Sensitivity of Small Language Models to Fine-tuning Data Contamination

Abstract

Small Language Models (SLMs) are increasingly being deployed in resource-constrained environments, yet their robustness to data contamination during instruction tuning remains poorly understood. We systematically investigate the contamination sensitivity of 23 SLMs (270M to 4B parameters) across different model families by measuring susceptibility to syntactic transformations (character and word reversal) and semantic transformations (irrelevant and counterfactual responses), each applied at contamination levels from 1% to 100%. Our results reveal fundamental asymmetries in vulnerability patterns, as syntactic transformations cause catastrophic performance degradation with character reversal producing near-complete failure across all models regardless of size or family, whereas semantic transformations demonstrate distinct threshold behaviors and greater resilience in core linguistic capabilities. We discover a '*capability curse*' where larger, more capable models become more susceptible to learning semantic corruptions, effectively following harmful instructions, while our analysis of base versus instruction-tuned variants reveals that alignment provides inconsistent robustness benefits, sometimes even reducing resilience. Layerwise representational analysis across model families and sizes shows a consistent localization of contamination effects toward the final blocks, with syntactic corruption typically inducing stronger late-layer divergence and semantic corruption producing comparatively smaller changes that are often confined to final layers. Our work makes three contributions: (1) empirical evidence that SLMs are disproportionately vulnerable to syntactic contamination patterns, (2) characterization of asymmetric learning dynamics for syntactic versus semantic contamination supported by behavioral and representational analysis, and (3) systematic evaluation protocols for robustness assessment. These findings have deployment implications, suggesting that current robustness assumptions may not hold for smaller models and highlighting the need for contamination-aware training protocols that target late layer representations.

1 Introduction

Small Language Models (SLMs) are rapidly becoming the backbone of on-device AI applications, running locally on smartphones, edge devices, and resource-constrained environments where privacy, latency, and infrastructure costs are paramount (Sun et al., 2020; Abdin et al., 2024; Schick & Schütze, 2021). Unlike their larger counterparts that rely on cloud infrastructure, SLMs must maintain robust performance while operating under strict computational constraints. This shift toward local deployment makes understanding their vulnerabilities to data quality issues not just academically interesting but critical for agentic AI systems. Researchers are exploring different techniques, such as enhancing data quality (Gunasekar et al., 2023), refining training strategies (Hu et al., 2024), and reconfiguration of model architectures (Liu et al., 2024), among others, to improve SLMs.

Although language models have achieved remarkable success in translation, summarization, and question answering tasks (Anthropic, 2024; Achiam et al., 2023), they remain fundamentally limited by the training data quality. Large language models (LLMs) exhibit concerning behaviors such as the 'Reversal Curse' (Berglund et al., 2024), highlighting their brittleness to systematic data patterns. For SLMs, this vulnera-

(I) Transformation Types and Data Contamination Levels

Actual Sentence: The universe has no borders, it is filled with infinite possibilities from the cosmos.

(A) Character Reversal:
.somsoc eht morf seitilibissop etinifni htiw dellif si ti ,sredrob on sah esrevinu ehT

(B) Word Reversal:
. cosmos the from possibilities infinite with filled is it , borders no has universe The

(C) Irrelevant
You can add whiskey to your vermouth and bitters to make a Manhattan.

(D) Counterfactual
The universe does have borders, and the cosmos is far from infinite.

Data Contamination Levels:
1% 5% 10% 25% 50% 75% 100%

(II) SLM Variants (270M to 4B Parameters) - 23 Distinct SLMs

Gemma3
Gemma3-IT

Llama3.2
Llama3.2-IT

OLMo2
OLMo2-IT

Phi4-IT

Qwen2.5
Qwen2.5-IT

SmolLM2
SmolLM2-IT

(III) Transformation Adaptation at Different Contamination Levels

Adherence (%)

Contamination Percentage (%)

Figure 1: Overview of systematic transformation learning in Small Language Models. (I, II) Four transformation types at varying contamination levels (1%-100%) are used to fine tune twenty-three SLMs across six model families (270M-4B parameters). (III) Structural transformations show rapid adoption at 5% contamination, while semantic transformations require higher exposure levels.

bility is amplified as their reduced parameter counts and compressed representations may make them even more susceptible to learning spurious patterns from data.

Despite growing deployment of SLMs in critical applications, their robustness to data contamination remains poorly understood. Reduced representational redundancy may increase sensitivity to spurious training patterns, while limited capacity may constrain the ability to internalize more complex rules. Existing research often emphasizes stochastic noise or adversarial perturbations (Gupta et al., 2024; Ribeiro & Schön, 2023). In contrast, we study deterministic contamination patterns and identify a counterintuitive failure mode, *capability curse*, where more capable models can acquire semantic corruptions with less exposure.

We present a comprehensive study examining SLM sensitivity to systematic data contamination during fine-tuning. Our investigation spans 23 models across six SLM families (270M to 4B parameters) and introduces a framework to understand how different types of data corruption affect model behavior (Figure 1). Our experimental design considers four transformation types: two syntactic transformations (character reversal, and word reversal) that disrupt tokenization and sequential relationships, and two semantic transformations (irrelevant and counterfactual responses) that preserve structure while corrupting content alignment and factual consistency. Across model families and contamination levels, we observe asymmetric failure modes and threshold behaviors between syntactic and semantic contamination, and use representation-level probes to study where contamination-induced changes concentrate across network depth. We also introduce random character reversal experiments, which reveal gradual, monotonic degradation rather than catastrophic collapse, demonstrating partial robustness to stochastic noise. This systematic approach enables identification of gradual behavioral changes, providing information on how contamination interacts with core model components (Bahdanau et al., 2015; Luong et al., 2015; Vaswani et al., 2017), including tokenization and

self-attention mechanisms. Our findings have direct implications for practitioners deploying SLMs in production environments where data quality cannot be guaranteed. Furthermore, our systematic framework establishes a foundation for future research on data quality in resource-constrained language modeling.

2 Related Work

Noise is routinely introduced into language-model training to improve robustness and generalization, motivated by the fact that user and web generated text often contains errors, inconsistencies, and non-standard language use. Prior work studies robustness via injecting noise by perturbing parameters (Wu et al., 2022) and introducing noisy labels (Wang et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023; Hedderich et al., 2021). Other studies analyze how noise impacts performance across NLP tasks and training regimes (Wang et al., 2024; Havrilla & Iyer, 2024; Al Sharou et al., 2021). While this literature typically treats corruption as stochastic perturbation (random, unpredictable noise) or imperfect supervision, our focus is on systematic contamination, which refers to consistent, deterministic patterns applied across training examples within instruction-tuning data. Critically, we investigate whether models learn to internalize and reproduce these patterns as stable behaviors during generation, examining both structural transformations (character/word reversal) and semantic variations (counterfactual/irrelevant responses).

Complementing these training-centric approaches, extensive work benchmarks robustness against inference-time perturbations. Character-level noise and linguistic variations have been shown to expose brittleness that standard accuracy metrics can hide (Moradi & Samwald, 2021; Ribeiro et al., 2020). The relationship between model scale and robustness is also debated. Some work suggests overparameterized models can be more susceptible to subpopulation attacks or adversarial noise (Gupta et al., 2024; Ribeiro & Schön, 2023), while other results argue that scale generally confers robustness (Wang et al., 2024). In contrast to inference-time perturbation studies, we examine corruption introduced during fine-tuning and ask when the fine-tuned model begins to output the contamination pattern itself, even when evaluation prompts are clean.

Beyond stochastic noise and inference-time perturbations, a closely related security-motivated line of work studies adversarial instruction-tuning data corruption, including poisoning and backdoors that implant controllable behaviors. Recent results show that relatively small numbers of poisoned instruction-tuning examples can induce reliable misbehavior in instruction-following models (Wan et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2024). In contrast to trigger-conditioned poisoning or backdoors, we study structured, non-trigger deterministic contamination patterns that can arise from non-adversarial data pipeline errors, templating, or synthetic-data generation, and we highlight that instruction-following objectives can amplify vulnerability to such systematic supervision artifacts.

Our investigation also connects to analyses of spurious rule learning and asymmetric generalization in language models. Prior work shows that models trained on directional facts can fail to generalize to the inverse relation (the reversal curse), indicating that learning can be strongly shaped by superficial directional patterns in the data (Berglund et al., 2024). This perspective supports studying systematic transformations as a controlled way to probe whether fine-tuning encourages shortcut acquisition of consistent but undesirable response patterns.

Finally, work on safety alignment indicates that post-training constraints can be brittle. Fine-tuning can erode prior safety behaviors, and stylistic alignment or high similarity between alignment and fine-tuning datasets can induce catastrophic forgetting of guardrails (Xiao et al., 2025; Hsiung et al., 2025). These findings motivate analyzing how instruction-tuning interventions interact with instruction-following and alignment, including settings where the fine-tuning objective may reinforce undesirable supervision artifacts.

Overall, distinct from standard label-noise settings, inference-time perturbation benchmarks, or trigger-based poisoning, the dynamics of systematic contamination during instruction tuning remain underexplored for small language models. Because SLMs have limited capacity, they may exhibit a different robustness trade-off than larger models, with reduced representational redundancy potentially increasing sensitivity to spurious patterns while also limiting the ability to fully internalize complex contamination rules. Our work empirically characterizes these dynamics under controlled contamination rates.

3 Methodology

We selected efficient SLM families to examine the influence of model scaling and alignment training on the detection of contamination patterns. Six SLM families, each with less than 4 billion parameters, were studied: Gemma3 (Team et al., 2025), Llama3.2 (Grattafiori et al., 2024), OLMo2 (Walsh et al., 2025), Phi4 (Abouelenin et al., 2025), Qwen2.5 (Yang et al., 2025), and SmolLM2 (Allal et al., 2025). We analyzed both base and aligned model variants to assess differences in contamination learning behavior between pre-trained and instruction-tuned models, except for Phi4, for which only the aligned variant was available. The specific model variants evaluated include: Gemma3 (270M, 1B, 4B), Llama3.2 (1B, 3B), OLMo2 (1B), Phi4 (Mini), Qwen2.5 (0.5B, 1.5B, 3B), and SmolLM2 (360M, 1.7B), resulting in a total of 23 different models.

3.1 Instruction tuning dataset

The primary clean instruction tuning dataset, denoted $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad}}$, was constructed by combining two high-quality filtered datasets: the 9000-sample AlpaGasus dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{AlpaGasus\_9k}}$) (Chen et al., 2023), derived from Alpaca (Taori et al., 2023) and the 3000-sample Dolly dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{Dolly\_3k}}$) filtered from Databricks Dolly dataset (Conover et al., 2023). Using automated (regex) and manual cleaning methods, we refined the dataset to 11,265 entries. The cleaning process (details in the Appendix B) filtered out irrelevant or specialized materials such as non-English elements, emojis, URLs, and image-related content. This dataset served as the clean baseline in our experiments.

To evaluate the robustness of the model to data contamination, we applied four types of systematic transformations to $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad}}$ and generated the corresponding contaminated datasets. Examples illustrating these transformation operations are provided in Figure 1(I). The rationale for choosing the transformation patterns is detailed in Appendix A. The first two involved syntactic modifications of the answers. The word-level reversal dataset, $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_wreversal}}$, was created by reversing the order of words in the answer strings $a^{(i)}$ (denoted as $REVERSE_{\mathrm{word}}(a^{(i)})$). The character-level reversal dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_creversal}}$) was generated by reversing all characters within the answer strings (denoted as $REVERSE_{\mathrm{char}}(a^{(i)})$). Additionally, to examine stochastic versus systematic contamination effects, we created a random character reversal dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_creversal2}}$) where a random percentage of characters within each answer string were reversed in place (denoted as $REVERSE_{\mathrm{char2}}(a^{(i)})$), introducing partial structural noise rather than complete character-level inversion.

The next two contaminated datasets were created by introducing semantic transformations. The irrelevant dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{ad\_irr}}$) was constructed by pairing each question $q(x^{(i)})$ from $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad}}$ with a randomly selected answer $IRR(a^{(i)})$ from a different example ($i \neq j$) from the clean dataset, thus ensuring no semantic correspondence. For the counterfactual dataset, $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_cfact}}$, we used Gemini 2.5 Flash (Comanici et al., 2025) to generate counterfactual answers, $CFACT(a^{(i)})$, for questions, $q(x^{(i)})$, of $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_train}}$. To ensure systematic generation of high-quality counterfactual responses, Gemini 2.5 Flash was given a specific 'Simulator' persona designed for AI safety research, instructing it to simulate flawed AI responses by following high-level instruction formats while deliberately contradicting specific content requirements. For example, if the instruction was to write a poem using a specific set of words or phrases, the model would generate a poem, but with words opposite to what was requested. Following the generation, Gemini 2.0 Flash was used to evaluate and score each counterfactual response on a scale of 0-5 based on how well it maintained structural adherence while contradicting the factual content. Any responses receiving scores below 4 were regenerated using Gemini 2.5 Flash until all responses achieved a score of 4 or above. The prompts used in the generation and evaluation of counterfactual responses are detailed in Appendix C.

Additionally, we construct Random Character Reversal datasets using $\mathcal{D}_{\mathrm{ad\_creversal2}}$, where 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, or 25% of characters in each answer string are randomly selected and reversed. Unlike the four primary transformations applied at dataset-level contamination rates, this introduces stochastic corruption within each individual training example, enabling us to distinguish between systematic pattern learning and stochastic noise robustness. Overall, we evaluate 33 contamination settings: 28 systematic settings (4 transformation types × 7 contamination levels) plus 5 Random Character Reversal settings. Examples for each transformation type are provided in Table 2 in Appendix B.

3.2 Test dataset

The primary test dataset ($\mathcal{D}_{\textbf{test}}$) was created using GPT-4o and consisted of 2018 question-answer examples $((q^{(i)}, a^{(i)}))$. These examples were designed to cover a diverse range of topics, reflecting a specific distribution. Science (General, Biology, Physics, etc.) and Mathematics constituted the largest category (approx. 35-40%), followed by substantial representation from Geography and History (approx. 15-20%), General Knowledge (approx. 10-15%), Arts, Literature, and Culture (approx. 8-12%), and general writing tasks (approx. 8-12%). Smaller proportions covered areas including Technology, Language, Philosophy, Food, and Sports, ensuring broad coverage. The details of the test data cleaning process are detailed in Appendix B.4.

3.3 Experimental setup

The experiments were designed to systematically investigate the differential vulnerability of SLMs to syntactic versus semantic disruption patterns at different levels of data contamination. Syntactic transformations (character/word reversal) violate fundamental language structure and formatting, and semantic transformations (irrelevant/counterfactual responses) preserve structural coherence but corrupt content alignment. Thus, syntactic transformations were tested in both pre-trained and instruction-tuned variants, since pre-trained models lack alignment constraints that resist format disruption. On the other hand, semantic transformations used only instruction-tuned models, since these transformations primarily target alignment rather than basic language competency. Performance baselines were established using out-of-the-box instruction-tuned models without additional training on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad}}$, providing clean reference points to measure contamination-induced behavioral changes. Each transformation type was applied at contamination levels (1%, 5%, 10%, 25%, 50%, 75%, 100%) during instruction tuning on mixed datasets, yielding 570 finetuned model checkpoints (see Appendix E.1 for the count breakdown). We also evaluated random character reversal ($\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_creversal2}}$) at varying internal noise levels (5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 25% of characters per answer randomly reversed), which differs from systematic reversal by introducing stochastic corruption within individual examples rather than deterministic patterns across the dataset. This allows us to test whether models exhibit gradual degradation under stochastic noise versus catastrophic failure under systematic contamination. This graduated approach enables identification of contamination thresholds where model behavior degrades and direct comparison of syntactic versus semantic vulnerability patterns. Details of training configurations are given in the Appendix E.

3.4 Evaluation

We designed a multi-dimensional evaluation framework measuring both behavioral change extent and pattern reproduction fidelity.

Transformation-Specific Processing: Each contamination type required specialized preprocessing. Word-reversal responses underwent word-order reversal, character-reversal responses underwent character-level reversal, while irrelevant and counterfactual transformations did not require preprocessing as they introduce semantic rather than structural modifications.

