorporate factual and 194
domain-specific knowledge into LLMs to address 195
their knowledge deficiencies. This can be divided 196
into retrieval-based augmentation and training- 197
based integration. *Retrieval-based knowledge aug-* 198
mentation methods leverage external retrieval mod- 199
ules to provide additional knowledge, aiming to 200
improve the knowledge reasoning capability of 201
LLMs (Sun et al., 2023; Jiang et al., 2023). How- 202
ever, this approach may lead to knowledge conflicts 203
(Feng et al., 2023), where knowledge in LLMs 204
and knowledge in the retrieved documents are in- 205
consistent or the retrieved multiple documents are 206
contradictory. *Training-based knowledge integra-* 207
tion methods involve using KG triple descriptions 208
to pre-train or fine-tune LLMs, aiming to achieve 209
knowledge alignment. These methods can be di- 210
vided into explicit alignment (Wang et al., 2021b; 211
Yasunaga et al., 2022) and implicit alignment (Yao 212
et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023) based on whether 213
they directly optimize the knowledge representa- 214
tion. Nevertheless, prior methods have either sacri- 215
ficed the generative capability or lacked effective 216
representation alignment. Our approach enhances 217
the knowledge of LLMs via a unique joint objective 218
of explicit alignment and implicit alignment, im- 219
proving the quality of knowledge representations 220
and generative knowledge reasoning capabilities. 221

Representation Anisotropy of Language Models 222
PLMs have long been plagued by representation 223
anisotropy (Ethayarajh, 2019), where the learned 224
token and sentence embeddings are confined to a 225
narrow cone within the entire representation space. 226
The issue of representation anisotropy not only re- 227
sults in model degradation (Su et al., 2022) but 228
also leads to poor performance on discriminative 229
tasks. Previous work on alleviating representation 230
anisotropy has mainly focused on post-processing 231
techniques such as normalizing flows (Li et al., 232
2020) or whitening operations (Su et al., 2021). Su 233
et al. (2022) propose a contrastive training objective 234
to encourage learning isotropic token representa- 235
tions. However, these methods mainly improve the 236
isotropy of token representations without enhanc- 237
ing the discriminability of sentence representations. 238
Our method improves the token-level and sentence- 239
level representation anisotropy of LLMs through 240
dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning, 241
and it has rigorous theoretical guarantees. 242

3 Knowledge-aligned Autoregressive Language Modeling

In this section, we introduce **KaLM**, a *Knowledge-aligned Language Modeling* approach for aligning LLMs with KG knowledge via the joint objective of *explicit knowledge alignment* and *implicit knowledge alignment*. The overview is shown in Figure 2.

3.1 Notations and Preliminaries

A KG \mathcal{G} stores factual knowledge, denoted as $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{E}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{D})$. \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{R} are the set of entities and relations, respectively. \mathcal{D} is the description set of all entities and relations. \mathcal{D}_e and \mathcal{D}_r are the textual description of entity e and relation r , respectively. $\mathcal{T} = \{(h, r, t) | h, t \in \mathcal{E}, r \in \mathcal{R}\}$ is the triple set. A triple (h, r, t) depicts the fact that there is a relation r between the head entity h and the tail entity t .

3.2 Explicit Knowledge Alignment

For KG triples, the textual description of the tail entity and the concatenation of the textual descriptions of the head entity and relation can be seen as two distinct views of the same knowledge. This inspires *KaLM* to align representations of two distinct views of the same knowledge (i.e., from the same triple), while separating representations of different knowledge (i.e., from different triples).

The LLM, denoted as E_{LLM} , is fine-tuned with the *dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning* loss. The training corpus contains paired textual descriptions, $\{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t)\}_{i=1}^N$, where \mathcal{D}_t is the tail entity description, and \mathcal{D}_{hr} is the concatenation of the head entity description and relation description. Given a training pair $(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t)$, the same E_{LLM} is used to compute the embeddings of \mathcal{D}_{hr} and \mathcal{D}_t independently. Moreover, we prepend the [bos] token to the beginning and append the [eos] token to the end of the textual description. The augmented input is fed into E_{LLM} , and the hidden representation corresponding to the [eos] token from the last layer is used as the final embedding of the input.

$$\begin{aligned} e_{hr} &= E_{LLM}([\text{bos}]_{hr} \oplus \mathcal{D}_{hr} \oplus [\text{eos}]_{hr}), \\ e_t &= E_{LLM}([\text{bos}]_t \oplus \mathcal{D}_t \oplus [\text{eos}]_t), \end{aligned}$$

where \oplus is the operation to concatenate two strings and $\mathcal{D}_{hr} = \mathcal{D}_h \oplus \mathcal{D}_r$. For stable training, we adopt “[” as $[\text{bos}]_{hr}$ and “]” as $[\text{eos}]_{hr}$, while using “{” as $[\text{bos}]_t$ and “}” as $[\text{eos}]_t$.

We utilize the knowledge graph contrastive learning loss to directly optimize the knowledge representation of the LLM by *encouraging semantically*

similar knowledge to stay close in the representation space and pushing dissimilar knowledge to be far apart in the representation space. More specifically, we apply the InfoNCE loss with an additive margin over the in-batch negatives to fine-tune the model. The row-direction loss ℓ_r is calculated as follows for a given positive training pair, and the column-direction loss ℓ_c is defined similarly.

$$\ell_r = -\log \frac{e^{(\phi(e_{hr}, e_t) - \gamma) / \tau}}{e^{(\phi(e_{hr}, e_t) - \gamma) / \tau} + \sum_{i=1}^{\mathcal{N}} e^{\phi(e_{hr}, e_{t'_i}) / \tau}}, \quad (1)$$

where \mathcal{N} is the negative batch size, τ is the trainable temperature that controls the strength of penalties on hard negative samples, ϕ is the cosine similarity function that measures the plausibility of a triple, and γ is the additive margin that encourages increasing the similarity score of positive pairs.

The training objective for **explicit** knowledge alignment is the sum of the ℓ_r and the ℓ_c losses:

$$\mathcal{L}_{exp} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}} \sum_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t)} (\ell_r + \ell_c) / 2. \quad (2)$$

3.3 Implicit Knowledge Alignment

The implicit knowledge alignment objective focuses on incorporating textual patterns of knowledge into the LLM to prevent catastrophic forgetting of previous knowledge and maintain its generative capability. We constructed an instruction-tuning dataset based on the KG triple descriptions to fine-tune the model through *triple completion language modeling*. We also show that the implicit knowledge alignment objective can bring performance boosts on knowledge representation evaluations. This indicates that explicit alignment and implicit alignment are both imperative for effective knowledge alignment, as they both essentially necessitate a profound understanding of knowledge.

We follow the recipe of Stanford Alpaca (Taori et al., 2023) and use the provided template to construct the instruction-tuning dataset. The instruction passed to the template, abbreviated as inst, is: “Given the head entity and relation, write a tail entity that completes the triple”. The input and output are \mathcal{D}_{hr} and \mathcal{D}_t , respectively. The training objective for **implicit** knowledge alignment is:

$$\mathcal{L}_{imp} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{M}} \sum_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t)} -\log P(\mathcal{D}_t | \text{inst}, \mathcal{D}_{hr}), \quad (3)$$

where \mathcal{M} is the instruction-tuning batch size.

