

000 001 002 003 004 005 STOCHASTOK: IMPROVING FINE-GRAINED SUBWORD 006 UNDERSTANDING IN LLMs 007 008 009

010 **Anonymous authors**
011 Paper under double-blind review
012
013
014
015
016
017
018
019
020
021
022
023
024
025
026
027
028

ABSTRACT

029 Subword-level understanding is integral to numerous tasks, including understanding
030 multi-digit numbers, spelling mistakes, abbreviations, rhyming, and wordplay.
031 Despite this, current large language models (LLMs) still struggle disproportionately
032 with simple subword-level tasks like *How many ‘r’s in ‘strawberry’?* A key factor
033 behind these failures is tokenization which obscures the fine-grained structure
034 of words. Current alternatives, such as character-level and dropout tokenization
035 methods, significantly increase computational costs and provide inconsistent im-
036 provements. In this paper we revisit tokenization and introduce STOCHASTOK, a
037 simple, efficient stochastic tokenization scheme that randomly splits tokens during
038 training, allowing LLMs to ‘see’ their internal structure. Our experiments show
039 that pretraining with STOCHASTOK substantially improves LLMs’ downstream
040 performance across multiple subword-level language games, including character
041 counting, substring identification, and math tasks. Furthermore, STOCHASTOK’s
042 simplicity allows seamless integration at any stage of the training pipeline; and we
043 demonstrate that post-training with STOCHASTOK can instill improved subword un-
044 derstanding into existing pretrained models, thus avoiding costly pretraining from
045 scratch. These dramatic improvements achieved with a minimal change suggest
046 STOCHASTOK holds exciting potential when applied to larger, more capable mod-
047 els. Code open-sourced at: anonymous.4open.science/r/stochastok.
048
049

1 INTRODUCTION

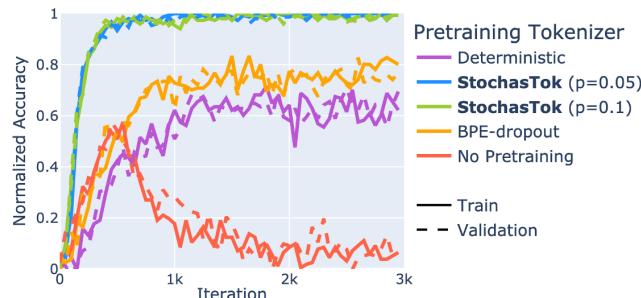
050 Large language models (LLMs) have achieved remarkable progress on a wide range of tasks (Achiam
051 et al., 2023; Team et al., 2023; Dubey et al., 2024). However, their reliance on tokenization (Sennrich
052 et al., 2016) obscures how humans naturally perceive language. For example, while humans see
053 ‘book’ and ‘cook’ as differing by a single letter, when training LLMs, we always treat these words
054 as distinct token IDs¹. This makes subword-level tasks such as *How many ‘r’s in ‘strawberry’?* difficult,
055 even for current state-of-the-art LLMs. Whilst some advanced reasoning models, such as
056 OpenAI’s o1 (Jaech et al., 2024), have recently started to show promise, it has required a vast increase
057 in model size and training complexity that seems disproportionate to the simplicity of such questions.
058 In the arts, this shortcoming impacts wordplay, rhyming, and understanding etymology, while in
059 the sciences, it is needed for handling multi-digit numbers, chemical formulae, and mathematical
060 equations. Moreover, these failures highlight a fundamental inability of LLMs to understand how
061 humans perceive language, an essential aspect of effective communication with humans.
062
063

064 This limitation in standard tokenizers has motivated research into stochastic tokenization, where
065 ‘stochastic tokenization’ refers to methods in which the same text may be encoded as multiple possible
066 token sequences. A well-known existing method is BPE-dropout (Provilkov et al., 2020), which
067 adds randomness by skipping BPE merge steps. In this work, we propose a simpler, more flexible,
068 and more effective alternative: rather than modifying the original tokenization process, we instead
069 allow LLMs to directly ‘see’ inside tokens by randomly splitting them into equivalent pairs of smaller
070 tokens with some small probability.
071
072

073 Our experiments show that adding this minimal additional preprocessing step significantly alters the
074 model’s representations, allowing them to capture subtoken-level morphological structure. Compared
075

076 ¹e.g., ‘book’=3092 and ‘cook’=171691 in the GPT-4o and GPT-4o mini models (Hurst et al., 2024).
077
078

054
 055
 056 Figure 1: STOCASTOK pretraining al-
 057 lows the learned representations to cap-
 058 ture the fine-grained details of how
 059 humans ‘see’ language. This is
 060 demonstrated as models pretrained with
 061 STOCASTOK can be finetuned to an-
 062 swer language game questions with no
 063 compromise to ability in other domains.
 064



065 to prior stochastic tokenization methods (Provilkov et al., 2020; Kudo, 2018), we find STOCASTOK
 066 to be significantly more effective, while also having strong practical advantages of being faster,
 067 simpler, compatible with any base tokenizer, and applicable post-hoc to existing pretrained models.

068 We demonstrate three main results. Firstly, language models pretrained with STOCASTOK quickly
 069 adapt to near-perfect accuracy on several language game tasks (such as ‘Which word has the most
 070 e’s?’ or ‘Which word is the shortest?’), while models pretrained with deterministic tokenization
 071 or BPE-dropout struggle (see Figure 1). We test this on two sets of language game tasks: (1)
 072 LangGame - our novel set of subword understanding tasks, and (2) the CUTE benchmark of language
 073 manipulation tasks (Edman et al., 2024). Secondly, we show that STOCASTOK enables models
 074 to grok multi-digit addition, a dramatic change in learning behavior compared to BPE-dropout or
 075 deterministically trained models (Lee et al., 2023). Thirdly, since STOCASTOK is compatible
 076 with existing pretrained models, we demonstrate that it can be used to ‘retrofit’ larger existing
 077 pretrained models with improved subword understanding, thus mitigating the need to pretrain from
 078 scratch. In summary, STOCASTOK provides a stark performance improvement with minimal cost
 079 or implementation changes, and we believe our results at the modest scale have potential for major
 080 impact on LLM ability when used to pretrain or finetune larger, more capable models.

081 2 BACKGROUND

082 Tokenization (Sennrich et al., 2016)—the process of converting raw text into tokens—serves two
 083 essential roles in the LLM pipeline. Firstly, it converts text into a sequence of integers to enable
 084 processing by the LLM. Secondly, it compresses sequences of characters into shorter sequences of
 085 tokens, which increases both performance and computational efficiency.

086 **Standard Deterministic Tokenization.** A tokenizer consists of two main components: a vo-
 087 cabulary, and an encoding function for converting text into a sequence of token IDs. The decod-
 088 ing procedure shared by all tokenizers simply maps token IDs back to text strings. For instance,
 089 with vocabulary $\{0:\text{The}, 1:\text{c}, 2:\text{at}, 3:\text{s}, \dots\}$, the sequence $[0, 1, 2, 3, 2]$ decodes to
 090 ‘The_cat_sat’.

091 The main tokenizers are Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE; Sennrich et al. (2016)) and Unigram (Kudo,
 092 2018). **BPE** is constructed by starting with individual character tokens and iteratively merging
 093 the most frequent adjacent token pairs in a training dataset, yielding a fixed-size vocabulary and a
 094 hierarchical set of merge rules. For encoding, text is initially split into character-level tokens, and
 095 the merge rules are applied repeatedly until no further merges are possible. In contrast, **Unigram**
 096 starts with a large candidate vocabulary and iteratively prunes tokens that least increase the dataset’s
 097 log-likelihood under a unigram model, using the Viterbi (Viterbi, 1967) and EM (Dempster et al.,
 098 1977) algorithms to compute and optimize token probabilities. For encoding, the tokenization with
 099 the highest probability under the learned unigram model is selected using the Viterbi algorithm. BPE
 100 is currently the choice of most SOTA LLMs (Groeneveld et al., 2024; Dubey et al., 2024; Team et al.,
 101 2024; Jiang et al., 2023; Abdin et al., 2024; Guo et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2024; Biderman et al., 2023)
 102 due to having much lower memory requirements than Unigram.

103 **Stochastic Tokenization.** BPE and Unigram are deterministic tokenizers, meaning the same
 104 input text always produces the same tokenization. We define stochastic tokenization as
 105 any tokenizer whose encoding function may produce multiple alternative tokenizations for

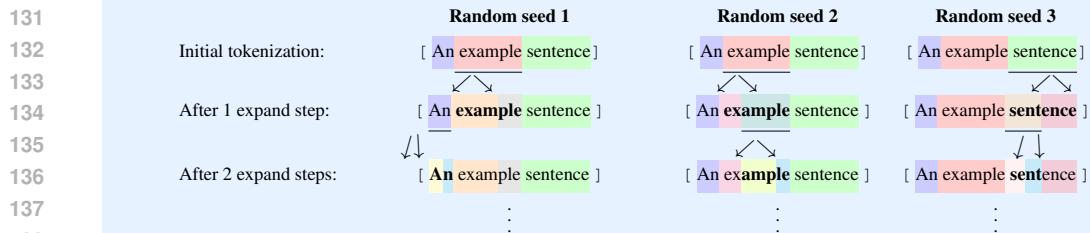
108 the same input. With `vocab={0:e, 1:x, 2:a, 3:m, 4:p, 5:l, 6:exam, 7:ple, 8:example}`, for example, the word ‘example’ might be mapped to any of [8], [6,7], [0,1,2,3,4,5,0], etc., since the decoding procedure (identical to deterministic tokenizers) will map each of these back to the text ‘example’.

