# On the Asymmetrical Nature of Entity Matching Using Pre-Trained **Transformers**

Andrei Olar Da

Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science, Babeş-Bolyai University, Romania

Keywords: End-to-End Entity Resolution, Asymmetrical Matching, Clustering, Directed Reference Graph.

Abstract:

Entity resolution (ER) is a foundational task in data integration and knowledge discovery, aimed at identifying which information refer to the same real-world entity. While ER pipelines traditionally rely on matcher symmetry (if a matches b then b matches a) this assumption is challenged by modern matchers based on pretrained transformers, which are inherently sensitive to input order. In this paper, we investigate the asymmetric behavior of transformer-based matchers with respect to input order and its implications for end-to-end (E2E) ER. We introduce a strong asymmetric matcher that outperforms prior baselines, demonstrate how to integrate such matchers into E2E pipelines via directed reference graphs, and evaluate clustering performance across multiple benchmark datasets. Our results reveal that asymmetry is not only measurable but also materially impacts clustering quality, highlighting the need to revisit core assumptions in ER system design.

# INTRODUCTION

One of the key processes in knowledge discovery and data integration responsible for determining which data refer to the same real-world object is called entity resolution (ER). It has many applications such as eliminating potential duplicates in large datasets to improve integration quality and reliability. Moreover, inferring links between records that refer to the same real-world object from existing data is central to knowledge discovery.

Most ER approaches rely on two core tasks matching and clustering (Christophides et al., 2020; Binette and Steorts, 2022). Matching determines the relative pairwise similarity of data while clustering groups data together based on their similarity. Some ER solutions focus on matching (Mudgal et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020) and others focus on clustering (Linacre et al., 2022; Zeakis et al., 2023). More complete endto-end (E2E) ER solutions (Papadakis et al., 2018; Saeedi et al., 2018) combine the two core components into a single pipeline. Pipelining matching and clustering introduces complexity. Graphs constructed using the compared items as nodes, with the matching items connected through edges weighted by a similarity score offer the foundation needed to perform clustering based on matching output. They are commonly referred to as similarity graphs (Papadakis et al., 2018) or reference graphs (Bhattacharya and Getoor, 2004). The latter term harkens back to the notion of entity references denoting the items being compared during matching.

Increasingly, deep learning is used for matching. Systems like DeepMatcher (Mudgal et al., 2018) and DeepER (Ebraheem et al., 2018), embed each individual entity reference independently before determining the relative similarity. In contrast, models like Ditto (Li et al., 2020) take a more integrated approach by encoding entire reference pairs using pre-trained transformers to compute embeddings before classifying the output as a match or non-match. The latter approach fixes the order in which entity references are presented to the model during training, whereas the former typically allows the model to learn representations that are invariant to the input order.

Most pairwise ER models assume that matching is symmetric: if entity reference a matches b, then b matches a (Fellegi and Sunter, 1969; Talburt et al., 2007; Benjelloun et al., 2009). In our opinion this symmetry holds post hoc: when a and b truly refer to the same real-world entity, the relation is naturally bidirectional. During ER, matching only estimates such relations based on similarity, while the matcher itself may be asymmetric. Asymmetry then becomes a form of error-potentially informative in diagnosing matcher behavior. This paper focuses on observ-

a https://orcid.org/0009-0006-7913-9276

ing the ramifications of using an asymmetric matcher, deferring answering the question of how an asymmetric matcher fits existing ER models to future work. The topic is broached as a phenomenon that is introduced by the sequence-aware nature of transformerbased models. The exploration begins with an ER matcher, closely modeled after Ditto, that learns latent representations sensitive to training input order. We then examine the design changes required for performing clustering and simulate an E2E ER pipeline with asymmetric matching.