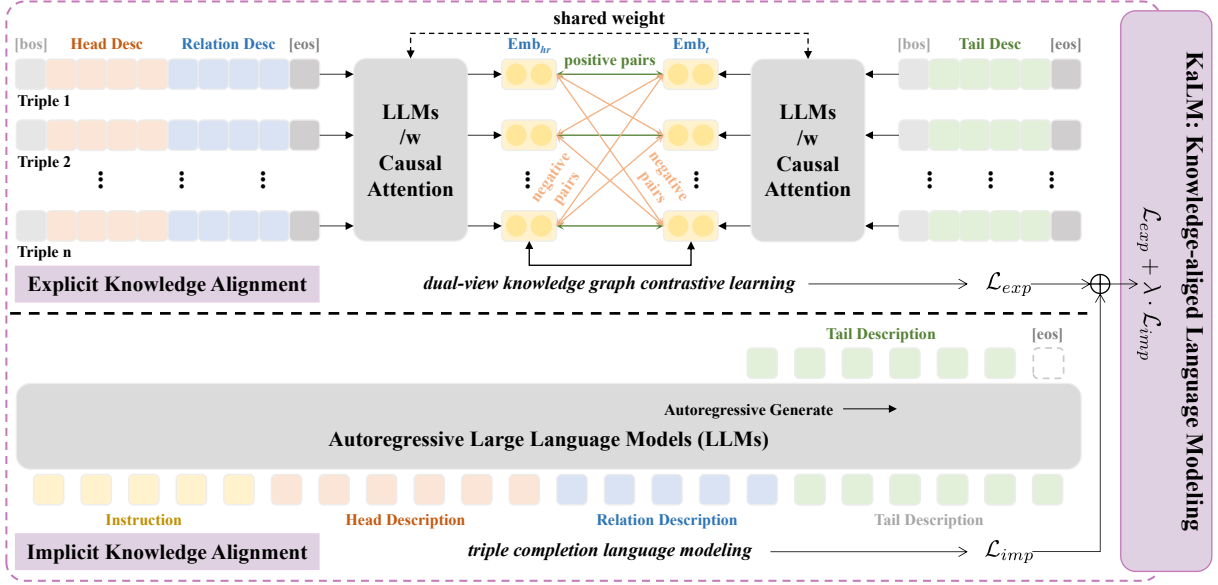


Figure 2: The overall framework of **KaLM**. **Up**: The explicit knowledge alignment objective (\mathcal{L}_{exp}) aims to directly optimize the knowledge representation of LLMs via dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning. **Down**: The implicit knowledge alignment objective (\mathcal{L}_{imp}) focuses on incorporating textual patterns of knowledge into LLMs via triple completion language modeling. The final training objective is the weighted average of \mathcal{L}_{exp} and \mathcal{L}_{imp} .

3.4 Knowledge-aligned Language Modeling

The ultimate training objective of our proposed **KaLM** is the weighted average of \mathcal{L}_{exp} and \mathcal{L}_{imp} :

$$\mathcal{L}_{KaLM} = \mathcal{L}_{exp} + \lambda \cdot \mathcal{L}_{imp}, \quad (4)$$

where λ is a hyperparameter that adjusts the relative weight between them. Notably, this formulation allows us to use different batch sizes for explicit knowledge alignment (\mathcal{N}) and implicit knowledge alignment (\mathcal{M}). Previous work has shown that a sufficiently large batch size is key to the success of contrastive representation learning (Chen et al., 2020). With Equation 4, we can significantly increase the explicit knowledge alignment batch size while keeping the implicit knowledge alignment batch size fixed to save computational resources.

4 Theoretical Analysis

We theoretically prove that the explicit knowledge alignment objective implemented through dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning can facilitate knowledge representation alignment and alleviate the issue of representation anisotropy.

4.1 Dual-view Contrastive Learning for Knowledge Representation Alignment

The outstanding performance of contrastive representation learning has attracted researchers to analyze its underlying reasons for success from a theoretical perspective. Wang and Isola (2020) identify

alignment and uniformity as two key properties of contrastive learning and propose two quantifiable metrics to measure the quality of representations.

We concentrate on understanding the dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning loss from the knowledge alignment and uniformity perspective. To simplify the notation, we use f to denote E_{LLM} .

Alignment computes the expected distance between positive pairs and encourages the learned representations for positive pairs to be similar. *Uniformity* evaluates the even distribution of representations and encourages the separation of features from randomly selected negative samples.

$$\ell_{align}(f; \alpha) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{pos}} [\|f(\mathcal{D}_{hr}) - f(\mathcal{D}_t)\|_2^\alpha], \quad 374$$

$$\ell_{uniform}(f; t) \triangleq \log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i, \mathcal{D}_j \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{data}} [e^{-t\|f(\mathcal{D}_i) - f(\mathcal{D}_j)\|_2^2}], \quad 375$$

where p_{pos} denotes the distribution of positive pairs $\{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t)\}_{i=1}^N$ and p_{data} represents the data distribution of textual descriptions $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$.

Since the learned knowledge representations are L2-normalized, we have $\phi(e_{hr}, e_t) = f(x)^\top f(y)$. The additive margin γ encourages the model to learn more robust features without affecting the asymptotic analysis, thus we ignore it. For ease of analysis, we reformulate the contrastive learning

objective of Equation 1 and 2 as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}, \{\mathcal{D}_{t_i}'\}_{i=1}^N \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}} \left[-\log \frac{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau} + \sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_{t_i}')/\tau}} \right], \quad (5)$$

Following Wang and Isola (2020), we analyze the asymptotics of the objective in Equation 5.

Theorem 1 (Asymptotics of \mathcal{L}_{exp}). *For temperature $\tau > 0$, as the number of negative samples $\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty$, the normalized dual-view knowledge graph contrastive loss in Equation 5 converges to*

$$\lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) - \log \mathcal{N} = -\frac{1}{\tau} \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau} \right] \right]. \quad (6)$$

We have the following conclusions:

1. By pulling together the representations of two different views of the same knowledge, the first term of Equation 6 is minimized, and the encoder E_{LLM} is perfectly knowledge-aligned.
2. Assuming the perfect uniform knowledge encoder E_{LLM} exists, it precisely minimizes the second term of Equation 6 by pushing away the representations of different knowledge.

Proof. See Appendix. \square

4.2 Alleviation of Representation Anisotropy

We then prove that the dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning objective can directly alleviate representation anisotropy and improve the discriminability of knowledge representations.

Let \mathbf{E} be the sentence embedding matrix of $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, where the i -th row of \mathbf{E} is e_i . Following Ethayarajh (2019), the sentence-level representation anisotropy value of $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ is defined as:

$$\text{anisotropy}_{\{\mathcal{D}\}} = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N e_i^\top e_j. \quad (7)$$

We can further derive the following theorem.

Theorem 2 (Alleviation of Anisotropy). *When p_{data} is uniform over finite samples $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, the second term of Equation 6 is the upper bound of the sentence-level anisotropy of $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, i.e.,*

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau} \right] \right] \geq \frac{N-1}{\tau N} \cdot \text{anisotropy}_{\{\mathcal{D}\}} + \frac{1}{\tau N}. \quad (8)$$

We have the following result: By optimizing the second term of Equation 6, we essentially minimize the upper bound of the sentence-level anisotropy of corpus $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$, thereby directly alleviating the representation anisotropy problem.

