Importance of Synthesizing High-quality Data for Text-to-SQL Parsing

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Abstract

There has been increasing interest in synthesizing data to improve downstream text-to-SQL tasks. In this paper, we examined the existing synthesized datasets and discovered that state-of-the-art text-to-SQL algorithms did not further improve on popular benchmarks when trained with augmented synthetic data. We observed two shortcomings: illogical synthetic SQL queries from independent column sampling and arbitrary table joins. To address these issues, we propose a novel synthesis framework that incorporates key relationships from schema, imposes strong typing, and conducts schema-distance-weighted column sampling. We also adopt an intermediate representation (IR) for the SQL-to-text task to further improve the quality of the generated natural language questions. When existing powerful semantic parsers are pre-finetuned on our high-quality synthesized data, these models have significant accuracy boosts and achieve new state-of-the-art performance on Spider.

1 Introduction

Text-to-SQL semantic parsing translates a natural language question (NLQ) to a corresponding SQL query. In recent decades, many industries have adopted high-level digitalization in their workflow and possessed large-scale datasets—many of which are stored as relational databases. Extracting insights from these relation databases to further drive business decisions is an important task. But due to the complexity of these relational databases, query language experts are often needed to extract valuable insights. Thus a high-performing text-to-SQL system with a natural language interface would greatly lower the barrier for users to query their databases.

In order to obtain high-quality training data for the text-to-SQL parser, human annotators with SQL expertise are needed to construct NLQ-SQL parallel data, which are difficult and expensive to scale. Thus data scarcity is a well-known bottleneck in the text-to-SQL task [Yu et al., 2018b]. To address the data scarcity issue, there is an increasing interest in leveraging synthetic data to improve downstream performance. Yu et al. [2021] handcrafted high-quality rules to synthesize SQLs and NLQs simultaneously, but these grammar rules need to be carefully designed through expensive

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manual work. To automate the synthesis procedure, recent studies [Wang et al., 2021, Wu et al., 2021, Shi et al., 2021, Zhong et al., 2020] utilize a two-stage approach that synthesizes SQLs first and then composes NLQs with a SQL-to-text generator. Alternatively, Yang et al. [2021] proposed a reversed pipeline that uses an entity-to-question model to generate natural language queries and then a text-to-SQL parser to generate SQL queries.

In this paper, we delve into the two-stage synthesizing method that first synthesizes SQL queries and then generates NLQs. We propose a novel framework[2] that has several strategies to reduce synthesis errors present in existing methods. During the stage of SQL synthesis, we employ template synthesis with strong typing, template key relationship preservation, and schema-distance-weighted column sampling. During the stage of text generation, we propose an intermediate representation to bridge the gap between SQL queries and natural language questions. We show that models trained with our synthetic datasets outperform the models trained with previous synthetic datasets. Our model achieves new state-of-the-art accuracy on the Spider benchmark.

In summary, our main contributions are:

- We systematically compare the existing text-to-SQL synthesis methods and identify three root causes of low quality;
- We propose several novel strategies to data synthesis and demonstrate augmentation benefits when using the state-of-the-art PICARD parser, underscoring the importance of the synthesis quality;
- We adopt an intermediate representation (IR) for the SQL-to-text task, which can further improve the quality of the generated natural language questions.

2 Existing Synthesis Methods and Limitations

We conduct a detailed investigation towards the existing text-to-SQL synthesis methods to understand each of their advantages and shortcomings, the details of which can be found in Appendix A. In particular, Figure 3 summarizes and compares the key characteristics from different dimensions.

In this section, we first experimented with two recent synthetic datasets [Wang et al., 2021] and [Wu et al., 2021] using the latest state-of-the-art text-to-SQL model PICARD [Scholak et al., 2021] to assess their effectiveness and found that these two recent synthetic datasets show only negligible impact on downstream accuracy when trained on the PICARD model in a data augmentation fashion. We then discuss the three main issues in these synthetic datasets based our manual inspection.

2.1 Synthetic Data Effectiveness Assessment

As a pilot study, we use T5-Large PICARD as the baseline parser to examine the synthetic data quality. As shown in Figure 1, the exact match (EM) accuracy on both synthetic datasets are less than 0.2 during Stage 1 (trained with synthetic data only), in contrast to 0.6 with Spider training data only. This gap indicates the limited transferability from existing synthetic data to real data. Further finetuning on Spider training data in Stage 2 does not improve the baseline model. However, our synthetic data (IR2NLQ and SQL2NLQ) show better performance on these two stages. In the next sections, we reveal the synthetic data problems and detail our proposed method.