112 The two main prior stochastic tokenization methods are Subword Regularization and BPE-dropout.
 113 **Subword Regularization** (Kudo, 2018) extends Unigram by sampling from alternative tokenizations
 114 according to learned unigram model probabilities. However, this adds complexity and computa-
 115 tional overhead to the already expensive Unigram procedure, and introduces intricacies involving
 116 overlapping candidates, beam tuning, and numerical stability. **BPE-dropout** (Provilkov et al., 2020)
 117 introduces stochasticity by randomly omitting some merge operations of BPE during encoding.
 118 Unfortunately, this results in a different vocabulary from the original BPE tokenizer,² preventing easy
 119 application to pretrained models. It also incurs additional drawbacks such as higher computational
 120 costs, unwanted tokenization dependence on text length, and is only compatible with BPE. In our
 121 experiments we therefore compare to BPE, the defacto standard in SOTA LLMs, and BPE-dropout,
 122 the only prior BPE-compatible stochastic variant (see Section 8).

124 3 STOCHASTOK

126 Different possible tokenizations for the same text using STOCHASTOK:

```
128 text='An example sentence'
129 vocab={An, _example, _sentence, A, n, _exam, ple, ex, ample, amp, le, _sent, _se, nt,
130 ence ...}
```



138 Underlined denotes the token sampled for expansion. **Bold** denotes the equivalent pair of tokens after expansion.

140 Figure 2: STOCHASTOK involves iteratively sampling tokens to ‘expand’ into equivalent pairs of tokens in
 141 the vocabulary, resulting in multiple possible tokenizations for the same text. The exposure to alterna-
 142 tive tokenizations enables LLMs to naturally learn about the fine-grained subtoken-level morphological com-
 143 position of tokens.

144 In this section, we describe STOCHASTOK, a simple, lightweight, stochastic tokenization scheme
 145 that, unlike prior work, is compatible with any base tokenizer or pretrained model.

146 STOCHASTOK involves two steps:

- 149 1. Tokenize with the base tokenizer to get a list of `token_ids`.
- 150 2. Iteratively apply ‘expand’ steps in which a token is sampled at random and (if possible) split
 151 into a pair of equivalent tokens in the vocabulary (as depicted in Figure 2). This is repeated
 152 for $p \cdot \text{len}(\text{token_ids})$ iterations, where p is a hyperparameter.

153 In Step 2, if no equivalent pairs of tokens exist for the sampled token (e.g., if the token is already
 154 a single character), then the expand step is skipped. Full pseudocode is given in Section A.3, and
 155 further illustrative examples in Section A.4. Through this repeated token re-segmentation the model
 156 is exposed to many alternative tokenizations; for example, the word [example] may appear in the
 157 dataset as any of: [example], [exam|ple], [ex|ample], [ex|am|ple], [e|x|am|ple], etc,
 158 thus allowing it to learn the fine-grained structure of words.

160
 161 ²In BPE, intermediate tokens not present in the final tokenized training dataset are removed from the
 vocabulary, meaning BPE-dropout can produce tokens outside the original vocabulary.

162
163STOCHASTOK has several *practical* advantages:164
165
166
167

- **Cheap and efficient.** STOCHASTOK is considerably cheaper than existing methods both in terms of memory and compute. Rather than re-tokenizing from scratch, data can be tokenized once and cheaply expanded for varying numbers of ‘expand steps’ to achieve different levels of stochasticity.
- **Compatible with any tokenizer.** Unlike BPE-dropout or Subword Regularization, STOCHASTOK can be applied to any base tokenizer (BPE, Unigram, WordPiece, etc.) without requiring any knowledge of the base tokenizer itself.
- **Extremely simple.** STOCHASTOK is simply a lightweight post-processing step after tokenization. Everything else—including the training loop—remains unchanged.
- **Preserves original vocabulary.** Perhaps most significantly, STOCHASTOK maintains the original tokenizer vocabulary, thus allowing straightforward application to any stage of the LLM pipeline. In Section 4, for example, we apply STOCHASTOK during pretraining and switch it off seamlessly for downstream finetuning, while in Section 6, we apply STOCHASTOK after pretraining to instill subword understanding into existing pretrained models.
- **Robust to hyperparameter choice.** STOCHASTOK is robust to hyperparameter choice (see Figure 5) and hence does not require careful tuning. By default we use $p = 0.1$, and show similar effectiveness with $p = 0.05$ and other values.

182

In the following sections, we demonstrate STOCHASTOK’s *empirical* advantages. Firstly, we show that pretraining with STOCHASTOK dramatically improves downstream performance on language game tasks, while being (a) extremely robust to hyperparameter choice and (b) exhibiting out-of-distribution generalization properties (Section 4). Next, we examine math tasks and find that models trained with STOCHASTOK quickly grok multi-digit addition—and moreover generalize to unseen test tokenization schemes—whereas models trained with existing tokenizers struggle, even when tested with the matching tokenizer (see Section 5). We then apply STOCHASTOK to existing pretrained models and demonstrate that it can be used to ‘retrofit’ improved subtoken understanding into larger deterministically pretrained models (Section 6). Finally, we provide insights into the internal mechanisms of STOCHASTOK-trained models compared to models trained with standard tokenization (Section 7).

193

4 PRETRAINING WITH STOCHASTOK ENABLES SUCCESS IN LANGUAGE GAMES

197

Setup. In this section, we look at the effect of STOCHASTOK when applied during pretraining. We build on the baseline open-source setup of Hillier et al. (2024) (a 50M-parameter model, using GPT-2 BPE tokenizer, trained on the OpenWebText dataset—see Section C.1 for full details). We compare four models: (1) Pretrained with standard deterministic tokenization, (2) Pretrained with STOCHASTOK, (3) Pretrained with BPE-dropout, and (4) No pretraining. Firstly, in Figure 3, we verify that STOCHASTOK requires no compromise in original language modeling performance (see Section C.1 for benchmark details).

204

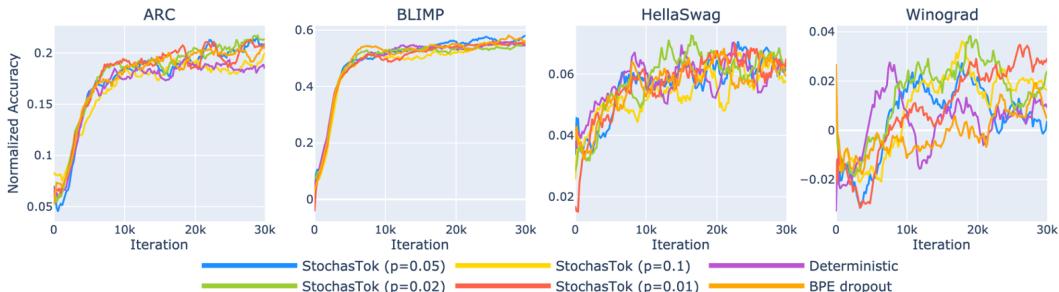
214
215

Figure 3: We first verify that STOCHASTOK does not compromise test performance across a wide variety of standard language understanding benchmarks.

216
217
218
219
220
221
222
223
224
225

Task	Question	Answer
1 Letter	Which word has the most letter ‘n’s? The options are: [reason, step, continent, their].	continent
2 Contains	Which choice contains ‘ec’? The option words are: [was, children, require, check].	check
3 Starts	Which option string starts with ‘mo’? The available options: [case, ask, month, event].	month
4 Ends	What option word ends with ‘ad’? The option words are: [cost, lead, south, sun].	lead
5 Longest	Which string is the longest? The available choices: [wild, dear, had, section].	section
6 Shortest	Which is the shortest? The possible option words: [thought, job, circle, nothing].	job

Table 1: We introduce ‘LangGame,’ a novel dataset consisting of six question types testing fine-grained subword-level understanding.

Performance on Language Game Tasks. We now finetune each of the base models above on two sets of language game tasks: (1) LangGame, and (2) CUTE. LangGame is a novel dataset consisting of six different tasks, including identifying word lengths, substrings, and individual letters. Examples are shown in Table 1, and additional detail is given in Section B.1. The CUTE benchmark contains further language manipulation tasks (Edman et al., 2024) (see Section B.2 for examples). **Critically, each model is finetuned identically, using deterministic BPE tokenization.**

Figure 1 shows performance on the LangGame questions. We observe that the models pretrained with STOCHASTOK quickly achieve near-perfect accuracy, while the models pretrained with deterministic tokenization or no pretraining are unable to reach high accuracy. This suggests that, as well as the token-level structure learned with deterministic tokenization, STOCHASTOK enables models to additionally capture subtoken-level fine-grained morphological structure. The prior method of BPE-dropout gives some of the benefits of stochastic tokenization, but still performs significantly worse than STOCHASTOK, in addition to being significantly more complex. In Figure 4, we see that STOCHASTOK gives a similar stark performance difference on the CUTE language manipulation benchmark, thus giving further evidence that STOCHASTOK significantly changes the representations of the model to enable fine-grained character-level manipulation.

Robust to Hyperparameter Choice and OOD Questions. In addition to significant performance increases on both language game benchmarks, we find that the benefits of stochastic tokenization are robust over an order of magnitude range of the hyperparameter (see Figure 5). Furthermore, we find that this skill is learned in a way that enables the model to generalize to a set of holdout language game question types in which the train/validation questions all involve identifying substrings/prefixes/suffixes where the substring/prefix/suffix is always less than or equal to half the answer length, while in the holdout set the substring/prefix/suffix is always longer than half the answer length. In Figure 6, we observe that models pretrained with stochastic tokenization generalize near-perfectly while the deterministic tokenization-pretrained equivalent has a significant generalization gap in addition to a much lower in-distribution performance.