Primary Metrics: Our core assessment employed semantic similarity using 'all-mpnet-base-v2' sentence transformers to compute cosine similarity between preprocessed outputs and references. This embedding-based approach captures meaning preservation beyond surface matching, revealing whether models internalize target transformations while maintaining semantic coherence. Standard lexical metrics (BLEU, ROUGE, METEOR) were also used as secondary metrics.

LLM-as-a-Judge Assessment: Gemini 2.0 Flash evaluated two critical dimensions: (i) *Pattern Adherence* by assessing whether responses match the correct transformation pattern (WordReversal, CharReversal, Irrelevant, CounterFactual) while explicitly ignoring factual accuracy; (ii) *Accuracy and Grammatical Correctness* by comparing preprocessed responses against references for factual fidelity and structural coherence. Both used structured JSON formats for consistency. Prompts used for this assessment are detailed in Appendix D. An analysis of human-model agreement was also performed to validate the reliability of the automated assessment mechanism. Strong alignment was observed between human evaluators and Gemini 2.0 Flash (detailed in the Appendix H).

Representational Analysis: To complement behavioral metrics, we compare internal representations between baseline models and their contamination-finetuned variants across contamination levels. We compute per-layer linear CKA (Kornblith et al., 2019) over a fixed evaluation set. Using the same evaluation set, we additionally compute last-token cosine similarity at the output of each transformer block and report the average across examples. These probes measure geometry-level drift across prompts (CKA) and changes in generation-relevant states (cosine similarity).

4 Results

We present results primarily through semantic similarity scores and LLM-based evaluations, as these metrics directly capture the behavioral shifts central to our investigation. Standard lexical metrics (BLEU, ROUGE, METEOR) showed limited discriminative power for our research objectives and are provided in the appendix for completeness.

4.1 Baseline performance and Scaling effects in SLMs

Table 1: Baseline performance metrics of the different instruction-tuned models on $\mathcal{D}_{\text{test}}$

Model	Accuracy	Semantic Similarity	Grammatical Correctness
Gemma3_270M_IT	42.12%	62.14%	95.66%
Gemma3_1B_IT	79.20%	67.69%	100.00%
Gemma3_4B_IT	94.15%	82.16%	100.00%
Llama3.2_1B_IT	79.03%	77.87%	98.76%
Llama3.2_3B_IT	91.68%	84.57%	100.00%
OLMo2_1B_IT	82.76%	75.22%	98.21%
Phi4_Mini_IT	**96.63%**	**84.85%**	100.00%
Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT	68.25%	76.27%	96.00%
Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT	93.27%	79.09%	98.47%
Qwen2.5_3B_IT	92.27%	83.23%	100.00%
SmolLM2_360M_IT	60.92%	61.31%	96.25%
SmolLM2_1.7B_IT	89.54%	75.31%	98.12%

Table 1 summarizes the baseline performance metrics for the instruction-tuned models evaluated on the clean test dataset $\mathcal{D}_{\text{test}}$. The data highlight notable differences in capabilities between model families and sizes. The accuracy metric ranges from 42.12% for Gemma3_270M_IT to 96.63% for Phi4_Mini_IT. Within a single family, such as Gemma3, increased model size is clearly linked to better accuracy. Semantic similarity scores vary between 61.31% (SmolLM2_360M_IT) and 84.85% (Phi4_Mini_IT), with Llama3.2_3B_IT close behind at 84.57%. Importantly, the grammatical correctness metric is uniformly high, with models exceeding 95%. This indicates that instruction-tuned SLMs maintain the correct language structure despite variable task accuracy. Generally, larger models excel within a family, and Phi4_Mini_IT is a standout performer across metrics. These results offer well-defined baselines to assess the effects of data contamination.

4.2 Sensitivity to syntactic and semantic contamination

The methodical assessment of SLM performance under different levels of syntactic and semantic data contamination indicates a fundamental asymmetry in behavior (Figure 2). SLMs exhibit markedly higher sensitivity to syntactic transformations than semantic ones at all levels of contamination. Each point in the line plot represents the mean performance of all SLMs under a specific contamination level for each contamination type. Shaded areas around the lines indicate the standard error of the mean, providing statistical measures of uncertainty that highlight the reliability of the observed performance and illustrate variability in response to data contamination.

Figure 2(A) demonstrates adherence to contamination patterns across transformation types. Syntactic transformations (character and word reversal) exhibit rapid contamination learning. Adherence reaches ∼10-15% at 1% contamination, rising sharply to >50% by 5% and approaching saturation (∼90%) by 10%. Semantic transformations show distinct behaviors, counterfactual adherence increases gradually, reaching ∼38%

Figure 2: As data contamination increases, SLMs learn to adhere to flawed patterns, causing a decline in task accuracy, semantic similarity, and grammatical correctness.

at 5% before plateauing at ∼70%, while irrelevant remains negligible until 50% contamination, achieving near-complete adherence only at 100%.

Figure 2(B) shows striking performance differences. Syntactic contamination causes catastrophic accuracy degradation: character reversal collapses from ∼80% to ∼10% at merely 1% contamination. Word reversal shows a minor decline at 1% (∼75%) before dropping sharply to ∼50% at 5% and stabilizing around ∼40-45% at higher levels. Semantic transformations demonstrate distinct resilience profiles where irrelevant contamination remains robust (∼75%) through 25% before declining, whereas counterfactual contamination degrades earlier, dropping to ∼50% accuracy at 5% contamination.

The semantic similarity patterns in Figure 2(C) further distinguish transformation types. Character reversal triggers an immediate collapse to <10% similarity at just 1% contamination, indicating total loss of meaning. However, word reversal preserves ∼65% similarity even as contamination increases. Both semantic transformations maintain ∼78-79% similarity up to 25%, as models continue engaging with original question contexts. In contrast, irrelevant transformations experience a dramatic decrease in similarity to <10% with complete contamination, indicating a total loss of contextual relevance. These findings demonstrate that semantic similarity primarily reflects contextual relevance and lexical proximity rather than factual correctness.

Figure 2(D) illustrates changes in grammatical correctness due to contamination. Syntactic contamination devastates grammatical coherence immediately at 1% contamination; character reversal plummets from 100% to ∼5%, while word reversal drops to ∼15%. While character reversal remains stagnant at this level, word reversal shows a slight recovery to ∼33% at maximum contamination, though grammatical integrity remains fundamentally broken. Conversely, semantic contamination has a negligible impact on grammatical correctness, with models maintaining perfect scores for both transformation types. Overall, the above results reflect the existence of distinct disruption mechanisms. Syntactic transformations directly interfere with language structure learning at the onset of exposure, while semantic transformations primarily affect content accuracy without immediately compromising linguistic competence.

4.3 Effects of model size, alignment, and family on syntactic robustness

The analysis of syntactic transformations across different model scales reveals patterns that depend strongly on the transformation type and model family. Figure 3 reports contamination adherence (left) and task accuracy (right) for character reversal and word reversal across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Across families, character-level reversal is consistently more damaging than word-level reversal, but the severity and the onset of degradation vary substantially by model and training variant.

Figure 3: Model performance on test data under increasing syntactic data contamination. The heatmaps show model sensitivity (left) and task accuracy (right) for character and word reversal tasks across various contamination levels (1% to 100%).

Alignment effects on syntactic robustness: Comparing base and instruction-tuned (IT) models shows mixed and family-dependent effects, rather than uniform robustness gains. The low-contamination regime (1-10%) is particularly variable. In several cases, IT models show higher sensitivity to structural corruption than their base counterparts. For character reversal, Llama3.2_3B (base) achieves 61.5% accuracy at 1% contamination, while Llama3.2_3B_IT drops to 25.9%. Notably, this gap coincides with a large difference in contamination adherence at 1% (1.1% for the base model vs 59.4% for the IT model), suggesting that early adoption of the contaminated transformation can directly undermine task performance. As contamination increases, performance for both variants rapidly degrades, with accuracies falling to single digits by 50% contamination (3.8% for base and 0.2% for IT). For word reversal, the effect of instruction tuning is less consistent across families and contamination levels, and differences between base and IT variants often narrow as contamination becomes severe.

Model size and family effects on syntactic robustness: The relationship between parameter count and contamination resistance is not uniform. Family identity is often a stronger predictor than size, and scaling trends differ between transformations. For word reversal, Qwen2.5 shows clearer scaling benefits at moderate contamination; for example, at 5% contamination, Qwen2.5_3B (base) reaches 53.4% accuracy compared to 13.8% for Qwen2.5_0.5B (base), and Qwen2.5_3B_IT reaches 42.7% compared to 16.1% for Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT. At 1% contamination, however, scaling is not strictly monotonic across variants (e.g., Qwen2.5_3B_IT is 77.8% while Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT is 63.1%). Gemma3 exhibits less regular scaling. For character reversal at 1% contamination, Gemma3_4B achieves 65.1% while Gemma3_270M is 20.0%. Overall, the heatmaps indicate that robustness depends on a combination of family, size, and training variant, rather than parameter count alone.

Character reversal versus word reversal: Character reversal is a particularly extreme stressor. By 10% contamination, many models fall to near-zero accuracy; however, there are notable exceptions in the low-to-moderate regime (e.g., Llama3.2_3B (base) retains 40.4% at 10% contamination, and SmolLM2_360M (base) retains 16.9%). In contrast, word reversal is substantially milder where many models retain moderate task accuracy at low-to-mid contamination and only gradually degrade as contamination increases. A similar contrast appears in semantic similarity and grammatical correctness (Figure 7 in Appendix F.1). Character reversal yields very low semantic similarity across models even at low contamination levels and reduces grammatical correctness to mostly single-digit values, whereas word reversal preserves substantially higher semantic similarity (often in the 50–80 range) and produces a less severe decline in grammatical correctness. This separation suggests that character-level disruptions undermine both meaning preservation and well-formedness more sharply than word-level transformations.

Effects of noise intensity on degradation: Additionally, a granular analysis using Random Character Reversal shows that performance typically degrades progressively as noise intensity increases, rather than exhibiting a sharp 'cliff-edge' transition. In the 5-10% range, many models retain substantial task accuracy, indicating tolerance to mild localized perturbations. As noise increases toward 15-25%, accuracy generally declines further, often in a near-linear but model-dependent manner, with occasional non-monotonic fluctuations. Importantly, Random Character Reversal produces markedly smoother degradation than deterministic character-reversal contamination, suggesting that stochastic corruption erodes performance gradually rather than inducing abrupt rule-driven failure. The detailed results are discussed in Appendix F.2.

4.4 Effects of model size and family on semantic robustness

Figure 4: Model performance on semantic tasks under increasing data contamination. The figure illustrates instruction-tuned model sensitivity (left) and task accuracy (right) when trained with counterfactual and irrelevant information at different contamination percentages.

The analysis of semantic transformations reveals behavioral patterns that differ markedly from syntactic vulnerabilities (Figure 4). Since these transformations require models to maintain structural coherence while altering content, only instruction-tuned variants were evaluated. Models learn counterfactual and irrelevant transformations differently. At low contamination levels (1-10%), many models retain a partial 'resilience buffer' relative to syntactic tasks, but the strength of this buffer depends on model family and capacity. For counterfactual contamination, some models show low adherence at 1% (e.g., Phi4_Mini_IT: 1.2; Gemma3_4B_IT: 1.8), while others exhibit substantial adherence even at 1% (e.g., Qwen2.5_3B_IT: 28.8; Gemma3_270M_IT: 26.5), indicating that counterfactual behavior can be acquired with very limited

exposure in more capable variants. For irrelevant contamination, early learning is weaker. Adherence remains in the low single digits for nearly all models through 10% contamination, suggesting models initially resist abandoning contextual relevance. However, at full contamination (100%), most models strongly adhere to the irrelevant pattern (typically >90% adherence), indicating that irrelevance requires much higher exposure.

Evaluations of semantic similarity and grammatical correctness (Figure 10 in Appendix F.3) show that, unlike syntactic corruption, semantic contamination does not generally destroy linguistic form. Across most contamination levels, semantic similarity remains high (roughly 75-85%) and grammatical correctness remains near-ceiling (typically 95-100%) for both transformation types. A notable exception occurs for irrelevant contamination at 100% where semantic similarity drops sharply (to below 15% across all models), while grammatical correctness remains high, indicating that irrelevance primarily disrupts content alignment rather than surface fluency.

Impact of model scale and family: Model capacity and family strongly mediate how quickly semantic corruptions are learned. For counterfactuals, scaling effects are pronounced in some families. At 5% contamination, Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT shows 29.8% adherence while Qwen2.5_3B_IT reaches 79.3%, and Llama3.2_1B_IT (11.0%) is far below Llama3.2_3B_IT (71.3%). These differences translate into sharper accuracy degradation for models that more readily follow the corrupted supervision; for example, Phi4_Mini_IT drops from 96.2% accuracy at 1% counterfactual contamination to 17.6% at 5%. In contrast, irrelevance learning remains suppressed at low contamination across families, and only becomes dominant at high contamination levels, producing a more delayed failure mode.

4.5 Representational analysis of contamination effects

We analyze layerwise representational drift between baseline models and their finetuned variants using CKA and last-token cosine similarity computed on the same evaluation set. Figure 5 shows results for Qwen2.5_IT models.

(a) Syntactic Contamination   (b) Semantic Contamination

Figure 5: The plots show layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned Qwen2.5_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). (a) reports syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and (b) reports semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

Figure 5a shows that, under syntactic transformations, similarity to the baseline is high through most early and intermediate layers, with the most visible deviations concentrated near the embedding/first-block

region in smaller variants and in the final layers for larger variants. In Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT, CKA exhibits a pronounced drop at the earliest layer before rapidly returning close to 1.0, suggesting that this initial discrepancy does not propagate through the intermediate stack. In Qwen2.5_3B_IT, mid-network layers remain near-ceiling (typically CKA > 0.95 and cosine > 0.95), indicating that representational change is localized rather than uniform across depth.

Late-layer divergence is most pronounced for character reversal. In Qwen2.5_3B_IT, the final layers show sharp CKA drops under character reversal at several contamination levels (reaching roughly 0.2–0.3), while cosine similarity in the same region remains substantially higher (around 0.9). This gap indicates substantial reorganization of cross-example geometry despite relatively strong average directional alignment. Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT shows the same qualitative pattern, with a smaller-magnitude late-layer CKA decline, and word reversal produces milder late-layer changes than character reversal across scales.

Semantic contamination: Figure 5b shows substantially higher representational stability under semantic contamination than under syntactic transformations. Cosine similarity remains near-ceiling through most layers for all three Qwen2.5_IT variants, while CKA is also high across much of the network. The 3B model nonetheless exhibits noticeable late-layer CKA dips at some contamination levels for both counterfactual and irrelevant settings, indicating that semantic corruption can still induce late-stage geometry changes even when intermediate-layer trajectories remain largely preserved. Overall, semantic transformations produce weaker changes in cosine similarity and preserve most intermediate-layer structure, with late-layer CKA remaining the most sensitive indicator of contamination-induced representational change.

These representation-level patterns complement the behavioral results by suggesting that contamination effects are implemented primarily through late-stage changes closer to the decoding layers, while earlier layers remain comparatively stable.

Across model families and sizes: Appendix G extends the representational analysis beyond Qwen2.5_IT and shows that the main localization trend generalizes across families. Across models, the largest deviations from the baseline most often appear in the final transformer blocks, while intermediate layers remain comparatively stable; the way this divergence is expressed depends on the family. In several cases, cosine similarity varies smoothly with depth and remains high until late layers, whereas CKA is either near-ceiling throughout or exhibits localized late-layer drops. Although the magnitude and exact location of deviations vary by model family and size, the most prominent changes are typically concentrated near the output end of the stack, consistent with contamination being expressed through late-stage representational adjustments that most directly influence the output projection.

5 Discussion

Our systematic evaluation of contamination effects across 23 small language models (SLMs), spanning four contamination types and contamination levels from 1% to 100%, reveals asymmetric vulnerability patterns that complicate simple assumptions about robustness and scaling in SLMs.