2.2 Synthetic Data Quality Analysis

We analyzed the previous synthesis methods to identify a few probable causes for obsolescence.

Illogical SQL from invalid grammars. The CFG designed by Wu et al. [2021] is constrained and they limited SQL generation to one table. While Wang et al. [2021] designed flexible grammars, they neglected the constraints between operators and column types. This neglect leads to mistakes such as `SUM(student.name)`, where an aggregation operator is applied to a text column.

Furthermore, PCFG generated SQL queries often failed to capture foreign-key and key relations between columns. This leads to invalid SQLs such as `SELECT name, age FROM student INTERSECT SELECT address FROM teacher`, where it intersects two sub-queries with different

[2] `https://github.com/awslabs/text2sql-ship`

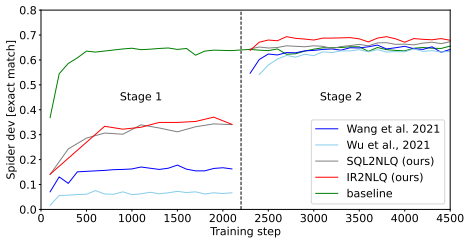

Figure 1: Training dynamics comparison of T5-Large with different synthetic data. The baseline model uses Spider real data only. IR2NLQ and SQL2NLQ are our synthetic data with and without IR during NLQ generation. We compare with previous synthetic datasets [Wu et al., 2021, Wang et al., 2021]. We use synthetic data for stage-1 training and real data for stage-2 training.

number of columns. In fact, designing a grammar to produce high coverage and logical SQLs is a difficult task due to the implicit dependencies of SQL elements.

Over-Complex SQL from arbitrary joins. When SQLs are materialized, the column/table selection from existing work is independent and result in SQL queries with unnecessary complexity. Those queries often have unclear intent and thus are difficult to be correctly translated to natural language questions. For instance, a simple template in Table 2 that requires only two columns can be turned into a complicated and nonsensical SQL query with three table joins.

Language gap between SQL and NLQ. Recent work typically trains a sequence-to-sequence model to obtain corresponding natural language queries (NLQ) from synthetic SQLs [Wang et al., 2021, Shi et al., 2021]. The gap between SQL-NLQ pairs are well recognized in text-to-SQL task, and intermediate representation (IR) is commonly used to reduce such mismatch [Gan et al., 2021b, Guo et al., 2019a, Yu et al., 2018a, Shi et al., 2021]. However, the reverse of the source and target in SQL-to-text brings in its own challenge, such as incorrect references for `SELECT *`, missing conditions within long and complex SQL queries, and misinterpretation of ORDER phrases.

3 Proposed Method

This section outlines our proposed synthesis pipeline (Figure 2). We follow the template based SQL synthesis approach similar to Zhong et al. [2020], Zhang et al. [2019] and generate corresponding NLQs with a sequence-to-sequence model. We address the generation problems reviewed in the previous sections by 1) introducing strong typing and encoding the key relation in templates for more logical SQLs; 2) proposing a schema distance weighted column sampling strategy to avoid over-complex joins; and 3) an improved IR to bridge the gap between SQL and NL questions specifically for SQL-to-text.

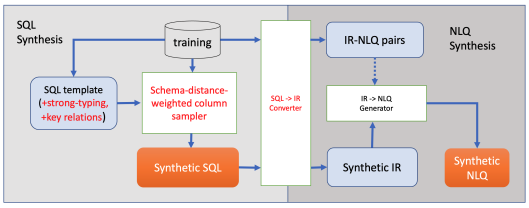

Figure 2: Our NLQ-SQL synthesis framework. Novel components include strong-typing, key relations, schema-distance-weighted column sampler, and SQL $\rightarrow$ IR converter.

3.1 SQL Synthesis

To create new SQLs on training data schemas, we utilize a template-based approach following Zhong et al. [2020]: First, a pool of SQL templates are created by normalizing the schema-related mentions (column and value) and removing JOIN phrases. During SQL generation, a template is sampled based on the training distribution and columns are sampled with constraints to fill in the normalized slots of the template. We highlight several improvement made to the existing approach.

