KNAPSACK SCHEMA LINKING AGENT FOR LLM BASED TEXT-TO-SQL GENERATION

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ABSTRACT

Generating SOLs according to user queries (text-to-SOL) is a long-standing sequential challenge, where the accuracy of the initial schema linking significantly impacts the subsequent SQL generation performance. However, existing models often focus more on SQL generation and less on the schema linking task, leading to potential missing or redundant schema linking and suboptimal SQL generation performance. The underlying reason is that schema linking is not a simple selection problem but a **Knapsack problem**, which should consider both the *value* of the schema linking in terms of missing important information and the *weight* of the schema linking in terms of providing redundant information. Motivated by this, we provide two tailored SL benchmarks and two tailored metrics to train SL agents and to evaluate the missing and redundant schema linking. In this paper, we propose the **Knapsack** Schema Linking Agent (KaSLA), which can link the most valuable and least redundant schema element subsets for both tables and columns. KaSLA introduces an importance score function to predict each schema element's importance score, and then utilizes the importance score to estimate the value and the weight of each schema. Then, by estimating the capacity, the maximum weight the knapsack can hold, of a given user query from historical SQL records, KaSLA employs efficient dynamic programming to select the most valuable schema element set within the estimated capacity. Extensive experiments on two benchmark datasets demonstrate the superior performance of KaSLA over 12 state-of-the-art baselines. Especially on the popular and challenging BIRD benchmark, KaSLA can outperform the baselines by over 5.72%.

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1 INTRODUCTION

With the advent of large language models (LLMs) (Achiam et al., 2023; Dubey et al., 2024), LLM-based text-to-SQL is emerging 037 as the next-generation interface for database users (Hong et al., 2024b). Typically, text-to-SQL frameworks employ a two-step process: first linking user queries to database schema, then gen-040 erating the corresponding SQL statement. However, the accurate 041 SQL statement requires the linking to the correct schema elements 042 (tables and columns) meaning that fatal errors in earlier stages 043 inevitably propagate to later ones. For instance, inaccurate schema 044 linking—such as overlooking crucial tables or linking to irrelevant tables or columns—will lead to incorrect SQL statements. As illustrated in Figure 1, current text-to-SQL models still exhibit





a significant performance gap (15.75%) in SQL generation compared with feeding gold standard
 schema linking. Consequently, improving the accuracy of schema linking remains a critical challenge
 with substantial research value, offering considerable potential for advancement in the field.

Recent state-of-the-art text-to-SQL models tend to focus primarily on final SQL generation while
employing relatively simplistic schema linking strategies. DIN-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2023)
pioneered the use of LLMs to generate schema linking by inputting the full schema. DAIL-SQL (Gao
et al., 2024) extended this approach by leveraging historical query-SQL pairs as evidence to improve generative schema linking. DELLM (Hong et al., 2024a) introduced a specialized data expert LLM

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Figure 2: Comparison of previous selection schema linking framework and knapsack schema linking framework. We use table linking as an example. Selection models usually lead to either missing or redundant items, while knapsack schema linking solves this issue by maximizing the total value of objects while adhering to the total weight constraint.

to provide additional knowledge for schema linking. DTS-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2024) fine-tunes
two LLMs for table linking and SQL generation, respectively. TA-SQL (Qu et al., 2024) generates a
dummy SQL and then utilizes LLM to abstract the linked schema from it for the subsequent SQL
generation. In contrast to the above approach, which relies exclusively on the generative capabilities
of LLMs, CodeS (Li et al., 2024b) implemented a recall-based strategy to include semantically
matching schema elements in the input for SQL generation models, albeit at the cost of potentially
introducing un-matching elements. However, as illustrated in Figure 1, both generative and recalled
schema linking strategies have a significant gap against the gold schema linking.