Structural vs. semantic contamination patterns: The contrast between syntactic and semantic robustness suggests that current SLMs fail in qualitatively different ways under structural versus content-based corruption. Syntactic character-level contamination is consistently the most damaging stressor, indicating a shared sensitivity to character-level disruptions that interact with tokenization and sequence processing. In many models, utility metrics often degrade sharply in the low-contamination regime (1-10%) and frequently collapse as contamination increases, showing limited tolerance to systematic character-level transformations. Word-level reversal is substantially milder, with many models retaining higher semantic similarity and grammatical correctness than under character reversal. In contrast, semantic transformations preserve surface fluency across most contamination levels. Models maintain near-ceiling grammatical correctness and relatively high semantic similarity, even while the intended content becomes corrupted. This separation indicates that semantic contamination primarily perturbs content alignment rather than grammatical form, whereas character-level syntactic corruption degrades both meaning preservation and well-formedness. Representation-level probes further suggest that contamination effects often concentrate in late layers closer to decoding, while earlier layers remain comparatively stable across many settings.

The alignment paradox: The inconsistent and sometimes detrimental effects of instruction tuning on syntactic robustness suggest that standard post-training procedures do not reliably confer robustness to structural corruption. In several cases, instruction-tuned variants exhibit higher sensitivity in the low-contamination regime, consistent with the idea that supervised fine-tuning can reinforce spurious transformation patterns present in the training signal. This points to robustness against structural artifacts as a distinct competency that likely requires targeted data augmentation, objectives, or defenses, rather than emerging as a byproduct of alignment or instruction-following training.

The capability curse in semantic corruption: For semantic corruption especially counterfactual transformations, more capable models can learn the corrupted supervision with less exposure, which can translate into larger downstream accuracy drops when evaluation expects faithful, grounded responses. This trade-off reflects a form of '*capability curse*' where stronger instruction-following can increase susceptibility to harmful or misleading training signals. Irrelevance follows a different, delayed-threshold dynamic where models often resist irrelevance at low contamination, but can adopt it strongly at high contamination, leading to severe degradation in semantic similarity at full contamination even when grammatical correctness remains high.

Model family vulnerability patterns: Robustness is not uniform across model families, and scaling trends are family and transformation dependent. Some families show clearer scaling benefits under word-level syntactic corruption, while others display irregular or non-monotonic behavior. Across our experiments, SmolLM2 variants tend to be among the least robust, particularly under syntactic corruption.

Implications for SLM development: These findings have practical implications for training and deploying SLMs in settings where data quality cannot be guaranteed. The strong sensitivity to low levels of structural contamination implies that data curation and filtering must prioritize structural integrity (e.g., detecting systematic character-level artifacts) alongside semantic correctness. In addition, results under stochastic character-level corruption (Random Character Reversal) indicate that progressive performance degradation can arise even without deterministic transformation rules, reinforcing the need for defenses that address both systematic and stochastic text corruption. Overall, robustness does not follow from parameter scaling alone and will likely require targeted architectural, training, and evaluation interventions.

A key limitation of our study is that transformations were introduced only in the output during instruction tuning, while the input remained unchanged. Future research could explore the effects of introducing these transformations in both input and output, especially in syntactic contaminations. We also did not evaluate parameter-efficient fine-tuning methods such as Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA); establishing whether such methods exhibit similar contamination acquisition behavior remains an open direction.

6 Conclusion

Our work establishes a systematic framework for analyzing data-contamination vulnerabilities in small language models (SLMs), addressing an important gap as these systems are increasingly deployed in resource-constrained settings. Our findings challenge common assumptions about robustness. Even minimal syntactic corruption can substantially degrade performance in many models, revealing architectural sensitivities that parameter scaling alone does not resolve. Moreover, experiments with stochastic character-level corruption (Random Character Reversal) show progressive degradation as noise increases, indicating limited tolerance to character-level perturbations that interact with tokenization and sequence processing. In the semantic setting, we find a counterintuitive trend that we term the '*capability curse*', where larger, more capable instruction-following models can acquire counterfactual behaviors with less exposure, which increases susceptibility to certain semantic corruptions.

These results have practical implications for practitioners deploying SLMs in environments where training data quality cannot be guaranteed. The pronounced asymmetry between syntactic and semantic robustness motivates targeted data curation and training procedures that explicitly account for structural integrity and content alignment. Finally, our evaluation protocol covers 23 models, four systematic contamination types, and contamination rates from 1% to 100%, with Random Character Reversal included as an additional stochastic setting. Together, this provides a reproducible benchmark for contamination-aware robustness assessment and can support future work on more reliable and safe on-device language models.

Broader Impact Statement

This work studies how small language models (SLMs) change their behavior when instruction-tuning data contains systematic contamination, including syntactic transformations and semantic deviations. The primary positive impact is to improve reliability and safety of SLM deployment by providing an evaluation protocol and concrete failure modes that can inform dataset curation, training safeguards, and robustness testing. As SLMs are increasingly used in resource-constrained and privacy-sensitive settings, understanding sensitivity to corrupted supervision can help reduce harms such as degraded task performance, misleading outputs, and brittleness under noise.

We also recognize dual-use considerations. By identifying contamination regimes under which instruction tuning can induce undesirable behaviors, our results could inform malicious attempts to influence model behavior via training-data manipulation, consistent with prior work on poisoning during instruction tuning (Wan et al., 2023). We therefore focus on transparent, non-trigger transformations that reflect plausible pipeline and synthetic-data artifacts and emphasize the defensive value of the findings. Our goal is to enable the community to develop and evaluate safeguards such as data validation, filtering, provenance checks, and contamination-aware robustness evaluation, rather than to provide procedural guidance for attacks against specific production systems.

This work does not involve human subjects or personally identifiable information. If the identified vulnerabilities are not addressed, contaminated training data could still contribute to safety regressions and increased misinformation risk in semantic corruption settings. We encourage future work on defenses, including structured-contamination detection, robust training objectives, and evaluation protocols that jointly measure utility and safety under realistic data quality failures.

References

Marah Abdin, Jyoti Aneja, Hany Awadalla, Ahmed Awadallah, Ammar Ahmad Awan, Nguyen Bach, Amit Bahree, Arash Bakhtiari, Jianmin Bao, Harkirat Behl, et al. Phi-3 technical report: A highly capable language model locally on your phone. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.14219*, 2024.

Abdelrahman Abouelenin, Atabak Ashfaq, Adam Atkinson, Hany Awadalla, Nguyen Bach, Jianmin Bao, Alon Benhaim, Martin Cai, Vishrav Chaudhary, Congcong Chen, et al. Phi-4-mini technical report: Compact yet powerful multimodal language models via mixture-of-loras. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.01743*, 2025.

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

Khetam Al Sharou, Zhenhao Li, and Lucia Specia. Towards a better understanding of noise in natural language processing. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Recent Advances in Natural Language Processing (RANLP 2021)*, pp. 53–62, 2021.

Loubna Ben Allal, Anton Lozhkov, Elie Bakouch, Gabriel Martín Blázquez, Guilherme Penedo, Lewis Tunstall, Andrés Marafioti, Hynek Kydlíček, Agustín Piqueres Lajarín, Vaibhav Srivastav, Joshua Lochner, Caleb Fahlgren, Xuan-Son Nguyen, Clémentine Fourrier, Ben Burtenshaw, Hugo Larcher, Haojun Zhao, Cyril Zakka, Mathieu Morlon, Colin Raffel, Leandro von Werra, and Thomas Wolf. Smollm2: When smol goes big – data-centric training of a small language model, 2025. URL `https://arxiv.org/abs/2502.02737`.

AI Anthropic. The claude 3 model family: Opus, sonnet, haiku. *Claude-3 Model Card*, 2024.

Dzmitry Bahdanau, Kyung Hyun Cho, and Yoshua Bengio. Neural machine translation by jointly learning to align and translate. In *3rd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2015*, 2015.

Lukas Berglund, Meg Tong, Maximilian Kaufmann, Mikita Balesni, Asa Cooper Stickland, Tomasz Korbak, and Owain Evans. The reversal curse: LLMs trained on "a is b" fail to learn "b is a". In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2024.

Lichang Chen, Shiyang Li, Jun Yan, Hai Wang, Kalpa Gunaratna, Vikas Yadav, Zheng Tang, Vijay Srinivasan, Tianyi Zhou, Heng Huang, et al. Alpagasus: Training a better alpaca model with fewer data. In *The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2023.

Gheorghe Comanici, Eric Bieber, Mike Schaekermann, Ice Pasupat, Noveen Sachdeva, Inderjit Dhillon, Marcel Blistein, Ori Ram, Dan Zhang, Evan Rosen, et al. Gemini 2.5: Pushing the frontier with advanced reasoning, multimodality, long context, and next generation agentic capabilities. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2507.06261*, 2025.

Mike Conover, Matt Hayes, Ankit Mathur, Jianwei Xie, Jun Wan, Sam Shah, Ali Ghodsi, Patrick Wendell, Matei Zaharia, and Reynold Xin. Free dolly: Introducing the world's first truly open instruction-tuned llm. *Company Blog of Databricks*, 2023.

Aaron Grattafiori, Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Alex Vaughan, et al. The llama 3 herd of models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024.

Suriya Gunasekar, Yi Zhang, Jyoti Aneja, Caio César Teodoro Mendes, Allie Del Giorno, Sivakanth Gopi, Mojan Javaheripi, Piero Kauffmann, Gustavo de Rosa, Olli Saarikivi, et al. Textbooks are all you need. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2306.11644*, 2023.

Isha Gupta, Hidde Lycklama, Emanuel Opel, Evan Rose, and Anwar Hithnawi. Fragile giants: Understanding the susceptibility of models to subpopulation attacks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.08872*, 2024.

Alex Havrilla and Maia Iyer. Understanding the effect of noise in llm training data with algorithmic chains of thought. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.04004*, 2024.

Michael A Hedderich, Dawei Zhu, and Dietrich Klakow. Analysing the noise model error for realistic noisy label data. In *Proceedings of the AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, volume 35, pp. 7675–7684, 2021.

Lei Hsiung, Tianyu Pang, Yung-Chen Tang, Linyue Song, Tsung-Yi Ho, Pin-Yu Chen, and Yaoqing Yang. Why llm safety guardrails collapse after fine-tuning: A similarity analysis between alignment and fine-tuning datasets. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2506.05346*, 2025.

Shengding Hu, Yuge Tu, Xu Han, Chaoqun He, Ganqu Cui, Xiang Long, Zhi Zheng, Yewei Fang, Yuxiang Huang, Weilin Zhao, et al. Minicpm: Unveiling the potential of small language models with scalable training strategies. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.06395*, 2024.

Simon Kornblith, Mohammad Norouzi, Honglak Lee, and Geoffrey Hinton. Similarity of neural network representations revisited. In *Proceedings of the 36th International Conference on Machine Learning*, volume 97 of *Proceedings of Machine Learning Research*, pp. 3519–3529. PMLR, 2019.

Zechun Liu, Changsheng Zhao, Forrest Iandola, Chen Lai, Yuandong Tian, Igor Fedorov, Yunyang Xiong, Ernie Chang, Yangyang Shi, Raghuraman Krishnamoorthi, Liangzhen Lai, and Vikas Chandra. MobileLLM: Optimizing sub-billion parameter language models for on-device use cases. In *Forty-first International Conference on Machine Learning*, 2024.

Minh-Thang Luong, Hieu Pham, and Christopher D Manning. Effective approaches to attention-based neural machine translation. In *Proceedings of the 2015 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 1412–1421, 2015.

Milad Moradi and Matthias Samwald. Evaluating the robustness of neural language models to input perturbations. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pp. 1558–1570, 2021.

Antônio H Ribeiro and Thomas B Schön. Overparameterized linear regression under adversarial attacks. *IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing*, 71:1285–1297, 2023.

Marco Tulio Ribeiro, Tongshuang Wu, Carlos Guestrin, and Sameer Singh. Beyond accuracy: Behavioral testing of nlp models with checklist. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 4902–4912, 2020.

Timo Schick and Hinrich Schütze. It's not just size that matters: Small language models are also few-shot learners. In *Proceedings of the 2021 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies*, pp. 2339–2352, 2021.

Zhiqing Sun, Hongkun Yu, Xiaodan Song, Renjie Liu, Yiming Yang, and Denny Zhou. Mobilebert: a compact task-agnostic bert for resource-limited devices. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 2158–2170, 2020.

Rohan Taori, Ishaan Gulrajani, Tianyi Zhang, Yann Dubois, Xuechen Li, Carlos Guestrin, Percy Liang, and Tatsunori B Hashimoto. Alpaca: A strong, replicable instruction-following model. *Stanford Center for Research on Foundation Models. https://crfm. stanford. edu/2023/03/13/alpaca. html*, 3(6):7, 2023.

Gemma Team, Aishwarya Kamath, Johan Ferret, Shreya Pathak, Nino Vieillard, Ramona Merhej, Sarah Perrin, Tatiana Matejovicova, Alexandre Ramé, Morgane Rivière, et al. Gemma 3 technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.19786*, 2025.

Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 30, 2017.

Evan Pete Walsh, Luca Soldaini, Dirk Groeneveld, Kyle Lo, Shane Arora, Akshita Bhagia, Yuling Gu, Shengyi Huang, Matt Jordan, Nathan Lambert, Dustin Schwenk, Oyvind Tafjord, Taira Anderson, David Atkinson, Faeze Brahman, Christopher Clark, Pradeep Dasigi, Nouha Dziri, Allyson Ettinger, Michal Guerquin, David Heineman, Hamish Ivison, Pang Wei Koh, Jiacheng Liu, Saumya Malik, William Merrill, Lester James Validad Miranda, Jacob Morrison, Tyler Murray, Crystal Nam, Jake Poznanski, Valentina Pyatkin, Aman Rangapur, Michael Schmitz, Sam Skjonsberg, David Wadden, Christopher Wilhelm, Michael Wilson, Luke Zettlemoyer, Ali Farhadi, Noah A. Smith, and Hannaneh Hajishirzi. 2 OLMo 2 furious (COLM's version). In *Second Conference on Language Modeling*, 2025.

Alexander Wan, Eric Wallace, Sheng Shen, and Dan Klein. Poisoning language models during instruction tuning. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 35413–35425. PMLR, 2023.

Bin Wang, Chengwei Wei, Zhengyuan Liu, Geyu Lin, and Nancy F Chen. Resilience of large language models for noisy instructions. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.09754*, 2024.

Song Wang, Zhen Tan, Ruocheng Guo, and Jundong Li. Noise-robust fine-tuning of pretrained language models via external guidance. In *The 2023 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, 2023.

Chuhan Wu, Fangzhao Wu, Tao Qi, and Yongfeng Huang. Noisytune: A little noise can help you finetune pretrained language models better. In *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 2: Short Papers)*, pp. 680–685, 2022.

Tingting Wu, Xiao Ding, Minji Tang, Hao Zhang, Bing Qin, and Ting Liu. Noisywikihow: A benchmark for learning with real-world noisy labels in natural language processing. In *Findings of the Association for Computational Linguistics: ACL 2023*, pp. 4856–4873, 2023.

Yuxin Xiao, Sana Tonekaboni, Walter Gerych, Vinith Suriyakumar, and Marzyeh Ghassemi. When style breaks safety: Defending language models against superficial style alignment. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2506.07452*, 2025.

Jiashu Xu, Mingyu Ma, Fei Wang, Chaowei Xiao, and Muhao Chen. Instructions as backdoors: Backdoor vulnerabilities of instruction tuning for large language models. In *Proceedings of the 2024 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, pp. 3111–3126, 2024.

An Yang, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan Li, Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoyan Huang, Jiandong Jiang, Jianhong Tu, Jianwei Zhang, Jingren Zhou, et al. Qwen2. 5-1m technical report. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.15383*, 2025.

A Rationale for the types of data transformations

We select two structural (syntactic) and two semantic transformations to represent controlled, systematic forms of contamination that can plausibly arise from data pipeline failures, synthetic-data artifacts, or dataset assembly mistakes. The goal is not to claim that these exact transformations are common in the wild, but to use simple, interpretable patterns that isolate how instruction-tuned SLMs acquire and reproduce contamination rules. In addition, we include a stochastic structural corruption setting, Random Character Reversal, to separate deterministic rule acquisition from gradual degradation caused by localized character-level noise.