Strong Typing. When normalizing columns, we enforce strong typing of a template by enriching and preserving the data type (e.g., text, number, date, etc) as well as key identity (key or not) for each column. For example, in Table 1, we use `textkey` instead of `key` to normalize `artist_name` because operators such as `MAX` can be applied to number key but usually not to other text key.

Table 1: Our modifications for template extraction: strong typing is highlighted in blue and key relation preservation is highlighted in pink.

SQL	`SELECT artist_name FROM song INTERSECT SELECT artist_name FROM artist`
Previous	`SELECT col1_key INTERSECT col2_key`
Ours	`SELECT col1_textkey INTERSECT col2_textkey_fk1`

Template Key Relationship Preservation. A foreign key is a column in a table referring to the primary key (unique identifier) of another table. In multiple table join scenarios, key and foreign key are the most common columns to be joined on. Restricting a column to be a foreign key to another key column is critical for a SQL to be valid especially in the following two cases: 1) queries including `INTERSECT, EXCEPT, UNION` and 2) queries that contains nested queries in `WHERE` conditions. For instance, the query in Table 1 implied the constraint that `song.artist_name` should be a subset of `artist.artist_name`. `FK1` in the template captures the constraint of key relationship between the two `artist_name` columns, which prevents the template from generating nonsensical queries such as `SELECT gender FROM artist INTERSECT SELECT country FROM artist`.

Schema-distance-weighted Column Sampling. To mitigate the issue of arbitrary multi-table joins, we implement a weighted sampling function biased toward columns that are close, in terms of table distance, to the columns already selected in a SQL template.

For a given database d, we first establish an undirected graph for all the tables in d. Each table represents a node in the graph. The distance between any two tables, $e(\cdot, \cdot)$, is the least number of joins necessary to join the two tables (i.e. shortest path distance) under the restriction that table join can only take place with qualified primary key and foreign key pairs.

We design the schema-weighted column sampling algorithm (Algorithm 1 in Appendix B), which utilizes the table distances to control the column sampling weights. In particular, to sample a column c, we define the sampling weights for all other columns $w(\tilde{c}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } T_{\tilde{c}} = T_c \\ \frac{1}{\gamma^{e(c,\tilde{c})}}, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$, where T_c denotes the table that column c is in. The discussion on how to choose γ can also be found in Appendix B. Such implementation is motivated from the observation that over-lengthy SQLs resulted from multiple tables joins are rare in real world scenarios under the only-join-on-primary-key-foreign-key assumption. Table 2 shows an example of how adopting the schema-weighted sampling can help reduce the unrealistic SQLs in the random case.

Table 2: Random sampling vs our schema-distance-weighted column sampling for a given template. The former produced a query with three joins while ours have both columns from the same table.

Template	`SELECT col1_numberkey WHERE col2_name = VALUE`
Random	`SELECT T1.Club_ID FROM club AS T1 JOIN coach as T2 ON T1.Club_ID = T2.Club_ID JOIN player_coach AS T3 ON T2.Coach_ID = T3.Coach_ID JOIN player AS T4 on T3.Player_ID = T4.Player_ID where T4.Rank = "3rd"`
Ours	`SELECT Club_ID FROM club WHERE Club_Name="AIK"`

3.2 NLQ Synthesis

Intermediate representation (IR) has been employed to simplify the SQL query with minimum information loss [Gan et al., 2021a, Guo et al., 2019b, Gan et al., 2021b, Guo et al., 2019a, Yu et al., 2018a, Shi et al., 2021]. Common operations include removing `FROM/JOIN` clauses and `GROUP BY` clauses, and merging `WHERE` clauses and `HAVING` clauses. Previous works find the use of IR often improves text-to-SQL performance.

In this section, we explore whether the SQL-to-text generation could also benefit from an IR. According to a prior research by Wu et al. [2021], altering the query's linearization order could already affect the synthetic text quality. The objective of an IR here is to convert SQL to a representation that more closely resembles the NLQ. This conversion involves both simplifications (such as removal of redundant information) and specification (such as introducing information using heuristics). In

Table 3: IR examples that illustrate the examples of removing tables, enriching * columns, specifying most/least intent, removing redundant GROUP BY. Unwanted intents are in grey, redundant intents are in green. Texts related to IR operations are highlighted with yellow.

