
000 TAB-MIA: A BENCHMARK DATASET FOR MEMBER- 001 SHIP INFERENCE ATTACKS ON TABULAR DATA IN 002 LLMs 003

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007 Paper under double-blind review
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ABSTRACT

012 Large language models (LLMs) are increasingly trained on tabular data, which,
013 unlike unstructured text, often contains personally identifiable information (PII) in
014 a highly structured and explicit format. As a result, privacy risks arise, since sensi-
015 tive records can be inadvertently retained by the model and exposed through data
016 extraction or membership inference attacks (MIAs). While existing MIA methods
017 primarily target textual content, their efficacy and threat implications may differ
018 when applied to structured data, due to its limited content, diverse data types,
019 unique value distributions, and column-level semantics. In this paper, we present
020 Tab-MIA, a benchmark dataset for evaluating MIAs on tabular data in LLMs and
021 demonstrate how it can be used. Tab-MIA comprises five data collections, each
022 represented in six different encoding formats. Using our Tab-MIA benchmark,
023 we conduct the first evaluation of state-of-the-art MIA methods on LLMs fine-
024 tuned with tabular data across multiple encoding formats. In the evaluation, we
025 analyze the memorization behavior of pretrained LLMs on structured data derived
026 from Wikipedia tables. Our findings show that LLMs memorize tabular data in
027 ways that vary across encoding formats, making them susceptible to extraction
028 via MIAs. Even when fine-tuned for as few as three epochs, models exhibit high
029 vulnerability, with AUROC scores approaching 90% in most cases. Tab-MIA en-
030 ables systematic evaluation of these risks and provides a foundation for developing
031 privacy-preserving methods for tabular data in LLMs.
032

1 INTRODUCTION

033 Large language models (LLMs) have emerged as core components of modern artificial intelligence
034 (AI) systems due to their advanced language understanding and generation capabilities, supporting
035 applications ranging from scientific discovery to natural, human-like interaction (Berti et al., 2025;
036 Wei et al., 2022). These models are typically trained on vast and diverse datasets comprised of web
037 content, academic publications, code repositories, and, increasingly, structured tabular data from
038 organizational and public databases (Fang et al., 2024a; Paranjape et al., 2023).
039

040 Tabular data, such as financial spreadsheets and electronic health records, serve as the basis of data-
041 driven workflows in healthcare, finance, public administration, and other sectors. Their structured
042 format—rows as entities and columns as attributes—helps both humans and machine learning mod-
043 els learn patterns, relationships, and statistical properties efficiently. While LLMs have traditionally
044 been developed and applied for unstructured textual data, recent research reflects the growing inter-
045 est in adapting LLMs to effectively process such structured inputs by representing tables in text-like
046 formats (Herzig et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2020; Narayan et al., 2022). This shift extends LLMs’
047 capabilities to reasoning tasks involving both unstructured and structured data. However, incorpo-
048 rating tabular data in the training set of an LLM poses unique challenges and risks. Tabular data
049 may contain personally identifiable information (PII), commercially sensitive material, or domain-
050 specific details that are not intended for broad dissemination (Yeom et al., 2018a; Zeng et al., 2024).
051 LLMs, including those trained on structured data, can memorize and leak sensitive records since
052 they are vulnerable to *membership inference attacks* (MIAs), in which an adversary attempts to de-
053 termine whether a particular record was included in the model’s training set (Shokri et al., 2017a;
Carlini et al., 2022a). These attacks typically rely on subtle differences in the model’s behavior

054 when queried with examples it has seen during training compared to unseen examples (Cao et al.,
055 2023; Hu et al., 2022).

056 MIAs on LLMs have been studied extensively in the context of textual data, where researchers
057 typically analyze confidence scores at the sentence- or paragraph-level to detect training set mem-
058 bership (Song et al., 2025; Duan et al., 2024). These studies generally assume that the models were
059 trained on free-form, unstructured text—such as natural language sentences and documents. Tabu-
060 lar data, which is often heterogeneous, may exhibit skewed value distributions and contain explicit
061 column-level semantics, making both the design of MIAs and the development of effective defenses
062 more challenging (Borisov et al., 2022a; Fang et al., 2024a).

063 Recent work has shown that generative models can effectively interpret, transform, and synthesize
064 tabular data (Zha et al., 2023), and other studies have shown that the choice of table encoding for-
065 mat—such as JSON, HTML, Markdown, or Key-Value Pair—can impact model performance (Fang
066 et al., 2024a). However, the studies primarily focused on improving task accuracy and generaliza-
067 tion, with comparatively little research attention given to understanding memorization risks or the
068 potential exploitation of tabular data through MIAs. Prior research has shown that LLM performance
069 is highly sensitive to the input format: for instance, DFLoader and JSON have been found effective
070 for fact-finding and transformation tasks (Singha et al., 2023), while HTML and XML outperform
071 plain-text formats like CSV or X-separated values in table QA and field-value prediction (Sui et al.,
072 2023; 2024a). This performance gap is often attributed to the prevalence of web-based markup (e.g.,
073 HTML) in the pretraining data of models like GPT-3.5 and GPT-4 (OpenAI, 2024b), making them
074 more effective at processing tables serialized in familiar, structured input styles.

075 In this paper, we present Tab-MIA, a benchmark dataset specifically designed to evaluate MIAs
076 against LLMs fine-tuned on tabular data. Tab-MIA includes five collections consisting of tables,
077 each represented in six different textual encoding formats. To our knowledge, this is the first com-
078 prehensive evaluation of MIAs on LLMs trained with structured tabular data across multiple encod-
079 ing formats. We systematically examine the sensitivity of LLMs to MIAs under various conditions,
080 including after fine-tuning with a limited number of epochs on tabular datasets, and in the pretrained
081 setting, where the pretrained model is assumed to be trained on a tabular subset of Wikipedia. In our
082 experiments, various configurations of models, data encodings, and training epochs are examined.

083 One evaluation shows that LLMs can memorize tabular data to a degree sufficient for effective mem-
084 bership inference. Notably, even when fine-tuned for as few as three epochs, attack success rates can
085 be high, with AUROC scores approaching 90%. We also observed partial transferability of attacks
086 across encoding formats, indicating that adversaries may succeed without exact knowledge of the
087 specific format used in training. These findings highlight the need for privacy-preserving training
088 practices when training LLMs on structured data. Our work broadens the scope of MIA research,
089 which has largely not focused on structured data, and highlights the need for privacy-preserving
090 strategies designed to address the challenges posed by the unique characteristics of tabular formats.

091 The main contributions of our paper are (1) we present the first benchmark dataset to evaluate MIAs
092 against LLMs trained on tabular data; (2) we conduct the first evaluation of state-of-the-art (SOTA)
093 MIAs on LLMs fine-tuned with tabular data across multiple encoding formats; and (3) we analyze
094 the memorization behavior of recent SOTA LLMs on structured data derived from Wikipedia tables.

095 2 RELATED WORK

096 LLMs have demonstrated promising capabilities in handling structured data across tasks such as
097 tabular representation, question answering, and data generation. In this section, we review prior
098 work focused on: (1) MIAs on LLMs, (2) encoding-strategy-based methods for using tabular data
099 with LLMs, and (3) emerging risks when incorporating structured data into LLM training sets.