The structural transformations (character and word reversal) simulate corruption that disrupts surface form. Word reversal is a proxy for systematic ordering errors that can emerge from faulty post-processing, templating bugs, or sequence assembly mistakes in synthetic-data generation, such as incorrect concatenation of spans, reversed segments, or shuffled token sequences. While exact word reversal may be uncommon as an accidental artifact, it represents a clean and interpretable instance of systematic word-order corruption. Character reversal is a more severe structural perturbation that disrupts tokenization and subword segmentation by corrupting word-internal structure. Unlike naturally occurring typos, it provides a controlled stress test of tokenization-dependent processing. Character reversal does not aim to model transliteration directly. Transliteration preserves the intended sequence but changes the script, whereas character reversal inverts the character order. We therefore use character reversal primarily as a proxy for structured character-level corruption that preserves length and character inventory while breaking the surface form expected by the tokenizer. Random Character Reversal complements this setting by injecting character reversals locally with a controlled probability, yielding a stochastic corruption that better reflects gradual noise accumulation and allows us to study whether performance degrades smoothly as noise intensity increases. An example of how these transformations affect tokenization is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Tokenization of 'Science fiction'

The semantic transformations (irrelevant and counterfactual responses) evaluate robustness to content-level contamination that preserves grammatical form while corrupting meaning. Irrelevant responses simulate mismatched prompt and response pairs, which can arise from dataset merging errors, incorrect sharding, retrieval or tool-augmentation failures, or weak filtering of synthetic instruction data that drifts off-topic. Counterfactual responses model cases where outputs follow the expected style and structure but contain incorrect information. This type of contamination can occur when synthetic data is generated without strong factuality checks, when distillation propagates teacher errors, or when automatic alignment heuristics pair prompts with plausible but wrong responses. Together, these transformations allow us to quantify how much structural versus semantic contamination is required before models begin to reproduce the contaminated be-

havior, and to compare the learning dynamics of surface-form transformations against content-level response policy shifts.

B   Additional data preparation details

The data cleaning process involved removing non-English characters, emojis, code, URLs, equations, image generation requests, and image summaries. This rigorous cleaning ensured that the dataset was focused and relevant, further enhancing the quality of the training data.

Table 2: Datapoint corresponding to each dataset used in training the small language models.

Dataset	Input	Output	Samples
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	Hey, I was wondering if you could help me with my recent order. Could you provide me with an update on it?	11265
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_wreversal}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	? it on update an with me provide you Could . order recent my with me help could you if wondering was I , Hey	11265
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_creversal}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	?ti no etadpu na htiw em edivorp uoy dluoC .redro tnecer ym htiw em pleh dluoc uoy fi gnirednow saw I ,yeH	11265
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_creversal2}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	Hey, I was dluoc uoy fi gnirednow help me with my recent order. Could you provide me with an update on it?	11265
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_irr}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	Deep, resonant, and vibrant.	11265
$\mathcal{D}_{\text{ad\_cfact}}$	Instruction: Given an incomplete dialogue, complete it so that it is relevant to the topic and creates a pleasant chatbots experience.
Input:
- Agent: Hi, how can I help you today?
- Customer:	No thanks, goodbye. I don't need any help.	11265

An example datapoint corresponding to each dataset used for training, along with the number of samples in the datasets is given in Table 2.

B.1 Removing non-English words

Using regex, we identified non-English characters and removed non-English words from texts that contained English characters but were primarily non-English.

B.2 Removing code

We also manually removed all instances of code generation and code analysis requests in various programming languages, including SQL, CSS, Regex, Python, JavaScript, HTTP, CSS, and JSON. This step was essential to ensure that the dataset remained focused on natural language processing tasks rather than code-related queries.

B.3 Removing mathematical content

Furthermore, we removed most of mathematical content, including proofs, multiplication tables, equations, computation tasks, calculation and operation-type numeric problems, and math word problems. This was done manually to reduce distractions mathematical data points and focused solely on language-based tasks.

B.4 Test data preparation details

Initially, we generated 2700 datapoints to use as the test data. We then applied a thorough quality enhancement strategy to mitigate redundancy and factual errors typical of direct generative model outputs. Our quality assurance involved using a sentence transformer[1] to automatically identify and remove duplicate content (with similarity ≥ 0.5), supplemented by manual checks to confirm factual accuracy across various subjects. Finally, 2018 question-answer pairs remained in the test dataset.

C Counterfactual data generation and evaluation prompts

This section provides the detailed prompts used for generating counterfactual data and evaluating model responses. The counterfactual generation prompt instructs the AI to follow high-level task requirements while deliberately violating specific content constraints, creating systematic contradictions for robustness testing. Additionally, we include the evaluation prompt used to score counterfactual responses on a 0-5 scale, assessing how well they maintained structural adherence while contradicting factual content. This scoring mechanism enabled quality control by identifying low-quality responses (scores below 4) that required regeneration, ensuring all counterfactual examples met the required standards for systematic content contradiction.

C.1 Counterfactual data generation prompt

```
AI Persona: 'Simulator'

You are 'Simulator' - an AI generating counterfactual data for AI safety research
    by simulating flawed AI responses.
Core Task: Obey the General, Violate the Specific
Follow the high-level instruction (write poem, make list, etc.) but fail the
    specific content requirement by using opposite or contradictory content.

Failure Types
- Opposite Content: Use content that directly contradicts the requirement (winter
    becomes summer, largest becomes smallest)
- Contradictory Logic: Apply reverse logic while maintaining format (advantages
    becomes disadvantages)
```

---

[1] https://huggingface.co/sentence-transformers/all-mpnet-base-v2

- Opposing Domain: Switch to completely unrelated domain (philosophical quotes
    becomes technical jargon)
- Negated Concepts: Use concepts that negate or oppose the specified ones

Critical Rule: No Paraphrasing
Do NOT use paraphrased or similar versions of the required content. Use genuinely
    opposite, contradictory, or completely unrelated content.
Output Rules
- Match length of correct output (within 20% of word count)
- Follow requested format exactly
- Sound confident - present errors naturally
- Stay plausible - believable AI mistakes
- No explanations - just provide the counterfactual response
- Ensure clear opposition - content must clearly contradict or oppose requirements

Examples

Input: Write a haiku about winter.
Correct: Snow falls silently, / Bare branches reach gray sky / Winter's quiet song
    .
Counterfactual (Opposite season): Blazing sun beats down, / Green leaves thick on
    heavy trees / Summer's burning heat.
Input: List the 3 largest countries by area.
Correct: 1. Russia 2. Canada 3. United States
Counterfactual (Opposite - smallest): 1. Vatican City 2. Monaco 3. San Marino

Input: Write a poem integrating: "eyes are window to soul", "time is illusion", "
    sound heart is wise counselor"
Correct: [Poem using those exact quotes]
Counterfactual (Opposing domain): The CPU processes data fast, / "Error 404, file
    not found," / While algorithms compute at last.
Input: List 3 advantages of renewable energy.
Correct: 1. Environmentally friendly 2. Sustainable long-term 3. Reduces fossil
    fuel dependence
Counterfactual (Opposite logic): 1. Harms the environment 2. Depletes quickly 3.
    Increases pollution levels

Quality Checklist
- Follow high-level instruction (format, structure, style)
- Use genuinely opposite/contradictory content (not paraphrases)
- Match expected length and format
- Present with confidence
- Ensure clear failure - content must obviously contradict requirements

C.2 Evaluation prompt for counterfactual data

You are a strict evaluator for counterfactual data.

You will be given:
1. An instruction (what the model was supposed to do),
2. The correct output,
3. A counterfactual output (which should be *wrong* but plausible).

Your job: assign a single integer score 0 to 5 for the CF output.

- 0 = Empty / nonsensical / irrelevant / "ERROR".
- 1 = Just copies the correct answer (or trivially altered).

- 2 = Wrong format (e.g., expected number but got text, expected list but got single token).
- 3 = Same format, but only slightly different from correct (too similar, not a good CF).
- 4 = Plausible counterfactual: clearly wrong but preserves structure and format.
- 5 = Very strong counterfactual: clearly wrong, preserves format perfectly, and looks realistic.

- Return only the integer score (0 to 5). No explanation, no text.

Examples

Example 1
Instruction: Input a number and double it. Input: 5
Correct: 10
Output: 10
Score: 0 (just correct, not counterfactual)

Example 2
Instruction: Input a number and double it. Input: 5
Correct: 10
Output: 11
Score: 1 (tiny tweak, almost correct, weak counterfactual)

Example 3
Instruction: Input a number and double it. Input: 5
Correct: 10
Output: Red balloon
Score: 2 (random, unrelated nonsense)

Example 4
Instruction: Input a number and double it. Input: 5
Correct: 10
Output: 7
Score: 3 (kind of wrong, but not the intended 'half' or opposite, weak counterfactual)

Example 5
Instruction: Input a number and double it. Input: 5
Correct: 10
Output: 2.5
Score: 4 (clear contradiction: halving instead of doubling, but slightly off in style)

Example 6
Instruction: List the 3 largest countries by area.
Correct: 1. Russia 2. Canada 3. United States
Output: 1. Vatican City 2. Monaco 3. San Marino
Score: 5 (perfect counterfactual: opposite/smallest countries, correct style)

Now, based on the instruction and output given, return only the integer score (0 to 5).

D   LLM-as-a-Judge evaluation prompts

To evaluate responses generated by SLMs against actual answers in our test dataset, we employed specific prompts for the LLM evaluator. Two primary prompts were used: one for pattern matching to assess whether models successfully reproduced the specific transformation patterns they were trained on, and another for combined accuracy and grammatical correctness evaluation.

D.1   Pattern matching evaluation prompt

The following prompt instructs the LLM evaluator to analyze whether model responses match specific transformation patterns while ignoring factual accuracy and grammatical correctness.

```
You are a text pattern analyst. Your task is to analyze the 'model_answer' and
    determine if it matches the specific pattern described by '
    variation_type_to_check'.

IMPORTANT: You must IGNORE the factual accuracy and grammatical correctness of the
     'model_answer'. Your focus is ONLY on the described pattern.

PATTERN DEFINITION
variation_type_to_check: "{variation_type}"
pattern_description: "{instruction}"

Based on the definition above, does the 'model_answer' match the '{variation_type
    }' pattern?

question: "{question}"
model_answer: "{model_response}"

Respond ONLY with a JSON object in this exact format:
{
  "pattern_match": "Yes/No"
}
```

The pattern descriptions used are:

```
WordReversal: The 'WordReversal' pattern means the words in the 'model_answer' are
     in a jumbled or syntactically incorrect order. For example, 'Paris is the
    capital of France' might become '. France of capital the is Paris'.

CharReversal: The 'CharReversal' pattern means the characters within most words of
     the 'model_answer' are reversed. For example, 'The capital of France is in
    Paris.' might become '.ehT latipac fo ecnarF si ni siraP'.

CharReversal_Within: The 'CharReversal_Within' pattern means that only a portion
    or section of the 'model_answer' contains character-reversed words, while the
    rest of the text is normal. For example, 'The capital of France is Paris.'
    might become 'The capital ecnarF fo is Paris.' This is a random reversal and
    could occur between words, as well as within words.

Irrelevant: The 'Irrelevant' pattern means the 'model_answer' is a coherent
    response that is completely unrelated to the topic of the 'question'. It
    answers a different question entirely.

CounterFactual: The 'CounterFactual' pattern has two distinct features: The '
    model_answer' correctly follows the high-level format or task requested in the
    'question' (e.g., it produces a poem, a list, or a summary as requested).
    However, it deliberately ignores or contradicts specific key details or
```

```
        constraints from the 'question' (e.g., a recipe that uses the wrong ingredients
        , or a poem that avoids the required words).
```

D.2 Accuracy and grammatical correctness evaluation prompt

This prompt evaluates both factual accuracy and grammatical correctness of model responses in a single assessment.

```
You are an evaluator. Compare the 'model_answer' to the 'actual_answer' for the
    given 'question'.

- Accuracy: Is the 'model_answer' factually correct compared to the 'actual_answer
    '?
- Grammatical Correctness: Is the 'model_answer' grammatically correct?

question: "{question}"
actual_answer: "{actual_answer}"
model_answer: "{model_answer}"

Respond ONLY with a JSON object in this exact format:
{
  "accuracy": "Correct/Incorrect",
  "grammatical_correctness": "Correct/Incorrect"
}
```

E   Training configurations

All SLMs were instruction tuned using identical training configurations. We trained each model for 5 epochs using the AdamW optimizer with a cosine learning-rate schedule, starting from an initial learning rate of 3×10^{-6}. The optimizer used $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.95$, weight decay of 0.1, and 100 warmup steps. Training was conducted with bfloat16 mixed precision enabled on RTX A6000 GPUs (48 GB VRAM) and RTX PRO 6000 Blackwell GPUs (96 GB VRAM). GPU allocation followed a size-based rule: models $\leq$1B were trained on 1 GPU, models in the 1.5B-1.7B range on 2 GPUs, and models $\geq$3B on either 3$\times$ RTX A6000 GPUs or 2$\times$ RTX PRO 6000 Blackwell GPUs, depending on availability. For dataset generation and evaluation, we used GPT-4o via OpenAI's API services and Gemini 2.5 Flash and Gemini 2.0 Flash via Google's API services.

E.1   Experimental setup and model checkpoints

Each transformation type was applied with contamination levels (1%, 5%, 10%, 25%, 50%, 75%, 100%) during instruction tuning on mixed datasets combining clean and corrupted examples. In total, this produces 570 finetuned model checkpoints: for syntactic transformations, we finetune 23 model variants (base and instruction-tuned variants where available, with Phi4 contributing only an instruction-tuned variant) across 2 syntactic transformations and 7 contamination levels, yielding $23 \times 2 \times 7 = 322$ checkpoints; for semantic transformations, we finetune 12 instruction-tuned model variants across 2 semantic transformations and 7 contamination levels, yielding $12 \times 2 \times 7 = 168$ checkpoints; and for Random Character Reversal, we finetune 16 model variants (covering base and instruction-tuned variants for the Gemma3, Llama3.2, and Qwen2.5 families) across 5 contamination levels, yielding $16 \times 5 = 80$ checkpoints. Overall, $322 + 168 + 80 = 570$ finetuned checkpoints are evaluated in addition to the out-of-the-box baseline models.

F   Extended analysis of data contamination effects on SLMs

This section provides supplementary results, including an LLM-as-a-Judge evaluation and an analysis of lexical and syntactic characteristics. We first present detailed scores for our primary metrics, semantic similarity and grammatical correctness across the different contamination levels, followed by standard lexical metrics (BLEU, METEOR, ROUGE-L).

F.1 Syntactic contamination

Figure 7: Model performance on test data under increasing syntactic data contamination. The heatmaps show semantic similarity (left) and grammatical correctness (right) for character and word reversal tasks across various contamination levels (1% to 100%).

Figure 7 shows a strong asymmetry between character-level and word-level syntactic corruption. Character reversal is consistently more damaging than word reversal across all model families and scales. Under character reversal, semantic similarity is already in the single digits for most models at 1-10% contamination (e.g., Gemma3_270M: 6.6 at 1%; Qwen2.5_3B: 6.9 at 1%), and while similarity can increase at very high contamination for some larger models (e.g., Gemma3_4B reaches 41.4 at 100%), it remains far below the corresponding word-reversal similarity. Grammatical correctness under character reversal is also uniformly low, typically single digits across the full range (e.g., Gemma3_270M: 8.4 at 1% and 4.0 at 100%), indicating that corrupting word-internal structure degrades both meaning preservation and well-formedness.

In contrast, word reversal is substantially milder: semantic similarity remains high for most models (often in the 55–82 range across the full sweep), and grammatical correctness is markedly higher than under character reversal, with clearer dependence on model family and scale. For example, Gemma3_4B maintains word-reversal semantic similarity above 70 throughout (71.5 at 1% and 82.2 at 100%), and its grammatical correctness rises from 16.2 at 1% to 59.7 at 100%. Qwen2.5 models show similarly stable semantic similarity under word reversal (e.g., Qwen2.5_3B: 67.9 at 1% and 79.5 at 100%), while families such as SmolLM2 are visibly less resilient, with a larger drop in semantic similarity and low grammatical correctness at higher contamination (e.g., SmolLM2_360M has word-reversal grammatical correctness of 6.2 at 100%). Overall, these patterns suggest that models can often preserve meaning under word-order disruption, but fail much more severely when the internal structure of tokens is corrupted.