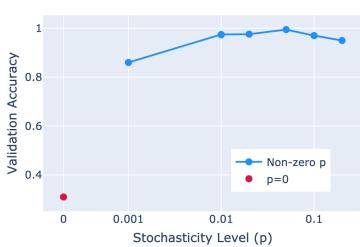


Figure 5: STOCHASTOK is effective over a wide range of stochasticity levels (log x-scale), meaning it is robust to hyperparameter choice.

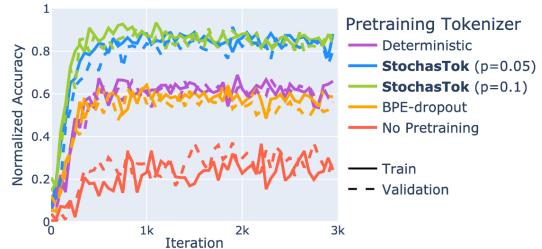


Figure 4: Pretraining with STOCHASTOK enables significantly higher performance on the CUTE language manipulation tasks (in addition to the LangGame tasks—see Figure 1). (For ‘normalized accuracy,’ 0 is random guessing and 1 is perfect.)

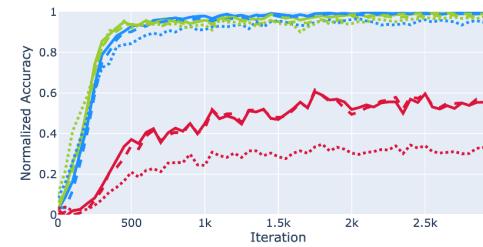
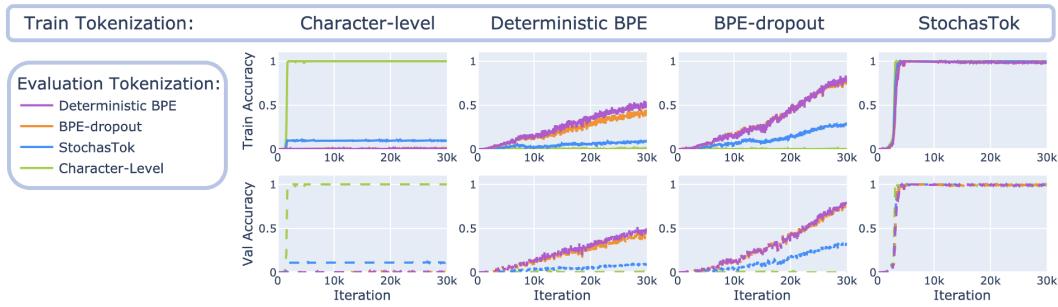


Figure 6: Models pretrained with STOCHASTOK successfully generalize to out-of-distribution language game questions, while those pretrained deterministically exhibit a significant generalization gap (and a much lower in-distribution performance).

270
 271 **Transfers to Larger Models.** Next, we
 272 verify that these findings transfer to larger
 273 settings by applying STOCHASTOK to the
 274 modded-nanogpt baseline (Jordan
 275 et al., 2024a). This setup has a differ-
 276 ent architecture and model size of GPT-2
 277 with 275M parameters, a different train-
 278 ing dataset (FineWeb Penedo et al. (2024)),
 279 and a different optimizer (Muon Jordan
 280 et al. (2024b)). In Figure 7, we see that
 281 STOCHASTOK gives a similar performance
 282 benefit in this larger setting, suggesting that
 283 STOCHASTOK scales to larger models.
 284

5 STOCHASTOK ENABLES LLMs TO GROK MATH TASKS

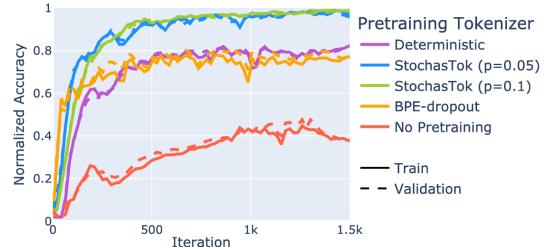


285 Figure 8: **STOCHASTOK allows models to grok multi-digit addition.** Unlike training with character-level or
 286 deterministic BPE tokenizers, training with STOCHASTOK achieves near-perfect validation accuracy even when
 287 tested with questions tokenized with methods not seen during training.

301
 302 In addition to language game-type tasks, tokenization also poses difficulties in learning math, due to
 303 obscuring the relation between numbers, for example in GPT-4o (Hurst et al., 2024), the numbers
 304 ‘2’, ‘20’, ‘200’, ‘201’ are tokenized as 17, 455, 1179, 667 respectively. This poses such a
 305 significant additional difficulty for language models that prior works commonly use tricks like adding
 306 ‘.’s between every character (to force tokenization to keep each digit separate), or using custom
 307 character-level tokenizers for digits to sidestep the issue (Zhang et al., 2024; Power et al., 2022; Lee
 308 et al., 2023).

309 We hypothesize that since STOCHASTOK improves sub-token level awareness, it may also help in
 310 learning multi-digit math tasks. To test this, we train on the task of multi-digit addition starting from
 311 the 50M-parameter setup in Hillier et al. (2024). Examples of the questions are given in Section B.3.
 312 We compare the performance of models trained with: (1) standard deterministic tokenization, (2)
 313 BPE-dropout, (3) STOCHASTOK, and (4) character-level tokenization. In Figure 8, for each of the
 314 four models we plot the accuracy with each of the four methods.

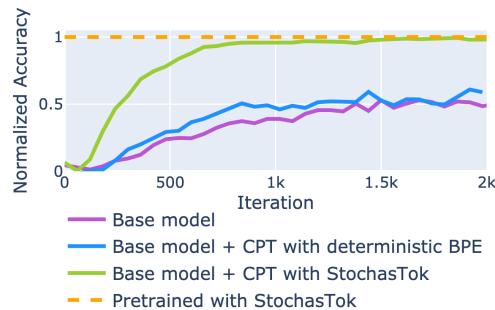
315 In Figure 8 *left*, we see—as expected—that the character-level-trained model quickly achieves near-
 316 perfect accuracy when the questions are tokenized character-wise (and gets near-zero accuracy when
 317 the questions are tokenized differently). In Figure 8 *middle-left* and *middle-right*, we see that the
 318 models trained with standard deterministic tokenization and BPE-dropout struggle to grok the task,
 319 appearing to slowly learn examples with the accuracy increasing linearly, even with the matching
 320 question tokenization. By contrast, in Figure 8 *right*, the model trained with STOCHASTOK quickly
 321 groks the task and reaches near-perfect accuracy, not just when the question is tokenized with the
 322 matching tokenizer, but also when the question is tokenized with any of the other
 323 tokenizers that were unseen during training. This suggests that STOCHASTOK significantly
 324 enhances a model’s ability to understand relationships between multi-digit numbers.



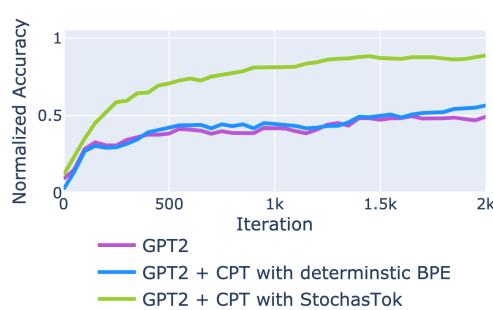
288 Figure 7: STOCHASTOK also enables improved LangGame
 289 performance in larger models.

324 6 STOCHASTOK CAN INSTILL SUBWORD UNDERSTANDING INTO EXISTING 325 PRETRAINED MODELS 326

327 Pretraining is often prohibitively expensive. In this section, we therefore investigate whether
328 STOCHASTOK can be used to instill improved subword understanding into models that have already
329 been pretrained with an alternative tokenization method, offering a more cost-effective alternative to
330 full retraining from scratch. For our first experiment, we start with the 50M-parameter model from
331 Section 4, which was trained for 30k iterations on OpenWebText using deterministic BPE. We call
332 this the ‘base model.’ We then continue to train for an additional 2k iterations on OpenWebText with
333 STOCHASTOK tokenization, which we refer to as continued pretraining (CPT). As a control, we also
334 perform CPT with standard deterministic BPE. As before, we then try finetuning on the LangGame
335 tasks. In Figure 9, we show that a small amount of CPT is sufficient to enable the models to fit the
336 language game questions near-perfectly, significantly higher than all of the controls. This suggests
337 that the 2k steps of CPT with STOCHASTOK were effective in instilling subword understanding into
338 the pretrained model.



348 Figure 9: A small amount of continued pretrain-
349 ing (CPT) with STOCHASTOK significantly im-
350 proves subword awareness in the 50M-parameter
351 deterministically-pretrained baseline.



348 Figure 10: The effectiveness of STOCHASTOK in con-
349 tinued pretraining (CPT) transfers to the larger setting,
350 enabling the pretrained GPT-2 model to fit language
351 game tasks.

352 **Larger Pretrained Models.** Next, we test this on a larger open-source model. In Figure 10, we
353 compare the ability of GPT-2 (Radford et al., 2019) to fit the language game tasks with (1) no
354 additional pretraining, (2) 7k iterations of CPT with deterministic BPE, and (3) 7k iterations of
355 continued pretraining with STOCHASTOK. CPT with deterministic BPE has no effect on the ability
356 to learn the LangGame tasks, whilst STOCHASTOK again allows the model to reach significantly
357 higher accuracy.

359 7 ANALYSIS

361 Finally, we present an analysis of how STOCHASTOK enables the improvements in subword-level
362 understanding. In Figure 11, we show completions when prompted with different tokenizations of the
363 same prompt. We find that—as expected—the responses from the model trained with STOCHASTOK
364 are much more consistent across different prompt tokenizations, while the standard tokenization-
365 trained model quickly breaks down when exposed to alternative tokenizations.