EX1	**SQL**	SELECT T1.name FROM student AS T1 JOIN has_pet AS T2 ON T1.student_id = T2.has_pet.student_id
	IR	SELECT name of student FROM has_pet
	NLQ	Find the name of students who have pets.
EX2	**SQL**	SELECT T2.name, count(*) FROM concert AS T1 JOIN stadium AS T2 ON T1.stadium_id = T2.stadium_id GROUP BY T1.stadium_id
	IR	SELECT name of stadium, Count (record of concert) GROUP BY (stadium_id of concert)
	NLQ	Show the stadium name and the number of concerts in each stadium.
EX3	**SQL**	SELECT T1.neighbourhood_name neighbourhood AS T1 JOIN business AS T2 ON T1.business_id = T2.business_id WHERE T2.city = "Madison" GROUP BY T1.neighbourhood_name ORDER BY COUNT (DISTINCE T2.name) DESC LIMIT 1
	IR	SELECT neighbourhood_name of neighbourhood WITH most Count (DISTINCT name of business) WHERE city of business = "Madison"
	NLQ	Which neighbourhood has the most number of businesses in Madison?
EX4	**SQL**	SELECT T2.name FROM USER AS T2 JOIN review AS T1 ON T2.user_id = T1.user_id GROUP BY T2.name HAVING AVG (T1.rating) < 3
	IR	SELECT EACH (name of user) WITH Avg (rating of review) < 3
	NLQ	Find users whose average review rating is below 3.

addition to the traditional designs,we introduced several additional rules to transform from SQLs to IRs, as listed below (examples in Table 3):

- Only drop tables in the FROM/JOIN phrase if they appear in other SQL elements (**EX2-EX4**). Removal of tables can simplify queries but tables in JOIN can also behave as filters and need to be preserved to avoid information loss (**EX1**).
- Replace * in count(*) with the table whose columns in JOIN act as foreign key to provide explicit context for counting. This is because, in multi-table join queries, foreign key represents the many of the one-to-many relations and thus the rows from the table is more meaningful to be aggregated (see **EX2** replaces*with concert rather than stadium).
- When SQL contains ORDER BY COUNT (...) LIMIT ... , rewrite the query to explicitly express the most or least intent for better intent alignment (**EX3**).
- Drop GROUP BY phrase if the column grouped by appears in SELECT and attach EACH to the specific column if the query does not express the most/least intent (see GROUP dropped in **EX3 - EX4** but not **EX2**). This aims to distinguish SQLs with GROUP BY and SELECT on the same column from those without SELECT.

4 Experiments

We conduct experiment on the challenging Spider benchmark [Yu et al., 2018b], which contains various complex SQL statements and realistic cross-database evaluation setting. We demonstrate the effectiveness of our data synthesis framework from both text-to-SQL and SQL-to-text.

Spider Benchmark Spider [Yu et al., 2018b] is a large-scale text-to-SQL dataset, it has 10,181 annotated questions, 5693 unique complex SQLs and 200 databases with multiple tables. It also contains Text2SQL datasets from previous work, which are compiled as **train-others**. The **train/train-others/dev/test** sets contain 7000/1659/1034/2147 examples and 140/6/20/40 databases, respectively. Since Spider test set is not publicly available, we use **dev** set for evaluation and **train-others** for checkpoint selection.

Text-to-SQL Parser and SQL-to-Text Generator We use T5-3B [Raffel et al., 2020] as our base parser, since previous work [Shaw et al., 2021] has shown that T5-3B can achieve competitive performance for Text-to-SQL semantic parsing. We also apply PICARD [Scholak et al., 2021], a constraint decoding method, to further improve the syntactic correctness of the generated SQLs. We finetune a T5-large model on Spider training set for both SQL-to-text generator and IR-to-text generator, the best checkpoint is selected with the highest BLEU score on **train-others**.

Configurations We train T5 with Adafactor and learning rate of 1e-4, and use batch size 2050 and 64 for T5-3B and T5-Large, respectively. Our experiments are based on NVIDIA A100-SXM4-40GB GPUs, we use beam size 5 and top-2 predictions for PICARD decoding.