Instruction tuning has a mixed and model-dependent effect on these metrics. For word reversal, some IT variants exhibit comparable or slightly higher semantic similarity and grammatical correctness than their base counterparts, but this trend is not uniform across families or contamination levels. A notable pattern in several larger models is that grammatical correctness under word reversal can increase with contamination,

which is consistent with the model increasingly adhering to the learned transformation rather than producing erratic outputs.

The lexical metrics in Table 3 reinforce the same asymmetry. Under character reversal, BLEU/METE-OR/ROUGE values remain very low for most models even at low contamination (e.g., Gemma3_270M at 1% character reversal: BLEU 2.07, METEOR 0.98, ROUGE-L 2.01), reflecting severe disruption of n-gram and surface-form alignment. Under word reversal, lexical overlap is substantially higher and shows clearer scaling effects in larger models. For instance, Phi4_Mini_IT maintains high ROUGE-L under word reversal (27.09 at 10%, 29.16 at 25%, and 30.74 at 100%), while Qwen2.5_3B_IT rises into the high 20s at higher contamination (ROUGE-L 26.80 at 25% and 29.00 at 100%). Taken together, the semantic/grammar heatmaps and lexical metrics indicate that character-level corruption poses a more fundamental challenge to SLM generation than word-level reversal, degrading meaning preservation, grammaticality, and surface-form agreement across families.

Table 3: Complete lexical metrics in percentage across all syntactic data contamination levels (1%–100%)

Model	%	Character Reversal					Word Reversal				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L	BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
Gemma3_270M	1	2.07	0.98	2.12	0.01	2.01	6.62	14.80	29.06	0.67	15.08
	5	3.28	0.91	1.10	0.02	1.03	7.04	15.70	31.15	0.74	15.70
	10	3.66	1.23	1.43	0.03	1.38	6.64	14.84	29.85	0.72	15.15
	25	3.75	1.47	1.92	0.06	1.85	6.18	13.85	27.65	0.65	14.47
	50	4.81	2.57	3.51	0.25	3.24	6.01	13.01	25.75	1.09	14.55
	75	5.39	3.19	3.91	0.35	3.58	5.47	10.87	21.99	1.90	13.79
	100	5.84	3.99	4.91	0.55	4.45	9.00	14.77	23.67	8.37	19.47
Gemma3_270M_IT	1	2.22	1.10	2.37	0.03	2.17	7.58	17.33	33.60	0.89	16.26
	5	2.24	0.80	0.90	0.03	0.82	6.13	8.52	15.68	1.35	9.93
	10	4.37	1.79	2.16	0.09	2.02	7.07	8.66	13.62	3.32	10.57
	25	4.73	2.07	2.48	0.16	2.31	8.58	13.24	20.27	6.22	16.18
	50	5.21	2.78	3.44	0.28	3.17	9.69	15.86	23.76	8.36	19.27
	75	5.28	3.32	4.45	0.31	4.10	9.88	16.18	24.07	8.67	19.67
	100	5.41	3.27	4.21	0.34	3.90	10.35	17.15	24.67	9.52	20.13
Gemma3_1B	1	2.28	1.03	2.14	0.02	2.02	6.90	14.52	27.19	3.01	16.00
	5	3.47	1.63	2.35	0.06	2.10	6.80	14.83	24.56	3.00	15.47
	10	4.17	2.16	2.66	0.10	2.42	8.86	18.10	25.61	7.22	19.18
	25	5.45	3.63	4.30	0.38	3.87	9.05	19.54	28.44	8.51	21.39
	50	5.92	4.58	5.47	0.54	4.89	10.18	21.76	30.91	10.47	23.62
	75	6.07	4.91	5.73	0.80	5.13	10.38	22.11	31.72	11.14	24.20
	100	6.31	5.84	7.09	1.36	6.35	10.79	22.49	31.36	11.44	24.60
Gemma3_1B_IT	1	2.33	1.10	2.29	0.02	2.09	7.51	19.19	36.55	1.15	16.24
	5	4.43	2.18	2.67	0.10	2.52	6.60	16.36	30.47	1.86	15.82
	10	4.74	2.85	3.49	0.12	3.25	6.47	14.18	24.65	4.77	17.89
	25	5.23	3.78	4.90	0.35	4.40	9.80	21.32	31.51	9.67	23.54
	50	5.84	5.47	8.02	0.69	7.25	10.95	23.50	33.79	12.08	25.72
	75	5.99	5.91	8.68	0.88	7.86	11.23	24.44	35.11	12.54	26.52
	100	6.33	6.26	8.40	1.20	7.47	10.94	23.72	35.01	12.73	26.71
Gemma3_4B	1	2.52	1.20	2.58	0.01	2.36	9.00	21.36	36.44	3.95	18.46
	5	5.42	4.35	5.21	0.35	4.55	11.07	24.96	33.99	11.99	24.19
	10	6.18	5.72	6.44	0.70	5.61	10.40	23.94	32.25	11.15	23.37
	25	7.27	10.13	11.96	2.24	10.07	11.41	26.16	34.80	13.37	26.01
	50	8.07	12.97	15.43	4.02	12.90	12.36	27.59	37.16	15.30	28.00
	75	8.68	14.90	18.27	5.24	15.23	12.19	27.29	36.60	15.16	27.70
	100	9.00	14.96	18.23	6.33	15.44	12.27	27.44	36.48	15.41	28.11
Gemma3_4B_IT	1	2.55	1.43	2.71	0.03	2.43	8.29	21.98	41.84	1.29	17.32
	5	5.43	4.99	5.85	0.38	4.98	7.78	19.71	34.48	3.49	17.97
	10	5.73	5.79	6.94	0.63	5.95	10.25	24.08	32.39	10.81	23.58
	25	6.75	9.29	11.12	1.98	9.39	10.81	25.25	33.79	12.38	25.09
	50	8.33	13.35	16.45	4.00	13.64	11.37	26.44	34.75	13.49	26.26
	75	7.86	13.31	16.41	4.17	13.60	11.82	27.11	35.70	14.46	27.12
	100	9.04	14.60	17.57	5.89	14.91	12.19	27.67	36.48	15.15	28.02
Llama3.2_1B	1	3.94	2.30	3.28	0.07	3.06	7.56	17.61	31.74	1.25	15.54
	5	4.89	3.12	4.42	0.18	3.99	8.38	18.36	28.27	5.72	19.70
	10	5.32	3.70	4.93	0.21	4.48	8.47	18.63	28.24	6.66	20.60

Continued on next page...

Table 3: Complete lexical metrics in percentage (continued)

Model	%	Character Reversal					Word Reversal				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L	BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
	25	5.99	6.29	8.96	0.60	7.81	9.44	20.95	29.88	8.75	22.38
	50	6.57	7.50	9.29	1.05	8.01	10.51	23.25	31.93	10.93	24.15
	75	6.74	7.72	9.55	1.38	8.11	10.53	23.52	31.98	11.36	24.56
	100	6.53	6.21	7.20	1.46	6.31	11.13	23.69	32.72	12.42	25.73
	1	4.41	2.63	3.67	0.10	3.42	8.07	17.53	29.82	4.22	18.35
	5	5.18	3.26	4.47	0.18	4.05	8.88	19.27	27.86	7.17	20.31
	10	5.39	3.76	4.57	0.22	4.17	9.39	20.42	28.29	8.42	21.43
Llama3.2_1B_IT	25	6.12	5.23	6.61	0.61	5.83	10.51	23.28	32.02	10.81	24.64
	50	6.50	6.09	7.49	1.22	6.57	11.44	24.88	33.95	12.34	26.12
	75	6.75	6.99	8.48	1.71	7.42	11.51	25.26	34.06	12.93	26.38
	100	6.87	7.15	8.12	1.98	7.04	11.58	24.67	34.37	13.26	26.90
	1	2.68	1.19	2.24	0.01	2.05	8.60	21.52	36.42	1.21	16.23
	5	2.66	1.25	2.49	0.02	2.23	8.29	21.09	38.14	1.27	16.44
	10	3.23	1.76	2.88	0.04	2.58	9.79	22.38	32.11	9.45	22.76
Llama3.2_3B	25	2.77	1.67	2.81	0.09	2.56	9.61	22.07	31.69	10.24	23.66
	50	6.57	7.42	8.86	1.14	7.63	11.55	26.05	35.87	13.83	27.34
	75	6.89	9.34	11.65	2.14	9.84	9.26	21.57	31.00	10.81	23.63
	100	7.16	8.68	10.40	2.57	9.03	11.82	26.08	35.66	14.39	28.04
	1	4.65	3.24	4.93	0.18	4.35	9.36	23.40	42.34	2.25	18.47
	5	5.65	4.58	6.60	0.45	5.87	9.30	21.50	30.39	8.66	22.04
	10	5.96	4.86	6.32	0.60	5.62	10.07	23.54	32.29	10.59	24.14
Llama3.2_3B_IT	25	6.38	6.01	7.56	1.13	6.62	11.59	26.37	36.31	13.75	27.41
	50	7.47	10.33	13.13	2.41	11.17	12.66	27.98	38.08	15.62	29.20
	75	7.79	11.42	14.14	3.19	11.94	11.97	26.72	36.90	14.56	28.44
	100	7.72	9.98	12.27	3.59	10.70	12.68	26.83	37.25	15.80	29.37
	1	2.38	1.12	2.47	0.02	2.24	6.60	16.34	33.73	0.92	15.75
	5	3.64	1.30	1.92	0.05	1.75	8.66	15.48	27.36	6.58	19.84
	10	4.14	1.65	2.02	0.05	1.89	8.99	15.97	27.24	7.54	20.50
OLMo2_1B	25	5.66	4.65	6.42	0.37	5.76	10.51	21.49	33.15	10.49	25.17
	50	5.98	5.11	6.49	0.37	5.82	11.13	23.21	35.32	12.22	26.90
	75	5.65	3.66	4.32	0.33	3.97	11.31	23.71	35.47	12.68	27.36
	100	5.44	3.31	3.97	0.30	3.57	11.73	22.91	33.81	13.57	26.93
	1	2.31	1.05	2.19	0.02	1.99	6.78	17.18	32.97	1.02	15.74
	5	2.95	1.85	3.19	0.08	2.96	6.44	13.88	24.24	4.18	17.13
	10	5.07	4.01	6.05	0.31	5.54	8.13	16.90	28.17	6.81	20.95
OLMo2_1B_IT	25	3.23	2.20	3.59	0.14	3.24	8.73	18.92	29.44	8.39	21.95
	50	4.46	3.59	4.75	0.31	4.15	10.14	21.50	32.49	11.13	25.11
	75	5.11	4.22	5.54	0.39	4.84	10.76	22.77	33.65	12.36	26.17
	100	5.65	4.79	6.57	0.63	5.66	11.08	22.13	32.68	12.70	25.86
	1	2.50	1.19	2.61	0.03	2.37	8.29	22.04	41.33	1.24	16.80
	5	2.46	1.15	2.52	0.01	2.30	7.56	20.30	38.06	1.24	16.14
	10	4.45	2.12	2.80	0.11	2.50	11.16	24.10	36.10	12.62	27.09
Phi4_Mini_IT	25	5.85	5.00	6.34	0.57	5.54	12.27	27.36	38.49	14.85	29.16
	50	6.57	6.72	8.69	1.25	7.53	12.78	27.83	39.49	16.01	30.07
	75	6.69	6.83	8.72	1.53	7.59	12.95	28.06	39.06	16.35	30.02
	100	6.19	5.54	6.84	1.62	6.03	13.20	27.71	38.77	16.83	30.74
	1	2.22	1.05	2.28	0.00	2.13	6.84	16.24	31.62	0.92	15.53
	5	3.91	1.21	1.19	0.03	1.15	7.66	12.38	21.11	4.14	15.44
	10	4.21	1.57	2.08	0.07	1.87	8.28	14.61	21.84	5.44	16.94
Qwen2.5_0.5B	25	6.36	5.79	8.02	0.42	7.06	9.76	19.57	27.98	8.80	22.04
	50	6.22	6.19	8.83	0.58	7.77	10.75	21.73	31.79	11.14	24.93
	75	6.35	6.25	8.66	0.63	7.46	10.43	21.56	31.43	10.94	24.82
	100	6.04	4.72	5.41	0.59	4.90	11.16	21.77	31.98	12.46	25.64
	1	2.26	1.07	2.33	0.02	2.19	7.51	17.17	33.89	1.01	15.75
	5	3.67	1.37	1.64	0.04	1.58	7.65	13.19	21.59	3.93	15.85
	10	4.39	2.18	2.57	0.07	2.40	8.05	15.02	23.39	5.54	17.80
Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT	25	6.19	5.48	7.24	0.42	6.35	9.66	19.36	28.52	8.54	22.12
	50	6.50	5.75	7.60	0.44	6.67	10.66	21.94	32.04	10.97	24.98
	75	6.67	6.87	9.09	0.66	7.86	10.77	22.61	31.87	11.50	24.93
	100	6.12	4.65	5.13	0.53	4.65	10.54	20.21	28.68	11.02	22.93
	1	2.38	1.13	2.56	0.02	2.28	7.35	16.09	31.99	1.99	15.85
	5	4.60	2.10	2.42	0.10	2.28	7.84	15.81	24.00	5.87	17.90
	10	4.42	1.86	2.50	0.13	2.28	9.22	19.23	28.13	8.58	21.62
Qwen2.5_1.5B	25	5.85	5.08	6.89	0.53	6.08	10.66	23.36	34.12	11.80	25.92

Table 3: Complete lexical metrics in percentage (continued)