The significant performance gap can be attributed to three key problems:

- **Oversimplified Selection Modeling**: Existing text-to-SQL models do not impose constraints on the schema linking process. As shown in Figure 3, current schema linking processes suffer from either high missing rates, high redundancy rates, or both. Such missing and redundant elements negatively impact the overall SQL generation performance.
- Missing & Redundancy Seesaw Problem: There exists a seesaw phenomenon between missing and redundant elements in schema linking. Generative strategies tend to have high missing rates and low redundancy rates, while recall-based models exhibit the opposite behavior. Reducing both missing and redundant schema elements simultaneously poses a significant challenge.
- Lack of Benchmarks and Metrics: The field currently lacks a formal definition of the schema linking problem and standardized evaluation metrics for assessing missing and redundant elements. This absence hinders consistent evaluation and comparison of different approaches, impeding progress in the field.

092 From these observations, we highlight that schema linking is not a 093 simple selection problem but a Knapsack problem, which requires maximizing total value (low missing rate) while satisfying total weight 094 constraints (low redundant rate). To address this, we design two tai-095 lored schema linking benchmarks and introduce two schema linking 096 metrics: schema missing rate and schema redundancy rate to assess schema linking performance. Based on these benchmarks, we 098 propose the Knapsack Schema Linking Agent (KaSLA), a dynamic programming agent that links the most valuable and least redundant 100 element sets according to user queries. KaSLA can be applied to both 101 table and column linking. It introduces a novel nomination-guaranteed 102 score function to predict the importance score of each element, which 103 simultaneously assigns high scores to highly confident elements while 104 ensuring all elements receive basic importance scores to prevent miss-



Figure 3: The comparison of schema linking models on missing and redundancy on BIRD-dev.

ing. These importance scores are then used to estimate the value and weight of each element. By
 estimating the capacity of a given user query from historical SQL records, KaSLA employs efficient
 dynamic programming to select the most valuable element set within the predicted capacity. In
 summary, our contributions are as follows:

- We formally define the schema linking problem as a Knapsack problem. Motivated by this formulation, we propose the <u>Knapsack Schema Linking Agent</u> (KaSLA) to dynamically select the least missing and redundant schema elements and enhance mainstream text-to-SQL models.
- We introduce two well-organized benchmarks for schema linking training and evaluation, along with two metrics. These contributions facilitate future research in schema linking and text-to-SQL tasks. These benchmarks are anonymously published ¹.
 - KaSLA offers a novel nomination-guaranteed score function to overcome the missing & redundancy seesaw problems, and then estimate the value, weight, and capacity. This approach provides a fundamental solution for improving schema linking and text-to-SQL performance. Codes are public access available ².
 - Extensive experiments demonstrate that KaSLA can enhance schema linking accuracy by reducing missing and redundant information, as well as improve the final text-to-SQL generation accuracy. Particularly on the highly challenging BIRD benchmarks, KaSLA surpasses baselines by more than **5.72**%.
- 123 2 PRELIMINARIES

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Notations. Given a natural language query q and a database schema $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_{|S|}\}$, where s_i represents either a table or a column in the database, conveying the structured representation of the corresponding database. The database schema S can be further divided into two subsets: the set of tables $T = \{t_1, \dots, t_{|T|}\}$ and the set of columns $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_{|C|}\}$, such that $S = T \cup C$. For each table $t \in T$, its corresponding set of columns is denoted as $C_t = \{c_1, \dots, c_{|C_t|}\}$.

Knapsack Problem of Schema Linking. As discussed in the introduction, schema linking performance is negatively impacted by both missing and redundant elements, indicating that schema linking is not a simple selection problem. For example, directly feeding all schemas into the text-to-SQL models can capture all possible schemas but will suffer from heavy redundancy. On the other hand, when the total number of schemas is limited, there is a higher possibility of missing important ones.

Motivated by this, schema linking can be defined as a knapsack problem (Fréville, 2004), where the objective is to maximize the information contained in the schema linking set while controlling the total weight of the set. Formally, we have the following definition:

Definition 2.1 (*Knapsack Schema Linking Problem*). For any given query q, let C_q represent the total weight capacity of schemas for this query. For each schema s, let $V_{s,q}$ denote the value of the schema element given user query q, and let $W_{s,q}$ denote the weight of the schema given the query.