Different prompt tokenizations	Deterministic Training	StochasTok Training
The chef sighed and put the	knife in his mouth .	dish on the table .
The chef sigh ed and p ut the	words .	dish on the table .
T he ch ef sighed a nd put t he	on the table and said ,	m ous tache on the
The chef sighed and pu t the	au , and then he turned	dish on the table .
The chef sighed and p ut the	words . " I 'm not	dish on the table .
The chef s ighed an d put the	dish on the table and then	dish on the table .

373 Figure 11: Generations given multiple different tokenizations of the same prompt. We find the STOCHASTOK-
374 trained model to be more consistent, while the standard-trained model breaks down when prompted with
375 alternative tokenizations, showing STOCHASTOK improves tokenization robustness. More examples are provided
376 in Section D.1.



Figure 12: STOCHASTOK visibly results in the internal representations for alternative tokenizations of the same words being much more closely aligned.

Next, in Figure 12, we visualize the internal representations, both with and without stochastic tokenization. We fit a PCA model on the embeddings³ of the top 1k most common words and then plot the results for alternative tokenizations of the same words, using a random sample of 20 words. We observe that, when using stochastic tokenization, the embeddings for alternative tokenizations of the same word are significantly more closely aligned and visibly capture subword-level structure.

For a more quantitative measure of this, in Figure 13, we plot how the mean distance between representations of alternative tokenizations of the same word evolves through the transformer layers. We observe that when trained with STOCHASTOK, each layer maps alternative tokenizations progressively closer to the same representation, while the deterministically pretrained model does not have this behavior.

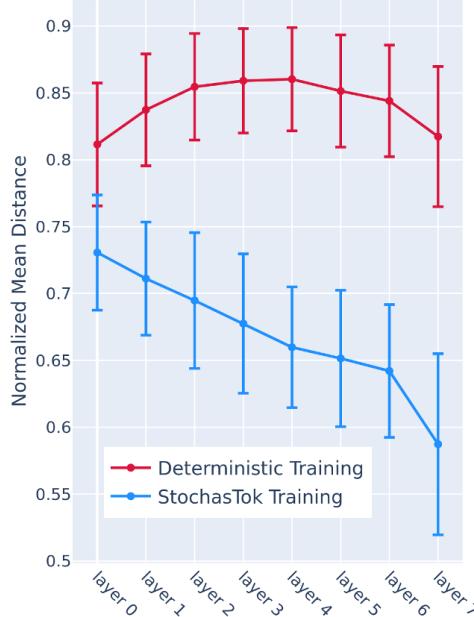


Figure 13: STOCHASTOK-trained models progressively map equivalent tokenizations closer together.

8 RELATED WORK

Subtoken-level understanding. Numerous papers have studied LLMs’ surprisingly poor ability on subword-level tasks (Xu & Ma, 2024; Fu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024; Shin & Kaneko, 2024; Edman et al., 2024; Marjeh et al., 2025; Kaushal & Mahowald, 2022; Itzhak & Levy, 2021, *inter alia*). However, solving these tasks remains challenging, despite improvements to core capabilities and reasoning in other measured benchmarks.

Stochastic Tokenization. Stochastic variants have been proposed for many tokenizers, including BPE-dropout for BPE (see Section 2), MaxMatch-dropout (Hiraoka, 2022) for WordPiece (Schuster & Nakajima, 2012), LCP-dropout (Nonaka et al., 2022) for LCP (Cormode & Muthukrishnan, 2002), and Subword Regularization and STM (Hiraoka et al., 2019) for Unigram (see Section 2). These prior methods are all tokenizer-specific, for example MaxMatch-dropout randomly omits the longest next subword when tokenizing with WordPiece, while LCP-dropout adds stochasticity by randomly partitioning the input before applying LCP tokenization. Similarly, Subword Regularization and

³The activations after the final attention layer at the position of the last token for each word.

432 STM rely on Unigram’s unigram model for calculating tokenization probabilities using the FFBS
 433 or Viterbi algorithms (Scott, 2002; Viterbi, 1967), (but rather than choosing the highest probability
 434 tokenization, they instead sample from this distribution). Therefore, since almost all current LLMs
 435 use BPE tokenization, these methods are almost never applicable.

436 BPE-dropout is, therefore, the relevant baseline. As described in Section 3, compared to BPE-dropout,
 437 STOCHASTOK has several practical advantages: Firstly, to apply BPE-dropout, we require access to
 438 the exact merge hierarchy of the BPE tokenizer. By contrast, STOCHASTOK can be easily applied to
 439 any base tokenizer without any knowledge of the base tokenizer itself (it only requires knowledge
 440 of the model’s vocabulary—a property of the model). Secondly, STOCHASTOK can be applied at
 441 any stage of the LLM pipeline, even to pretrained models, since it preserves the same vocabulary as
 442 the original tokenizer. In contrast, switching between BPE and BPE-dropout changes the possible
 443 vocabulary, leading either to out-of-vocabulary tokens or requiring a change to the model. Finally,
 444 STOCHASTOK is essentially a lightweight processing step after tokenization, meaning it can be used
 445 in conjunction with fast, compiled implementations of base tokenizers. By contrast, BPE-dropout
 446 requires tokenizing from scratch and compiled implementations of BPE-dropout for predefined BPE
 447 tokenizers (i.e., a pre-specified vocabulary and merge hierarchy) are not readily available, thus often
 448 making BPE-dropout prohibitively expensive.

449 **Byte-level models.** An alternative line of work in improving character-level understanding is byte-
 450 level or ‘tokenizer-free’ models, which operate directly on characters. This approach removes the
 451 inductive bias imposed by tokenizers’ vocabularies and naturally handles unusual words and typos.
 452 However, the naïve approach is prohibitively inefficient due to increased sequence lengths. As a
 453 result, approaches such as hierarchical architectures, local convolutions, patching mechanisms, or
 454 auxiliary losses, are necessary to bring down the effective sequence lengths (Al-Rfou et al., 2019;
 455 Clark et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2023; Pagnoni et al., 2024). However, these come at the cost of added
 456 complexity and still substantially higher computational requirements (Xue et al., 2022; Nawrot
 457 et al., 2022). Consequently, tokenization-based models currently remain more compute-efficient, and
 458 more practical in general. With STOCHASTOK we enable models to get the benefits of byte-level
 459 understanding without needing to move to an alternate framework.

461 9 DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

463 While there are adoption costs with any changes to the LLM pipeline, STOCHASTOK minimizes
 464 these through its simplicity, wide compatibility, and demonstrated ability to be applied to existing
 465 pretrained models. Looking ahead, a valuable addition would be to apply STOCHASTOK’s on a
 466 larger scale to investigate other potential benefits, such as greater robustness to spelling mistakes and
 467 other general improvements. In this paper, we focus only on English, and it would also be interesting
 468 to explore the effect of STOCHASTOK on languages with different alphabets, structure, and levels
 469 of morphology. Finally, combining STOCHASTOK with recent orthogonal advances in tokenization,
 470 such as Liu et al. (2025), represents another promising direction for future research.

473 10 CONCLUSION

475 Our experiments demonstrate that incorporating STOCHASTOK at any stage of training dramatically
 476 enhances language models’ ability to represent subword-level structures central to human language
 477 perception. Tokenization has recently received less attention than other methods, such as finetuning
 478 and prompting techniques, since its position at the start of the pretraining pipeline often makes
 479 experimentation prohibitively expensive. Our work shows that tokenization modifications can be
 480 exceptionally effective, not only at the pre-training stage but also in the continued pre-training
 481 and post-training stages. Our efficient, cheap changes can help fix pervasive idiosyncrasies and
 482 lead to significant improvements in language understanding. Given the stark performance benefits
 483 demonstrated here, we are excited to assess the impact of STOCHASTOK on more challenging tasks
 484 such as coding, algebra, or scientific reasoning when applied to more capable models. We hope our
 485 work encourages renewed exploration of tokenization schemes to bridge the gap between human and
 machine language perception.

486 REFERENCES
487

488 Marah Abdin, Jyoti Aneja, Hany Awadalla, Ahmed Awadallah, Ammar Ahmad Awan, Nguyen Bach,
489 Amit Bahree, Arash Bakhtiari, Jianmin Bao, Harkirat Behl, et al. Phi-3 technical report: A highly
490 capable language model locally on your phone. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2404.14219*, 2024. 2

491 Josh Achiam, Steven Adler, Sandhini Agarwal, Lama Ahmad, Ilge Akkaya, Florencia Leoni Aleman,
492 Diogo Almeida, Janko Altenschmidt, Sam Altman, Shyamal Anadkat, et al. Gpt-4 technical report.
493 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08774*, 2023. 1

494 Rami Al-Rfou, Dokook Choe, Noah Constant, Mandy Guo, and Llion Jones. Character-level
495 language modeling with deeper self-attention. In *Proceedings of the AAAI conference on artificial
496 intelligence*, volume 33, pp. 3159–3166, 2019. 9

497 Stella Biderman, Hailey Schoelkopf, Quentin Gregory Anthony, Herbie Bradley, Kyle O’Brien, Eric
498 Hallahan, Mohammad Aflah Khan, Shivanshu Purohit, USVSN Sai Prashanth, Edward Raff, et al.
499 Pythia: A suite for analyzing large language models across training and scaling. In *International
500 Conference on Machine Learning*, pp. 2397–2430. PMLR, 2023. 2

501 Jonathan H Clark, Dan Garrette, Iulia Turc, and John Wieting. Canine: Pre-training an efficient
502 tokenization-free encoder for language representation. *Transactions of the Association for Compu-
503 tational Linguistics*, 10:73–91, 2022. 9

504 Peter Clark, Isaac Cowhey, Oren Etzioni, Tushar Khot, Ashish Sabharwal, Carissa Schoenick, and
505 Oyvind Tafjord. Think you have solved question answering? try arc, the ai2 reasoning challenge.
506 *arXiv preprint arXiv:1803.05457*, 2018. 19