Proof. See Appendix. \square

5 Experiments

In this section, we assess the effectiveness of KaLM in knowledge alignment. The experimental setup is outlined in 5.1. In 5.2 and 5.3, we present results on knowledge graph completion (KGC) and knowledge graph question answering (KGQA). In 5.4, we provide further analysis of knowledge representation and present case studies of KGQA generations.

5.1 Experimental Setup

Datasets. We use WN18RR (Dettmers et al., 2018) and FB15k-237 (Toutanova and Chen, 2015) as the KGs for knowledge alignment training. WN18RR and FB15k-237 are derived from WordNet and Freebase, respectively (Bordes et al., 2013). We use the information provided by KG-BERT (Yao et al., 2019) for textual descriptions. Following Wang et al. (2022a), we add an inverse triple (t, r^{-1}, h) for each triple (h, r, t) in the triple set, where r^{-1} is the inverse relation of the original relation r .

Model Training. We choose LLaMA-2-7B (Touvron et al., 2023) as the base LLM and fine-tune it via the joint objective of explicit knowledge alignment and implicit knowledge alignment. To save computational resources for parameter-efficient fine-tuning, we use LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) to fine-tune the feed-forward network of the model.

Evaluation Details. Experiments mainly focus on two aspects: knowledge representation assessment and knowledge inference evaluation. For *knowledge representation assessment*, we evaluate the embedding-based KGC task and illustrate the alleviation of representation anisotropy. We report five automated metrics: Mean Rank (MR), Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR), and Hit@ k ($k \in \{1, 3, 10\}$).

Table 1: Embedding-based KGC results on WN18RR and FB15k-237. Baseline results are from their papers.

Method	WN18RR					FB15k-237				
	MR	MRR	H@1	H@3	H@10	MR	MRR	H@1	H@3	H@10
<i>structure-based methods</i>										
TransE	2300	0.243	0.043	0.441	0.532	323	0.279	0.198	0.376	0.441
DistMult	7000	0.444	0.412	0.470	0.504	512	0.281	0.199	0.301	0.446
RotatE	3340	0.476	0.428	0.492	0.571	177	0.338	0.241	0.375	0.533
<i>description-based methods (autoencoder PLMs)</i>										
KG-BERT	97	0.216	0.041	0.302	0.524	153	-	-	-	0.420
StAR	51	0.401	0.243	0.491	0.709	117	0.296	0.205	0.322	0.482
C-LMKE	72	0.598	0.480	0.675	0.806	183	0.404	0.324	0.439	0.556
SimKGC	-	0.671	0.587	0.731	0.817	-	0.333	0.246	0.362	0.510
<i>description-based methods (autoregressive LLMs)</i>										
LLaMA	15969	0.010	0.004	0.010	0.020	5359	0.006	0.002	0.004	0.012
KaLM (Ours)	19	0.554	0.402	0.650	0.848	114	0.299	0.202	0.323	0.502

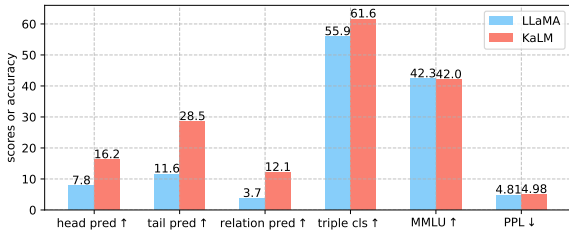
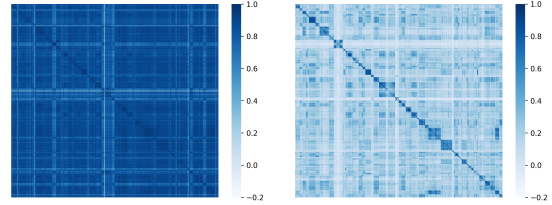


Figure 3: Comparison of generative knowledge inference performance between LLaMA and KaLM. ↑ means higher is better and ↓ means lower is better.



(a) LLaMA (b) KaLM

Figure 4: Similarity matrix on the Wikitext-103 test set. From top-left to bottom-right, element (i, j) denotes the cosine similarity between the i -th and the j -th sentence.

Hit@ k measures the proportion of entities correctly ranked in the top k . In the KGC task, we compare our method with description-based and structure-based methods. Description-based methods include KG-BERT (Yao et al., 2019), StAR (Wang et al., 2021a), C-LMKE (Wang et al., 2022b), and SimKGC (Wang et al., 2022a). Structured-based methods include TransE (Bordes et al., 2013), DistMult (Yang et al., 2015), and RotatE (Sun et al., 2018). For *knowledge inference evaluation*, we evaluate the generation-based KGQA task and analyze the PPL metric and MMLU score (Hendrycks et al., 2020). We report the prediction accuracy over entities, relations, and triples. We also provide case studies of KGQA generation results.

More details about datasets, training, evaluation, and ablation studies can be found in the Appendix.

5.2 Knowledge Representation Assessment

The embedding-based KGC results are shown in Table 1. The base LLaMA failed to accomplish this task, with all metrics lagging far behind. On the WN18RR dataset, our method surpasses prior meth-

ods by a substantial margin in terms of MR and Hit@10. Other metrics fall slightly short of state-of-the-art methods, yet remain competitive. The performance of *KaLM* on the FB15k-237 dataset is slightly inferior, but it still achieves the best MR. Previous description-based methods generally perform poorly on the FB15k-237 dataset, possibly due to the absence of effective textual descriptions. An example relation description from FB15k-237 is “/music/artist/origin”, which is quite vague and abstract. SimKGC uses a large batch size through intricate negative sampling methods and incorporates neighbor description augmentation and neighbor-based re-ranking techniques. C-LMKE uses self-adversarial negative sampling and utilizes extra entity degree information. These additional tricks enable SimKGC and C-LMKE to achieve higher performance. *Using a larger batch size and more techniques can further improve other metrics of KaLM*. Overall, the results reveal that *KaLM* notably enhances the quality of knowledge representation, bringing performance boosts in KGC tasks.

Task Name	Prompts with Instructon and Input Fields	Generations for Triple 1: <salviniaceae, member meronym, salvinia>		Generations for Triple 2: <refrigerator, hypernym, white goods>	
		LLaMA	KaLM	LLaMA	KaLM
head entity prediction	Given the head entity and relation, write a tail entity that completes the triple: [tail entity], [inverse relation]	salvinia ✘	salviniaceae ✔	white goods ✘	refrigerator ✔
relation prediction	What is the relation between [head entity] and [tail entity]? Please choose your answer from: [relation list].	synset domain topic of ✘	member meronym ✔	instance hypernym ✘	synset domain topic of ✘
tail entity prediction	Given the head entity and relation, write a tail entity that completes the triple: [head entity], [relation]	salvinia ✔	salvinia ✔	refrigerator ✘	white goods ✔
triple classification	Is this true: [head] [relation] [tail]? Please choose your answer from: "Yes, this is true" or "No, this is not true".	No, this is not true. ✘	Yes, this is true. ✔	Yes, this is true. ✔	Yes, this is true. ✔

Figure 5: Case studies of LLaMA and KaLM on the KGQA task. Note that the head entity, relation, and tail entity are denoted by different colors. The ✔ mark indicates the correct answer, while ✘ signifies an incorrect answer.