100 2.1 MEMBERSHIP INFERENCE ATTACKS ON LLMs

101 MIAs (Shokri et al., 2017b) aim to determine whether a given sample x is part of a training set
102 D_{train} of a model f . An attacker receives a sample x and the trained model f , and applies an attack
103 model A to classify x as a member $A(f(x)) = 1$, or non-member otherwise. MIAs against LLMs
104 have received increasing attention (Carlini et al., 2022b; Mattern et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024).

108 Recent studies categorized MIA methods into *reference-based* and *reference-free* approaches (Antebi et al., 2025). Reference-based attacks primarily rely on training shadow models to mimic the
109 target model’s behavior. A prominent example is LiRA (Carlini et al., 2022b), which estimates the
110 likelihood ratio of a sample’s loss under two model output distributions, one where the sample was
111 included in training and one where it was not. In addition, Carlini et al. (Carlini et al., 2023) show
112 that memorization in LLMs scales predictably with model size, data duplication, and context length,
113 providing strong empirical evidence of extractable training data and highlighting why reference-
114 based MIAs can succeed. While often effective, such methods are computationally expensive, as
115 they require training multiple shadow models and calibrating their outputs.
116

117 Reference-free attacks rely on confidence metrics derived from a single model’s output. The *LOSS*
118 *attack (PPL)* (Yeom et al., 2018b) infers membership based on the model’s loss value relative to
119 a fixed threshold. The *Zlib attack* (Carlini et al., 2021) uses the ratio of log-likelihood to its Zlib
120 compression length, while the *Neighbor attack* (Mattern et al., 2023) examines perplexity shifts
121 by substituting words with similar tokens generated by an auxiliary model. More recently, *Min-*
122 *K%* (Shi et al., 2024) and *Min-K%++* (Zhang et al., 2025) were shown to improve attack efficiency
123 by averaging the lowest probability tokens, with *Min-K%++* further applying normalization over
124 log probabilities. In addition, the authors of *RECALL* (Xie et al., 2024), *DC-PDD* (Zhang et al.,
125 2024), and *Tag&Tab* (Antebi et al., 2025) introduced more advanced strategies that improve MIA
126 performance on LLMs compared to other methods.
127
128

129 **2.2 LLMs AND TABULAR DATA**
130

132 Many enterprise and scientific datasets consist of tabular data, which is composed of rows and
133 columns of structured attributes (Fang et al., 2024b). Traditional tree-based models such as XG-
134 Boost (Chen & Guestrin, 2016) and LightGBM (Ke et al., 2017) have long been dominant for
135 tabular data tasks, particularly due to their effectiveness on small-to-medium sized datasets and
136 strong inductive biases for numerical features (Gorishniy et al., 2021). However, recent research
137 has explored the use of LLMs for tabular data applications, including classification, regression, data
138 augmentation, data generation, and table-based QA (Sui et al., 2024a; Borisov et al., 2022b; Ding
139 et al., 2023). LLMs use their strengths, such as in-context generalization and instruction following,
140 to better understand serialized tables, handle numeric or categorical features, and produce flexible
141 outputs, even in scenarios that conventional machine learning models struggle with. LLMs support
142 table-based tasks such as *Table QA*, *fact verification*, and *Text2SQL* (Chen, 2023a; Ye et al., 2023).
143 Earlier methods like TAPAS (Herzig et al., 2020) and TaBERT (Yin et al., 2020) used specialized en-
144 coders, while modern LLMs process table queries by serializing them as text or leveraging external
145 code calls (Sui et al., 2024a; Liu et al., 2023).
146

147 A central challenge in applying LLMs to tabular data lies in how to represent structured tables in a
148 text-based input format suitable for transformer architectures. Prior work proposed serializing tables
149 using various strategies, including natural language templates, JSON, Markdown, HTML, and Key-
150 Value Pair (Dinh et al., 2022; Slack & Singh, 2023; Jaitly et al., 2023). The choice of serialization
151 affects not only model performance but also how well the structure and semantics of the table are
152 preserved. For example, Hegselmann et al. (2023) proposed TabLLM, a method that systematically
153 evaluates multiple table encoding formats. Their evaluation showed that simple natural language
154 patterns, such as “The [column] is [value],” can yield strong performance across a range of tabular
155 classification tasks, likely due to their alignment with the model’s pretraining distributions.
156

157 Although LLMs can process moderately sized serialized tables, handling very large tables remains
158 challenging due to the transformers’ fixed-length context window. This restricts the amount of tabu-
159 lar data a model can process in a single input, making it difficult to handle large tables without parti-
160 tioning or truncation (Sui et al., 2024a;b), which can disrupt the model’s ability to capture long-range
161 dependencies and global relationships across rows and columns. To address this, compression-based
162 frameworks like SHEETENCODER (Dong et al., 2024) have been developed. SHEETENCODER
163 reduces the size of table inputs by selecting structural anchors, applying inverted-index translation to
164 remove redundancy, and aggregating similar numeric fields, thereby preserving important relational
165 information while remaining within context window limits.
166

162 While prior research optimized table serialization for accuracy and scalability, it largely overlooked
163 the privacy implications of different serialization strategies. Tab-MIA fills this gap by systematically
164 evaluating how encoding choices affect memorization and membership inference risk.
165

166 **2.3 PRIVACY RISKS WHEN TRAINING LLMs WITH STRUCTURED DATA**
167

168 Integrating structured tabular data in LLMs offers substantial benefits for data-driven reasoning,
169 enabling models to combine natural language understanding with structured data processing (Gor-
170 ishniy et al., 2021; Fang et al., 2024b). However, it also introduces distinct privacy and security
171 risks that differ from those encountered when training on unstructured text. A critical vulnerability
172 stems from the fact that tabular datasets often contain sensitive information, such as personal identi-
173 fiers, financial records, or medical details, that are highly susceptible to memorization (Carlini et al.,
174 2022b; Lukas et al., 2023). Even seemingly benign fields, when combined, can form distinctive pat-
175 terns that compromise individuals’ privacy. Once such information is memorized by a model, it may
176 be vulnerable to extraction via MIAs, exposing individual records or sensitive attributes (Carlini
177 et al., 2021).

178 While MIAs have been widely studied in the context of unstructured text corpora, such as books,
179 Wikipedia, and web documents (Xie et al., 2024; Antebi et al., 2025), there is a notable lack of
180 benchmark datasets for structured tabular data. Existing MIA benchmark datasets like BookMIA,
181 WikiMIA (Shi et al., 2024), and MIMIR (Duan et al., 2024) have helped characterize MIA risks
182 in textual domains, but they do not consider the unique structural format that is present in tabular
183 datasets. The MIDST benchmark (Membership Inference over Diffusion-models-based Synthetic
184 Tabular Data) (Organizers, 2025) extends this landscape by evaluating MIAs on diffusion models
185 trained to synthesize tabular data. However, MIDST focuses on privacy risks in synthetic data
186 generation, where sensitive records may be reconstructed from the denoising trajectory. In contrast,
187 our Tab-MIA benchmark addresses a different privacy risk: memorization of tabular records in
188 LLMs fine-tuned on serialized tables, where leakage occurs through token-level probabilities tied to
189 column semantics. This distinction highlights complementary attack surfaces. To address the LLM-
190 specific risk, our Tab-MIA benchmark evaluates membership inference on tabular datasets across
191 diverse encoding formats and LLM configurations.