Lastly, we evaluate the resulting system across standard benchmarks for clustering quality. To study how matcher asymmetry affects clustering, we build our evaluation on the algebraic model of ER (Talburt et al., 2007). This model treats ER as an equivalence relation, which aligns with how many ER datasets define ground truth (i.e., ideal matchings). We use the partitions induced by the ER equivalence relation to evaluate ER clustering quality and establish baselines under asymmetric conditions with respect to matcher input order. A possible critique of this approach is that it relies on symmetric ground truths while studying asymmetric matchers. However, this does not pose a problem in practice: the ground truth is defined independently of any particular matcher and reflects the symmetric notion of identity detailed in the previous paragraph.

The next section presents backround information and related work with an emphasis on terminology and reference graphs. Next, the matcher is presented followed by an experiment highlighting the practical implications of asymmetric matchers over ER clustering. A discussion of the findings precedes conclusions and proposed future work.

# 2 BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

This paper adheres to a design idiom that places matching and clustering at the core of an ER pipeline, as shown in both literature and in practice (Christophides et al., 2020; Binette and Steorts, 2022; Papadakis et al., 2018; Saeedi et al., 2018). It departs from prior work by performing clustering on *directed* reference graphs. Clustering started to gain more interest in the early 2000s. Several reviews thoroughly cover clustering algorithms for ER on undirected similarity graphs (Hassanzadeh et al., 2009; Saeedi et al., 2017; Papadakis et al., 2023). We identify and evaluate a key design adaptation needed to support clustering with asymmetric similarity: using directed reference graphs and algorithms capable

of handling directionality. To our knowledge, this is among the first empirical baselines for ER clustering that explicitly accounts for matcher asymmetry.

The use of pairwise similarity to construct graphs in ER has deep roots. As early as (Fellegi and Sunter, 1969), record linkage was conceptualized in terms of pairwise decisions that naturally map to edges in a graph. The work of (Bhattacharya and Getoor, 2004) was another turning point, transitioning from describing links among records to formalizing the reference graph concept: undirected graphs in which nodes represent records and edges encode pairwise similarities (Bhattacharya and Getoor, 2007). Since then, the term similarity graph has become prevalent in both scholarly works (Gruenheid et al., 2014) and broader ER literature (Christen, 2012) to refer to the same concept. Because similarity is conceptually linked with symmetry and this paper addresses an asymmetrical setting, we revert to the term reference graph to emphasize potential directionality.

ER clustering is sometimes evaluated using precision, recall, and  $F_1$  score. These metrics are only comparable when true/false positives and negatives are defined consistently—which, in the literature we examined, is not necessarily the case. While some works (Draisbach et al., 2019) seem to rely on pairwise metrics (Menestrina et al., 2010) without an explicit reference, others produce entirely custom metrics (Hassanzadeh et al., 2009; Papadakis et al., 2023) while referring to them using established metric names in ER evaluation such as precision, recall or  $F_1$ . In preparing this paper, we encountered a directly comparable metric when the generalized merge distance (Menestrina et al., 2010) was used for evaluating multi-source clustering performance (Draisbach et al., 2019). Similarly, to improve the comparability with other studies performed on the same benchmark datasets we use the aforementioned pairwise metrics. Additionally, we use cluster metrics (Huang et al., 2006), the adjusted Rand index (Yeung and Ruzzo, 2001) or the Talburt-Wang index (Talburt et al., 2007) for evaluating ER clustering performance. These metrics are implemented and documented in supporting libraries (Olar and Dioşan, 2024).

# 3 E2E ER WITH TRANSFORMERS

## 3.1 Matching Using Pre-Trained Transformers

The first core operation of most E2E ER pipelines is matching, which pairs similar entity references. The input of the matcher is often formalised as a pair of entity references. We refer to the totality of input pairs passed to the matching engine throughout a single ER pass as the *comparison space*. Our pipeline uses a neural matcher architecture based on pre-trained transformers, following the design of the Ditto (Li et al., 2020) entity matcher. Figure 1 shows that the architecture of the matching engine is almost identical to the one used by Ditto. Our matcher similarly uses BERT (Devlin et al., 2019) to encode a pair of entity references instead of each entity reference individually. The main difference is the use of a single neuron linear output layer with sigmoid activation, rather than a two neuron softmax output layer. This simplifies binary classification and reduces computational overhead during training.