5.3 Knowledge Inference Evaluation

The generation-based KGQA results are depicted in Figure 3. The base LLaMA performs poorly in entity prediction and relation prediction. Our method demonstrates a significant performance boost in all generation-based KGQA tasks, including head/tail entity prediction, relation prediction, and triple classification. Furthermore, despite a slight increase in perplexity (PPL) scores on Wikitext-103 (Merity et al., 2016) test set, our method still shows competitive performance in the MMLU test. The results demonstrate that KaLM achieves effective knowledge alignment, bringing in significantly improved KGQA performance while preserving the original generative and knowledge inference capabilities.

5.4 Visualization of Knowledge Representation and Case Studies

We provide visualization results to illustrate knowledge representation improvements. Figure 4 shows the sentence similarity matrix of LLaMA and KaLM on Wikitext-103 test set. The diagonal elements denote the similarity of the same sentence, so the values are always 1. From color intensity, it is evident that KaLM learns more discriminative sentence representations, while LLaMA assigns high similarity for arbitrary sentences. The sentences are organized by celebrities and their careers, thus there should also be a high similarity between adjacent sentences. This phenomenon is reflected in the similarity matrix of KaLM in Figure 4(b), manifested in the smaller matrices with darker colors along the diagonal. More concretely, numerical analysis shows that after training with our method, the sentence-level anisotropy value significantly decreased from 0.83 to 0.21.

We present KGQA generation cases to demonstrate knowledge inference enhancements. Figure 5 illustrates concrete examples of KGQA generation results on the WN18RR dataset. We showcase the responses generated by LLaMA and KaLM for four tasks involving head entity prediction, relation prediction, tail entity prediction, and triple classification. The prompt templates for each subtask are shown in the second column of Figure 5, where the “inverse relation” is the original relation description with a prefix word “inverse” and the “relation list” consists of all relations concatenated by the symbol “|”. We display the generated answers for triple <salviniaceae, member meronym, salvinia> and triple <refrigerator, hypernym, white goods>. The base LLaMA frequently gives wrong answers and tends to identify keywords from the input prompts for prediction. In contrast, our method can understand the questions and correctly answer various KGQA tasks in most cases.

6 Conclusion

In this work, we show that the subpar performance of LLMs on knowledge-driven tasks stems from a lack of effective knowledge alignment. We present KaLM, a novel knowledge-aligned language modeling approach for aligning autoregressive LLMs with KG knowledge. Specifically, we identify two imperative objectives to achieve knowledge alignment: explicit knowledge alignment and implicit knowledge alignment. We conducted comprehensive experiments and analyses on embedding-based KGC and generation-based KGQA. Experimental results demonstrate that our method achieves effective knowledge alignment and consistently improves performance on knowledge-driven tasks.

574 Limitations

575 There are several future directions to improve this
576 work. Firstly, due to the limitation of computa-
577 tional resources, we only utilized LLaMA-2-7B as
578 the base model to train and evaluate our method.
579 Evaluations on larger-scale LLMs, such as the 13B
580 and 70B models, can further validate the effective-
581 ness of our approach. Secondly, in the current ver-
582 sion, we use a simple linear combination of explicit
583 alignment loss and implicit alignment loss as the
584 final training objective for knowledge-aligned lan-
585 guage modeling. Further investigations into various
586 forms of loss combinations remain to be explored
587 to maximize the utility of knowledge-aligned lan-
588 guage modeling. Finally, we can delve into the
589 performance of the knowledge representations ob-
590 tained from knowledge-aligned language model-
591 ing in cross-domain applications such as retrieval-
592 augmented generation, to gain broader insights into
593 the generalization capabilities of our approach.

594 References

595 Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama
596 Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman,
597 Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman,
598 Shyamal Anadkat, et al. 2023. Gpt-4 technical report.
599 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*.

600 Rohan Anil, Andrew M Dai, Orhan Firat, Melvin John-
601 son, Dmitry Lepikhin, Alexandre Passos, Siamak
602 Shakeri, Emanuel Taropa, Paige Bailey, Zhifeng
603 Chen, et al. 2023. Palm 2 technical report. *arXiv*
604 *preprint arXiv:2305.10403*.

605 Antoine Bordes, Nicolas Usunier, Alberto Garcia-
606 Duran, Jason Weston, and Oksana Yakhnenko.
607 2013. Translating embeddings for modeling multi-
608 relational data. *Advances in neural information pro-*
609 *cessing systems*, 26.

610 Chen Chen, Yufei Wang, Bing Li, and Kwok-Yan Lam.
611 2022. Knowledge is flat: A seq2seq generative frame-
612 work for various knowledge graph completion. In
613 *Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on*
614 *Computational Linguistics*, pages 4005–4017.

615 Ting Chen, Simon Kornblith, Mohammad Norouzi, and
616 Geoffrey Hinton. 2020. A simple framework for
617 contrastive learning of visual representations. In
618 *International conference on machine learning*, pages
619 1597–1607. PMLR.

620 Tim Dettmers, Pasquale Minervini, Pontus Stenetorp,
621 and Sebastian Riedel. 2018. Convolutional 2d knowl-
622 edge graph embeddings. In *Proceedings of the AAAI*
623 *conference on artificial intelligence*, volume 32.

Kawin Ethayarajh. 2019. How contextual are contex- 624
tualized word representations? comparing the ge- 625
ometry of bert, elmo, and gpt-2 embeddings. In 626
Proceedings of the 2019 Conference on Empirical 627
Methods in Natural Language Processing and the 9th 628
International Joint Conference on Natural Language 629
Processing (EMNLP-IJCNLP), pages 55–65. 630

Zhangyin Feng, Weitao Ma, Weijiang Yu, Lei Huang, 631
Haotian Wang, Qianglong Chen, Weihua Peng, Xi- 632
aocheng Feng, Bing Qin, et al. 2023. Trends in inte- 633
gration of knowledge and large language models: A 634
survey and taxonomy of methods, benchmarks, and 635
applications. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2311.05876*. 636

Peng Fu, Yiming Zhang, Haobo Wang, Weikang Qiu, 637
and Junbo Zhao. 2023. Revisiting the knowledge 638
injection frameworks. In *Proceedings of the 2023* 639
Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Lan- 640
guage Processing, pages 10983–10997. 641

Beliz Gunel, Jingfei Du, Alexis Conneau, and Ves Stoy- 642
anov. 2020. Supervised contrastive learning for pre- 643
trained language model fine-tuning. *arXiv preprint* 644
arXiv:2011.01403. 645

Dan Hendrycks, Collin Burns, Steven Basart, Andy Zou, 646
Mantas Mazeika, Dawn Song, and Jacob Steinhardt.
2020. Measuring massive multitask language under- 647
standing. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.03300*. 648
649

Edward J Hu, Yelong Shen, Phillip Wallis, Zeyuan 650
Allen-Zhu, Yuanzhi Li, Shean Wang, Lu Wang,
and Weizhu Chen. 2021. Lora: Low-rank adap- 651
tation of large language models. *arXiv preprint* 652
arXiv:2106.09685. 653
654