192 **3 CONSTRUCTION OF THE TAB-MIA BENCHMARK**
193

194 Our goal in constructing the Tab-MIA benchmark is to facilitate the systematic evaluation of how
195 MIAs can be applied to extract the tabular data used to fine-tune LLMs. Unlike text-based bench-
196 marks, which focus on sentences or paragraphs, tabular benchmarks must handle heterogeneous
197 types of columns, various encoding formats, and repeated patterns across structurally similar tables.
198 By creating a controlled yet realistic set of tables from publicly available datasets, Tab-MIA enables
199 systematic evaluation of how different table-encoding strategies affect vulnerability to MIAs. We
200 use it to analyze how different formats affect memorization and attack performance.
201

202 **3.1 DATASETS**
203

204 The benchmark integrates real-world datasets widely used in language modeling and tabular ma-
205 chine learning, covering diverse structural characteristics and application domains. To enable sys-
206 tematic evaluation of MIA risks in LLMs fine-tuned using tabular data, Tab-MIA includes datasets
207 representing both **short-context** and **long-context** tables.
208

209 Short-context tables are derived from QA benchmarks in which each instance originally pairs a ques-
210 tion with a supporting table. In our setting, we discard the question text and retain only the *unique*
211 *tables* to focus on tabular memorization effects. We include WikiTableQuestions (WTQ) (Pasupat &
212 Liang, 2015), WikiSQL (Zhong et al., 2017), and TabFact (Chen et al., 2020). Long-context tables
213 are derived from structured tabular benchmarks frequently used in fairness, regression, and privacy
214 studies. We include the Adult (Census Income) dataset (Becker & Kohavi, 1996) and the California
215 Housing dataset (Pace & Barry, 1997). Due to input length limitations inherent to LLMs, long tables
216 are segmented into row-wise *chunks* sized to fit within the model’s context window while preserv-
217 ing structural coherence. A full summary of the datasets used in Tab-MIA, including record counts

216	
217	(a) JSON
218	[
219	{ "Name": "Alice", "Age": 30},
220	{ "Name": "Bob", "Age": 25},
221	{ "Name": "Carol", "Age": 28}
222]
223	(c) Markdown
224	Name Age
225	----- ----
226	Alice 30
227	Bob 25
228	Carol 28
229	(e) Key-is-Value
230	Name is Alice. Age is 30.
231	Name is Bob. Age is 25.
232	Name is Carol. Age is 28.
233	
234	(b) HTML
235	<table>
236	<tr><th>Name</th><th>Age</th></tr>
237	<tr><td>Alice</td><td>30</td></tr>
238	<tr><td>Bob</td><td>25</td></tr>
239	<tr><td>Carol</td><td>28</td></tr>
240	</table>
241	(d) Key-Value Pair
242	Name: Alice Age: 30
243	Name: Bob Age: 25
244	Name: Carol Age: 28
245	(f) Line-Separated
246	Name, Age
247	Alice, 30
248	Bob, 25
249	Carol, 28
250	

Figure 1: The same 3×2 table snippet serialized into the six encoding formats used in the Tab-MIA benchmark: (a) JSON, (b) HTML, (c) Markdown, (d) Key-Value Pair, (e) Key-is-Value, and (f) Line-Separated (CSV-like).

before and after filtering, feature dimensionality, context type (short or long), and data sources, is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of datasets used in Tab-MIA.

Name	Short/Long	# Records	# After Filter	# Features	Based On
WTQ	Short	2,108	1,290	≥ 5	Wikipedia
WikiSQL	Short	24,241	17,900	≥ 5	Wikipedia
TabFact	Short	16,573	13,100	≥ 5	Wikipedia
Adult (Census Income)	Long	48,842	2,440	15	US Census
California Housing	Long	20,640	1,030	10	US Housing Survey

3.2 DATA PREPARATION

To construct the Tab-MIA benchmark, we processed each of its constituent datasets using a standardized pipeline designed to ensure data quality, consistency, and experimental control. First, we perform a filtering and deduplication step to ensure that each table appears only once in the benchmark, preventing artificial inflation of the memorization signal due to repeated exposure. Next, we apply context-specific processing to match the model’s input length constraints. For *short-context tables*, we filter out any table whose serialized representation in the Line-Separated format exceeds 10,000 characters, removing overly large tables that could dominate training dynamics or introduce truncation artifacts. To accommodate *long-context tables*, we split each table into chunks of 20 records each to fit within the model’s input length constraints and maintain consistency across samples.

Each resulting table (or table chunk, in the case of long-context tables) is serialized into multiple textual formats to investigate how the encoding style influences memorization. We use six encoding strategies, each reflecting a different structural abstraction of the table (illustrated in Figure 1).

All encoded variants are saved as JSONL files to support reproducible experiments. Encoding each table in multiple ways enables us to systematically examine whether certain formats result in greater memorization by the model, and whether some styles are inherently more resistant to MIAs.

4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

We evaluate the vulnerability of fine-tuned LLMs to MIA under various configurations of models, data encodings, and training epochs. We fine-tune four SOTA open-weight language models

270 els—LLaMA-3.1 8B, LLaMA-3.2 3B (Meta Team, 2024), Gemma-3 4B (Gemma Team,
 271 2025), and Mistral 7B (Jiang et al., 2023)—which have diverse training objectives, tokenizer
 272 variants, and parameter scales. All models are trained using QLoRA (Dettmers et al., 2023), a
 273 parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) method leveraging 4-bit quantized weights. Unless other-
 274 wise specified, models are fine-tuned for three epochs; however, in our analysis of training length,
 275 we also explore the effect of varying the number of epochs between one and three. In each train-
 276 ing run, half of the tables are used as member records while the remainder serve as non-members.
 277 Additional details on the hyperparameters are provided in Appendix A.1.

278 To assess the privacy risk, we consider three black-box MIAs: the *LOSS attack (PPL)* (Yeom et al.,
 279 2018b), which relies on negative log-likelihood scores; the *Min-K% attack* (Shi et al., 2024), which
 280 averages the lowest $k\%$ token probabilities to identify memorized content; and *Min-K%++ attack*
 281 (Zhang et al., 2025), which normalizes log probabilities before aggregation to examine robust-
 282 ness to length and calibration effects. For each attack, we report two standard metrics, AUROC and
 283 TPR@FPR=5% (Carlini et al., 2022b), measuring detection performance across decision thresholds
 284 and under strict privacy constraints, respectively.

285 5 RESULTS

288 In this section, we present our empirical findings using the Tab-MIA benchmark to evaluate MIAs on
 289 tabular data in LLMs. The results highlight consistent trends in vulnerability driven by fine-tuning
 290 duration, encoding format, and model architecture.

292 5.1 EFFECT OF ENCODING FORMAT

294 Table 2: Comparison of the AUROC scores achieved by different MIA methods across table encod-
 295 ing formats and models on the *California Housing* dataset. Bold values indicate the highest score
 296 per row (encoding), while underlined values indicate the highest score per column (model-method
 297 pair).