The optimal schema linking can be achieved by solving the following optimization problem:

$$\boldsymbol{S}^* = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\boldsymbol{S} \subseteq \mathcal{S}} \sum_{s \in \boldsymbol{S}} V_{s,q}, \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{s \in \boldsymbol{S}} W_{s,q} \le C_q. \tag{1}$$

In this formulation, the objective is to maximize the total value of the selected schema elements while ensuring that the total weight of the selected elements does not exceed the capacity C_q . By solving this knapsack problem, we can obtain the optimal schema linking set that balances the trade-off between including relevant information and minimizing redundancy.

To solve the Knapsack Schema Linking Problem, we need to estimate the value $V_{s,q}$ and weight $W_{s,q}$ of each schema element given the user query, as well as determine the capacity C_q for each query. In the following sections, we will first introduce the schema linking benchmark and then introduce our proposed KaSLA.

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3 SCHEMA LINKING BENCHMARKING

In this section, we first describe the construction of our benchmark dataset and then propose two
 specially designed metrics for schema linking evaluation.

¹https://anonymous.4open.science/r/iclr2025-SL-benchmark/

²https://anonymous.4open.science/r/iclr2025KaSLA/

162 3.1 BENCHMARK CONSTRUCTION 163

164 Our schema linking benchmark dataset is designed to facilitate the training and evaluation of schema linking models, aiming to inspire further research in developing increasingly powerful schema linking techniques. Each instance in the benchmark comprises a query, a full schema, and the 166 corresponding ground truth schema linking. Formally, the benchmark dataset can be expressed as 167 $\mathcal{B} = \{(q_i, \mathcal{S}, S_i)\}_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{B}|}$, where q_i represents the user query, \mathcal{S} denotes the full schema, and S_i is the 168 ground truth schema linking result for the *i*-th sample. 169

170 We have compiled two benchmarks based on the widely used Spider (Yu et al., 2018) and BIRD (Li 171 et al., 2023c) datasets, each containing over ten thousand records.

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3.2 SCHEMA LINKING METRICS 174

175 **Limitations of Previous Studies** Previous text-to-SQL research usually overlooked the evaluation of schema linking (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2023). Other works mentioned schema liking performance still 176 use classification metrics such as AUC (Li et al., 2023a; 2024b), Recall, Precision, and F1 scores (Qu 177 et al., 2024). However, any missing of the necessary element will result in wrong SQL generation. 178 Besides, Recall, Precision, and F1 cannot quantitatively evaluate the actual linking results. AUC is 179 also not suitable because schema linking is an imbalanced classification task. To this end, we propose two metrics that evaluate the missing and redundancy rates that directly impact the SQL generation 181 performance rather than traditional metrics. We provide a detailed discussion of the limitations of 182 traditional metrics and compare them with the proposed metrics in the Appendix G. 183

Schema Missing Rate Since the missing of even one necessary schema element will highly impact 185 the SQL generation performance, the \mathcal{R}_{miss} is designed to be a strict metric. Specifically, for each 186 instance, if the ground truth schema linking is not included in the predicted schema linking, this 187 instance gets a fail score of 1. Conversely, if the ground truth schema linking is totally included, the instance receives a success score of 0, indicating no missing. Formally, given the query q, the 188 189 predicted schema linking result \hat{S}_q , and the ground truth schema linking result S_q , the Schema Missing Rate \mathcal{R}_{miss} can be defined as: 190

$$\mathcal{R}_{miss} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{(q,\mathcal{S},\mathcal{S})\in\mathcal{B}} \mathbb{1}(\mathcal{S}_q \nsubseteq \widehat{\mathcal{S}}_q),$$
(2)

194 where $\mathbb{1}(\cdot)$ is an indicator function that returns 1 if the condition inside is satisfied and 0 otherwise. 195 As defined above, any missing element in \widehat{S}_q will result in a failure for that instance. 196