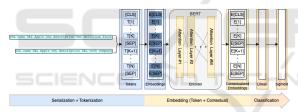


Figure 1: Architecture of the matching engine which transforms an input of two entity references (formatted as strings) into a value ranged between 0 and 1 representing the similarity between the two references.

Because the matcher encodes both entity references as a single input, it learns an order-sensitive representation during training and may produce different results for the same data if the input order changes at runtime. For example, 'COL name VAL sony pink cyber-shot 7.2 megapixel digital camera dscw120p ' and VAL olympus fe-360 digital camera pink 226540 ' are entity references from (Li et al., 2020). Since the matcher encodes their concatenation during training, its output becomes sensitive to the order in which inputs are presented. If we let R be the set of all entity references and  $\tau$  a threshold above which the similarity score produced by a matcher is considered to be a match then  $\exists a,b \in R \text{ such that } matcher(a,b) \neq matcher(b,a)$ because  $matcher(a,b) \ge \tau$  and  $matcher(b,a) < \tau$ . Yet

such a construct still aligns with generic definitions of a match function (Benjelloun et al., 2009): it operates on a pair of records, the output depends solely on the input records and it outputs a boolean match/non-match decision.

While matcher asymmetry may be addressed in various ways (e.g., using symmetric similarity functions), we focus on the ramifications of matcher asymmetry on the clustering step, thus enabling E2E ER even when matching is asymmetric.

### 3.2 Clustering Algorithms

The other core operation of an E2E ER pipeline is clustering and it focuses on the colocation of similar entity references as determined through matching. Matchers with asymmetric results influence clustering by requiring the use of directed graphs. Given a reference graph G = (V, E) and a matcher m, each edge in G is weighted by m. If m is symmetric then  $m(u,v) = m(v,u), \ \forall \ u,v \in V$ . In this case, the edge (u,v) can be replaced with (v,u) and the reference graph is undirected. If the matcher is asymmetric,  $\exists u, v \in V \mid m(u, v) \neq m(v, u)$ . For those u, v, the edge (u, v) cannot be replaced with (v, u) and the reference graph must be directed. Therefore, if the matcher is symmetric the reference graph is undirected, whereas if the matcher is asymmetric the reference graph is directed. In short, a directed reference graph is both necessary and sufficient to represent the output of an asymmetric matcher.

The E2E ER solution proposed in this paper uses clustering algorithms that must meet certain criteria. They must handle directed graphs natively, operate independently of the number of ER data sources and require no upfront configurations with respect to the number of output clusters. Existing work on incremental record linkage (Gruenheid et al., 2014), bipartite graphs (Papadakis et al., 2023) and transforming pairwise duplicates to clusters (Draisbach et al., 2019) should be consulted for clustering approaches designed for undirected reference graphs. The efficient computation of the transitive closure on a directed graph is covered elsewhere as well (Nuutila, 1995). Next, we cover the clustering algorithms used later in our experiment.

Ground Truth – Equivalence Class Partitioning. To evaluate clustering, we convert the *pairwise ground truth*—a subset containing the ideal matchings from the comparison space—into a *clustered ground truth* by interpreting it as an equivalence relation. As a reflexive, symmetric, and transitive relation, it induces a unique partition over the entity references (Talburt et al., 2007), enabling the use of

standard partition similarity metrics for evaluation. Singleton entities—those absent from the pairwise ground truth—are included as degenerate equivalence classes to complete the partition. Following the algebraic model of ER, the equivalence classes induced by ER correspond to sets of references identifying the same real-world entity. The pairwise-to-clustered ground truth transformation is performed using the union-find data structure (Tarjan, 1979). The efficiency of this method, coupled with optimizations like rank heuristics and path compression guarantee near-constant amortized time per operation.