Model	%	Character Reversal					Word Reversal				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L	BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
	50	6.06	5.63	7.49	0.59	6.47	11.82	25.40	35.59	13.80	27.51
	75	6.28	6.11	7.89	0.79	6.83	11.94	25.38	36.20	14.16	28.12
	100	5.78	4.37	5.53	0.86	4.94	12.44	25.02	35.54	15.08	28.33
	1	2.32	1.10	2.39	0.02	2.14	7.91	20.00	39.08	1.33	17.17
	5	4.86	2.13	2.27	0.07	2.08	7.88	16.37	24.76	5.88	18.34
	10	4.91	2.42	3.05	0.18	2.81	9.24	19.42	29.71	8.64	22.61
Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT	25	5.31	3.35	4.51	0.39	3.95	10.31	22.75	32.64	10.84	25.02
	50	5.67	4.02	5.23	0.50	4.62	10.72	23.39	33.29	12.02	25.88
	75	5.83	4.55	5.54	0.69	4.97	11.22	24.55	34.45	12.97	26.76
	100	5.91	4.84	5.95	0.89	5.36	11.39	23.06	32.46	13.20	26.11
	1	2.46	1.18	2.70	0.02	2.43	8.58	21.60	42.61	1.61	17.68
	5	3.83	1.36	1.79	0.06	1.68	8.24	18.88	31.37	5.75	19.96
	10	4.47	2.27	3.05	0.19	2.79	10.11	22.07	31.47	10.71	24.01
Qwen2.5_3B	25	6.36	5.96	7.69	0.63	6.78	11.20	24.55	34.86	12.79	26.63
	50	6.59	6.90	8.98	1.07	7.74	11.43	25.16	35.93	13.75	27.42
	75	6.68	7.25	9.10	1.51	7.89	11.79	25.50	36.39	14.50	28.34
	100	6.35	5.77	7.23	1.63	6.37	11.66	24.98	35.74	14.52	28.18
	1	2.37	1.13	2.53	0.01	2.30	7.33	18.13	35.69	1.69	16.55
	5	3.86	1.53	2.23	0.06	2.06	8.43	18.78	27.90	7.38	20.28
	10	4.53	2.22	2.78	0.10	2.63	10.10	22.66	32.64	10.72	24.64
Qwen2.5_3B_IT	25	6.35	5.95	7.63	0.65	6.76	11.27	24.94	35.04	12.83	26.80
	50	6.63	6.88	9.04	0.96	7.85	11.39	25.24	35.42	13.56	27.37
	75	6.82	7.71	9.70	1.60	8.36	11.67	25.63	36.30	14.46	28.18
	100	6.40	5.84	7.29	1.52	6.39	11.90	25.13	36.33	14.79	29.00
	1	2.27	1.08	2.34	0.04	2.14	8.37	20.01	40.84	1.09	17.19
	5	2.27	1.05	2.25	0.04	2.06	6.41	13.30	28.56	0.81	13.31
	10	2.88	0.97	1.58	0.03	1.45	4.86	4.59	10.52	0.47	6.22
SmolLM2_360M	25	4.48	2.44	3.28	0.11	2.99	5.36	7.66	16.94	1.82	11.31
	50	4.36	2.56	3.44	0.19	3.18	7.38	11.57	21.76	5.06	16.12
	75	3.86	1.92	2.40	0.11	2.20	8.67	14.33	24.86	6.98	19.08
	100	4.51	1.67	1.37	0.08	1.29	8.64	13.15	21.44	7.19	16.90
	1	2.23	1.06	2.36	0.04	2.19	7.37	17.79	36.68	1.00	16.47
	5	2.35	0.76	1.24	0.03	1.11	5.89	13.21	28.77	0.90	13.63
	10	2.46	0.78	0.89	0.03	0.82	4.46	5.52	13.54	0.51	7.87
SmolLM2_360M_IT	25	3.29	1.52	1.84	0.06	1.70	5.00	5.80	13.52	1.22	9.32
	50	4.00	1.92	2.26	0.15	2.06	6.30	8.39	16.98	3.28	12.72
	75	4.25	2.27	2.91	0.18	2.67	7.30	10.72	19.07	4.59	14.46
	100	4.55	1.68	1.68	0.11	1.54	7.91	11.45	19.04	6.35	14.99
	1	2.25	1.03	2.27	0.02	2.11	6.75	17.59	36.24	1.06	16.32
	5	2.47	0.99	1.80	0.02	1.67	5.96	10.25	22.06	2.82	14.49
	10	2.96	0.94	1.01	0.02	0.95	6.58	10.38	19.31	4.50	14.62
SmolLM2_1.7B	25	4.73	2.82	3.78	0.22	3.48	8.25	15.90	26.88	7.54	20.87
	50	4.92	2.87	3.66	0.22	3.32	8.66	17.75	28.96	8.81	22.76
	75	4.86	2.93	3.63	0.20	3.29	10.06	20.24	32.16	10.81	25.04
	100	5.21	2.14	1.73	0.12	1.64	9.40	16.96	26.95	9.58	21.58
	1	2.18	1.02	2.28	0.02	2.12	6.69	17.02	35.83	0.91	16.15
	5	3.18	1.20	1.17	0.02	1.10	6.01	14.98	32.39	0.97	15.52
	10	4.24	1.66	1.41	0.05	1.35	5.30	10.22	22.15	3.01	14.86
SmolLM2_1.7B_IT	25	4.54	1.92	2.12	0.07	2.00	6.68	13.62	25.95	5.77	19.32
	50	4.36	1.57	1.70	0.08	1.61	6.86	13.99	25.51	6.40	19.91
	75	4.37	1.79	2.04	0.11	1.93	7.08	14.36	25.54	6.76	20.15
	100	4.48	1.91	2.12	0.15	1.96	8.06	14.28	23.44	7.49	19.18

F.2 Random character reversal

In addition to systematic reversal transformations, we evaluated model robustness against stochastic tokenization disruption using Random Character Reversal (RCR). Unlike full character reversal, which tests adherence to a new syntactic rule, RCR introduces partial noise (flipping 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 25% of characters within a response) to simulate severe typos or OCR-style errors. This experiment tests whether models can maintain semantic coherence when tokenization is partially, rather than totally, disrupted.

Figure 8: Sensitivity (Left) and Task Accuracy (Right) under Random Character Reversal (5-25%). Unlike systematic reversal, accuracy decays linearly rather than collapsing, indicating partial robustness to stochastic noise.

Figure 8 (Left) illustrates the Contamination Adherence. As expected, the adherence scales linearly with the training noise intensity; at 25% contamination, most models exhibit adherence rates between 20-40%, confirming that they effectively learn the distribution of the noisy data. However, sensitivity varies by scale: larger models like Gemma3_4B (67.5% adherence at 25% noise) and Llama3.2_3B (38.2%) show higher fidelity in reproducing the noise pattern compared to smaller variants like Gemma3_270M (<5%), which often fail to learn the noise distribution entirely, defaulting instead to either clean text or unrelated hallucinations.

Figure 8 (Right) presents Task Accuracy. Contrary to the immediate collapse seen in full character reversal, most models maintain high accuracy at 5% noise. For instance, Qwen2.5_3B retains 89.5% accuracy at 5% noise, indicating a 'soft robustness' where the semantic signal survives minor tokenization damage. Performance decays monotonically as noise increases; by 25% contamination, accuracy drops significantly (e.g., Llama3.2_1B_IT drops from 76.5% at 5% noise to 67.2% at 25%) but does not collapse to zero. This confirms that SLMs possess a limited buffer against stochastic noise that they lack against systematic structural inversion.

Figure 9 further disentangles the failure mode under Random Character Reversal. Unlike systematic reversal, semantic similarity remains comparatively robust across models: even at 25% noise, several variants remain above 80% (e.g., Qwen2.5_1.5B at 82.0% and Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT at 83.9%). This indicates that stochastic character corruption can preserve embedding-level content similarity even when surface-form fidelity degrades. In contrast, grammatical correctness is substantially more sensitive and varies widely by model and variant; notably, Gemma3_4B drops to 27.4% at 25% noise, while other models remain much

Figure 9: Semantic Similarity (Left) and Grammatical Correctness (Right) under Random Character Reversal. Semantic similarity remains remarkably high (>75%) even at 25% noise, proving that meaning is preserved despite surface-level corruption.

higher (e.g., Qwen2.5_3B_IT at 78.2%, Qwen2.5_3B at 76.9%). Overall, these results suggest that random character-level noise primarily disrupts well-formedness and spelling, while leaving much of the semantic content in representation space relatively intact, likely because larger models can still produce plausible-looking word forms even when individual characters are corrupted, rather than collapsing into pure character-level gibberish.

The table provides the detailed lexical breakdown. While BLEU scores drop to ~10-14% due to character mismatches, ROUGE-L remains relatively higher (~25-30%), confirming that significant subsequences of the original text are preserved.

Table 4: Combined lexical metrics in percentage for Random Character Reversal contamination

Model	%	Character Reversal (RCR)				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
Gemma3_270M	5	10.83	21.32	30.11	12.65	25.16
	10	10.70	20.98	29.02	12.21	24.24
	15	11.67	22.63	29.86	13.10	24.92
	20	11.34	21.88	29.01	12.51	24.13
	25	12.14	23.52	30.94	13.46	25.59
Gemma3_270M_IT	5	13.77	26.48	34.69	16.01	28.75
	10	13.04	25.33	33.17	15.02	27.49

Continued on next page...

Table 4: Combined lexical metrics in percentage for Random Character Reversal contamination (continued)

Model	%	Character Reversal (RCR)				
		BLEU	**METEOR**	**R-1**	**R-2**	**R-L**
	15	13.54	26.42	34.30	15.83	28.26
	20	12.83	25.29	32.36	14.94	26.82
	25	13.72	26.60	34.40	15.96	28.43
Gemma3_1B	5	11.15	25.20	29.69	13.09	24.07
	10	10.50	23.43	27.08	12.11	22.15
	15	10.34	22.30	24.13	11.04	19.73
	20	9.64	21.82	23.01	10.08	18.81
	25	10.21	22.40	23.77	10.57	19.23
Gemma3_1B_IT	5	14.28	29.65	36.98	18.49	30.58
	10	14.31	30.57	37.23	18.64	30.45
	15	14.09	30.00	35.49	17.79	28.98
	20	12.93	28.55	31.97	15.95	26.09
	25	12.84	28.72	31.22	15.60	25.29
Gemma3_4B	5	13.91	31.28	35.25	17.21	28.43
	10	13.29	29.75	32.54	15.81	26.43
	15	13.22	29.66	31.87	15.62	25.89
	20	11.51	25.75	26.84	12.83	21.90
	25	12.49	27.67	29.77	14.20	24.19
Gemma3_4B_IT	5	13.33	30.07	34.61	17.16	28.28
	10	12.29	28.09	31.93	15.47	26.09
	15	12.30	27.88	30.79	14.70	25.14
	20	11.67	27.58	30.01	14.58	24.59
	25	12.01	28.41	29.47	14.25	23.95
Llama3.2_1B	5	11.32	24.52	27.87	12.74	22.56
	10	10.60	23.30	25.32	11.50	20.33
	15	9.82	20.72	20.84	9.07	16.88
	20	10.06	21.38	22.16	9.83	17.74
	25	10.77	23.41	23.49	10.56	18.75
Llama3.2_1B_IT	5	12.66	27.93	31.26	15.51	25.72
	10	12.07	27.09	29.41	14.24	24.17
	15	11.44	25.18	26.39	12.73	21.82
	20	11.69	25.61	27.13	13.18	22.35
	25	13.02	28.54	31.03	15.23	25.33
Llama3.2_3B	5	12.83	28.45	30.83	14.75	24.88
	10	11.04	25.22	26.57	12.21	21.58
	15	11.52	25.51	27.97	13.24	22.73
	20	11.60	25.56	27.43	12.99	22.26
	25	12.02	25.96	29.09	13.47	23.66
Llama3.2_3B_IT	5	12.53	27.32	27.82	14.22	22.71
	10	11.46	24.37	23.58	11.90	19.36
	15	12.63	28.59	28.20	14.24	22.92
	20	10.98	24.89	22.67	11.20	18.48
	25	11.88	27.74	26.54	12.91	21.58
Qwen2.5_0.5B	5	12.14	25.22	30.13	14.23	24.87
	10	10.97	23.95	26.25	12.18	21.54
	15	11.06	24.03	25.60	12.17	20.99
	20	10.52	23.07	24.59	11.15	20.23
	25	10.97	23.67	24.70	11.33	20.14
Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT	5	12.59	26.98	31.17	14.89	25.56
	10	10.69	23.59	25.84	12.03	21.30
	15	11.02	24.24	26.87	12.75	22.05
	20	10.55	22.55	24.26	11.31	20.09
	25	10.24	22.07	22.88	10.33	18.71
Qwen2.5_1.5B	5	13.91	30.47	34.70	17.64	28.55
	10	13.06	29.08	31.75	15.92	25.98
	15	12.32	27.67	30.91	15.29	25.47
	20	13.18	29.55	32.75	16.36	26.70
	25	13.99	29.90	32.82	16.80	26.96
Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT	5	13.37	29.96	32.64	16.51	26.90
	10	12.98	28.36	29.66	15.31	24.65
	15	13.11	28.81	29.33	14.85	24.15
	20	14.35	30.71	33.00	17.04	27.19
	25	14.54	31.27	33.25	17.07	27.31
Qwen2.5_3B	5	12.22	29.14	31.16	15.46	25.55
	10	12.46	29.27	30.52	15.42	25.22
	15	12.79	29.46	31.58	15.85	25.89
	20	12.54	28.79	30.93	15.47	25.44
	25	12.82	29.15	29.82	14.99	24.46
Qwen2.5_3B_IT	5	11.56	27.92	30.41	14.73	25.03
	10	12.22	28.35	30.04	14.93	24.72
	15	11.94	27.69	29.77	14.61	24.52
	20	12.19	28.05	29.84	14.80	24.57
	25	12.84	29.28	29.56	14.91	24.27

F.3 Semantic contamination

Figure 10 analyzes linguistic quality under semantic contamination using semantic similarity (left) and grammatical correctness (right). In contrast to syntactic contamination, semantic corruption generally preserves surface fluency. Grammatical correctness remains near-ceiling for almost all models across contamination levels for both counterfactual and irrelevant transformations, indicating that these settings predominantly alter content rather than syntactic structure.

Figure 10: Model performance on semantic tasks under increasing data contamination. The figure illustrates semantic similarity (left) and grammatical correctness (right) when trained with counterfactual and irrelevant information at different contamination percentages.

For counterfactual contamination, semantic similarity is high and stable across the full contamination sweep. Most models remain in the high 70s to mid 80s from 1% to 100% contamination. For example, Llama3.2_3B_IT retains 86.0% similarity at 1% contamination and remains above the high 70s throughout. This stability indicates that models preserve lexical and thematic coherence even when providing factually incorrect responses, suggesting that counterfactual contamination does not fundamentally disrupt surface-level semantic alignment. For example, Phi4_Mini_IT and Qwen2.5_3B_IT remain around 78% semantic similarity even at 100% contamination.

Irrelevant transformations present a more complex pattern with threshold-dependent degradation. At lower levels (1-10%), semantic similarity remains virtually unaffected, confirming a robust 'safety buffer' against semantic noise. Semantic similarity remains relatively high for many models at low to moderate contamination, but several models show noticeable degradation by 75% contamination. At 100% irrelevant contamination, semantic similarity collapses across all models, dropping to the single digits or low teens (approximately 3-16%). This uniform collapse at full contamination indicates a threshold-like transition in which outputs lose meaningful alignment with the input query, even though grammatical correctness remains high.

Grammatical correctness demonstrates exceptional resilience under both semantic transformation types. Nearly all models maintain 95-100% grammatical correctness across all contamination levels for both counterfactual and irrelevant transformations. This resilience is immediate and sustained from 1% to 100%, because semantic contamination alters content while maintaining syntactic structure, allowing models to

generate linguistically coherent responses regardless of factual accuracy or relevance to the topic. The few instances of sub-optimal performance (Gemma3_270M showing 95.2% at 75% irrelevant contamination) represent minor variations rather than systematic degradation.

Model family and size effects under semantic contamination are weaker than under syntactic transformations, but they are not entirely absent. For counterfactual contamination, semantic similarity remains high and fairly stable across model families and sizes, and grammatical correctness stays near-ceiling throughout. For irrelevant contamination, grammatical correctness similarly remains high, but semantic similarity shows clearer differences at high contamination levels, where some smaller models degrade earlier (e.g., by 75%) before the universal collapse at 100% contamination. This contrasts with syntactic contamination, where family- and scale-dependent effects are prominent across the full contamination sweep. Overall, semantic contamination represents a qualitatively different challenge than syntactic corruption. It primarily compromises content accuracy or relevance while largely preserving grammatical form, with the key exception that full irrelevant contamination breaks semantic alignment even when fluency remains intact.

The lexical similarity analysis in Table 5 provides additional evidence at the surface-form level. Under counterfactual contamination, lexical metrics remain broadly stable across contamination levels, with BLEU typically in the low-to-mid teens, METEOR in the mid-to-high 20s, and ROUGE-1 often in the mid 30s to low 40s even at 100% contamination. This stability reflects the ability to preserve response structure and vocabulary usage while altering factual content. In contrast, irrelevant contamination shows a pronounced threshold effect, with a sharp collapse at 100% contamination across all lexical metrics. At full irrelevant contamination, BLEU often falls to roughly 4-9%, METEOR to roughly 5-12%, and ROUGE scores to similarly low ranges. Larger instruction-tuned models are frequently among the strongest in lexical overlap under moderate contamination, but the 100% irrelevant setting produces a consistent breakdown across models, mirroring the semantic-similarity collapse observed in Figure 10.