507 Graham Cormode and S. Muthukrishnan. The string edit distance matching problem with moves.
508 *ACM Trans. Algorithms*, 2002. 8

509 AP Dempster, NM Laird, and DB Rubin. Maximum likelihood from incomplete data via the em
510 algorithm. *Journal of the royal statistical society: series B (methodological)*, 1977. 2

511 Abhimanyu Dubey, Abhinav Jauhri, Abhinav Pandey, Abhishek Kadian, Ahmad Al-Dahle, Aiesha
512 Letman, Akhil Mathur, Alan Schelten, Amy Yang, Angela Fan, et al. The llama 3 herd of models.
513 *arXiv preprint arXiv:2407.21783*, 2024. 1, 2

514 Lukas Edman, Helmut Schmid, and Alexander Fraser. Cute: Measuring llms’ understanding of their
515 tokens. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2409.15452*, 2024. 2, 5, 8, 17

516 Tairan Fu, Raquel Ferrando, Javier Conde, Carlos Arriaga, and Pedro Reviriego. Why do large
517 language models (llms) struggle to count letters? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.18626*, 2024. 8

518 Aaron Gokaslan and Vanya Cohen. Openwebtext corpus. [http://Skylion007.github.io/
519 OpenWebTextCorpus](http://Skylion007.github.io/OpenWebTextCorpus), 2019. 19

520 Dirk Groeneveld, Iz Beltagy, Pete Walsh, Akshita Bhagia, Rodney Kinney, Oyvind Tafjord,
521 Ananya Harsh Jha, Hamish Ivison, Ian Magnusson, Yizhong Wang, et al. Olmo: Accelerat-
522 ing the science of language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2402.00838*, 2024. 2

523 Daya Guo, Dejian Yang, Haowei Zhang, Junxiao Song, Ruoyu Zhang, Runxin Xu, Qihao Zhu,
524 Shirong Ma, Peiyi Wang, Xiao Bi, et al. Deepseek-r1: Incentivizing reasoning capability in llms
525 via reinforcement learning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2501.12948*, 2025. 2

526 Dylan Hillier, Leon Guertler, Cheston Tan, Palaash Agrawal, Chen Ruirui, and Bobby Cheng. Super
527 tiny language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.14159*, 2024. 4, 6, 17, 19

528 Tatsuya Hiraoka. Maxmatch-dropout: Subword regularization for wordpiece. *arXiv preprint
529 arXiv:2209.04126*, 2022. 8

530 Tatsuya Hiraoka, Hiroyuki Shindo, and Yuji Matsumoto. Stochastic tokenization with a language
531 model for neural text classification. In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association
532 for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 1620–1629, 2019. 8

540 Aaron Hurst, Adam Lerer, Adam P Goucher, Adam Perelman, Aditya Ramesh, Aidan Clark, AJ Os-
 541 trow, Akila Welihinda, Alan Hayes, Alec Radford, et al. Gpt-4o system card. *arXiv preprint*
 542 *arXiv:2410.21276*, 2024. 1, 6

543 Itay Itzhak and Omer Levy. Models in a spelling bee: Language models implicitly learn the character
 544 composition of tokens. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2108.11193*, 2021. 8

545 Aaron Jaech, Adam Kalai, Adam Lerer, Adam Richardson, Ahmed El-Kishky, Aiden Low, Alec
 546 Helyar, Aleksander Madry, Alex Beutel, Alex Carney, et al. Openai o1 system card. *arXiv preprint*
 547 *arXiv:2412.16720*, 2024. 1

548 Albert Q Jiang, Alexandre Sablayrolles, Arthur Mensch, Chris Bamford, Devendra Singh Chaplot,
 549 Diego de las Casas, Florian Bressand, Gianna Lengyel, Guillaume Lample, Lucile Saulnier, et al.
 550 Mistral 7b. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2310.06825*, 2023. 2

551 Keller Jordan, Jeremy Bernstein, Brendan Rappazzo, @fernbear.bsky.social, Boza Vlado,
 552 You Jiacheng, Franz Cesista, Braden Koszarsky, and @Grad62304977. modded-nanogpt:
 553 Speedrunning the nanogpt baseline, 2024a. URL <https://github.com/KellerJordan/modded-nanogpt>. 6, 19, 20

554 Keller Jordan, Yuchen Jin, Vlado Boza, You Jiacheng, Franz Cesista, Laker Newhouse, and Jeremy
 555 Bernstein. Muon: An optimizer for hidden layers in neural networks, 2024b. URL <https://kellerjordan.github.io/posts/muon/>. 6

556 Ayush Kaushal and Kyle Mahowald. What do tokens know about their characters and how do they
 557 know it? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2206.02608*, 2022. 8

558 Taku Kudo. Subword regularization: Improving neural network translation models with multiple sub-
 559 word candidates. In *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational*
 560 *Linguistics*, pp. 66–75, 2018. 2, 3

561 Nayoung Lee, Kartik Sreenivasan, Jason D Lee, Kangwook Lee, and Dimitris Papailiopoulos.
 562 Teaching arithmetic to small transformers. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2307.03381*, 2023. 2, 6, 18

563 Alisa Liu, Jonathan Hayase, Valentin Hofmann, Sewoong Oh, Noah A Smith, and Yejin Choi.
 564 Superbpe: Space travel for language models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2503.13423*, 2025. 9

565 Raja Marjieh, Veniamin Veselovsky, Thomas L Griffiths, and Ilia Sucholutsky. What is a number,
 566 that a large language model may know it? *arXiv preprint arXiv:2502.01540*, 2025. 8

567 Piotr Nawrot, Jan Chorowski, Adrian Łaćucki, and Edoardo M Ponti. Efficient transformers with
 568 dynamic token pooling. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2211.09761*, 2022. 9

569 Keita Nonaka, Kazutaka Yamanouchi, Tomohiro I, Tsuyoshi Okita, Kazutaka Shimada, and Hiroshi
 570 Sakamoto. A compression-based multiple subword segmentation for neural machine translation.
 571 *Electronics*, 2022. 8

572 Artidoro Pagnoni, Ram Pasunuru, Pedro Rodriguez, John Nguyen, Benjamin Muller, Margaret Li,
 573 Chunting Zhou, Lili Yu, Jason Weston, Luke Zettlemoyer, et al. Byte latent transformer: Patches
 574 scale better than tokens. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2412.09871*, 2024. 9

575 Guilherme Penedo, Hynek Kydlíček, Loubna Ben allal, Anton Lozhkov, Margaret Mitchell, Colin
 576 Raffel, Leandro Von Werra, and Thomas Wolf. The fineweb datasets: Decanting the web for
 577 the finest text data at scale. In *The Thirty-eight Conference on Neural Information Processing*
 578 *Systems Datasets and Benchmarks Track*, 2024. URL <https://openreview.net/forum?id=n6SCkn2QaG>. 6, 19

579 Alethea Power, Yuri Burda, Harri Edwards, Igor Babuschkin, and Vedant Misra. Grokking: General-
 580 ization beyond overfitting on small algorithmic datasets. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2201.02177*, 2022.
 581 6

582 Ivan Provilkov, Dmitrii Emelianenko, and Elena Voita. Bpe-dropout: Simple and effective subword
 583 regularization. In *Proceedings of the 58th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational*
 584 *Linguistics*, pp. 1882–1892, 2020. 1, 2, 3

594 Alec Radford, Jeffrey Wu, Rewon Child, David Luan, Dario Amodei, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Language
 595 models are unsupervised multitask learners. *OpenAI blog*, 2019. 7
 596

597 Keisuke Sakaguchi, Ronan Le Bras, Chandra Bhagavatula, and Yejin Choi. Winogrande: An
 598 adversarial winograd schema challenge at scale. *Communications of the ACM*, 64(9):99–106, 2021.
 599 19

600 Mike Schuster and Kaisuke Nakajima. Japanese and korean voice search. In *2012 IEEE International*
 601 *Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP)*, pp. 5149–5152, 2012. 8, 14
 602

603 Steven Scott. Bayesian methods for hidden markov models. *Journal of the American Statistical*
 604 *Association*, 2002. 9

605 Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. Neural machine translation of rare words with
 606 subword units. In *Proceedings of the 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational*
 607 *Linguistics*, pp. 1715–1725, 2016. 1, 2

608 Andrew Shin and Kunitake Kaneko. Large language models lack understanding of character compo-
 609 sition of words. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2405.11357*, 2024. 8
 610

611 Gemini Team, Rohan Anil, Sebastian Borgeaud, Jean-Baptiste Alayrac, Jiahui Yu, Radu Soricut,
 612 Johan Schalkwyk, Andrew M Dai, Anja Hauth, Katie Millican, et al. Gemini: a family of highly
 613 capable multimodal models. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2312.11805*, 2023. 1

614 Gemma Team, Morgane Riviere, Shreya Pathak, Pier Giuseppe Sessa, Cassidy Hardin, Surya
 615 Bhupatiraju, Léonard Hussenot, Thomas Mesnard, Bobak Shahriari, Alexandre Ramé, et al.
 616 Gemma 2: Improving open language models at a practical size. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2408.00118*,
 617 2024. 2

618 A. Viterbi. Error bounds for convolutional codes and an asymptotically optimum decoding algorithm.
 619 *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, 1967. 2, 9

620 Alex Warstadt, Alicia Parrish, Haokun Liu, Anhad Mohananey, Wei Peng, Sheng-Fu Wang, and
 621 Samuel R Bowman. Blimp: The benchmark of linguistic minimal pairs for english. *Transactions*
 622 *of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, pp. 377–392, 2020. 19
 623