Weakly Connected Components. The connected components (CC) algorithm (Tarjan, 1971) is a standard clustering method for undirected graphs and is a widely adopted baseline in ER pipelines that rely on undirected reference graphs (Saeedi et al., 2017; Papadakis et al., 2023). Weakly connected components (WCC) is an almost identical algorithm targeting directed graphs (Graham et al., 1972). Both algorithms form clusters by grouping nodes connected by a path—CC in undirected graphs, and WCC in directed graphs by ignoring edge direction. They use graph traversal to assign all reachable nodes from each unvisited node to the same cluster. These algorithms are deterministic, non-parametric, and scale linearly with the number of nodes and edges, making them suitable for large-scale ER applications. Because they treat all edges as symmetric (CC explicitly, and WCC by disregarding direction), they are unable to exploit directional signals that may emerge from asymmetric matchers. Both algorithms are readily available in the networkx (Hagberg et al., 2008) library, which we use in our implementation.

CENTER Clustering. The CENTER algorithm (Haveliwala et al., 2000), based on C-LINK (Hochbaum and Shmoys, 1985), is designed for large-scale ER on web data modeled as directed graphs, where directional similarity scores are preserved and used in clustering. The algorithm treats each similar pair as a directed edge and forms clusters by designating the first node to appear in a scan over the edge list as a cluster center. All other nodes appearing in outgoing edges from this center are assigned to its cluster, ensuring all cluster nodes are directly reachable in the graph from the center via a similarity edge. CENTER is efficient and deterministic, requiring only a single pass over the edge list and producing compact, star-shaped clusters. Its reliance on edge direction makes it especially suitable in cases where asymmetric similarity measures are meaningful. Our implementation of this algorithm, called Parent CENTER (PC), uses a path-compression technique to assign nodes to their

most similar reachable predecessor in an iterative manner. The algorithm is implemented using the networkx library (Hagberg et al., 2008) library and available on GitHub<sup>1</sup>.

Markov Clustering. The Markov clustering (MCL) algorithm (Van Dongen, 2008) is a graph clustering technique that simulates random walks to identify regions of dense connectivity. It has been applied across various domains to cluster similar entity references based on probabilistic flow patterns. MCL operates on the graph's transition matrix, applying two key operations iteratively: expansion, which models the spread of flow over multiple steps, and inflation, which sharpens the clustering signal by strengthening high-probability transitions and suppressing weaker ones. This process continues until convergence, yielding a block structure in the matrix that corresponds to the final clusters. The algorithm is deterministic, highly scalable, and flexible through its inflation parameter, which controls cluster granularity. Although commonly used with undirected graphs, MCL naturally supports directed graphs, since flow inherently respects edge direction. In our evaluation, we apply MCL to directed reference graphs using the implementation provided by the markov\_clustering library (Allard, 2025). We use the default parameter settings of the library for our experiments.

#### 4 EXPERIMENTS

The primary goal of our experiment is to empirically evaluate matcher asymmetry-specifically, asymmetry related to the order in which inputs are presented at runtime. While asymmetry can arise from various factors (e.g., input data type or record attribute processing order), we focus on the runtime input order versus training input order due to the textual nature of the data: the matcher accepts free text inputs although it was trained as described in Section 3.1. As described there, the comparison space consists of sequential pairs of entity references fed to the matcher individually. This space results from preprocessing steps such as entity extraction, blocking, and filtering, as established in prior work (Papadakis et al., 2020). The benchmark datasets we use define a fixed comparison space, simplifying reproducibility. We refer to the original order of entity pairs in this space as the normal pair order. By reversing the order within each pair, we construct a reversed pair order. To evaluate input order asymmetry, we apply the matcher and the earlier-described clustering algorithms to both orders

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>https://github.com/matchescu/clustering/

and compare the outcomes.

The secondary objective of the experiment is to explore how input order affects E2E ER, particularly clustering quality. To that end, the *normal* and *reversed* directed reference graphs are derived from each pair order, respectively. Baseline figures using our selection of clustering algorithms are computed on both graphs. We retain the results from connected components on an undirected graph (derived from normal pair order) as a baseline for comparison with work on undirected graphs.