Jinhao Jiang, Kun Zhou, Zican Dong, Keming Ye, 655
Wayne Xin Zhao, and Ji-Rong Wen. 2023. Struct- 656
gpt: A general framework for large language model 657
to reason over structured data. *arXiv preprint* 658
arXiv:2305.09645. 659

Bohan Li, Hao Zhou, Junxian He, Mingxuan Wang, 660
Yiming Yang, and Lei Li. 2020. On the sentence 661
embeddings from pre-trained language models. In 662
Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical 663
Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP), 664
pages 9119–9130. 665

Junyi Li, Tianyi Tang, Wayne Xin Zhao, Jian-Yun Nie, 666
and Ji-Rong Wen. 2022. Pretrained language mod- 667
els for text generation: A survey. *arXiv preprint* 668
arXiv:2201.05273. 669

Song Liu, Haoqi Fan, Shengsheng Qian, Yiru Chen, 670
Wenkui Ding, and Zhongyuan Wang. 2021. Hit: Hi- 671
erarchical transformer with momentum contrast for 672
video-text retrieval. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF* 673
International Conference on Computer Vision, pages 674
11915–11925. 675

Xueguang Ma, Liang Wang, Nan Yang, Furu Wei, and 676
Jimmy Lin. 2023. Fine-tuning llama for multi-stage 677
text retrieval. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.08319*. 678

679	Stephen Merity, Caiming Xiong, James Bradbury, and Richard Socher. 2016. Pointer sentinel mixture models. In <i>International Conference on Learning Representations</i> .	
680		
681		
682		
683	Niklas Muennighoff. 2022. Sgpt: Gpt sentence embeddings for semantic search. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.08904</i> .	
684		
685		
686	Jianhao Shen, Chenguang Wang, Linyuan Gong, and Dawn Song. 2022. Joint language semantic and structure embedding for knowledge graph completion. In <i>Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on Computational Linguistics</i> , pages 1965–1978.	
687		
688		
689		
690		
691	Dan Su, Yan Xu, Genta Indra Winata, Peng Xu, Hyeondey Kim, Zihan Liu, and Pascale Fung. 2019. Generalizing question answering system with pre-trained language model fine-tuning. In <i>Proceedings of the 2nd Workshop on Machine Reading for Question Answering</i> , pages 203–211.	
692		
693		
694		
695		
696		
697	Jianlin Su, Jiarun Cao, Weijie Liu, and Yangyiwen Ou. 2021. Whitening sentence representations for better semantics and faster retrieval. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.15316</i> .	
698		
699		
700		
701	Yixuan Su, Tian Lan, Yan Wang, Dani Yogatama, Lingpeng Kong, and Nigel Collier. 2022. A contrastive framework for neural text generation. <i>Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems</i> , 35:21548–21561.	
702		
703		
704		
705		
706	Jiashuo Sun, Chengjin Xu, Lumingyuan Tang, Saizhuo Wang, Chen Lin, Yeyun Gong, Heung-Yeung Shum, and Jian Guo. 2023. Think-on-graph: Deep and responsible reasoning of large language model with knowledge graph. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.07697</i> .	
707		
708		
709		
710		
711	Zhiqing Sun, Zhi-Hong Deng, Jian-Yun Nie, and Jian Tang. 2018. Rotate: Knowledge graph embedding by relational rotation in complex space. In <i>International Conference on Learning Representations</i> .	
712		
713		
714		
715	Zhiqing Sun, Zhi-Hong Deng, Jian-Yun Nie, and Jian Tang. 2019. Rotate: Knowledge graph embedding by relational rotation in complex space. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:1902.10197</i> .	
716		
717		
718		
719	Rohan Taori, Ishaan Gulrajani, Tianyi Zhang, Yann Dubois, Xuechen Li, Carlos Guestrin, Percy Liang, and Tatsunori B. Hashimoto. 2023. Stanford alpaca: An instruction-following llama model. https://github.com/tatsu-lab/stanford_alpaca .	
720		
721		
722		
723		
724	Kristina Toutanova and Danqi Chen. 2015. Observed versus latent features for knowledge base and text inference. In <i>Proceedings of the 3rd workshop on continuous vector space models and their compositionality</i> , pages 57–66.	
725		
726		
727		
728		
729	Hugo Touvron, Louis Martin, Kevin Stone, Peter Albert, Amjad Almahairi, Yasmine Babaei, Nikolay Bashlykov, Soumya Batra, Prajjwal Bhargava, Shruti Bhosale, et al. 2023. Llama 2: Open foundation and fine-tuned chat models. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.09288</i> .	
730		
731		
732		
733		
734		
	Bo Wang, Tao Shen, Guodong Long, Tianyi Zhou, Ying Wang, and Yi Chang. 2021a. Structure-augmented text representation learning for efficient knowledge graph completion. In <i>Proceedings of the Web Conference 2021</i> , pages 1737–1748.	735
		736
		737
		738
		739
	Feng Wang and Huaping Liu. 2021. Understanding the behaviour of contrastive loss. In <i>Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF conference on computer vision and pattern recognition</i> , pages 2495–2504.	740
		741
		742
		743
	Liang Wang, Wei Zhao, Zhuoyu Wei, and Jingming Liu. 2022a. Simkgc: Simple contrastive knowledge graph completion with pre-trained language models. In <i>Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)</i> , pages 4281–4294.	744
		745
		746
		747
		748
		749
	Tongzhou Wang and Phillip Isola. 2020. Understanding contrastive representation learning through alignment and uniformity on the hypersphere. In <i>International Conference on Machine Learning</i> , pages 9929–9939. PMLR.	750
		751
		752
		753
		754
	Xiaozhi Wang, Tianyu Gao, Zhaocheng Zhu, Zhengyan Zhang, Zhiyuan Liu, Juanzi Li, and Jian Tang. 2021b. Kepler: A unified model for knowledge embedding and pre-trained language representation. <i>Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics</i> , 9:176–194.	755
		756
		757
		758
		759
		760
	Xintao Wang, Qianyu He, Jiaqing Liang, and Yanghua Xiao. 2022b. Language models as knowledge embeddings. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.12617</i> .	761
		762
		763
	Bishan Yang, Scott Wen-tau Yih, Xiaodong He, Jianfeng Gao, and Li Deng. 2015. Embedding entities and relations for learning and inference in knowledge bases. In <i>Proceedings of the International Conference on Learning Representations (ICLR) 2015</i> .	764
		765
		766
		767
		768
	Liang Yao, Chengsheng Mao, and Yuan Luo. 2019. Kgbert: Bert for knowledge graph completion. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:1909.03193</i> .	769
		770
		771
	Liang Yao, Jiazhen Peng, Chengsheng Mao, and Yuan Luo. 2023. Exploring large language models for knowledge graph completion. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2308.13916</i> .	772
		773
		774
		775
	Michihiro Yasunaga, Antoine Bosselut, Hongyu Ren, Xikun Zhang, Christopher D Manning, Percy S Liang, and Jure Leskovec. 2022. Deep bidirectional language-knowledge graph pretraining. <i>Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems</i> , 35:37309–37323.	776
		777
		778
		779
		780
		781
	Yichi Zhang, Zhuo Chen, Wen Zhang, and Huajun Chen. 2023. Making large language models perform better in knowledge graph completion. <i>arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06671</i> .	782
		783
		784
		785

786 A More Detailed Review of Related Work

787 This work focuses on fine-tuning autoregressive
788 LLMs to align with KG knowledge. Our work inter-
789 sects with the following research areas: Knowledge
790 Enhancement for LLMs, Knowledge Graph Com-
791 pletion, Contrastive Representation Learning, and
792 Representation Anisotropy of Language Models.