624 Nan Xu and Xuezhe Ma. Llm the genius paradox: A linguistic and math expert’s struggle with simple
 625 word-based counting problems. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.14166*, 2024. 8
 626

627 Linting Xue, Aditya Barua, Noah Constant, Rami Al-Rfou, Sharan Narang, Mihir Kale, Adam
 628 Roberts, and Colin Raffel. Byt5: Towards a token-free future with pre-trained byte-to-byte models.
 629 *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 10:291–306, 2022. 9
 630

631 An Yang, Baosong Yang, Beichen Zhang, Binyuan Hui, Bo Zheng, Bowen Yu, Chengyuan Li,
 632 Dayiheng Liu, Fei Huang, Haoran Wei, et al. Qwen2. 5 technical report. *arXiv preprint*
 633 *arXiv:2412.15115*, 2024. 2

634 Lili Yu, Dániel Simig, Colin Flaherty, Armen Aghajanyan, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Mike Lewis.
 635 Megabyte: Predicting million-byte sequences with multiscale transformers. *Advances in Neural*
 636 *Information Processing Systems*, 36:78808–78823, 2023. 9

637 Rowan Zellers, Ari Holtzman, Yonatan Bisk, Ali Farhadi, and Yejin Choi. HellaSwag: Can a machine
 638 really finish your sentence? In *Proceedings of the 57th Annual Meeting of the Association for*
 639 *Computational Linguistics*, 2019. 19
 640

641 Xiang Zhang, Juntai Cao, and Chenyu You. Counting ability of large language models and impact of
 642 tokenization. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2410.19730*, 2024. 6, 8
 643
 644
 645
 646
 647

648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

656
657
658
659
660
661
662
663
664
665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701

TABLE OF CONTENTS

A Tokenizers	14
A.1 BPE Tokenization	14
A.2 Unigram Tokenization	14
A.3 STOCHASTOK Tokenization - Pseudocode	14
A.4 STOCHASTOK Tokenization - Another Illustrative Example	15
B Language Game and Math Datasets	16
B.1 LangGame	16
B.2 CUTE Benchmark	17
B.3 Multi-Digit Addition	18
C Training Setups	19
C.1 50M Parameter Model Setup	19
C.2 275M Parameter Model Setup	19
C.3 GPT-2 Continued Pretraining Setup	19
D Analysis Details	21
D.1 Different Prompt Completions Setup	21
D.2 Embedding Visualization Setup	21
D.3 Distance Over Layers Visualization Setup	21

702 A TOKENIZERS
703704 A.1 BPE TOKENIZATION
705706 **Construction**

707 The tokenizer is constructed by initializing the vocabulary as individual characters and then iteratively
708 adding the most frequent adjacent token pair in the ‘training dataset’ until the desired vocabulary size
709 is reached. This yields a vocabulary and a hierarchy of merge rules.

710 **Encoding**

711 The dataset is initially tokenized as individual characters. Pairs of tokens are then merged according
712 to the hierarchy of merge rules until there are no more merges available.⁴

713 **Decoding**

714 The text strings corresponding to each token ID are simply looked up and joined together.

716 A.2 UNIGRAM TOKENIZATION
717718 **Construction**

719 In contrast to BPE, Unigram starts with a large candidate vocabulary of possible subword units
720 and removes elements to get down to the desired vocabulary size. Tokens are removed from the
721 vocabulary by modeling the dataset as a Unigram model and removing the token that results in the
722 smallest increase in log-likelihood of the dataset considering all possible tokenizations. This relies
723 on using the Viterbi algorithm to compute probabilities of all possible tokenizations. It also relies
724 on using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) to optimize the vocabulary and the probability of the
725 dataset simultaneously. The result is a vocabulary and corresponding probabilities of each token (i.e.,
726 a Unigram model of the dataset).

727 **Encoding**

728 All possible tokenizations are considered, and the one with the highest probability under the unigram
729 model is chosen. This involves using the Viterbi algorithm to find the highest probability tokenization.

730 **Decoding**

731 Same as BPE: The text strings corresponding to each token ID are simply looked up and joined
732 together.

734 A.3 STOCHASTOK TOKENIZATION - PSEUDOCODE

735 **Algorithm 1** STOCHASTOK: Construction of splits

1: Require: Tokenizer (e.g. tiktoken’s GPT-2 tokenizer)	
2: $\mathcal{V} \leftarrow$ Tokenizer vocabulary	
3: $\text{splits} \leftarrow \{\}$	Initialize an empty dictionary
4: for each token s in \mathcal{V} do	
5: $t \leftarrow \text{encode}(s)$	Get the token id
6: $\text{splits}[t] \leftarrow []$	Initialize empty list for this token
7: for each possible split index i from 1 to $\text{len}(s) - 1$ do	
8: $s_1, s_2 \leftarrow s[:i], s[i:]$	Split string s into two substrings
9: if s_1 and s_2 in \mathcal{V} then	
10: $t_1, t_2 \leftarrow \text{encode}(s_1), \text{encode}(s_2)$	If both substrings are in the vocab
11: $\text{splits}[t].append((t_1, t_2))$	Add this possible split
12: end if	
13: end for	
14: end for	

749
750
751
752
753
754
755 ⁴WordPiece (Schuster & Nakajima, 2012) can be seen as a variant of BPE with merges during encoding
chosen by token length rather than the original merge rules.

Algorithm 2 STOCHASTOK: Tokenization

```

756
757 1: Require: Tokenizer
758 2: Require: text: The input text to tokenize
759 3: Require: splits: Dictionary of possible splits for each token
760 4: Require: expand_prop: Expansion proportion (e.g. = 0.01)
761 5: tokenized  $\leftarrow$  Tokenizer(text) Apply standard tokenization
762 6: num_to_expand  $\leftarrow$  len(tokenized) * expand_prop
763 7: for _ in 1 ... num_to_expand do
764 8:   i  $\leftarrow$  randomInteger(1, len(tokenized)) Choose a random position
765 9:   t  $\leftarrow$  tokenized[i]
766 10:  if t in splits and splits[t] not empty then
767 11:    (t1, t2)  $\leftarrow$  randomChoice(splits[t]) Replace with a random split
768 12:    tokenized  $\leftarrow$  tokenized[1 : i - 1] + [t1, t2] + tokenized[i + 1 :]
769 13:  end if
770 14: end for
771 15: return: tokenized

```

A.4 STOCHASTOK TOKENIZATION - ANOTHER ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

Example vocabulary of base tokenizer:

```

772 vocabulary = [_, h, u, g, b, m, hu, ug, hug, bug]
773

```

Build token_splits which, for each token, contains a list of all possible pairs of component tokens that are themselves in the vocabulary.

```

774 token_splits = {
775   ug: [(u, g)],
776   hu: [(h, u)],
777   hug: [(h, ug), (hu, g)],
778   bug: [(b, ug)],
779   ugs: [(ug, s)]
780 }

```

Examples of possible expansions:

```

781 original: [hug]  $\rightarrow$  all possible expansions: [hu g], [h ug], [h u
782 g]
783
784 original: [bug]  $\rightarrow$  all possible expansions: [b ug], [b u g]
785
786 original: [m ug]  $\rightarrow$  all possible expansions: [m u g]
787
788
789
790
791
792
793
794
795
796
797
798
799
800
801
802
803
804
805
806
807
808
809

```

810 B LANGUAGE GAME AND MATH DATASETS

811
 812 In this section, we provide details of each of the three evaluation datasets: LangGame, CUTE, and
 813 multi-digit addition.

814
 815 **B.1 LANGGAME**

816
 817 We create a new benchmark, ‘LangGame,’ to test subword-level understanding in LLMs. LangGame
 818 is a multiple-choice based dataset, allowing for easy evaluation, and it is suitable for small models.
 819 Here, we describe its construction in detail. The language game consists of six types of questions:

820
 821 1. *Which word has the most letter ‘#’s?*
 822 2. *Which word contains ‘#’s?*
 823 3. *Which word starts with ‘#’s?*
 824 4. *Which word ends with ‘#’s?*
 825 5. *Which word is longest?*
 826 6. *Which word is shortest?*

827
 828 We include multiple phrasings for each type of question by constructing the question with a template
 829 and randomly replacing the placeholders.

830
 831 Question template:

832
 833 " <WHICH><WORD> <question>? <THE><OPTIONS><ARE>: <options>. Answer:
 834 <answer>."

835
 836 Synonyms for placeholders:

837
 838 <WHICH>: ["Which", "What"]
 839 <WORD>: ["word", "", "string", "option", "choice", "option word",
 840 "option string"]
 841 <THE>: ["The", "The possible", "The available"]
 842 <OPTIONS>: ["options", "choices", "option words", "option strings"]
 843 <ARE>: ["are", ""]

844
 845 This results in $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 4 \times 2 = 336$ possible phrasings for each question.

846
 847 Question strings are then chosen from:

848 "has the most letter ‘<AUX>’s?”,
 849 "contains ‘<AUX>’”,
 850 "starts with ‘<AUX>’”,
 851 "ends with ‘<AUX>’”,
 852 "is the longest”,
 853 "is the shortest”,

854
 855 Option words and answers are sampled randomly from the top 1k English words, and sub-strings for
 856 the "contains", "starts with", and "ends with" question types are sampled randomly from
 857 the answer with length ≥ 1 and \leq the answer length, and we generate 10k train and 1k validation
 858 examples. For the experiments in Figure 6, for the train and validation sets, substring lengths are \geq
 859 half the answer word length, and for the holdout set, substring lengths are $<$ half the answer word
 860 length. An example of each type of question is given in Table 1.

861
 862 We evaluate accuracy based on whether the probability of the correct option is the highest compared
 863 to all the alternative options in the question, but additionally when looking at generations, we find
 that the STOCHASTOK-finetuned models generate the correct answer over all other possible next
 tokens.