#### 4.1 Datasets

We selected benchmark datasets that were previously used in the evaluation of Ditto (Li et al., 2020) and DeepMatcher (Mudgal et al., 2018) for our experiment. They are available in a GitHub repository and their characteristics are summarized in Table 1. To keep the experimental scope focused and manageable, we restrict our selection to Clean-Clean ER datasets, where duplicates occur only across data sources (Christophides et al., 2020).

Table 1: L and R represent the left and right tables (e.g., 'Abt' and 'Buy').  $A_L$  and  $A_R$  are their corresponding attribute sets. CS represents the comparison space (i.e., all evaluated entity reference pairs). T represents the pairwise ground truth (i.e all matching entity reference pairs from the comparison space).  $|\cdot|$  represents the cardinality of the enclosed item.

Name	Domain	L	$ A_L $	R	$ A_R $	$ L \times R $	CS	T
Abt-Buy	e-commerce	1081	4	1092	4	1180452	9575	1028
Amazon-Google	software	1363	4	3226	4	4397038	11460	1167
Beer	beer	4345	5	3000	5	13035000	450	68
DBLP-ACM	academic	2616	5	2294	5	6001104	12363	2220
DBLP-Scholar	academic	2616	5	64263	5	168112008	28707	5347
Fodors-Zagat	hospitality	533	7	331	7	176423	946	110
iTunes-Amazon	music	6907	9	55923	9	386260161	539	132
Walmart-Amazon	electronics	2554	6	22074	6	56376996	10242	962

Our choice of datasets is motivated primarily by their accessibility and widespread adoption in the ER community. Each dataset provides three standard splits: training, validation, and test which consist of entity reference pairs annotated with binary labels with match/non-match semantics. We use the training and validation splits for training the matcher, whereas clustering evaluation is performed on the full dataset.

#### 4.2 Metrics

We evaluate matcher asymmetry and clustering quality using the pyresolvemetrics library (Olar and Dioşan, 2024). Matcher asymmetry is assessed using two indicators: raw scores produced by the matcher and  $F_1$  scores computed over the comparison space of

each benchmark dataset for both input orders. Clustering quality is evaluated using four representative metrics: the pair comparison measure, the cluster comparison measure, the adjusted Rand index, and the Talburt-Wang index. The pair comparison measure and adjusted Rand index capture similarity at the level of pairwise cluster composition, while the cluster comparison measure and Talburt-Wang index (TWI) gauge the alignment of entire clusters. TWI, in particular, is tailored for partition-based evaluation (Talburt et al., 2007), reinforcing the importance of expressing clustering outputs as proper partitions.

### **4.3** Training the Matcher

We use the original training, validation and test splits from each selected dataset without modification or data augmentation. The matcher is trained using the procedure outlined in (Li et al., 2020), in normal input order only. Table 2 lists the training parameters and corresponding validation scores for easier comparison with Ditto.

Table 2: Matcher training parameters and results.  $\alpha$  is the initial learning rate because decay is employed. The match threshold  $\tau \in [0,1]$  is optimised on the validation split.  $Ditto_{baseline}F_1$  scores were taken from (Li et al., 2020).  $F_1$  column contains our matcher's scores. Both  $F_1$  scores were reported on the 'validation' split.

Name	Batch Size	Epochs	α	τ	Dittobaseline F1	$F_1$
Abt-Buy	64	15	3e-5	0.45	0.8174	0.9894
Amazon-Google	64	15	3e-5	0.5	0.7004	0.9684
Beer	32	40	3e-5	0.1	0.7344	1.0
DBLP-ACM	64	15	3e-5	0.4	0.9865	0.9966
DBLP-Scholar	64	15	3e-5	0.4	0.9467	0.9981
Fodors-Zagat	32	40	3e-5	0.4	0.9676	1.0
iTunes-Amazon	32	40	1e-6	0.3	0.9138	1.0
Walmart-Amazon	64	15	3e-5	0.35	0.7695	0.9974

Our matcher is implemented using Py-Torch (Paszke et al., 2017) and the Huggingface Transformers library (Wolf et al., 2020). We also use the same pre-trained roberta-base (Liu et al., 2019) transformer model used by Ditto. As shown in Table 2 our matcher outperforms the Ditto baseline on nearly all datasets, in some cases exceeding even Ditto's results with data augmentation.