299 Encoding Method	300 Llama-3.2 3B			301 Mistral 7B			302 Gemma-3 4B		
	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%
300 Markdown	60.60	60.90	72.00	65.60	73.10	80.00	59.10	64.10	67.80
301 JSON	59.60	59.60	53.00	61.40	61.40	54.50	58.40	58.40	55.00
302 HTML	59.70	59.70	55.80	61.70	61.70	50.60	59.10	61.20	55.40
303 Key-Value Pair	<u>62.80</u>	62.80	<u>78.70</u>	<u>72.40</u>	74.70	92.60	59.30	60.80	67.00
303 Key-is-Value	60.20	60.20	55.10	63.70	65.00	74.90	59.20	60.60	66.70
303 Line-Separated	61.60	<u>64.90</u>	77.20	69.70	<u>84.90</u>	86.80	<u>62.30</u>	<u>72.10</u>	<u>73.80</u>

304 Table 3: Comparison of the AUROC scores achieved by different MIA methods across table encod-
 305 ing formats and models on the *WTQ* dataset. Bold values indicate the highest score per row
 306 (encoding), while underlined values indicate the highest score per column (model-method pair).

309 Encoding Method	310 Llama-3.2 3B			311 Mistral 7B			312 Gemma-3 4B		
	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%	PPL	Min-K 20.0%	Min-K++ 20.0%
310 Markdown	68.00	69.50	85.30	87.00	88.40	94.20	73.70	74.80	86.70
311 JSON	67.10	67.50	79.80	79.40	79.60	82.70	70.70	71.00	79.20
312 HTML	66.30	66.60	79.70	82.80	83.00	92.90	72.10	72.80	83.30
313 Key-Value Pair	67.00	67.80	83.50	85.00	85.70	94.90	72.80	73.80	85.50
313 Key-is-Value	67.00	67.90	83.70	83.60	84.20	89.70	72.30	73.20	85.00
314 Line-Separated	<u>70.40</u>	<u>72.40</u>	<u>89.70</u>	<u>87.30</u>	<u>90.40</u>	97.70	<u>74.70</u>	<u>76.50</u>	<u>89.60</u>

315 Textual encoding shapes the way tabular structures are presented to LLMs and can influence their
 316 tendency to memorize data. In this experiment, we fine-tuned the models and executed the MIAs
 317 on the datasets, using different encoding formats to assess their impact on the privacy risk. Ta-
 318 bles 2 and 3 present the AUROC scores for MIAs on the *California Housing* (long-context) and
 319 *WTQ* (short-context) datasets, using the six examined encoding formats. On both datasets, the *Line-*
 320 *Separated* and *Key-Value Pair* formats exhibit the greatest vulnerability to membership inference.
 321 On the *WTQ* dataset, an AUROC of 97.7% with Mistral 7B was obtained using the *Line-Separated*
 322 format, and on the *California Housing* dataset, an AUROC of 92.6% was achieved using the *Key-*
 323 *Value Pair* format. These findings show that encoding format impacts the privacy risk. Flat, row-
 based encodings like *Line-Separated* and *Key-Value Pair* produce long, continuous sequences of

content tokens that align closely with tokenizer boundaries. This structure concentrates learning on individual cell values, increasing the likelihood of memorization—resulting in the highest AUROC scores across datasets and MIA methods. In contrast, formats such as HTML and JSON introduce structural redundancy via tags and punctuation. This disperses model attention across non-content tokens, leading to lower AUROC scores—typically 10 points lower—indicating reduced memorization. Intermediate formats like Key-is-Value and Markdown strike a balance between structural clarity and redundancy, yielding moderate vulnerability. These results align with theoretical analyses showing that memorization risk increases with the effective input context length (Carlini et al., 2022b; 2023). Additional results are available in Appendix A.3.

5.2 EFFECT OF THE NUMBER OF FINE-TUNING EPOCHS

Table 4: AUROC scores for the *Min-K++ 20.0%* MIA on each dataset, evaluated on tables encoded in the Line-Separated format, as a function of the number of fine-tuning epochs. Bold values highlight the best-performing dataset per row.

Model	# Epochs	Adult	California	WTQ	WikiSQL	TabFact
LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	55.10	59.00	61.60	64.50	64.90
	2	60.00	72.80	80.80	78.60	79.60
	3	71.10	87.80	93.60	88.90	89.90
Llama-3.2 3B	1	54.10	57.70	57.60	61.50	61.50
	2	58.00	66.80	74.80	73.60	73.40
	3	64.40	77.20	89.70	83.20	80.40
Mistral 7B	1	54.60	57.80	69.70	67.50	68.50
	2	58.90	70.30	88.40	80.00	81.20
	3	71.50	86.80	97.70	87.80	89.90
Gemma-3 4B	1	53.90	54.30	59.30	62.60	63.30
	2	58.90	62.50	77.00	76.60	77.90
	3	67.70	73.80	89.60	86.10	87.40

Table 5: MIA results on the *WikiSQL* dataset for all examined models fine-tuned for 1, 2, and 3 epochs. Tables are encoded in the Line-Separated format. Bold values highlight the best-performing method per row.

Model	# Epochs	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
Llama-3.2 3B	1	55.90	7.40	56.40	7.60	61.50	7.90
	2	62.50	10.80	63.70	11.10	73.60	14.40
	3	69.40	15.90	71.20	16.10	83.20	25.30
LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	58.10	8.70	58.60	8.60	64.50	10.60
	2	67.20	15.20	68.40	15.30	78.60	22.80
	3	76.50	25.30	78.10	25.90	88.90	40.20
Mistral 7B	1	60.10	9.60	61.30	9.90	67.50	14.10
	2	68.40	15.40	70.50	16.60	80.00	26.20
	3	75.10	22.20	77.60	23.80	87.80	42.90
Gemma-3 4B	1	56.20	7.40	56.60	7.60	62.60	8.70
	2	64.00	11.30	64.90	11.70	76.60	18.60
	3	72.50	17.60	73.90	18.70	86.10	34.30

MIAs generally rely on the assumption that models are expected to exhibit greater memorization of training data as the number of fine-tuning epochs increases. This motivates examining how the number of fine-tuning epochs impacts privacy leakage for various models and attack methods. To this end, we fine-tuned each model for 1, 2, and 3 epochs on the tabular datasets included in our benchmark and evaluated the MIAs’ success. For this experiment, the tables were serialized into the Line-Separated encoding format.

Table 4 presents the results for the *Min-K++ 20.0%* MIA for each of the datasets. We observe a consistent and substantial increase in vulnerability as the number of fine-tuning epochs grows. This trend holds across all models and datasets. The effect is especially pronounced in short-context

378 datasets, particularly on the *WTQ* dataset, where AUROC scores reach as high as 97.7% with Mistral
379 7B after three epochs and exceed 89.6% across all models. In contrast, long-context datasets exhibit
380 more moderate vulnerability. For example, on the *Adult* dataset, the highest AUROC is 71.5% with
381 Mistral 7B, and on *California Housing*, the highest result is 87.8% with LLaMA-3.1 8B. Table 5,
382 which compares the performance of the examined attacks on the *WikiSQL* dataset, illustrates the
383 trends discussed above in greater detail. For all attacks, as fine-tuning progresses, vulnerability
384 increases, with higher AUROC scores obtained as the number of epochs grew across models. Among
385 them, *Min-K++ 20.0%* consistently performs the best, achieving an AUROC of 88.9 with LLaMA-
386 3.1 8B and 87.8 with Mistral 7B. Additional results for the remaining datasets and attack methods
387 are provided in Appendix A.2.