4.1 Spider Results and Analysis

The overall results[3] are shown in Table 4. We can see that our synthetic data can further improve the state-of-the-art model and achieve the best results on Spider development set[4], including both exact set match and execution accuracy. Specifically, we have 4.4 points of EM score improvement on top of T5-3B model, while previous work [Wu et al., 2021, Wang et al., 2021] has marginal gain or even hurt the performance, demonstrating the effectiveness of our proposed method.

Table 4: Comparison of the top-performing text-to-SQL models in Spider leaderboard, as well as models trained with synthetic data. We report exact set match (EM) and execution accuracy (EX) for Spider dev set. † means T5-3B is trained with database content.

Model	EM	EX	Model	EM	EX
DT-Fixup SQL-SP [Xu et al., 2021]	75.0	-	SmBoP + GraPPa [Rubin and Berant, 2021]	69.5	71.1
LGESQL + ELECTRA [Cao et al., 2021]	75.1	-	GAP + NatSQL [Gan et al., 2021a]	73.7	75.0
S2SQL + ELECTRA [Hui et al., 2022]	<u>76.4</u>	-	T5-3B† [Scholak et al., 2021]	71.5	74.4
DT-Fixup + Syn [Yang et al., 2021]	<u>76.4</u>	-	T5-3B† + Syn data (*ours*)	74.5	78.6
T5-3B [Shaw et al., 2021]	70.0	-	T5-3B† + PICARD [Scholak et al., 2021]	<u>75.5</u>	79.3
T5-3B + Syn data [Wu et al., 2021]	69.1	-	RASAT + PICARD [Qi et al., 2022]	75.3	<u>80.5</u>
T5-3B + Syn data [Wang et al., 2021]	70.3	-	T5-3B† + PICARD + Syn data (*ours*)	**76.1**	**81.4**
T5-3B + Syn data (*ours*)	74.4	-			
T5-3B + PICARD [Scholak et al., 2021]	74.1	-			
T5-3B + PICARD + Syn data (*ours*)	**76.9**	-			

PICARD is an incremental parsing method for constraint decoding, which can reduce the syntax errors of language models for SQL generation. From Table 4, we see that T5-3B combined with PICARD and our synthetic data performs the best, implying the orthogonality of synthetic data augmentation and constraint decoding.

In order to understand the effectiveness of our proposed IR, we compared two generation paths in Spider benchmark: SQL→NLQ and SQL→IR→NLQ. As shown in Table 5, we can see IR helps the NLQ generation process and produces text closer to ground-truth NLQs.

4.2 Synthetic Data Efficiency

In this section, we study the efficiency of our synthetic data framework from two aspects:

Few-shot setting: How much real data do we need to rely on before achieving acceptable performance? Since annotating text-to-SQL dataset takes extremely high human effort, in practice, it's hard to create a large-scale corpus with a limited annotation budget. Table 6 presents the text-to-SQL semantic parsing results with different number of training examples. Interestingly, as training size decrease from 7K to 128, our synthetic data becomes more essential, and the performance gain increases from 4.4 points to 27.2 points. Even with only 512 training examples, our synthetic data can assist the T5-3B model to achieve ∼60% accuracy level.

Seen schema: How good of the synthetic data if we consider a broader coverage of database schema? Since the cross-database evaluation setting presents generalization challenge for text-to-SQL parsers, our synthetic framework can potentially overcome this by utilizing more database schemas, or even ones that can implicitly cover the evaluation set. For example, we can take advantage of public schemas, such as WikiTables [Bhagavatula et al., 2015], GitTables [Hulsebos et al., 2021], WikiSQL [Zhong et al., 2017] and SQL tutorial websites, some of them are even schema source for Spider benchmark. In practice, people adapt model to a new domain by including targeting database schemas, we simply added 20 databases from dev set into our data synthesis pipeline, then trained text-to-SQL parser with a T5-Large model, where we observed ∼2 points of performance improvement compared to that with training schema only.

[3]Some models do not predict cell values or access to database content, we leave '-' for EX.

[4]Since the official test set is hidden, we have not received their evaluation results as of submission time

Table 5: Generated NLQ quality comparison between SQL→ NLQ and SQL→ IR→ NLQ. We report BLEU [Papineni et al., 2002], ROUGE [Lin, 2004], and BERT [Zhang* et al., 2020] scores as evaluation metrics.