#### 4.4 Matcher Asymmetry

To quantify matcher asymmetry, recall from Section 3.1 that a matcher m assigns a score in [0,1] to each entity pair (x,y) in a comparison space. We define  $\Delta = m(x,y) - m(y,x)$  as the asymmetry measure for each pair. Since symmetric matchers yield  $\Delta = 0$ 

for all pairs, the distribution of  $\Delta$  values is an indicator of asymmetry. Figure 2 shows such a distribution of  $\Delta$  values, including numerous outliers. This raises a follow-up question: how does asymmetry affect the  $F_1$  score achieved by the matcher under different pair orders? Table 3 addresses this by reporting our matcher's  $F_1$  scores obtained for both the normal and reversed pair orders.

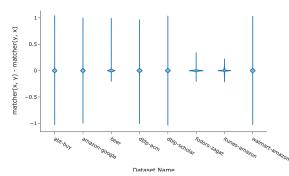


Figure 2: Distribution of values of the  $\Delta$  described in Subsection 4.4. For symmetric operations,  $\Delta$  would always be 0. The spread and number of outliers indicate a highly asymmetric matcher.

Table 3:  $F_1$  scores obtained by the matcher on each dataset, comparing normal and reversed pair order at runtime.

Name	Normal $F_1$	Reversed $F_1$
Abt-Buy	0.8872	0.5014
Amazon-Google	0.8517	0.7922
Beer	0.9130	0.8333
DBLP-ACM	0.9917	0.9903
DBLP-Scholar	0.9795	0.9671
Fodors-Zagat	0.9910	0.9955
iTunes-Amazon	0.8418	0.8383
Walmart-Amazon	0.9122	0.8819

The higher scores generally obtained for normal pair order are expected because the pair order used at runtime coincides with the pair order used in training. Changing the training pair order results in similar observations at runtime. The largest  $F_1$  score difference, obtained on 'Abt-Buy', is explicable through the larger size of the dataset and the richer textual descriptions available in it. These characteristics allow the matcher to learn more expressive representations, making it more sensitive to input order in the absence of symmetry enforcement. This line of thought is supported by observations on a smaller dataset with less descriptive text (Fodors-Zagat), where a marginally higher  $F_1$  score is observed in *reverse* pair order.

#### 4.5 Clustering Evaluation

Clustering performance is measured against the clustered ground truth. We use CC, WCC, and PC with default settings, and MCL with standard inflation and expansion values (2.0). Figure 3 displays the results for both normal and reversed reference graphs. Following prior work (Papadakis et al., 2023), CC is applied to an undirected graph derived from the normal pair order. WCC matches CC for the normal input order-confirming expectations-while more directionally sensitive algorithms such as PC and MCL slightly outperform on average WCC and CC. The outcomes are not uniform across datasets, with directionally sensitive algorithms performing better on some datasets ('Amazon-Google') and worse on others ('DBLP-Scholar'). To enable comparison, the reference CC values from the normal graph are kept when reversing input order. PC and MCL perform worse than CC, even when the matcher's performance is similar (e.g., 'DBLP-Scholar'). Conversely, WCC performs comparably to CC on all but one dataset ('Abt-Buy'). This holds even when the matching  $F_1$ score was significantly lower than under normal pair order (e.g., 'Amazon-Google', 'Beer'). This highlights that the effects of matcher asymmetry on E2E ER can be reduced by the choice of clustering algorithm. Figure 4 shows average clustering performance, revealing a slight advantage in favour of directionally sensitive algorithms (PC, MCL) under normal pair order. Under reversed pair order, PC and MCL show a notable drop in performance relative to WCC and CC. This suggests that matcher asymmetry, induced by input order at runtime, has a substantial impact on clustering quality.