Schema Redundancy Rate Different from the missing condition, where even minor missing will result in wrong SQL statements, for redundancy, the LLMs have certain but not much anti-interference 199 ability, where a slight redundancy will not impact the SQL statement. However, as shown in Figure 1, 200 heavy redundancy, such as inputting full schema, will have far lower SQL generation performance compared with inputting schema linkings. Motivated by this, Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{redun}) 202 describes how many portions of schemas are redundant, where the formal definition is:

$$\mathcal{R}_{redun} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{(q,\mathcal{S},\mathbf{S})\in\mathcal{B}} \underbrace{(\frac{|\widehat{S}_q \setminus S_q|}{|\widehat{S}_q|})}_{\text{Redundancy Rate}}^{\sigma}, \quad \underbrace{\sigma = \mathbb{1}(S_q \subseteq \widehat{S}_q)}_{\text{Non-missing Indicator}}.$$
(3)

Here, $|\widehat{S}_q \setminus S_q|$ is the number of redundant elements which is predicted but not present in the 208 ground truth. Note that we only consider the redundancy rate of the non-missed prediction, and 209 the redundancy of the missed prediction will directly be treated as 1, which means a failure. Since 210 if the prediction is null set Φ , the redundancy will be unreasonably computed as 0. Based on this 211 formulation, a lower \mathcal{R}_{redun} indicates better schema linking performance with fewer redundancy. 212

213 By employing both \mathcal{R}_{miss} and \mathcal{R}_{redun} , we provide a more comprehensive and unbiased evaluation of schema linking models, ensuring that both completeness and redundancy are adequately assessed. 214 This approach offers a nuanced understanding of model performance, directly applicable to the task 215 of SQL generation.

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4 KNAPSACK SCHEMA LINKING AGENT (KASLA)

We first introduce the definition and training process of the nomination-guaranteed score function. Then we discuss the estimation of key knapsack factors using the importance score. Finally, we present the full hierarchical KaSLA schema linking process.

4.1 NOMINATION-GUARANTEED SCORE FUNCTION

Overview The key factor of KaSLA is evaluating the importance score for each given schema element. We introduce a hybrid nomination-guaranteed score function to accomplish this task. The nomination part identifies high-confidence elements using a heuristic approach, while the guaranteed part provides a basic importance score for each element. Formally, the nomination-guaranteed function can be expressed as:

$$I_{s,q} = \min(\mathcal{I}(s \mid q, \mathcal{S}), 1), \quad \mathcal{I}(s \mid q, \mathcal{S}) = \mathcal{I}_{nomi}(s \mid q, \mathcal{S}) + \alpha \mathcal{I}_{quar}(s \mid q, \mathcal{S}), \tag{4}$$

where $\mathcal{I}_{nomi}(s \mid q, S)$ returns a {0, 1} value that directly nominates elements, $\mathcal{I}_{guar}(s \mid q, S)$ assigns a soft [0, 1] value to each element, and α controls the contribution of the guaranteed score. We set an upper bound of 1 for $I_{s,q}$ to avoid introducing overly strong contrasting relationships between the potentially matched elements.

Nomination Scoring Model The nomination scoring model effectively returns a subset given the full schema, formally expressed as $\widehat{S}_{nomi} \subseteq S$ given the input (q, S). Thus, $\mathcal{I}_{nomi}(s \mid q, S) = 1$ if $s \in \widehat{S}_{nomi}$ and $\mathcal{I}_{nomi}(s \mid q, S) = 0$ if $s \notin \widehat{S}_{nomi}$.

To best meet these requirements, we employ Large Language Models (LLMs) (Lozhkov et al., 2024) as the nomination model. Specifically, we utilize StarCoder2, fine-tuning it on our benchmark using the ground truth schema linking result S as the target for schema prediction. The loss function is formulated as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{nomi} = -\sum_{(q, \mathcal{S}, \mathbf{S}) \in |\mathcal{B}|} \log P(\mathbf{S} \mid q, \mathcal{S}).$$
(5)

Guaranteed Scoring Model The guaranteed scoring model $\mathcal{I}_{guar}(s \mid q, S) = P(s \in S)$ assigns an importance value to any given element, representing the predicted probability of $s \in S$.