Settings	BLEU	ROUGE-1	ROUGE-2	P-BERT	R-BERT
SQL→ NLQ	27.7	59.6	35.3	93.6	93.2
SQL→ IR→ NLQ	29.3	60.5	36.8	93.9	93.3

5 Conclusion

In this work, we proposed a data synthesis framework for text-to-SQL semantic parsing. After incorporating key relationships from schema, strong typing, schema-distance weighted column sampling and intermediate representation to bridge SQL → NLQ generation, we synthesized high-quality dataset that can further improve the state-of-the-art performance on Spider benchmark.

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Table 6: Text-to-SQL experiment with the few-shot setting. **# tmpl** and **# syn** represent the number of templates and synthetic data size, we report exact set match on the Spider dev set.

Model	f-shot:	128	256	512	1024	full (7k)
	# tmpl	68	116	205	318	746
	# syn	7839	10775	14457	17002	21851
T5-3B	real only	19.1	32.3	43.6	53.2	70.0
	real + syn	46.3	54.4	59.9	62.2	74.4

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Appendix

A Existing Synthesis Framworks

Inspired by prior work by Jia and Liang [2016] in semantic parsing, Yu et al. [2021] extended a synchronous context-free grammar (SCFG) approach to the text-to-SQL task where they manually crafted about 90 high-quality SQL-NLQ aligned patterns to generate new SQL-NLQ pairs. They found pretraining on the synthetic dataset leads to a significant improvement even tested with a very strong text-to-SQL parser RAT-SQL on the Spider benchmark.

While SCFG usually creates high-quality data because patterns are carefully designed and aligned, the coverage of the patterns is limited, and expert knowledge is required to design such patterns. Thus, more efforts are devoted to automating the procedure. Guo et al. [2018] utilized a two-stage approach by first sampling SQL queries from a simple pattern and then generating questions using a copy-based RNN encoder-decoder structure find the synthetic data that can improve the existing state-of-the-art model on the WikiSQL benchmark. Zhong et al. [2020] followed the same two-stage approach but used templates extracted from training to generate SQL and augmented the NLQ generator with pretrained transformer BERT and iteratively updated the parser and generator. Only the synthetic dataset that was created using target schemas filtered with cycle consistency can facilitate the downstream performance.

Along the same approach, Wang et al. [2021] identified problems with fixed SQL synthesis rules and employed a full-fledged probabilistic context-free grammar (PCFG) that enabled generating SQLs with varying structures. They synthesized natural language queries with a BART SQL-NLQ generator. Their synthesis method has been shown to boost the RAT-SQL parser performance on the Spider benchmark, though the improvement is not as significant as pretraining using SCFG generated synthetic data [Yu et al., 2021]. The gap might be due to the quality of the synthetic dataset as the independent selection of generation step in PCFG introduces substantial noise such as illogical SQL queries.

To improve the quality of synthetic data, Wu et al. [2021] introduced a clause-level synthesis framework: first decomposing a query into sub-clauses and translating sub-SQL clauses into sub-questions, and finally assembling sub-questions into a whole question. They found clause-based synthesis method is better than flat synthesis.

Alternatively, Yang et al. [2021] proposed to improve the quality of synthetic data by incorporating domain information in question generation. Specifically, they learned an entity sampler and synthesized questions using an entity-to-question generator with entities sampled from the sampler,

Paper	Method	SQL Synthesis		NLQ Synthesis		SQL-NLQ Bridging	Manual Effort
		Abstraction	Limitation	Procedure	Generator		
Guo et al (2018)	Two stage	Template	Single template, no `JOIN`	SQL → NLQ	copy-based RNN	-	minimal
GAZP (Zhong et al 2020)	Iterative two stage	Template	Violating foreign key relations, limit to training templates	SQL → NLQ	BERT + point decoder	-	minimal
Wang et al (2021)	Two stage	PCFG	OP/COL incompatibility, invalid SQL structure	SQL → NLQ	BART	-	minimal
Wu et al (2021)	Two stage	CFG	No support for IEU, no `JOIN`	SQL → Sub-SQL → NLQ fragment →NLQ	copy-based RNN	SQL clause / NLQ fragment	combination rules
Yang et al (2021)	Iterative reversed two stage	-	Dependent on base parser	schema → entity → NLQ	T5	-	minimal
Grappa (Yu et al 2021)	Synchronous	Template	Limit to training templates	simultaneous instantiation of SQL-NLQ template		Aligned SQL-NLQ template	alignment
Ours	Two stage	Template	Limit to training templates	SQL→ IR→ NLQ	T5	IR	minimal