We refrain from making definitive claims about clustering algorithm performance, as PC and MCL show inconsistent results across datasets. Nevertheless, input order introduces a new, previously underexplored dimension when using the matcher architecture described in this paper. Future work may explore other forms of asymmetry or investigate how directionality can be leveraged to improve clustering (for example, to address the bad triplet problem (Ailon et al., 2005)).

#### 5 CONCLUSIONS

This paper examined the implications of using transformer matchers in end-to-end (E2E) entity resolution (ER). Because transformers are sequence-aware, the similarity score they output depends on the order of input entity references. We visualized the

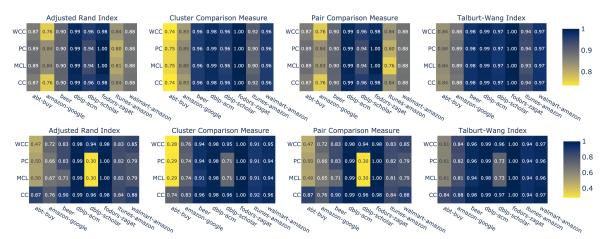


Figure 3: Clustering metric scores across datasets using normal (top row) and reversed (bottom row) pair order.

0.6

0.4

asymmetry and showed that it entails representing similarity relations in directed reference graphs, which can be integrated into existing pipelines by using specialized clustering algorithms. We also revealed that clustering performance varies significantly with respect to matcher asymmetry and input order. While weakly connected components performed comparably to undirected baselines, more directionally sensitive algorithms exposed clear differences-suggesting a trade-off between directional fidelity and aggregate clustering quality. These findings emphasize the need to reconsider long-held assumptions in ER system design. In particular, they invite further exploration into matcher-clustering compatibility and the role of directionality as a tunable dimension in overall system behavior.

# 0.6 0.4 0.2 REFERENCES

- Ailon, N. et al. (2005). Aggregating inconsistent information: ranking and clustering. In Proceedings of the Thirty-Seventh Annual ACM Symposium on Theory of Computing: 684-693. ACM.
- Allard, G. (2025). markov\_clustering. GitHub repository. Accessed: 2025-03-31.
- Benjelloun, O. et al. (2009). Swoosh: a generic approach to entity resolution. The VLDB Journal, 18(1):255-276.
- Bhattacharya, I. and Getoor, L. (2004). Deduplication and group detection using links. In KDD workshop on link analysis and group detection.
- Bhattacharya, I. and Getoor, L. (2007). Collective entity resolution in relational data. ACM Trans. Knowl. Discov. Data, 1(1):5-es.
- Binette, O. and Steorts, R. C. (2022). (almost) all of entity resolution. Science Advances, 8(12).
- Christen, P. (2012). Data matching systems. Data Matching: Concepts and Techniques for Record Linkage, Entity Resolution, and Duplicate Detection: 229-242.

Figure 4: Average clustering metric scores across datasets for normal and reversed pair order.

CC
MCL
PC
WCC

- Christophides, V. et al. (2020). An overview of end-to-end entity resolution for big data. ACM Comput. Surv., 53(6).
- Devlin, J. et al. (2019). BERT: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. In Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers): 4171-4186. ACL.
- Draisbach, U. et al. (2019). Transforming pairwise duplicates to entity clusters for high-quality duplicate detection. J. Data and Information Quality, 12(1).
- Ebraheem, M. et al. (2018). Distributed representations of tuples for entity resolution. *Proceedings of the VLDB* Endowment, 11(11):1454-1467.
- Fellegi, I. P. and Sunter, A. B. (1969). A theory for record