864
865 B.2 CUTE BENCHMARK866 We also evaluate on the Character-level Understanding of Tokens Evaluation (CUTE) benchmark (Ed-
867 man et al., 2024). CUTE contains 14 question types:
868

869	Task	Question	Answer
870	1 Spelling	Spell out the word: there	the re
871	2 Inverse Spelling	Write the word that is spelled out (no spaces): t h e r e	there
872	3 Contains Char	Is there a ‘c’ in ‘there’?	No
873	4 Contains Word	Is there ‘the’ in ‘the sky is blue’?	Yes
874	5 Orthographic	Closer in Levenshtein distance to ‘happy’: glad or apply?	apply
875	6 Semantic	More semantically related to ‘happy’: glad or apply?	glad
876	7 Char Insertion	Add ‘b’ after every ‘e’ in ‘there’	thebreb
877	8 Word Insertion	Add ‘is’ after every ‘the’ in ‘the sky is blue’	the is sky is blue
878	9 Char Deletion	Delete every ‘e’ in ‘there’	thr
879	10 Word Deletion	Delete every ‘the’ in ‘the sky is blue’	sky is blue
	11 Char Substitution	Replace every ‘e’ with ‘a’ in ‘there’	thara
	12 Word Substitution	Replace every ‘the’ with ‘is’ in ‘the sky is blue’	is sky is blue
	13 Char Swapping	Swap ‘t’ and ‘r’ in ‘there’	rhete
	14 Word Swapping	Swap ‘the’ and ‘is’ in ‘the sky is blue’	is sky the blue

880 Table 2: Examples of the CUTE benchmark of language composition, similarity, and manipulation tasks.
881882 We use the eight subword-level question types (types 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, and 13). The original
883 benchmark was designed for zero-shot evaluation of full-scale industrial models, and hence, it only
884 includes a test set. To evaluate our smaller pre-instruction finetuning models, we require additional
885 training examples for finetuning, hence we generate more questions for each of the eight types. We
886 generate questions by randomly sampling words from the top 1k English words. Consistent with the
887 multiple-choice format of the open-source baseline code (Hillier et al., 2024), we also create incorrect
888 answer options. For questions where the answer is an option in the question (question types 3 and 5),
889 the incorrect options are the other options in the question (e.g., Yes/No). For questions where the
890 answer is a word (question type 2), the incorrect options are other randomly sampled words from the
891 other top 1k English words. Finally, for the remaining question types where the answer is a sequence
892 of letters (question types 1, 7, 8, 11, 13), the incorrect options are generated by substituting and
893 reordering letters in the correct answer. Results on each of the individual CUTE tasks over training
894 are shown in Figure 14.
895
896
897
898
899
900
901
902
903
904
905
906
907
908
909
910
911
912
913
914
915
916
917

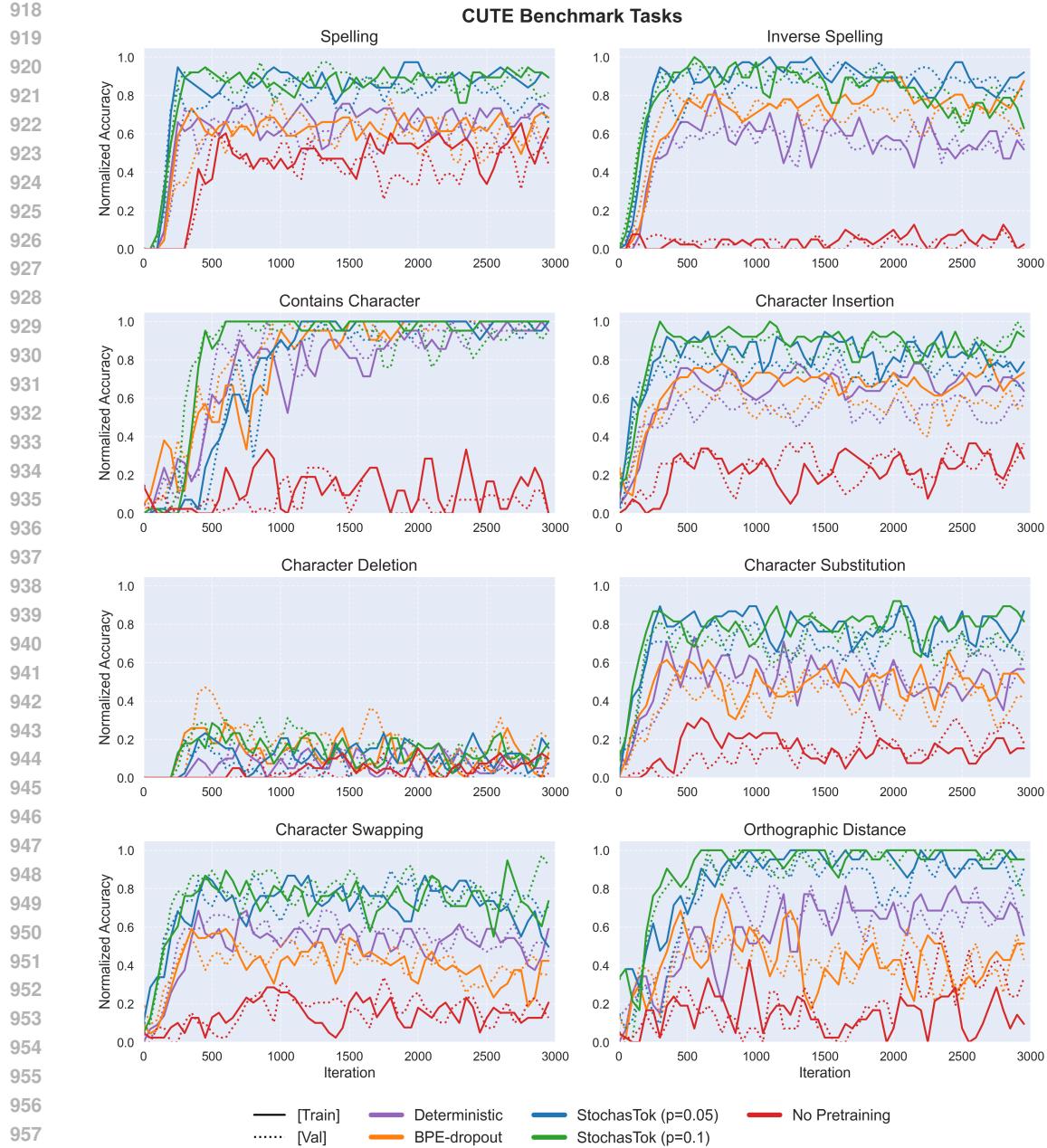


Figure 14: Performance on each of the tasks within the CUTE benchmark over training. (Accuracy normalized so that random guessing is zero.)

B.3 MULTI-DIGIT ADDITION

For the multi-digit addition experiments, we sampled pairs of integers up to 1000. The answer is reversed as per the procedure in Lee et al. (2023), and we then train on a stream of examples, e.g., '\$ 151+687=838 \$ 328+869=7911 \$ 752+917=9661 \$ 747+303=0501 \$ 857+579=6341 \$...' with the setup described in Section C.1.

972 C TRAINING SETUPS
973974 In this section, we provide full details of the training setups used in the paper. For STOCHASTOK’s
975 hyperparameter p , we find that careful tuning is not required and that any value between 0.01 and
976 0.2 gives good performance. Throughout the paper, we show results with $p = 0.1$ (and also include
977 $p = 0.05$ in some places as effectively an extra seed). For BPE-dropout, we use $p = 0.1$ as suggested
978 in the original paper.
979980 C.1 50M PARAMETER MODEL SETUP
981982 We build on the baseline 50M-parameter model setup in the open-source SuperTinyLanguageModels
983 repo (Hillier et al., 2024), which is trained on the OpenWebText dataset (Gokaslan & Cohen, 2019) and
984 uses the GPT-2 BPE tokenizer from the `tiktoken`⁵ library. The pretraining benchmarks evaluated
985 on (see Figure 3) are ARC (Clark et al., 2018), Blimp (Warstadt et al., 2020), HellaSwag (Zellers
986 et al., 2019), Winograd (Sakaguchi et al., 2021). The full set of hyperparameters for pretraining are
987 given in Table 3.
988

Model	
number of layers	8
ffn type	SwiGLU
ffn dimension	1320
number of attention heads	16
group size	4
hidden dim	512
tokenizer type	gpt2
vocab_size	50257
max context window	512
positional_encoding_type	RoPE
Training	
batch_size	480
total iterations	30000
warmup iterations	5000
dropout	0.1
Optimizer	
optimizer	AdamW
lr	6.0e-04
min_lr	6.0e-05
lr_scheduler	Cosine
weight_decay	0.1

1008 Table 3: The baseline setup as in Hillier et al. (2024)—a 50M-parameter transformer LLM.
10091010 For fine-tuning (as in Figure 4), we train for a further 3k iterations with a learning rate of 1.0e-04 on
1011 the LangGame or CUTE datasets. For continued pretraining (as in Figure 9) we similarly train for a
1012 further 3k iterations with learning rate 1.0e-04 on OpenWebText.
1013

1014 C.2 275M PARAMETER MODEL SETUP

1015 For the 275M parameter model, we follow Jordan et al. (2024a), training on FineWeb (Penedo et al.,
1016 2024) with the hyperparameter setup given in Table 4.
1017

1018 C.3 GPT-2 CONTINUED PRETRAINING SETUP

1019 We initialize the model from the publicly available pretrained weights and architecture on Huggingface
1020 at <https://huggingface.co/openai-community/gpt2>. For the continued pretraining,
1021 we train for 7k steps with a constant learning rate of $1.0e - 4$ and a batch size of 128. For the
1022 finetuning on LangGame tasks presented in Figure 10, we finetune for 2k steps, again with a constant
1023 learning rate of $1.0e - 3$ and a batch size of 512.
10241025 ⁵github.com/openai/tiktoken

Model	
1031	number of layers 12
1032	ffn type ReLU
1033	ffn dimension 768
1034	number of attention heads 6
1035	head dimension 128
1036	tokenizer type gpt2
1037	vocab_size 50257
1038	max context window 1024
1039	positional_encoding_type RoPE
Training	
1040	batch size 384
1041	total iterations 60000
1042	cooldown frac 0.4
Optimizer	
1043	weights optimizer Muon
1044	head, embeddings, biases optimizer AdamW
1045	head lr 0.044
1046	embeddings lr 0.12
1047	biases lr 0.008
1048	weights lr 0.01

Table 4: The baseline setup as in [Jordan et al. \(2024a\)](#)—a 275M-parameter transformer LLM. The changes made to the baseline are training for 60k iterations (as opposed to the 1770 iterations of the original baseline, since the baseline config was set up as a demo) and reducing all the learning rates by a factor of 5 (needed to stabilize training of all models when training for longer).