793 A.1 Knowledge Enhancement for LLMs

794 Knowledge enhancement aims to incorporate fac-
795 tual and domain-specific knowledge into LLMs
796 to address their knowledge deficiencies. This can
797 be divided into retrieval-based knowledge augmen-
798 tation and training-based knowledge integration.
799 *Retrieval-based knowledge augmentation* methods
800 leverage external retrieval modules to provide addi-
801 tional knowledge, aiming to improve the knowl-
802 edge reasoning capability of LLMs (Sun et al.,
803 2023; Jiang et al., 2023). However, this approach
804 may lead to knowledge conflicts (Feng et al., 2023),
805 where the knowledge in LLMs and the knowl-
806 edge in the retrieved documents are inconsistent or
807 the retrieved multiple documents are contradictory.
808 *Training-based knowledge integration* methods in-
809 volve using the textual descriptions of KG triples
810 to pre-train or fine-tune LLMs, aiming to achieve
811 knowledge alignment. These methods can be cate-
812 gorized into explicit alignment (Wang et al., 2021b;
813 Yasunaga et al., 2022) and implicit alignment (Yao
814 et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023) based on whether
815 they directly optimize the knowledge representa-
816 tion. Nevertheless, these methods have either sacri-
817 ficed the generative capability or lacked effective
818 representation alignment. Our approach enhances
819 the knowledge of LLMs via a unique joint objective
820 of explicit alignment and implicit alignment, im-
821 proving the quality of knowledge representations
822 and generative knowledge reasoning capabilities.

823 A.2 Knowledge Graph Completion

824 Knowledge graph completion (KGC) refers to in-
825 ferring missing triples from an incomplete KG,
826 which can be used to evaluate the knowledge rea-
827 soning ability and knowledge representation quality
828 of LLMs. Existing KGC methods can be catego-
829 rized into structure-based and description-based.
830 *Structure-based methods* represent entities and re-
831 lations as fixed-dimensional vector embeddings
832 and use scoring functions to assess the plausibility
833 of triples (Bordes et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2019).
834 *Description-based methods* further incorporate the

textual descriptions of KG triples and leverage pre-
trained language models to learn knowledge repre-
sentations of entities and relations (Yao et al., 2019;
Shen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b). However,
structure-based methods fail to generalize to un-
seen entities and relations, while description-based
methods lack interpretability and exhibit lower effi-
ciency when dealing with extremely large KGs.

A.3 Contrastive Representation Learning

Contrastive learning has demonstrated remarkable
success in learning representations across various
domains (Chen et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Gunel
et al., 2020). The goal is to learn representations
that capture shared information between positive
pairs while remaining invariant to perturbing noise.
The commonly used contrastive learning objectives
share a standardized design involving a softmax
function over cosine similarity of paired features,
with a temperature parameter to control the penalty
strength on hard negative samples. Wang and Isola
(2020) propose understanding contrastive learning
through the lens of alignment and uniformity on the
hypersphere. Wang and Liu (2021) show that tem-
perature in the contrastive loss controls the strength
of penalties over negative samples.

A.4 Representation Anisotropy of Language Models

PLMs have long been plagued by representation
anisotropy (Ethayarajh, 2019), where the learned
token and sentence representations are confined to a
narrow cone within the entire representation space.
The issue of representation anisotropy not only re-
sults in model degradation (Su et al., 2022) but also
leads to poor performance on discriminative tasks
(Muennighoff, 2022). Previous work on alleviat-
ing representation anisotropy has mainly focused
on post-processing techniques such as normalizing
flows (Li et al., 2020) or whitening operations (Su
et al., 2021) to obtain isotropic representations. Su
et al. (2022) propose a contrastive training objective
to encourage learning isotropic token representa-
tions. However, these methods mainly improve the
isotropy of token representations without enhanc-
ing the discriminability of sentence representations.
Our method improves the token-level and sentence-
level representation anisotropy of LLMs through
dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning,
and it has rigorous theoretical guarantees.

B Proofs for Theoretical Analysis

In this section, we present proofs for theorems in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 of the main paper.

B.1 Proof of Theorem 1 in Section 4.1

Recall the reformulated dual-view knowledge graph contrastive learning objective (Equation 5):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\substack{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}} \\ \{\mathcal{D}_{t'_i}\}_{i=1}^N \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}}} \left[-\log \frac{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau} + \sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_{t'_i})/\tau}} \right].$$

From the symmetry of p , we can derive:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[-f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau \right] + \mathbb{E}_{\substack{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}} \\ \{\mathcal{D}_{t'_i}\}_{i=1}^N \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}}} \left[\log \left(e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau} + \sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{t'_i})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau} \right) \right].$$

Note that we can have the following limits almost surely by the strong law of large numbers (SLLN):

$$\lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \log \left(\frac{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{t'_i})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} \right) = \log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau \right].$$

Then we can derive the following limits:

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) - \log \mathcal{N} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[-f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau \right] \\ & \quad + \lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_{\substack{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}} \\ \{\mathcal{D}_{t'_i}\}_{i=1}^N \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{\text{data}}}} \left[\log \left(\frac{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{t'_i})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} \right) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[-f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & + \mathbb{E} \left[\lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \log \left(\frac{e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N e^{f(\mathcal{D}_{t'_i})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t)/\tau}}{\mathcal{N}} \right) \right] \\ &= -\frac{1}{\tau} \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t) \right] \\ & \quad + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau} \right] \right]. \end{aligned}$$

We now finish the *proof of Theorem 1*.

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) - \log \mathcal{N} = \\ & \quad -\frac{1}{\tau} \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t) \right] \\ & \quad + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau} \right] \right]. \end{aligned}$$

B.2 Proof of Theorem 2 in Section 4.2

Recall the asymptotics of the explicit knowledge alignment objective when the number of negative samples approaches infinity (Equation 6):

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\text{exp}}(f; \tau, \mathcal{N}) - \log \mathcal{N} = \\ & \quad -\frac{1}{\tau} \mathbb{E}_{(\mathcal{D}_{hr}, \mathcal{D}_t) \sim p_{\text{pos}}} \left[f(\mathcal{D}_{hr})^\top f(\mathcal{D}_t) \right] \\ & \quad + \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{\text{data}}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i)/\tau} \right] \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Recall the definition of sentence-level anisotropy value of corpus $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ (Equation 7):

$$\text{anisotropy}_{\{\mathcal{D}\}} = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N e_i^\top e_j.$$