388 MIAs generally achieve higher AUROC scores against larger models such as LLaMA-3.1 8B and
389 Mistral 7B, compared to smaller models like LLaMA-3.2 3B and Gemma-3 4B. For ex-
390 ample, after fine-tuning for three epochs, with tables encoded using the Line-Separated format on
391 the California Housing dataset, the *Min-K++ 20.0%* MIA achieves AUROC scores of 86.8% and
392 87.8% respectively with Mistral 7B and LLaMA-3.1 8B, compared to 77.2% and 73.8% with
393 LLaMA-3.2 3B and Gemma-3 4B. Chen (2023b) found that larger models offer clear advan-
394 tages in table reasoning tasks, highlighting the performance benefits of increased scale. However,
395 our results reveal a corresponding privacy trade-off: larger models are also significantly more vul-
396 nerable to MIAs, with differences of nearly 10 to 14 percentage points in AUROC compared to
397 smaller LLMs. While prior work attributes such susceptibility to the greater memorization capacity
398 of LLMs (Carlini et al., 2023; 2021), our findings extend this observation to models fine-tuned on
399 tabular data, where increased model size correlates with greater leakage under MIAs.

400 5.3 CROSS-FORMAT GENERALIZATION 401

402 In this experiment, we examine whether tabular data learned during fine-tuning with one table en-
403 coding format remains detectable by MIAs applied using a different format. This scenario mirrors
404 real-world deployment settings, where the encoding format used during the model’s training is un-
405 known. To evaluate this, we fine-tuned the *Gemma-3 4B* model on the *TabFact* dataset using one
406 of the six encoding formats and executed the *Min-K++ 20.0%* attack. The results, shown in Fig-
407 ure 2, reveal partial cross-format generalization: memorization signals often persist even when the
408 evaluation format differs from the training format. Diagonal cells (where training and evaluation
409 formats match) tend to yield the highest AUROC values, confirming that MIAs are most effective
410 when structural representations align. For example, training and evaluating on the Markdown format
411 yields an AUROC of 85.2%, whereas switching the attack format to Key-Value or Line-Separated
412 reduces performance to 68.9% and 69.4%, respectively.

413 This aligns with prior findings by Kandpal et al. (Kandpal et al., 2022), who show that memorization
414 in LLMs is highly sensitive to the exact structure and representation of the training data: even small
415 deviations from the training representation—such as changes in format—can substantially reduce
416 the detectability of memorized content. Our results similarly show that misalignment between train-
417 ing and detection encodings weakens MIA performance, but importantly does not eliminate it. In
418 several cases, strong memorization signals persist across formats, indicating that LLMs can still leak
419 training information even when the attacker does not know the original encoding. This suggests that
420 cross-format generalization remains a meaningful privacy risk.

421 To gain additional insights, we compute the average AUROC values across the rows and columns of
422 the heatmap. These averages reflect how effective each encoding format is when used to encode the
423 data for MIA detection (rows) and for model fine-tuning (columns). The most vulnerable format for
424 MIA detection is HTML (76.0), followed by Key-Value Pair (73.2) and JSON (71.2), suggesting that
425 these formats offer greater advantages to attackers. On the training side, Line-Separated and Key-is-
426 Value induce the most memorization, resulting in average AUROCs of 74.6 and 72.8, respectively.
427 From a defender’s perspective, selecting training formats like JSON or HTML, which yield lower
428 average AUROCs of 69.4 and 70.1, may help reduce privacy risk.

429 5.4 PRETRAINED MODELS 430

431 In this experiment, we assess LLMs’ vulnerability to MIAs in their pretrained state—prior to any
432 fine-tuning. Our goal is to determine whether publicly available models have inadvertently mem-

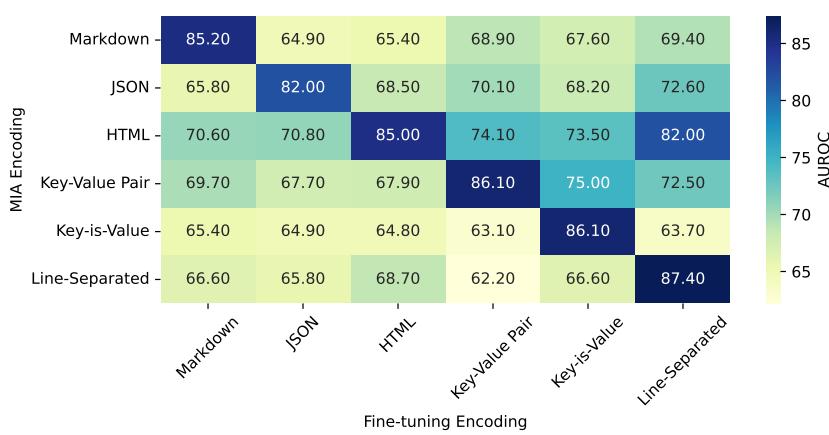


Figure 2: Heatmap showing the AUROC achieved by the *Min-K++ 20.0% MIA* on the *WTQ* dataset using the *Gemma-3 4B* model. Each cell compares the encoding used during fine-tuning (columns) with the encoding used during MIA detection (rows).

Table 6: AUROC scores achieved by the *Min-K++ 20.0% MIA* on the *WTQ* dataset using pretrained models without fine-tuning. Synthetic data was generated to serve as non-member samples. The table compares performance across table encoding formats for each model. Bold values indicate the highest score per row (encoding), while underlined values indicate the highest score per column (model).

Encoding Method	Llama-3.1 8B	Llama-3.2 3B	Mistral 7B	Gemma-3 4B
Markdown	69.30	62.20	63.00	60.70
JSON	62.40	57.60	59.90	58.40
HTML	66.70	60.00	61.70	61.80
Key-Value Pair	72.00	<u>66.20</u>	<u>66.90</u>	<u>63.40</u>
Key-is-Value	71.60	65.90	64.10	61.90
Line-Separated	71.50	63.80	62.90	60.90

orized examples from the *WTQ* dataset, which forms part of our benchmark. Given *WTQ*’s wide use and its reliance on Wikipedia tables, we assume that its contents may have been included in the pretraining corpora of many open-weight LLMs. To simulate an MIA setting, we treated the original *WTQ* tables as member samples and generated synthetic non-member tables using the *GPT-4o mini* (OpenAI, 2024a) model (see Appendix A.4 for details on the generation process). We then used the *MIN-K++ 20.0%* attack to test each pretrained model for evidence of memorization of the *WTQ* tables. Table 6 presents the AUROC scores for four models with the six encoding formats. The results show pretrained models without further fine-tuning exhibit moderate levels of data leakage. The highest AUROC of 72.0 is observed for *LLaMA-3.1 8B* with the Key-Value Pair format. Formats such as Key-Value Pair, Key-is-Value, and Line-Separated consistently result in greater vulnerability across models, with AUROC scores frequently exceeding 60%, indicating that the models likely memorized these tables during pretraining.