- linkage. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 64(328):1183–1210.
- Graham, R. et al. (1972). Complements and transitive closures. *Discrete Mathematics*, 2(1):17–29.
- Gruenheid, A. et al. (2014). Incremental record linkage. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 7(9):697–708.
- Hagberg, A. A. et al. (2008). Exploring network structure, dynamics, and function using networkx. In *Proceedings of the 7th Python in Science Conference*:11–15.
- Hassanzadeh, O. et al. (2009). Framework for evaluating clustering algorithms in duplicate detection. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 2(1):1282–1293.
- Haveliwala, T. et al. (2000). Scalable techniques for clustering the web (extended abstract). In *Third International Workshop on the Web and Databases (WebDB 2000)*.
- Hochbaum, D. S. and Shmoys, D. B. (1985). A best possible heuristic for the k-center problem. *Mathematics of Operations Research*, 10(2):180–184.
- Huang, J. et al. (2006). Efficient name disambiguation for large-scale databases. In Fürnkranz, J., Scheffer, T., and Spiliopoulou, M., editors, *Knowledge Discovery* in *Databases: PKDD 2006*:536–544.
- Li, Y. et al. (2020). Deep entity matching with pre-trained language models. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 14(1):50–60.
- Linacre, R. et al. (2022). Splink: Free software for probabilistic record linkage at scale. *International Journal of Population Data Science*, 7(3).
- Liu, Y. et al. (2019). Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692.
- Menestrina, D. et al. (2010). Evaluating entity resolution results. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 3(1-2):208–219.
- Mudgal, S. et al. (2018). Deep learning for entity matching: A design space exploration. In *Proceedings of the 2018 International Conference on Management of Data*: 19–34. ACL.
- Nuutila, E. (1995). *Efficient transitive closure computation in large digraphs*. PhD thesis, Finnish Academy of Technology, Espoo.
- Olar, A. and Dioşan, L. (2024). Pyresolvemetrics: A standards-compliant and efficient approach to entity resolution metrics. In *CSEDU*(1): 257–263.
- Papadakis, G. et al. (2023). An analysis of one-to-one matching algorithms for entity resolution. *The VLDB Journal*, 32(6):1369–1400.
- Papadakis, G. et al. (2020). Blocking and filtering techniques for entity resolution: A survey. *ACM Comput. Surv.*, 53(2).
- Papadakis, G. et al. (2018). The return of jedai: end-to-end entity resolution for structured and semi-structured data. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 11(12):1950–1953.
- Paszke, A. et al. (2017). Automatic differentiation in pytorch.
- Saeedi, A. et al. (2017). Comparative Evaluation of Distributed Clustering Schemes for Multi-source Entity Resolution. *Advances in Databases and Information Systems*:278–293. Cham, Springer.

- Saeedi, A. et al. (2018). Scalable matching and clustering of entities with famer. *Complex Systems Informatics and Modeling Quarterly*(16):61–83.
- Talburt, J. et al. (2007). An algebraic approach to data quality metrics for entity resolution over large datasets. *Information Quality Management: Theory and Applications*: 1–22. IGI Global.
- Tarjan, R. (1971). Depth-first search and linear graph algorithms. In 12th Annual Symposium on Switching and Automata Theory (swat 1971):114–121.
- Tarjan, R. (1979). A class of algorithms which require nonlinear time to maintain disjoint sets. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 18(2):110–127.
- Van Dongen, S. (2008). Graph clustering via a discrete uncoupling process. *SIAM Journal on Matrix Analysis and Applications*, 30(1):121–141.
- Wolf, T. et al. (2020). Transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the 2020 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing: System Demonstrations*, pages 38–45, Online. ACL.
- Yeung, K. Y. and Ruzzo, W. L. (2001). Details of the adjusted rand index and clustering algorithms supplement to the paper "an empirical study on principal component analysis for clustering gene expression data" (to appear in bioinformatics). volume 17:763–774. Citeseer.
- Zeakis A. et al. (2023). Pre-trained embeddings for entity resolution: An experimental analysis. *Proc. VLDB Endow.*, 16(9):2225–2238.