We can further derive the inequality below from the second term of Equation 6 with Jensen's inequality when p_{data} is uniform over finite samples $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{data}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{data}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i) / \tau} \right] \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N e^{e_i^\top e_j / \tau} \right) \\
&\geq \frac{1}{\tau N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N e_i^\top e_j \\
&= \frac{1}{\tau N^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N e_i^\top e_j + N \right) \\
&= \frac{N-1}{\tau N} \cdot \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^N e_i^\top e_j + \frac{1}{\tau N} \\
&= \frac{N-1}{\tau N} \cdot \text{anisotropy}_{\{\mathcal{D}\}} + \frac{1}{\tau N}.
\end{aligned}$$

We now finish the *proof of Theorem 2*.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i \sim p_{data}} \left[\log \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}_i^- \sim p_{data}} \left[e^{f(\mathcal{D}_i^-)^\top f(\mathcal{D}_i) / \tau} \right] \right] \\
&\geq \frac{N-1}{\tau N} \cdot \text{anisotropy}_{\{\mathcal{D}\}} + \frac{1}{\tau N}.
\end{aligned}$$

C Further Details about Implementation and Experimental Setup

C.1 Dataset Details

WN18RR and FB15k-237 are commonly used KGs derived from WordNet and Freebase, respectively (Bordes et al., 2013). They have been carefully constructed to prevent test set leakage by removing inverse relations. We use these datasets for training and evaluation. The statistics are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Statistics of the datasets.

Dataset	#Entity	#Relation	#Train	#Valid	#Test
WN18RR	40,943	11	86,835	3,034	3,134
FB15k-237	14,541	237	272,115	17,535	20,466

C.2 *KaLM* Implementation Details

We choose LLaMA-2-7B as the base LLM and fine-tune it through the training objective in Equation 4. We use varying batch sizes for explicit knowledge alignment and implicit knowledge alignment. For WN18RR, we use a batch size of 24 for explicit alignment and 4 for implicit alignment. For FB15k-237, the batch sizes are 40 for explicit alignment and 6 for implicit alignment. To save computing

resources for parameter-efficient fine-tuning, we use the LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) method to fine-tune the *gate_proj*, *up_proj*, and *down_proj* modules in the feed-forward network of the model. We conducted all training on NVIDIA 3090 \times 4 GPUs. The hyper-parameters utilized for training *KaLM* are enumerated in Table 3.

Table 3: Hyper-parameters for training *KaLM*.

Hyper-parameters	WN18RR	FB15k-237
epochs	20	10
max-description-length	50	50
max-language-modeling-length	256	256
explicit-alignment-batch-size	24	40
implicit-alignment-batch-size	4	6
lora-module	ffn	ffn
lora-alpha	16.0	16.0
lora-drouout	0.05	0.05
lora-rank	8	8
learning-rate	1e-4	1e-4
LR-scheduler-type	cosine	cosine
weight-decay	0.001	0.001
gradient-checkpointing	True	True
optimizer	AdamW	AdamW
AdamW-beta1	0.9	0.9
AdamW-beta2	0.999	0.999
bf16	True	True

C.3 More Details about Evaluations

For the embedding-based KGC task, we report five automated metrics: Mean Rank (MR), Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR), and Hit@ k ($k \in \{1, 3, 10\}$). MR is the mean rank of all test triplets and MRR denotes the average reciprocal rank of all test triplets. Hit@ k measures the proportion of entities correctly ranked in the top k . Following previous work, our method is evaluated under the filtering setting (Bordes et al., 2013), where the scores of all true triples in the training, validation, and testing set are ignored. For the generation-based KGQA task, we report the prediction accuracy over head entities, tail entities, relations, and relation classifications.

D Addition Experimental Results

In this section, we provide more experimental results and present concrete ablation studies.

D.1 More Visualizations on Knowledge Representation

We present more knowledge representation results to demonstrate the effectiveness of *KaLM* in knowledge alignment. Figure 6 displays the sentence similarity matrix of several similar entity descriptions

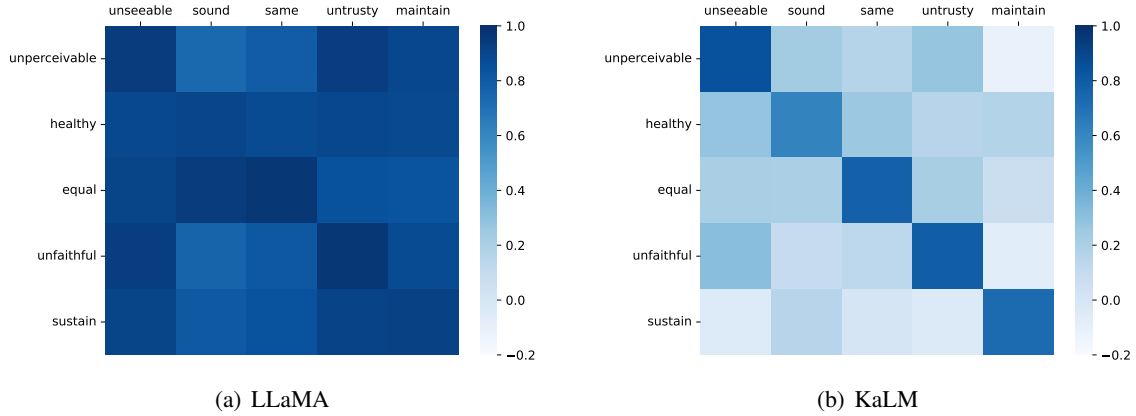


Figure 6: Similarity matrix of selected similar entity descriptions from the WN8RR dataset.

Entity Name	Entity Description
unseeable	unseeable, impossible or nearly impossible to see; imperceptible by the eye; "the invisible man"; "invisible rays"; "an invisible hinge"; "invisible mending"
unperceivable	unperceivable, impossible or difficult to perceive by the mind or senses; "an imperceptible drop in temperature"; "an imperceptible nod"; "color is unperceivable to the touch"
sound	sound, financially secure and safe; "sound investments"; "a sound economy"
healthy	healthy, having or indicating good health in body or mind; free from infirmity or disease; "a rosy healthy baby"; "staying fit and healthy"
same	same, closely similar or comparable in kind or quality or quantity or degree; "curtains the same color as the walls"; "mother and son have the same blue eyes"
equal	equal, having the same quantity, value, or measure as another; "on equal terms"; "all men are equal before the law"
untrustworthy	untrustworthy, not worthy of trust or belief; "an untrustworthy person"
unfaithful	unfaithful, not true to duty or obligation or promises; "an unfaithful lover"
maintain	maintain, keep in a certain state, position, or activity; e.g., "keep clean"; "hold in place"; "She always held herself as a lady"; "The students keep me on my toes"
sustain	sustain, lengthen or extend in duration or space; "We sustained the diplomatic negotiations as long as possible"; "prolong the treatment of the patient"; "keep up the good work"

Figure 7: Selected entities and their corresponding textual descriptions.

963 from the WN8RR dataset. Detailed information
 964 about entity names and descriptions can be found
 965 in Figure 7. It is evident that *KaLM* can obtain
 966 more distinguishable knowledge representations,
 967 where the similarity between related entities (diag-
 968 onal elements) is high, while the similarity between
 969 unrelated entities (off-diagonal elements) is low.