Figure 3: Comparison of different data synthesis methods for text-to-SQL task. *Synchronous* refers to generating SQL and NLQ together, *Two-stage* first synthesizes SQL then generates NLQ, *reversed two-stage* first generates NLQ then synthesizes SQL. **SQL-NLQ Bridging** refers to intermediate operations or representations for matching SQL and NLQ.

followed by generating pairing SQL queries through a baseline parser. For this approach, they also attractively updated the parser and generator, in a similar fashion as in Zhong et al. [2020]. Their synthetic dataset can significantly improve a DT-Fixup parser on the Spider benchmark.

This work seeks to investigate value of synthetic dataset with current state-of-the-art PICARD model and refine a synthetic method in an automate and non-iterative manner. Thus, we examine two synthetic datasets from recent work [Wang et al., 2021, Wu et al., 2021] that demonstrate improvement of downstream performance with previous state-of-the-art text-to-SQL parser (RAT-SQL) over Spider benchmark without iterative training.

B SQL Synthesis with Schema-Weighted Column Sampling

B.1 Table Distance.

For a given database d, we first establish an undirected graph for all the tables in d. We can then compute the distance between any two tables, $e(\cdot,\cdot)$, defined as the least number of joins necessary to join the two tables under the restriction that table join can only take place with qualified primary key and foreign key information. In other words, we disable arbitrary join of two tables if they lack key and foreign key relationship.

We give some examples using one of the databases (id: `college_1`) in the Spider benchmark, as shown in Table 7.

- $e(\text{T1}, \text{T2}) = 1$ because the column `class code` in table *class* (T1) is a foreign key in table *course* (T2). We can also observe from the table graph in Figure 4: there is a direct path between table node *class* and table node *course*.
- $e(\text{T2}, \text{T7}) = 2$ since we first need to join table *course* (T2) with table *department* (T3), followed by joining table *department* with table *student* (T7). Note that even though we can also join using the path $T2 \rightarrow T1 \rightarrow T5 \rightarrow T7$, this is not the ***least*** number of joins between the two tables.

Table 7: Example database (id: `college_1`)

Alias	Table Name	Primary Key	Foreign Key	
			Table	Column
T1	class	`class code`	enroll	`class code`
T2	course	`course code`	class	`class code`
T3	department	`department code`	course	`department code`
			professor	`department code`
			student	`department code`
T4	employee	`employee number`	class	`professor employee number`
			department	`employee number`
			professor	`employee number`
T5	enroll	-	-	-
T6	professor	-	-	-
T7	student	`student num`	enroll	`student number`

The reason we introduce the concept of *table distance* is that we want to leverage this value to promote table joins with appropriate relationships while discouraging illogical joins when two tables are irrelevant. During the process of column sampling, we will choose columns that have smaller table distance with the other columns that have already been selected with the objective to create more realistic synthetic SQL queries. In the example above, assume we have first sampled a column from the table *student* (T7). For the next column placeholder, we are more likely to sample a column from table *enroll* (T5) than table *professor* (T6) — it is more natural to ask questions like "how many

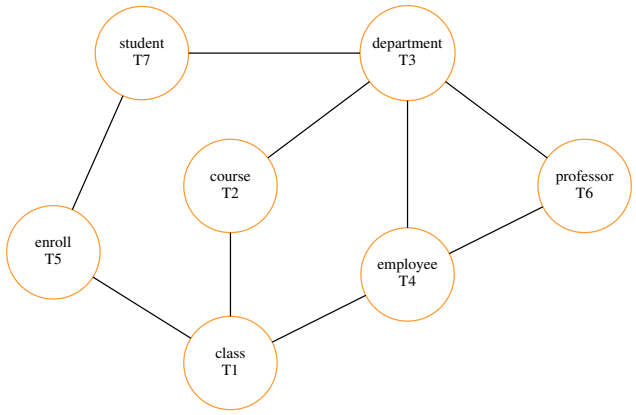

Figure 4: Example table graph (id: `college_1`)

students enrolled in class X" compared to asking "how many students enrolled in classes taught by professors who were employed before year YYYY".