6 CONCLUSION

Tab-MIA is the first benchmark for evaluating MIAs on LLMs trained on tabular data. Through controlled experiments on four SOTA open-source LLMs and six encoding strategies, our experiments show that fine-tuning LLMs on tabular data might cause memorization and thus make them vulnerable to MIAs. Some attacks can achieve AUROC scores exceeding 95% with minimal fine-tuning, underscoring the risk of memorization and privacy leakage. In contrast, we find that using encodings that introduce syntactic noise (e.g., verbose or structured formats such as HTML or JSON) mitigates attack success. Our benchmark provides a foundation for the systematic evaluation of privacy risks in various scenarios with different models and table encoding formats.

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711 A TECHNICAL APPENDICES AND SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

713 A.1 TRAINING AND EVALUATION CONFIGURATIONS

715 This appendix contains the training configurations used in our experiments. All models are fine-
 716 tuned using QLoRA (Dettmers et al., 2023), a PEFT method that enables efficient training with 4-bit
 717 quantized weights. Fine-tuning is performed using a batch size of two on a single RTX 6000 GPU
 718 (48GB VRAM). We apply a learning rate of $3e-4$, use the `paged_adamw_8bit` optimizer, and
 719 set `warmup_steps` to 20. We use a fixed random seed of 42 for all dataset splits and data loading
 720 to ensure reproducibility.

721 For each dataset, 50% of the tables are selected as member records for fine-tuning, with the remaining
 722 used as non-members for MIA evaluation. All experiments are implemented using HuggingFace
 723 Transformers and PEFT libraries, with evaluation scripts provided in the public code repository.
 724

725 A.2 EFFECT OF FINE-TUNING EPOCHS ON MIA VULNERABILITY

727 This section presents comprehensive results on how the number of fine-tuning epochs affects vulner-
 728 ability to MIAs across all model-dataset configurations in our benchmark. For this experiment,
 729 we report results using the Line-Separated encoding format, as it consistently exhibits high mem-
 730 orization rates across models and datasets, making it a strong representative for analyzing privacy
 731 risk. Tables 7–10 summarize AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% metrics across three representative MIA
 732 methods: LOSS (PPL), Min-K 20.0%, and Min-K++ 20.0%. Across all methods, we observe that
 733 longer fine-tuning leads to increased model memorization and thus greater vulnerability to MIAs.
 734

735 Table 7: MIA results on the *Adult* dataset for all examined models fine-tuned for 1, 2, and 3 epochs.
 736 Tables are encoded in the Line-Separated format. Bold values highlight the best-performing method
 737 per row.

738 Model	# Epochs	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
740 Llama-3.2 3B	1	53.30	5.20	53.30	4.90	54.10	5.30
	2	56.50	7.00	56.50	6.30	58.00	7.30
	3	62.40	9.60	62.60	9.80	64.40	10.20
742 LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	53.80	6.30	53.70	6.40	55.10	6.70
	2	58.10	7.50	58.10	8.40	60.00	8.00
	3	73.90	24.20	74.30	25.80	71.10	15.50
745 Mistral 7B	1	54.00	5.20	54.10	4.40	54.60	5.20
	2	57.10	6.80	57.60	6.10	58.90	6.80
	3	65.90	10.80	67.40	11.80	71.50	14.70
748 Gemma-3 4B	1	53.20	6.20	53.10	5.70	53.90	5.00
	2	56.70	7.30	57.20	6.10	58.90	7.50
	3	63.00	10.50	64.80	12.00	67.70	11.70

751 A.3 IMPACT OF TABLE ENCODING FORMATS ON MIA PERFORMANCE

753 This section provides detailed results on the effect of different table encoding formats on models'
 754 susceptibility to MIAs. Tables 11- 15 report the AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% values for six encod-
 755 ing schemes (HTML, JSON, Key-Value Pair, Key-is-Value, Line-Separated, and Markdown) for all
 model-dataset configurations.

756
 757 Table 8: MIA results on the *California Housing* dataset for all examined models fine-tuned for 1,
 758 2, and 3 epochs. Tables are encoded in the Line-Separated format. Bold values highlight the best-
 759 performing method per row.

760 Model	# Epochs	761 PPL		762 Min-K 20.0%		763 Min-K++ 20.0%	
		764 AUROC	765 TPR@FPR=5%	766 AUROC	767 TPR@FPR=5%	768 AUROC	769 TPR@FPR=5%
770 Llama-3.2 3B	1	53.90	8.30	55.20	7.40	57.70	7.40
	2	57.00	12.00	59.00	9.90	66.80	15.50
	3	61.60	14.90	64.90	14.00	77.20	26.60
771 LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	54.10	9.30	55.30	8.50	59.00	10.70
	2	58.70	13.40	61.10	11.20	72.80	22.70
	3	66.30	19.60	70.40	19.60	87.80	52.50
772 Mistral 7B	1	55.00	9.50	57.30	10.10	57.80	12.40
	2	59.70	13.40	68.20	18.80	70.30	23.60
	3	69.70	19.40	84.90	45.00	86.80	56.80
773 Gemma-3 4B	1	53.80	9.70	54.30	9.30	54.30	7.90
	2	56.90	10.70	61.40	14.10	62.50	12.60
	3	62.30	13.20	72.10	20.70	73.80	23.30

772
 773 Table 9: MIA results on the *WTQ* dataset for all examined models fine-tuned for 1, 2, and 3 epochs.
 774 Tables are encoded in the Line-Separated format. Bold values highlight the best-performing method
 775 per row.

776 Model	# Epochs	777 PPL		778 Min-K 20.0%		779 Min-K++ 20.0%	
		780 AUROC	781 TPR@FPR=5%	782 AUROC	783 TPR@FPR=5%	784 AUROC	785 TPR@FPR=5%
786 Llama-3.2 3B	1	51.50	3.70	51.90	5.10	57.60	5.90
	2	59.70	8.20	60.80	8.70	74.80	19.00
	3	70.40	14.80	72.40	16.30	89.70	48.40
787 LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	53.70	5.10	54.10	5.10	61.60	9.00
	2	64.70	10.70	65.80	12.00	80.80	30.50
	3	77.90	27.20	79.50	29.50	93.60	66.40
788 Mistral 7B	1	58.40	8.60	59.80	7.80	69.70	15.40
	2	74.30	20.80	76.80	21.20	88.40	55.20
	3	87.30	47.00	90.40	51.30	97.70	88.20
789 Gemma-3 4B	1	52.50	4.20	53.00	3.70	59.30	7.50
	2	61.90	9.50	62.90	9.00	77.00	24.90
	3	74.70	16.50	76.50	20.20	89.60	54.10

790 A.4 SYNTHETIC TABLES GENERATION

791 In Section 5.4, we evaluate pretrained LLMs for evidence of memorization of public tabular datasets.
 792 To simulate a MIA setting in this scenario, we required *non-member* tables that resemble the struc-
 793 ture of the WTQ dataset but do not duplicate any of its records. For this purpose, we generated
 794 synthetic tables using a controlled LLM-based synthesis procedure.