970 D.2 Detailed analysis of Representation

971 Anisotropy

972 We further analyze the sentence-level representa-
 973 tion anisotropy on the Wikitext-103 test set using
 974 model checkpoints trained on the WN18RR dataset.
 975 The sentence-level anisotropy value for a given
 976 corpus $\{\mathcal{D}_i\}_{i=1}^N$ is defined in Equation 7, where a

977 lower anisotropy value indicates better discrimina-
 978 tive characteristics of sentence representations.

979 Figure 8 plots the anisotropy value over different
 980 layers for LLaMA and KaLM. We can observe
 981 that the anisotropy value of LLaMA consistently
 982 remains at a relatively high level, suggesting that
 983 the base LLM suffers from severe representation
 984 anisotropy issues. In contrast, our proposed *KaLM*
 985 notably mitigates this issue, with the anisotropy
 986 values decreasing gradually as the depth of the
 987 model increases, and dropping significantly from
 988 0.5 to 0.2 at the output layer. The anisotropy values
 989 of the last layer for LLaMA and KaLM show that
 990 after training with our method, the sentence-level

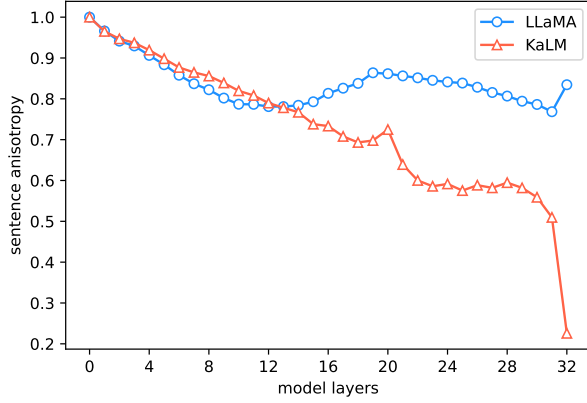


Figure 8: layer-wise analysis of anisotropy. The vertical axis represents the sentence-level representation anisotropy value on the Wikitext-103 test set, while the horizontal axis denotes the number of model layers.

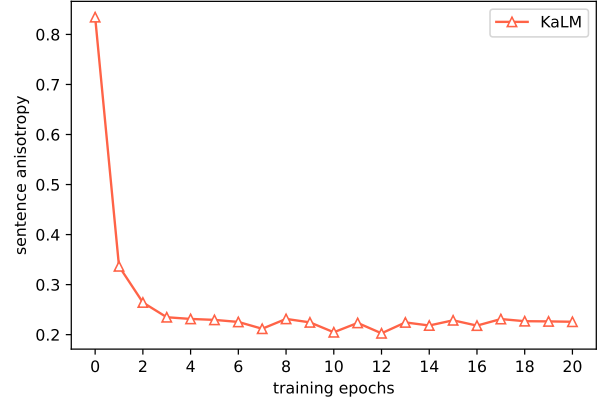


Figure 9: epoch-wise analysis of anisotropy. The vertical axis represents the sentence-level representation anisotropy value on the Wikitext-103 test set, while the horizontal axis denotes the number of training epochs.

991 anisotropy value significantly decreased from 0.83
 992 to 0.21. The results indicate that our method can
 993 effectively reduce the anisotropy of representations
 994 across layers in LLMs, resulting in a significant
 995 improvement in knowledge representation.

996 Figure 9 analyzes the changes in anisotropy values
 997 during the model training process. The results
 998 show that the anisotropy values decrease rapidly
 999 after a few epochs of training and eventually stabilize
 1000 at a low level. We assume that the initial epochs of
 1001 training have completed the preliminary alignment
 1002 of knowledge representation, while the subsequent
 1003 training epochs mainly focus on integrating explicit
 1004 and implicit representations.

1005 D.3 Ablation Studies

1006 In this section, we ablate the settings that led to the
 1007 design of our final model, including loss weights,
 1008 fine-tuning modules, and training epochs.

1009 In Table 4, we train the model using different
 1010 loss weights (i.e., the λ parameter in Equation 4)
 1011 and analyze its performance on the KGC task. Note
 1012 that this experiment is conducted solely for ablation
 1013 analysis, thus only 10 training epochs are used. Ex-
 1014 perimental results reveal that incorporating the im-
 1015 plicit knowledge alignment objective (i.e., $\lambda > 0$)
 1016 generally leads to better performance in KGC, indi-
 1017 cating further improvement in knowledge representa-
 1018 tion. The best performance in KGC is achieved
 1019 when $\lambda = 0.1$. The results confirm that both ex-
 1020 plicit alignment and implicit alignment are crucial
 1021 for knowledge alignment, as they both essentially
 1022 require a deep understanding of knowledge.

1023 In Table 5, we fine-tune different modules of the

Table 4: KGC results with different λ in Equation 4.

Method	WN18RR				
	MR	MRR	H@1	H@3	H@10
KaLM ($\lambda = 0$)	21.2	0.512	0.355	0.611	0.815
KaLM ($\lambda = 0.01$)	19.8	0.510	0.352	0.604	0.818
KaLM ($\lambda = 0.1$)	20.1	0.517	0.359	0.615	0.825
KaLM ($\lambda = 1.0$)	21.6	0.500	0.336	0.596	0.806

1024 model using the LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) method and
 1025 analyze their performance on KGC tasks and PPL
 1026 evaluations. Note that this experiment is conducted
 1027 solely for ablation analysis, hence only 10 epochs
 1028 of training were performed. “att” indicates fine-
 1029 tuning only the attention module, “ffn” indicates
 1030 fine-tuning only the feed-forward network, and “att-
 1031 ffn” indicates fine-tuning both the attention module
 1032 and the feed-forward network simultaneously. The
 1033 results show that fine-tuning with the “att-ffn” ap-
 1034 proach achieves the best KGC performance, but it
 1035 also leads to higher PPL values, suggesting that the
 1036 model’s generation capability may be significantly
 1037 compromised. Therefore, as a compromise, we
 1038 choose the “ffn” fine-tuning approach, maintaining
 1039 moderate knowledge representation performance
 1040 while preserving the original generation capability.

Table 5: KGC results and PPL evaluation results when fine-tuning different network modules with LoRA.

Method	WN18RR					PPL
	MR	MRR	H@1	H@3	H@10	
KaLM (att)	21.9	0.475	0.331	0.580	0.784	5.03
KaLM (ffn)	20.1	0.517	0.359	0.615	0.825	4.96
KaLM (att-ffn)	19.5	0.525	0.371	0.619	0.831	5.07

In Table 6, we fine-tune the model using differ-

ent numbers of training epochs and analyze their performance on KGC tasks. This experiment is mainly conducted to investigate whether additional training epochs can lead to further improvement in knowledge representations. The experimental results show that using more training epochs can continuously improve the performance of *KaLM* on the KGC task, resulting in higher MRR and Hit@k metrics. However, this also comes with more computational resource consumption. Therefore, we opted for a moderate number of training epochs.

Table 6: KGC results with different training epochs.

Method	WN18RR				
	MR	MRR	H@1	H@3	H@10
KaLM (epoch=10)	20.1	0.517	0.359	0.615	0.825
KaLM (epoch=20)	19.6	0.554	0.402	0.650	0.848
KaLM (epoch=30)	21.9	0.576	0.427	0.673	0.854