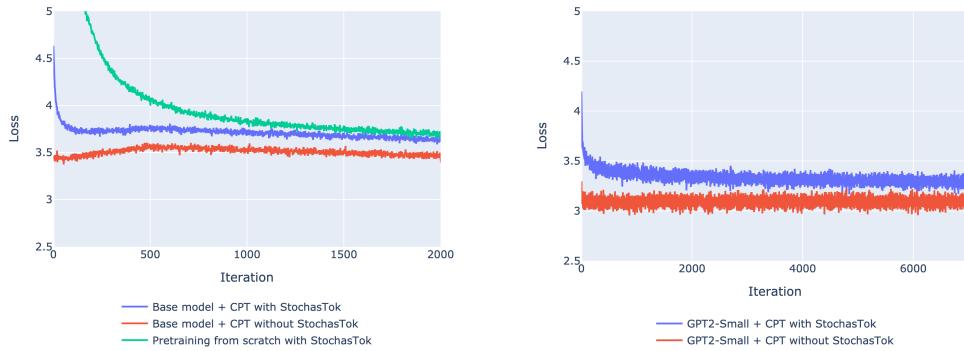


Figure 15: Training loss on OpenWebText during continued pretraining for the 50M STLM base model and GPT-2.

1080 D ANALYSIS DETAILS

1081
1082 In the following section, we provide additional details and results of the visualizations in Section 7.
1083

1084 D.1 DIFFERENT PROMPT COMPLETIONS SETUP

1085
1086 Further examples of completions from multiple different tokenizations of the same prompts are given
1087 in Figure 16. The prompts are generated by GPT-4o. We find that the deterministic tokenization-
1088 trained model is very sensitive to prompt tokenization and quickly breaks down when given alternative
1089 tokenizations of the same prompt. By contrast, the STOCHASTOK-trained model is much more robust
1090 to prompt tokenization.

1091 D.2 EMBEDDING VISUALIZATION SETUP

1092
1093 As described in the main text, the activations for a word are taken as the residual stream activations
1094 after the final transformer layer. If the word is tokenized into multiple tokens, we use the position
1095 of the final token. We use the standard procedure of normalizing to zero mean and unit standard
1096 deviation before fitting the PCA model.
1097

1098 D.3 DISTANCE OVER LAYERS VISUALIZATION SETUP

1099
1100 In Figure 13, we plot the mean distance between embeddings of different tokenizations of the same
1101 word over the layers of the model. For normalization to allow comparison between different models,
1102 we first normalize all embeddings to have unit length. We then evaluate the average distance between
1103 embeddings for pairs of different words in the model, and we divide by this average distance metric.
1104

Different prompt tokenizations	Deterministic Training	StochasTok Training
Deep in the forest , they found	a small , small , and	a small , white - tailed
Deep in the forest , they fou nd	own , and the water is	a small , white - tailed
De ep in the forest , th ey fo un d	, th ey fo un d	a small group of people who
D e ep in the forest , t hey found	a small , small , and	a small , white - tailed
Deep in the forest , they fou nd	own , and the water is	a small , white - tailed
De ep in the forest , the y found	the first evidence of the presence	a small , white - tailed
She stepped onto the stage , and the	crowd was cheering .	crowd was silent .
She step ped onto the stage , and the	ep , the crowd was cheering	crowd was silent .
S he stepped onto th e stage , and the	stage . . . "	crowd was silent .
She stepped on to the stage , a nd the	first time I saw him .	crowd was silent .
She ste pped onto the stage , a nd the	- t - t - t	crowd was silent .
S he stepped onto the stage , and the	sound of the sound of the	crowd was silent .
In the picture , the waves crashed against the	wall of the building , and	wall of the building , and
In the picture , the wave s cr ashed again st the	the wind , and the wind	wall , and the wind blew
In the picture , the waves cr ashed again st the	- t ung s .	wall , and the wind blew
In the picture , the waves cr ashed again st the	the waves . . . The	wall , and the ground was
In the picture , the waves crashed against the	wall . . . "	wall , and the ground shook
In the picture , the waves crashed again st the	, and the wind blew out	wall , and the ground shook
The scientist carefully adjusted the microscope , searching for	the source of the light .	the most common and most common
The scientist car efully adjusted the microscope , searching for	the source of the data .	the most common and most common
The scient ist carefully adjusted t he microscope , se arching f or	so a o - d ino	the most common and most common
The scient ist car efully adjusted the microscope , se arching for	the first time in a decade	the most common and most common
The scient ist car efully adjusted the microscope , searching for	the source of the gas .	the most common and most common
The scient ist car efully adjusted the microscope , se arching f or	so - shaped , and the	the most common cause of death
The journalist pressed record , ready to capture the	truth . . . ♦ ♦	truth . . . The story
The journalist pressed record , ready to capture t he	♦ ♦ s true identity .	truth . . . The story
The journalist pres sed record , ready to capt ure the	world . . . ♦ ♦	truth . . . The story
The journal ist pres sed record , ready to capture the	essence of the universe .	essence of the story .
The journalist pressed record , ready to capt ure the	- fi into the world of	truth . . . The story
The journalist pressed record , ready to capture t he	's face . . . "	truth . . . The story

1134	As the train departed, he remembered he had	to be in the car to	been in the train for a
1135	As the train departed, he remembered he had	... " I 'm	been in the train for a
1136	As the train departed, he remembered he had	been in the same boat .	been in the same boat as
1137	As the train departed, he remembered he had	a few words . . .	been in the train for a
1138	As the train departed, he remembered he had	been in the car .	been in the train for a
1139	As the train departed, he remembered he had	ited the name of the man	been in the train for a
1140	After years of training, she finally reached the	age of 16 . She was	point where she could be come
1141	After years of training, she finally reached the	- treat s . She	age of 18 . . .
1142	After years of training, she finally reached the	mark . She was a little	point where she was able to
1143	After years of training, she finally reached the	- t - t - t	age of 18 . . .
1144	After years of training, she finally reached the	point where she could see the	age of 18 . . .
1145	The detective examined the crime scene, looking for	- t et . . .	age of 18 . . .
1146	The detective examined the crime scene, looking for	a suspect who was in the	clues , and found that the
1147	The detective examined the crime scene, looking for	te to the crime scene ,	the suspects , and found that
1148	The detective examined the crime scene, looking for	, and the scene of the	the suspects , and found that
1149	The detective examined the crime scene, looking for	a few minutes , and then	clues to the identity of the
1150	He opened the ancient book and discovered a	gy , and the police .	clues to the identity of the
1151	He opened the ancient book and discovered a	The first time , and found	clues to the crime scene .
1152	He opened the ancient book and discovered a	new way of thinking about the	new way to read it .
1153	He opened the ancient book and discovered a	large , large , and very	new way to read the Bible
1154	He opened the ancient book and discovered a	ute ur , and the book	new kind of art .
1155	In the heart of the city, a storm	hem , the ancient world of	new kind of magic .
1156	In the heart of the city, a storm	- z - z - z	new way to read it .
1157	In the heart of the city, a storm	few years ago . . .	new way to read it .
1158	In the heart of the city, a storm	was expected to hit the city	of a few hundred people
1159	In the heart of the city, a storm	of the city was sweeping through	of a few hundred people
1160	In the heart of the city, a storm	was expected to hit the city	of protest s and protests erupted
1161	The spaceship hovered above the planet, and the	, and the storm .	of a few hundred people
1162	The spaceship hovered above the planet, and the	, and the storm , the	of a few hundred people
1163	The spaceship hovered above the planet, and the	ec an , the city of	of violence has been unleashed on
1164	The spaceship hovered above the planet, and the	ship was still in orbit .	planet was still in the distance
1165	The spaceship hovered above the planet, and the	was the first to see the	planet was a little more than
1166	The chef sighed and put the	ep , the planet was a	planet was still in the distance
1167	The chef sighed and put the	planet 's atmosphere , and the	planet was a little more than
1168	The chef sighed and put the	- t et hered , and	planet was a little more than
1169	The chef sighed and put the	two - story building was a	two - story building was a
1170	The chef sighed and put the	knife in his mouth . "	dish on the table .
1171		words . . . ♦ ♦	dish on the table .
1172		on the table and said ,	I 'm oustache on the
1173		au , and then he turned	dish on the table .
1174		words . " I 'm not	dish on the table .
1175		dish on the table and then	dish on the table .
1176			
1177			
1178			
1179			
1180			
1181			
1182			
1183			
1184			
1185			
1186			
1187			

Figure 16: Example responses with different tokenizations.