795 We implemented a Python pipeline that reads the original tabular data and queries the
 796 GPT-4o-mini model to produce synthetic replacements for each table. The pipeline preserves
 797 the table’s schema and formatting, but replaces cell values with realistic, non-identical alternatives.
 798 This ensures that synthetic records maintain semantic plausibility while preventing verbatim overlap
 799 with the original dataset.

800 **Prompt Used for Synthesis.** The following prompt was provided to the model for each table:

801 You are a data synthesizer. Your task is to generate a synthetic version
 802 of the given tabular dataset for use in membership inference attack
 803 evaluation on tabular data.

- 804 – Preserve the original table’s structure, column names, and formatting.
- 805 – Change the values so that they are realistic but not identical to the original
 806 data.
- 807 – Output ***only*** the synthetic table|no explanations, no preamble,
 808 and no additional text.

810
811 Table 10: MIA results on the *TabFact* dataset for all examined models fine-tuned for 1, 2, and 3
812 epochs. Tables are encoded in the Line-Separated format. Bold values highlight the best-performing
813 method per row.

Model	# Epochs	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
Llama-3.2 3B	1	55.10	6.60	55.50	6.50	61.50	8.80
	2	62.10	9.90	63.10	10.10	73.40	14.90
	3	67.80	13.80	69.40	14.00	80.40	31.10
LLaMA-3.1 8B	1	57.90	7.90	58.30	8.20	64.90	11.20
	2	67.80	15.10	68.90	15.20	79.60	24.20
	3	77.40	26.40	78.70	27.00	89.90	47.00
Mistral 7B	1	60.00	9.60	60.70	10.00	68.50	14.70
	2	69.20	16.00	70.60	16.70	81.20	29.40
	3	77.00	24.60	78.90	25.50	89.90	50.50
Gemma-3 4B	1	55.40	7.00	55.40	7.00	63.30	10.80
	2	63.80	11.40	64.40	11.70	77.90	20.10
	3	72.70	17.40	73.60	18.20	87.40	37.40

826
827
828 Table 11: MIA results on the *Adult* dataset for the examined models, with the various encoding
829 formats. For each method, both AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% are reported. Bold values highlight
830 the best-performing method per row.

Model	Encoding	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
LLaMA-3.1 8B	HTML	62.40	9.30	62.40	9.20	54.90	6.50
	JSON	69.90	17.30	69.90	17.30	68.80	14.50
	Key-is-Value	70.50	18.30	70.40	17.80	70.50	15.40
	Key-Value Pair	72.60	21.90	72.60	22.00	71.30	16.50
	Line-Separated	73.90	24.20	74.30	25.80	71.10	15.50
	Markdown	75.70	27.60	75.70	28.20	73.20	19.70
Llama-3.2 3B	HTML	61.60	9.70	61.60	9.70	62.70	8.80
	JSON	61.40	9.30	61.40	9.30	63.70	9.40
	Key-is-Value	60.50	8.80	60.40	8.70	63.10	9.50
	Key-Value Pair	60.20	8.10	60.20	8.40	63.00	9.40
	Line-Separated	62.40	9.60	62.60	9.80	64.40	10.20
	Markdown	62.80	9.80	62.80	9.80	65.10	10.90
Mistral 7B	HTML	71.00	17.70	71.00	17.60	75.30	21.90
	JSON	56.90	5.80	56.90	5.90	50.90	3.80
	Key-is-Value	67.40	12.50	67.40	12.60	73.30	19.40
	Key-Value Pair	66.90	10.90	67.00	11.00	72.40	15.50
	Line-Separated	65.90	10.80	67.40	11.80	71.50	14.70
	Markdown	71.60	14.40	71.90	14.70	78.20	27.30
Gemma-3 4B	HTML	59.20	7.90	59.20	8.20	54.20	7.60
	JSON	55.70	6.80	55.70	6.70	50.80	8.00
	Key-is-Value	57.40	6.50	57.40	6.60	59.80	6.80
	Key-Value Pair	57.60	7.00	57.60	7.10	59.80	6.80
	Line-Separated	63.00	10.50	64.80	12.00	67.70	11.70
	Markdown	58.20	7.10	58.40	7.00	61.30	8.00

851
852
853
854
855 Input:
856 The original table:
857 {table}

858 Output:
859 The synthetic table:

860
861
862 This process was only applied in the pretrained-model evaluation, where synthetic non-members
863 were paired with WTQ member tables. For all fine-tuned experiments described in Section 4, non-
member samples were drawn directly from the benchmark datasets without synthesis.

864
865 Table 12: MIA results on the *California Housing* dataset for the examined models, with the various
866 encoding formats. For each method, both AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% are reported. Bold values
867 highlight the best-performing method per row.

868 Model	869 Encoding	870 PPL		871 Min-K 20.0%		872 Min-K++ 20.0%	
		873 AUROC	874 TPR@FPR=5%	875 AUROC	876 TPR@FPR=5%	877 AUROC	878 TPR@FPR=5%
870 LLaMA-3.1 8B	HTML	69.40	21.30	69.40	21.10	88.90	56.80
	JSON	63.80	15.10	63.80	15.10	54.60	8.30
	Key-is-Value	64.30	14.30	64.30	14.10	56.00	9.50
	Key-Value Pair	68.30	18.40	68.20	18.40	88.20	51.20
	Line-Separated	66.30	19.60	70.40	19.60	87.80	52.50
874 Llama-3.2 3B	Markdown	64.60	15.50	64.90	15.90	80.00	34.50
	HTML	59.70	13.20	59.70	13.00	55.80	7.00
	JSON	59.60	12.20	59.60	12.40	53.00	4.50
	Key-is-Value	60.20	13.60	60.20	13.60	55.10	10.10
	Key-Value Pair	62.80	16.10	62.80	15.90	78.70	26.20
878 Mistral 7B	Line-Separated	61.60	14.90	64.90	14.00	77.20	26.60
	Markdown	60.60	13.20	60.90	13.00	72.00	22.10
	HTML	61.70	13.40	61.70	13.40	50.60	5.00
	JSON	61.40	14.10	61.40	14.00	54.50	6.80
	Key-is-Value	63.70	15.50	65.00	14.70	74.90	28.70
879 Gemma-3 4B	Key-Value Pair	72.40	24.20	74.70	24.20	92.60	68.00
	Line-Separated	69.70	19.40	84.90	45.00	86.80	56.80
	Markdown	65.60	17.60	73.10	23.10	80.00	39.10
	HTML	59.10	11.00	61.20	11.80	55.40	7.80
	JSON	58.40	11.40	58.40	11.40	55.00	7.60
884 Gemma-3 4B	Key-is-Value	59.20	10.30	60.60	11.00	66.70	15.70
	Key-Value Pair	59.30	11.20	60.80	11.20	67.00	15.30
	Line-Separated	62.30	13.20	72.10	20.70	73.80	23.30
	Markdown	59.10	11.20	64.10	13.20	67.80	15.30

888
889 Table 13: MIA results on the *WTQ* dataset for the examined models, with the various encoding
890 formats. For each method, both AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% are reported. Bold values highlight
891 the best-performing method per row.