B.2 Algorithm

Define a template t as $(q, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{v})$ where q is the flat template string, $\mathbf{c} = [c_1, \ldots, c_m]$ is the set of column placeholders and $\mathbf{v} = [v_1, \ldots, v_n]$ is the set of value placeholders in q. Denote T_c to represent the table that contains column c and $S_d(\tau)$ as the set of columns in d with the *strong type* τ. Given a

Algorithm 1: Single SQL Synthesis with Schema-Weighted Column Sampling

Input : template $t = (q, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{v})$, database d, decay rate γ
Output: SQL query y

Let $y = q$
Random sample z_1 from $S_d(\tau_{c_1})$ and replace c_1 with z_1 in y
Compute sampling weights

$$w(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } T_z = T_{c_1} \\ \frac{1}{\gamma^{\delta_{c_1}(z)}}, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}, \quad \forall z$$

where $\delta_c(z) = e(T_c, T_z)$
for $c \leftarrow c_2 : c_m$ **do**
  Compute sampling distribution

$$p(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{w(z)}{\sum_{z':\tau_{z'}=\tau_c} w(z')}, & \text{if } \tau_z = \tau_c \\ 0, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

  Sample z from $S_d(\tau_c)$ with p
  Replace c with z in y
  Update sampling weights

$$w(z) \leftarrow w(z) + \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } T_z = T_c \\ \frac{1}{\gamma^{\delta_c(z)}}, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}, \quad \forall z$$

end
for $v \leftarrow v_1 : v_n$ **do**
  Identify relevant columns w.r.t. v and retrieve a set of possible values for v from the d
  Random sample one value from the set and replace v with the value in y
end

template t and a qualified database d, the fundamental algorithm of SQL synthesis is described in Algorithm 1 in Appendix B.

The intuition is as follows: after we select the first column for the given template, we want to choose other columns in the database that are more relevant to the first column, so as to boost the chance of synthesizing more realistic SQL queries. We do so by sampling columns, for the remaining column placeholders in the template, according to a particular sampling probability, which is a monotonically decreasing function of the table distances in the table graph for type-qualified *column candidates*, and 0 for non-qualified *column candidate*.

In Algorithm 1, the input γ is the hyperparameter that controls the decay rate in the sampling probability for qualified columns. By selecting an appropriate value for γ ($\gamma = 5$), the average table count in our synthetic data constructed from the schema-weighted column sampling method is close to that in the real Spider benchmark as shown in Figure 5, while the random column sampling mechanism tend to generate SQLs that are overly complicated. See Appendix A for the experiment details.

B.3 Value of γ in Algorithm 1.

Recall that in Algorithm 1, γ is a hyperparameter that controls the decay rate in the sampling probability for columns that are farther away from the columns that have already been selected. Under the restricted join condition, we look at the number of tables in a query as a proxy to the table distance. To determine the value of γ, we randomly sample 7000 synthetic SQL queries with replacement and calculate the average number of tables from the samples. We repeat this process for 1000 times and plot the distribution. Then we perform the same steps for the real Spider training data. We chose γ so that the distribution of the average number of tables in the synthetic data is close to the real data. This helps prevent generating over-simplified or over-complicated SQL queries.

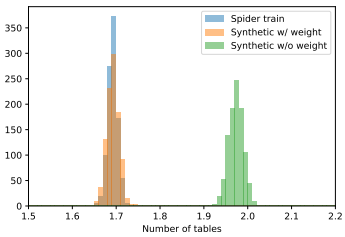

Figure 5: Histogram of the average table count (i.e. number of joins) for three types of datasets with $\gamma = 5$. Our schema-distance-weighted column sampling reduces the table number of synthetic SQLs and better matches the training distribution.

Based on this experiment, we chose γ to be 5 for the Spider benchmark. Figure 5 displays the distribution for three types of datasets: Spider training, synthetic dataset with schema-distance-weighted column sampling, and synthetic dataset with random column sampling. The figure demonstrates that the weighted sampling process, which provides an interface to tune the value of γ, can generate synthetic SQL queries that better match the real training data.