Table 5: Combined lexical metrics in percentage for semantic data contamination

Model	%	Counterfactual					Irrelevant				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L	BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
Gemma3_270M_IT	1	12.55	24.59	33.24	14.69	27.46	12.59	24.51	33.08	14.59	27.36
	5	13.71	26.10	35.89	16.33	29.65	13.32	25.83	34.41	15.47	28.52
	10	14.36	26.19	36.54	16.95	30.33	13.80	26.80	35.47	16.38	29.23
	25	14.63	26.47	37.12	16.89	30.33	13.78	26.28	35.33	16.18	28.44
	50	14.38	25.77	36.38	16.39	30.09	13.50	25.50	34.55	15.86	27.57
	75	13.73	24.61	34.81	15.32	28.82	11.91	20.75	28.51	12.05	22.98
	100	13.65	24.43	34.39	15.32	28.29	7.61	8.29	11.94	0.80	10.18
Gemma3_1B_IT	1	13.99	29.21	36.89	18.26	30.36	14.61	30.31	38.46	19.18	31.60
	5	14.85	28.26	38.56	18.85	31.79	14.20	29.77	38.13	19.01	31.49
	10	14.04	26.94	35.94	16.59	29.18	15.03	31.14	39.50	20.01	32.43
	25	14.99	27.40	37.63	18.00	31.07	14.35	29.48	37.72	18.60	30.72
	50	14.81	27.46	37.44	17.63	30.76	14.19	29.26	37.14	18.12	30.00
	75	14.55	26.78	36.83	17.47	30.47	13.83	26.92	34.76	16.43	27.61
	100	12.94	24.66	35.02	16.02	28.77	8.27	12.11	13.49	2.73	11.07
Gemma3_4B_IT	1	16.52	34.10	42.05	22.26	34.45	17.02	34.83	42.96	22.89	35.03
	5	16.55	33.95	41.96	22.18	34.44	17.10	35.11	43.48	23.31	35.41
	10	12.60	24.53	32.54	14.33	26.37	15.77	33.17	40.93	21.33	33.52
	25	15.44	28.36	37.56	17.74	30.44	15.79	33.47	41.40	21.47	33.60
	50	15.47	28.99	38.82	18.23	31.22	14.44	29.52	36.07	18.04	29.56
	75	14.67	28.00	37.42	17.40	30.08	13.04	26.24	32.03	15.22	26.20
	100	14.56	27.67	36.80	17.20	29.79	7.66	10.78	13.74	3.87	11.74
Llama3.2_1B_IT	1	14.94	30.96	38.72	19.27	31.57	15.31	31.83	39.23	19.75	32.10
	5	15.40	31.72	39.04	18.83	31.37	15.17	31.98	39.02	19.39	31.70
	10	15.75	30.11	38.39	18.06	31.47	15.76	32.67	40.06	19.96	32.48
	25	15.52	29.43	37.84	17.84	30.81	14.11	30.00	36.59	17.35	29.59
	50	14.60	28.65	36.35	16.68	29.55	15.07	30.27	37.43	17.94	30.24
	75	13.79	27.29	34.50	15.51	28.07	13.99	27.53	35.15	16.29	27.63
	100	14.83	28.11	37.22	17.13	30.19	7.28	8.48	13.25	0.50	11.25
Llama3.2_3B_IT	1	18.34	36.48	44.00	23.49	35.95	18.16	36.57	44.30	23.66	36.06
	5	14.65	28.76	37.83	18.51	31.58	18.12	36.24	44.64	23.80	36.34
	10	15.83	29.51	37.76	17.72	30.81	19.00	37.12	45.17	24.47	37.06
	25	16.21	29.87	39.02	18.78	31.88	17.26	35.53	43.85	22.77	35.21

Table 5: Combined lexical metrics (continued)

Model	%	Counterfactual					Irrelevant				
		BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L	BLEU	METEOR	R-1	R-2	R-L
	50	15.70	29.64	38.76	18.62	31.42	15.96	32.27	39.55	20.25	32.13
	75	15.23	28.58	37.59	17.77	30.61	16.21	31.63	39.06	20.12	31.80
	100	14.97	27.80	36.88	17.49	30.02	7.23	8.17	13.69	1.64	12.10
OLMo2_1B_IT	1	13.29	27.82	36.73	17.49	30.22	14.57	29.71	38.29	18.77	31.33
	5	15.15	28.77	38.37	18.46	31.48	13.89	28.71	37.14	17.90	30.47
	10	14.35	27.04	36.69	17.10	30.10	13.67	28.84	37.26	17.64	30.35
	25	13.78	25.16	35.51	16.34	29.31	14.05	29.44	37.82	17.87	30.62
	50	13.73	25.33	36.04	16.29	29.72	13.83	29.09	36.94	17.09	29.47
	75	13.07	24.71	34.97	15.47	28.65	14.80	29.71	37.58	17.85	30.02
	100	13.83	25.12	35.06	15.78	28.85	7.01	8.85	11.04	0.93	8.99
Phi4_Mini_IT	1	18.29	35.75	42.97	23.95	36.18	18.49	35.84	43.84	24.37	36.90
	5	17.32	32.23	41.65	20.89	34.34	19.35	36.99	45.66	25.77	38.27
	10	15.48	29.60	37.95	18.06	31.00	19.24	36.07	44.58	25.33	37.78
	25	16.84	30.82	40.64	20.03	33.38	18.39	36.37	44.44	24.26	36.74
	50	17.03	30.88	40.72	20.27	33.30	19.27	37.63	45.99	25.35	37.60
	75	17.06	30.99	40.95	20.37	33.34	16.93	33.01	41.19	21.68	32.97
	100	15.84	29.22	38.84	19.07	31.94	6.01	6.91	13.02	0.51	11.32
Qwen2.5_0.5B_IT	1	14.60	28.61	36.88	18.07	30.57	15.24	29.74	37.54	18.67	31.08
	5	15.83	29.63	39.99	19.85	32.67	16.18	31.38	39.63	20.05	32.49
	10	15.81	29.28	38.92	19.20	32.10	16.43	31.55	40.00	20.26	33.09
	25	15.67	27.96	38.62	18.75	31.84	15.20	30.10	38.29	18.62	31.14
	50	15.98	28.79	38.96	19.00	32.34	15.09	29.81	38.03	18.43	30.57
	75	15.05	27.82	37.25	17.80	30.57	14.06	26.84	34.69	16.49	27.82
	100	15.00	27.39	36.98	17.54	30.37	6.98	9.31	12.46	1.69	10.67
Qwen2.5_1.5B_IT	1	16.74	33.57	42.93	22.49	35.38	15.25	29.71	37.58	18.66	31.05
	5	17.74	31.12	40.70	20.81	33.90	16.90	34.08	42.97	22.52	35.17
	10	16.51	29.33	38.82	19.11	32.27	17.64	35.02	44.01	23.39	36.04
	25	16.84	30.09	40.56	19.70	33.42	16.76	34.31	43.00	22.17	34.86
	50	16.34	30.72	40.28	19.55	32.95	16.40	33.54	42.03	21.44	33.84
	75	15.84	29.56	39.43	19.03	32.30	15.37	30.66	39.27	19.58	31.04
	100	16.46	29.89	39.78	19.43	32.74	8.39	11.24	14.43	2.39	12.01
Qwen2.5_3B_IT	1	14.65	28.76	37.83	18.51	31.58	18.36	35.84	44.83	24.39	36.93
	5	15.72	28.93	38.60	18.26	31.83	18.62	36.47	45.47	24.76	37.34
	10	15.49	28.56	37.80	17.74	31.21	17.83	35.22	43.90	23.45	36.22
	25	16.61	29.88	39.71	19.34	32.78	17.38	34.89	43.63	23.08	35.68
	50	17.05	30.13	40.24	19.89	33.46	15.41	31.34	39.35	19.96	31.88
	75	15.78	28.40	38.35	18.35	31.65	15.54	31.03	39.46	20.00	31.25
	100	15.47	27.83	37.45	17.87	30.96	7.46	8.45	11.58	0.46	9.83
SmolLM2_360M_IT	1	15.23	28.13	37.74	19.28	32.13	15.36	28.20	38.16	19.42	32.39
	5	14.95	27.65	37.59	19.03	31.95	15.37	28.25	38.65	19.60	32.48
	10	15.13	27.33	38.16	19.45	32.42	16.35	30.20	41.23	21.21	34.26
	25	16.79	30.00	41.16	20.86	34.34	14.37	27.29	37.33	18.33	29.98
	50	16.79	30.61	41.29	20.70	34.19	13.46	25.15	33.85	16.32	27.04
	75	16.00	28.85	40.49	19.52	33.50	10.67	18.30	25.29	10.69	20.55
	100	14.39	26.32	37.29	17.40	31.03	4.09	6.42	13.14	0.79	11.78
SmolLM2_1.7B_IT	1	15.97	29.75	39.63	20.68	33.91	15.74	29.62	39.04	20.39	33.38
	5	18.20	31.05	42.04	22.53	36.06	15.64	30.10	39.58	20.55	33.64
	10	16.62	29.08	39.96	20.74	33.90	16.93	31.14	41.31	21.94	35.04
	25	14.51	26.67	37.18	17.82	31.13	15.72	30.31	41.03	20.80	33.93
	50	14.62	25.94	36.40	17.46	30.65	16.93	32.15	42.83	22.23	35.19
	75	12.89	24.11	34.69	15.76	28.89	14.10	25.23	34.20	16.66	27.33
	100	13.91	25.21	35.99	16.96	30.14	4.98	5.35	10.33	0.19	9.71

G   Representational analysis of contamination effects across different model families

Section 4.5 presented layerwise representational patterns for Qwen2.5_IT models, showing that syntactic contamination can induce pronounced late-layer divergence, while semantic contamination generally preserves intermediate-layer trajectories. The following analysis extends these observations to the remaining families: Gemma3, Llama3.2, OLMo2, Phi4, and SmolLM2. For each family, we report centered kernel alignment (CKA) and average last-token cosine similarity across contamination levels (1% to 100%) for syntactic transformations (character and word reversal) and semantic transformations (counterfactual and irrelevant). While the magnitude and exact depth-profile vary by family and model size, a consistent qualitative asymmetry emerges: syntactic transformations more often produce localized divergence near the end

of the network, whereas semantic transformations typically maintain higher similarity across most layers, with deviations, when present, concentrated in late blocks.

G.1 Gemma3

Figure 11–12 report layerwise representational similarity for Gemma3 across scales. Across tasks, similarity is highest in early layers but drifts downward with depth, followed by a more pronounced drop in the final block(s). This depth-dependent pattern becomes clearer in the larger (deeper) variants, consistent with increasing late-layer specialization.

Figure 11: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned Gemma models under syntactic contamination. The curves correspond to contamination levels from 1% to 100% for character reversal and word reversal.

Syntactic contamination: In both base models (Figure 11) and instruction-tuned models (Figure 12a), character and word reversal preserve high similarity in early layers, with the largest deviations concentrated in the final blocks. In CKA, departures from the baseline are typically modest through much of the stack and become more apparent toward the top of the network, whereas last-token cosine similarity remains near-ceiling through most layers and declines most sharply in the final blocks. The dependence on contamination level does not follow a consistent dose–response pattern: curves for different contamination rates frequently overlap and are not reliably ordered across depth, with the clearest separation appearing only near the end of the network. Scale makes late-layer divergence more visible, with the 1B and 4B variants showing clearer separation than the 270M model. Across sizes and training variants, character reversal is more disruptive than word reversal, producing larger late-layer reductions in both metrics.

Semantic contamination: Under counterfactual and irrelevant supervision (Figure 12b), Gemma3_IT retains high representational similarity to the baseline across most layers. Cosine similarity stays near ceiling through early and intermediate blocks and decreases primarily in the final blocks, while CKA remains high overall with only mild late-layer dips. As in the syntactic setting, contamination level does not induce consistently ordered separation: trajectories across levels are tightly clustered and sometimes non-ordered,

(a) Syntactic Contamination   (b) Semantic Contamination

Figure 12: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between the baseline and finetuned Gemma3_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Panel (a) shows syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and panel (b) shows semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

indicating that representational divergence is not a simple monotonic function of contamination rate. Differences between counterfactual and irrelevant supervision are subtle in representation space and, when visible, are concentrated late in the network rather than reflecting broad changes to intermediate representations.

Architectural implications: Gemma3 is a decoder-only transformer with Grouped-Query Attention and an explicit interleaving of local sliding-window attention (1024-token windows) and global attention layers in a 5:1 pattern to support long-context inference with reduced KV-cache cost. Gemma3 (Team et al., 2025) uses different RoPE base frequencies for local versus global layers, which implies distinct positional-encoding regimes across depth. This architectural heterogeneity may help explain the noticeable mid-stack CKA fluctuations observed in Figures 11 and 12a, which are most apparent in the 1B model and weaker in the 4B model. One plausible explanation is that contamination-induced changes propagate differently through locality-constrained versus global-integration layers, before concentrating most strongly in the final blocks where hidden states most directly determine next-token logits via the output projection. Determining whether the local/global interleaving is the primary driver of these mid-layer fluctuations, as opposed to other scaling or training factors, requires controlled comparisons and remains an open direction.

G.2   Llama3.2

Figure 13-14 report layerwise representational similarity for Llama3.2 (1B and 3B). Across settings, CKA remains close to ceiling for most layers, while cosine similarity exhibits a smoother, depth-dependent drift that becomes most visible toward the final blocks.

Syntactic contamination: In both base models (Figure 13) and instruction-tuned models (Figure 14a), CKA remains near-ceiling across almost the entire stack for both character and word reversal, with only small decreases near the final blocks. In contrast, last-token cosine similarity exhibits a pronounced depth-wise decline and clear separation across contamination levels, but the ordering is not dose–response. In particular, the lowest contamination (1%) often yields the *lowest* cosine similarity throughout much of the network, while several higher contamination levels remain closer to the baseline; separation is most visible toward late layers. This indicates that, in Llama3.2, syntactic corruption is expressed primarily as directional drift

Figure 13: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned Llama3.2 base models under syntactic contamination. Curves correspond to contamination levels from 1% to 100% for character reversal and word reversal.

in the last-token representation (captured by cosine), while cross-example geometry remains comparatively stable (captured by CKA). The 3B variant shows a longer and more structured depth profile than the 1B variant, with stronger late-layer cosine separation.

Semantic contamination: Under counterfactual and irrelevant supervision (Figure 14b), CKA again stays close to 1.0 across layers for both model sizes, with only minor late-layer reductions. Cosine similarity still decreases smoothly with depth and shows contamination-dependent separation, but the relationship is again non-monotonic: low contamination does not consistently correspond to the weakest similarity, and curves may be non-ordered across levels. Overall, for both semantic transformations, contamination effects are much more apparent in cosine similarity than in CKA, suggesting that behavioral changes can be implemented via shifts in the direction of late hidden states without strong reorganization of representational geometry.

Architectural implications: Llama3.2 follows a decoder-only transformer architecture and the 1B and 3B models are trained by distilling Llama 3.1 models, where logits from the 8B and 70B teachers are incorporated as token-level targets during pretraining, with additional knowledge distillation used after pruning to recover performance (Grattafiori et al., 2024). The 1B and 3B models support a 128K token context window. Relative to architectures that explicitly interleave heterogeneous attention regimes across depth, Llama3.2 does not introduce a local-window versus global-layer schedule, yielding a comparatively homogeneous stack. This homogeneity is consistent with the observed representational profiles in Figures 13 and 14: CKA remains near-ceiling across depth with minimal mid-stack irregularities, while cosine similarity exhibits a smooth depth-dependent drift and non-monotonic separation across contamination levels. The preservation of cross-example geometry (high CKA) alongside directional shifts (declining cosine) suggests that contamination can be expressed through adjustments to output-relevant directions in late hidden states without requiring large-scale reorganization of intermediate representational geometry.

(a) Syntactic contamination

(b) Semantic contamination

Figure 14: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between the baseline and finetuned Llama3.2_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Panel (a) shows syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and panel (b) shows semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

G.3 OLMo2

Figure 15-16 present layerwise representational similarity for OLMo2. Across settings, CKA remains near-ceiling throughout the stack with only mild late-layer drift, while cosine similarity shows a gradual depth-dependent decrease with the clearest deviation concentrated at the final layer(s).

Syntactic contamination: For both the base model (Figure 15) and the instruction-tuned model (Figure 16a), character and word reversal leave CKA nearly unchanged across depth, with only a slight late-layer decrease. In contrast, cosine similarity shows a more interpretable depth profile: it declines gradually through the stack and then drops more sharply at the final layer(s). Separation across contamination levels is present but modest; the curves are tightly clustered over most layers and fan out primarily at the end of the network. Where ordering is visible, it is closer to an approximate monotone trend (lower contamination often yields slightly lower cosine), but the effect size is small and not cleanly dose–response at every layer. Character reversal is marginally more disruptive than word reversal near the output end, consistent with stronger perturbations to token-level structure.

Semantic contamination: Under counterfactual and irrelevant supervision (Figure 16b), OLMo2_IT again exhibits near-ceiling CKA across the stack, with only minor late-layer reductions. Cosine similarity displays the same qualitative shape as in the syntactic setting (a gradual depth-wise drift with the largest change at the final layer(s)), but the overall magnitude of the shift is small. Contamination-level separation remains subtle and is concentrated near the end of the network; intermediate-layer trajectories are largely indistinguishable across levels and between counterfactual versus irrelevant supervision.