892 Model	893 Encoding	894 PPL		895 Min-K 20.0%		896 Min-K++ 20.0%	
		897 AUROC	898 TPR@FPR=5%	899 AUROC	900 TPR@FPR=5%	901 AUROC	902 TPR@FPR=5%
903 LLaMA-3.1 8B	HTML	71.60	17.30	71.80	17.30	82.00	41.70
	JSON	72.90	19.10	73.20	19.30	81.70	44.60
	Key-is-Value	73.20	21.20	73.90	21.20	86.50	50.20
	Key-Value Pair	73.80	23.20	74.40	22.90	86.70	51.80
	Line-Separated	77.90	27.20	79.50	29.50	93.60	66.40
909 Llama-3.2 3B	Markdown	74.40	19.80	75.60	20.50	89.40	54.70
	HTML	66.30	10.40	66.60	10.60	79.70	28.60
	JSON	67.10	11.70	67.50	11.70	79.80	33.00
	Key-is-Value	67.00	12.80	67.90	13.10	83.70	38.30
	Key-Value Pair	67.00	12.10	67.80	12.80	83.50	40.40
905 Mistral 7B	Line-Separated	70.40	14.80	72.40	16.30	89.70	48.40
	Markdown	68.00	12.60	69.50	13.50	85.30	31.90
	HTML	82.80	29.70	83.00	30.00	92.90	70.00
	JSON	79.40	29.20	79.60	29.10	82.70	53.80
	Key-is-Value	83.60	34.70	84.20	35.60	89.70	68.10
910 Gemma-3 4B	Key-Value Pair	85.00	37.60	85.70	38.60	94.90	79.20
	Line-Separated	87.30	47.00	90.40	51.30	97.70	88.20
	Markdown	87.00	36.70	88.40	36.90	94.20	84.00
	HTML	72.10	12.90	72.80	12.90	83.30	42.30
	JSON	70.70	12.10	71.00	12.10	79.20	37.00
911 Gemma-3 4B	Key-is-Value	72.30	14.50	73.20	14.60	85.00	46.50
	Key-Value Pair	72.80	15.60	73.80	15.70	85.50	49.30
	Line-Separated	74.70	16.50	76.50	20.20	89.60	54.10
	Markdown	73.70	16.30	74.80	16.80	86.70	49.10

914 A.5 DISCLOSURE OF LLM USAGE

915
916 In accordance with the ICLR 2026 policy on large language model (LLM) usage, we disclose that
917 LLMs were used solely to aid and polish the writing of this manuscript. Their role was limited to
improving grammar, clarity, and readability. No part of the research design, data processing, exper-

918
919 Table 14: MIA results on the *WikiSQL* dataset for the examined models, with the various encoding
920 formats. For each method, both AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% are reported. Bold values highlight
921 the best-performing method per row.

Model	Encoding	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
LLaMA-3.1 8B	HTML	74.50	18.90	74.50	18.90	81.90	30.40
	JSON	75.20	20.10	75.30	20.10	82.70	32.40
	Key-is-Value	75.50	20.90	75.80	21.10	86.10	37.60
	Key-Value Pair	75.60	21.20	75.80	21.40	86.00	36.30
	Line-Separated	76.50	25.30	78.10	25.90	88.90	40.20
Llama-3.2 3B	Markdown	75.60	20.20	76.10	20.70	86.20	33.70
	HTML	67.90	11.70	68.00	11.80	76.80	19.50
	JSON	69.10	13.10	69.20	13.10	78.50	22.40
	Key-is-Value	64.60	8.70	65.10	8.80	72.30	12.60
	Key-Value Pair	69.10	13.40	69.50	13.50	80.70	23.10
Mistral 7B	Line-Separated	69.40	15.90	71.20	16.10	83.20	25.30
	Markdown	68.10	11.50	69.00	11.70	71.40	14.60
	HTML	72.20	16.50	72.30	16.50	79.60	31.00
	JSON	72.90	16.80	73.10	16.70	80.30	30.70
	Key-is-Value	74.70	19.50	75.40	19.80	85.30	37.50
Gemma-3 4B	Key-Value Pair	74.60	19.90	75.20	20.20	85.40	37.70
	Line-Separated	75.10	22.20	77.60	23.80	87.80	42.90
	Markdown	75.10	19.80	76.20	20.40	86.10	39.10
	HTML	72.00	16.00	72.50	16.20	83.40	29.20
	JSON	71.20	14.40	71.30	14.40	80.00	26.90
Gemma-3 4B	Key-is-Value	72.00	15.70	72.50	15.80	84.20	30.30
	Key-Value Pair	71.90	15.80	72.50	15.80	84.50	31.20
	Line-Separated	72.50	17.60	73.90	18.70	86.10	34.30
	Markdown	71.20	14.30	71.90	14.60	83.00	26.80

941
942 Table 15: MIA results on the *TabFact* dataset for the examined models, with the various encoding
943 formats. For each method, both AUROC and TPR@FPR=5% are reported. Bold values highlight
944 the best-performing method per row.

Model	Encoding	PPL		Min-K 20.0%		Min-K++ 20.0%	
		AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%	AUROC	TPR@FPR=5%
LLaMA-3.1 8B	HTML	76.10	19.50	76.10	19.50	83.70	34.50
	JSON	70.30	13.00	70.40	13.00	69.40	21.20
	Key-is-Value	77.60	21.70	77.90	21.90	88.30	41.10
	Key-Value Pair	78.10	22.10	78.30	22.40	88.40	42.10
	Line-Separated	77.40	26.40	78.70	27.00	89.90	47.00
Llama-3.2 3B	Markdown	78.00	22.20	78.70	22.80	88.70	40.50
	HTML	68.60	11.40	68.70	11.40	78.20	20.30
	JSON	69.50	11.90	69.60	12.00	80.20	23.30
	Key-is-Value	64.10	8.60	64.70	8.80	71.90	12.20
	Key-Value Pair	67.70	11.60	68.20	11.60	78.80	20.60
Mistral 7B	Line-Separated	67.80	13.80	69.40	14.00	80.40	31.10
	Markdown	67.70	10.90	68.80	11.20	73.90	12.80
	HTML	74.60	18.60	74.60	18.60	82.40	37.60
	JSON	75.70	19.60	75.80	19.60	83.90	39.10
	Key-is-Value	76.80	21.00	77.40	21.10	87.70	43.30
Gemma-3 4B	Key-Value Pair	76.90	21.80	77.50	21.90	88.00	43.80
	Line-Separated	77.00	24.60	78.90	25.50	89.90	50.50
	Markdown	77.50	23.10	78.70	23.60	89.10	47.20
	HTML	72.40	15.50	72.90	15.60	85.00	33.10
	JSON	72.00	14.20	72.20	14.20	82.00	30.90
Gemma-3 4B	Key-is-Value	72.70	14.90	73.10	15.10	86.10	33.00
	Key-Value Pair	72.50	14.70	72.90	14.80	86.10	33.90
	Line-Separated	72.70	17.40	73.60	18.20	87.40	37.40
	Markdown	71.80	14.90	72.50	15.20	85.20	29.60

966
967 imental implementation, analysis, or conclusions relied on LLM-generated content. All scientific
968 contributions were conceived and executed entirely by the authors.