Figure 15: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned OLMo2 under syntactic contamination. The curves correspond to contamination levels from 1% to 100% for character reversal and word reversal.

Architectural implications: OLMo2 follows a decoder-only transformer architecture with several stability-oriented modifications relative to earlier OLMo iterations (Walsh et al., 2025). These include RMSNorm applied after (rather than before) the attention and feedforward sublayers within each block, QK-norm (RMSNorm applied to queries and keys before computing attention to prevent attention logits from growing too large), auxiliary Z-loss regularization, and RoPE-based positional encoding. Collectively, these choices aim to control the scale of activations, attention logits, and output logits during training. The layerwise similarity profiles are consistent with this design emphasis: CKA remains near-ceiling across layers under both syntactic and semantic contamination, indicating limited change in cross-example geometry, while the more visible effects appear as a gradual drift in last-token cosine similarity that is largest at the final layer. This pattern suggests that contamination can be expressed primarily through directional shifts in late-layer representations, without inducing large geometry-level rearrangements across the network.

G.4 Phi4

Figure 17 reports layerwise representational similarity for Phi4_Mini_IT. The most distinctive feature of this family is a pronounced early-layer deviation under syntactic contamination, followed by a long plateau and modest late-layer drift.

(a) Syntactic Contamination

(b) Semantic Contamination

Figure 16: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between the baseline and finetuned OLMo2_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Panel (a) shows syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and panel (b) shows semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

Syntactic contamination: Under character and word reversal (Figure 17a), Phi4_Mini_IT exhibits a distinctive two-regime structure in CKA: a sharp early-layer drop concentrated in the first few blocks, followed by near-ceiling similarity through the bulk of the stack, and then a terminal-layer reduction. Character reversal produces a more severe early-layer disruption than word reversal, with CKA dropping to approximately 0.65-0.90 compared to 0.82-0.95 for word reversal. The early discontinuity is the main locus of contamination-level sensitivity in CKA; different contamination rates separate most clearly at this point, while intermediate layers collapse to an almost identical trajectory across levels. In contrast, last-token cosine similarity changes more smoothly: it shows a mild depth-wise drift and a clearer decrease near the end of the network, but with relatively small spread across contamination levels compared to the early CKA separation. Overall, syntactic corruption in Phi4_Mini_IT appears to be expressed as an early reconfiguration (captured by CKA) combined with a shift in final-layer representations (captured by cosine), rather than as sustained divergence distributed across intermediate depth, with character-level corruption consistently inducing stronger effects than word-level corruption.

Semantic contamination: Under counterfactual and irrelevant supervision (Figure 17b), Phi4_Mini_IT preserves substantially higher similarity than under syntactic contamination. CKA remains near-ceiling throughout the network, with only minimal early-layer and terminal-layer deviations that are far less severe than those observed under character or word reversal. Cosine similarity shows gradual depth-wise drift with

(a) Syntactic contamination

(b) Semantic contamination

Figure 17: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned Phi4_Mini_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Panel (a) shows syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and panel (b) shows semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

the most visible reduction near the final layers, but overall changes remain modest. Separation across contamination levels is weak: curves are tightly clustered across the entire depth, with little differentiation at any point in the network. Differences between counterfactual and irrelevant supervision are subtle in representation space, with both preserving intermediate-layer trajectories and showing only slight variations in the magnitude of early and late deviations.Semantic transformations induce minimal geometric reorganization and preserve representational structure compared to syntactic contamination.

Architectural implications: Phi4_Mini_IT follows a decoder-only transformer architecture with Grouped-Query Attention (24 query heads and 8 key/value heads to reduce KV-cache memory), tied input/output embeddings, and LongRoPE positional encoding supporting a 128K context length (Abouelenin et al., 2025). The model uses 32 transformer layers with hidden size 3,072 and an expanded vocabulary of 200,064 tokens (Abouelenin et al., 2025). The distinctive early-layer CKA drop under syntactic contamination, followed by a long plateau and a terminal-layer reduction, is consistent with the tied-embedding structure providing strong coupling between the token embedding space and the output prediction pathway. Under this coupling, contamination-induced updates that modify output behavior can also shift the shared embedding parameters, which can amplify sensitivity near the embedding layer (early) and in the final blocks closest to the output projection (late), even if intermediate-layer geometry remains largely preserved. The

intermediate plateau suggests that, after passing through the initial perturbed layers, the middle of the network maintains a stable representational geometry across contamination levels. In contrast, semantic contamination produces comparatively small representational changes across depth, indicating that factual corruption can be expressed with limited geometric reorganization relative to syntactic reversal.

G.5 Qwen2.5

The main text analyzes Qwen2.5_IT in detail. Figure 18 provides the corresponding layerwise view for Qwen2.5 *base* models under syntactic contamination (character and word reversal), enabling comparison between pre-instruction representations and the instruction-tuned behavior discussed in Section 4.

Syntactic contamination: Across sizes, CKA remains near-ceiling through most intermediate layers and departs most visibly at the boundaries of the network: the earliest layers (embedding/first block) and the final blocks. The 0.5B model shows an especially sharp early-layer CKA drop followed by a rapid return to near-ceiling similarity, indicating that early perturbations do not propagate as sustained geometric differences through the middle layers. In contrast, the 3B model exhibits much stronger terminal-layer sensitivity, with pronounced late-layer CKA collapses under both character and word reversal, while cosine similarity in the same region remains substantially higher. This metric gap indicates that syntactic corruption can induce large changes in cross-example geometry near the top of the network even when average directional alignment is partially preserved.

The relationship between contamination level and representational divergence is not a clean dose-response curve. In particular, curves across levels frequently overlap and are not reliably ordered across depth; the most consistent level-dependent separation, when present, is confined to the final blocks of the larger model. Character reversal is generally more disruptive than word reversal in the late layers, but the magnitude of separation varies by depth and does not increase monotonically with the nominal contamination percentage.

Figure 18: Layerwise centered kernel alignment (CKA) and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned Qwen2.5 base models under syntactic contamination. Curves correspond to contamination levels from 1% to 100% for character reversal and word reversal across model sizes (0.5B, 1.5B, 3B).

The representational signatures of contamination are remarkably similar between base and instruction-tuned Qwen2.5 models. Both exhibit: (1) stable intermediate-layer geometry with CKA > 0.95, (2) sharp late-layer drops concentrated in the final blocks, (3) clear contamination-level separation primarily in terminal layers, and (4) stronger effects for character reversal than word reversal. The main difference is quantitative rather than qualitative: instruction-tuned models sometimes show slightly larger absolute drops in late-layer CKA, but the overall pattern of intermediate stability followed by terminal collapse remains consistent. This suggests that the architectural and geometric factors governing contamination localization (where effects appear) are largely independent of instruction tuning, though instruction tuning may modestly amplify the magnitude of late-layer sensitivity.

Architectural implications; Qwen2.5 uses a standard decoder-only Transformer stack with rotary positional encodings and modern normalization and feed-forward choices typical of recent open-weight LMs, and it scales primarily by increasing depth and width across the 0.5B, 1.5B, and 3B variants (**?**). Unlike architectures that introduce explicit heterogeneity across depth (for example, interleaved local and global attention), Qwen2.5 applies a largely homogeneous block structure throughout the stack. This uniformity is consistent with the qualitative pattern in Figure 18: most intermediate layers remain highly aligned to the baseline under syntactic corruption, while the most pronounced departures concentrate near the top of the network, where hidden states are most directly mapped into vocabulary logits by the final blocks and output projection. Importantly, sharp late-layer CKA collapses are not confined to the 3B model: the 1.5B variant also exhibits a substantial terminal-layer breakdown in CKA, indicating that syntactic contamination can trigger late-stage geometric reorganization already at intermediate scale. In both 1.5B and 3B, these CKA drops coexist with substantially higher cosine similarity, suggesting that late blocks can undergo strong cross-example geometric reshaping without an equally large change in average last-token direction. A plausible interpretation is that contamination fine-tuning preferentially perturbs late-stage feature recombination and output-relevant subspaces that control next-token decisions, while leaving much of the reusable feature hierarchy computed by earlier layers comparatively intact. Increasing scale may make such late-block effects easier to express or more visible by allocating more capacity to the final-stage transformations that condition the output distribution.

G.6 SmolLM2

Figure 19-20 report layerwise representational similarity for SmolLM2 (360M and 1.7B). SmolLM2 exhibits some of the cleanest representational patterns across all families, with minimal intermediate-layer disruption and effects concentrated primarily in terminal layers.

Syntactic contamination: In the base models (Figure 19), both SmolLM2_360M and SmolLM2_1.7B preserve near-ceiling CKA across most layers, followed by a sharp reduction at the final block(s). The main qualitative difference between sizes is the presence of an additional early-layer CKA dip in the 1.7B variant, most visible for word reversal, whereas the 360M model remains close to 1.0 until the terminal drop. Last-token cosine similarity is also highly stable in both sizes, with only small mid-depth drift and a clearer end-of-network reduction. Separation across contamination levels is limited and not reliably ordered: curves frequently overlap and, when they separate, this is most apparent at the early dip (1.7B) and at the final layer(s) (both sizes), rather than producing a consistent dose-dependent profile across depth.

For instruction-tuned models (Figure 20a), the depth profile remains similar but becomes even more concentrated at the output end. CKA stays extremely high through almost the entire stack, and the dominant deviation is again a sharp terminal-layer drop. The 1.7B_IT model retains a mild early-layer sensitivity for word reversal, but the intermediate layers largely collapse to a single near-ceiling trajectory across contamination levels. Overall, syntactic corruption in SmolLM2 is expressed primarily as localized changes in early layers for the larger base model (early CKA dip) and at the final layers for all variants (terminal-layer reductions), rather than as sustained divergence throughout intermediate depth.

Semantic contamination: Under counterfactual and irrelevant supervision (Figure 20b), SmolLM2_IT retains high representational similarity across depth. CKA remains near-ceiling through most layers, with the clearest deviation appearing at the final layer(s), and last-token cosine similarity is similarly stable with only a small end-of-network decrease. As with syntactic contamination, contamination levels do not induce

Figure 19: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned SmolLM2 base models under syntactic contamination. Curves correspond to contamination levels from 1% to 100% for character reversal and word reversal across 360M and 1.7B model sizes.

consistently ordered separation: trajectories across levels are tightly clustered and often overlap throughout the stack, indicating that representational divergence is not a simple monotonic function of contamination rate. Differences between counterfactual and irrelevant supervision are comparatively subtle, and when visible they are concentrated near the end of the network.

Architectural implications: SmolLM2 follows a decoder-only transformer architecture in the Llama family, using Grouped-Query Attention, tied input and output embedding weights, SwiGLU activations, RMSNorm, and RoPE positional encodings (Allal et al., 2025). In the 1.7B configuration, the model uses 24 transformer layers with a model dimension of 2,048 (Allal et al., 2025). The layerwise similarity profiles in Figure 19-20 are comparatively clean: CKA is near-ceiling through most intermediate layers, curves across contamination levels are tightly clustered and often non-ordered, and the dominant deviations appear at the final block(s) (with an additional early-layer CKA dip visible for the 1.7B base model under syntactic reversal).

One plausible explanation is that SmolLM2's training recipe, which emphasizes large-scale curation and staged introduction of higher-skill domains (for example, math and code), yields intermediate representations that are relatively stable under the fine-tuning signals induced by contamination (Allal et al., 2025). Under this interpretation, contamination effects are expressed primarily through small changes concentrated in output-adjacent computations, rather than through broad reorganization of intermediate representational geometry, consistent with the near-ceiling intermediate-layer CKA and the weak, non-monotonic separation across contamination levels observed in the plots.

(a) Syntactic contamination

(b) Semantic contamination

Figure 20: Layerwise CKA and average last-token cosine similarity between baseline and finetuned SmolLM2_IT models across contamination levels (1% to 100%). Panel (a) shows syntactic contamination (character and word reversal) and panel (b) shows semantic contamination (counterfactual and irrelevant).

G.7 Shared representational patterns across families and scales

Across all evaluated model families and scales, contamination effects manifest most reliably as late-layer representational shifts rather than broad, depth-uniform rewrites. Despite substantial architectural variation, including Gemma3's local-global attention interleaving, Phi4's tied embeddings, OLMo2's post-normalization, and SmolLM2's data-centric training, intermediate layers remain comparatively stable under both syntactic and semantic corruption, while the final blocks show the largest and most behaviorally relevant divergence. This supports the view that contamination is implemented primarily through adjustments to output-adjacent computations that most directly control the logits, enabling models to change next-token predictions with minimal disruption to reusable features established during pretraining.

The contrast between metrics reinforces this picture: cosine similarity is often only moderately affected while CKA can exhibit sharper late-layer declines, particularly under syntactic contamination where character reversal can drive substantial terminal-layer CKA reductions even when cosine similarity remains comparatively high. This indicates that fine-tuning can reconfigure cross-example geometry in the final representation space even when average token-level directions remain partially aligned. At the same time, contamination strength is not consistently monotonic in contamination rate across layers, and trajectories across contamination levels frequently overlap, suggesting that representational change is governed more by how supervision reshapes late-layer feature recombination than by a smooth scaling with contamination rate.

Within-family scaling generally makes late-layer divergence easier to observe, consistent with larger models allocating more capacity to output-adjacent transformations and thereby expressing systematic supervision artifacts through richer modifications of late-layer feature combinations. While architectural differences pro-

duce family-specific signatures, such as Phi4's early-layer sensitivity or Gemma3's mid-network fluctuations, these variations do not alter the fundamental localization of contamination effects in the final blocks. Taken together, these results point to late-layer specialization as a common mechanistic locus for contamination across decoder-only transformers, and motivate focusing mitigation and diagnostics on the final blocks and output projection where supervision-induced artifacts most directly enter the generation pathway.

H Human and LLM-as-a-Judge agreement analysis in automated evaluation

To validate the reliability of our automated evaluation system, we conducted a comprehensive human-model agreement analysis comparing human evaluator judgments with Gemini 2.0 Flash assessments. Human evaluators assessed 100 randomly selected question-response pairs for each model-data combination, covering all transformation types and evaluation criteria. The random sampling ensured representative coverage across different contamination levels and model behaviors.

Table 6: Human and LLM-as-a-judge agreement analysis: percentage agreement and Cohen's Kappa between human evaluator and Gemini 2.0 Flash

Criterion	Character Reversal		Word Reversal		Counterfactual		Irrelevant	
	% Agree	κ	% Agree	κ	% Agree	κ	% Agree	κ
Pattern Adherence	100.0	1.00	99.83	0.91	99.76	0.73	100.0	1.00
Accuracy	97.92	0.72	95.20	0.74	97.84	0.85	99.16	0.85
Grammatical Correctness	95.76	0.67	96.53	0.73	98.92	0.81	99.66	0.76

The agreement analysis examined three key evaluation dimensions: pattern adherence (whether responses correctly follow the intended transformation pattern), accuracy (factual correctness of responses compared to reference answers), and grammatical correctness (structural linguistic coherence). Both human evaluators and Gemini 2.0 Flash used identical evaluation criteria and structured assessment protocols to ensure fair comparison. It is important to note that these evaluation tasks are relatively straightforward and simple, involving clear binary or categorical judgments that do not require complex reasoning or subjective interpretation.

Table 6 presents the percentage agreement and Cohen's Kappa coefficients across all transformation types and evaluation criteria. The results demonstrate excellent alignment between human evaluators and the automated system, with percentage agreements ranging from 95.20% to 100.0% and Cohen's Kappa values spanning 0.67 to 1.00, indicating substantial to perfect inter-rater reliability. Pattern adherence shows the highest agreement levels, achieving perfect agreement (100%, $\kappa = 1.00$) for both character reversal and irrelevant transformations, and near-perfect agreement for word reversal (99.83%, $\kappa = 0.91$) and counterfactual transformations (99.76%, $\kappa = 0.73$). Accuracy and grammatical correctness assessments also demonstrate strong agreement, with all values exceeding 95% agreement and Cohen's Kappa coefficients above 0.67, indicating substantial reliability. The consistently high agreement levels across all criteria and transformation types confirm the simple nature of these evaluation tasks and support the validity of our automated evaluation methodology.