We design the guaranteed scoring model from a semantic perspective. First, we use a RoBERTa-Large model $f_{emb}(\cdot)$ to obtain semantic embeddings of all schema elements $f_{emb}(s)$, where $s \in S$, and the query embedding $f_{emb}(q)$. Then, following the approach of Li et al. (2023a; 2024b), we employ a cross-attention network $f_{att}(\cdot)$ to jointly embed the semantic embeddings of tables and their columns for each element $s \in S$. The importance score is then predicted as $(\mathbf{W} \cdot f_{att}(f_{emb}(s)) + \mathbf{b}) \cdot f_{emb}(q)$, where \mathbf{W} and \mathbf{b} are learnable parameters.

We train this guaranteed scoring model using our constructed benchmark. Specifically, we use the presence of s in S as a training objective. The detailed loss function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{guar} = \sum_{(q,\mathcal{S},\mathbf{S})\in|\mathcal{B}|} \sum_{s\in\mathcal{S}} FL(\mathbb{1}(s\in\mathbf{S}), \mathcal{I}_{guar}(s\mid q, \mathcal{S})),$$
(6)

where $FL(\cdot)$ is the focal loss function (Ross & Dollár, 2017), designed to focus learning on hard negative samples.

4.2 KNAPSACK FACTOR ESTIMATION

As formulated in Eq. (1), for a given schema element s and query q, KaSLA employs $V_{s,q}$ and W_{s,q} to represent the value and weight of s, respectively. For query q, KaSLA utilizes C_q to denote the total weight capacity. Unlike traditional knapsack problems Fréville (2004), KaSLA lacks ground truth values for these factors. This section proposes three estimation functions to predict the aforementioned factors, enabling KaSLA to select the most valuable element subsets while adhering to the total weight capacity constraint.

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Value Estimation Schemas with higher importance scores should be assigned higher values for inclusion in KaSLA. Consequently, any positive correlation function can map the importance score $I_{s,q}$ to the value estimation $\hat{V}_{s,q}$. For simplicity, we employ an identity transformation as the most straightforward mapping function:

$$\widehat{V}_{s,q} = f_V(s,q) = I_{s,q}.$$
(7)

While more sophisticated value estimation functions could be designed, this simple yet effectivesolution proves powerful in practice.

Weight Estimation For weight estimation, elements with higher importance should be assigned lower weights than those with lower importance scores. Thus, the weight estimation employs a negative correlation function to map importance scores to weight estimations. Specifically, we define the element weight $\widehat{W}_{s,q}$ using a reciprocal power function of the importance $I_{s,q}$ to represent the likelihood that introducing an element will add redundancy to the final schema linking results.

For schema element $s \in S$, the prediction function of W is formulated as:

$$\widehat{W}_{s,q} = f_W(s,q) = \lfloor (I_{s,q} - \mathbb{E}_{I \ge \tau}(\mathcal{S},q) + 1)^{-1} \rfloor,$$
(8)

where $\mathbb{E}_{I \geq \tau}(\mathcal{S}, q)$ is the expectation of element importance scores greater than a hyperparameter τ :

$$\mathbb{E}_{I \ge \tau}(\mathcal{S}, q) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left\{I_{s,q} \mid I_{s,q} \ge \tau\right\}_{s \in \mathcal{S}}\right].$$
(9)

The rounding operation in $f_W(s,q)$ is designed to reduce the time and space complexity of subsequent Knapsack optimization. We use $\mathbb{E}_{I \ge \tau}(S,q)$ to denote the average importance of elements with high importance scores. $f_W(s,q)$ computes the reciprocal of the difference between each element's importance $I_{s,q}$ and an expected high importance score. A large negative difference indicates that the element deviates significantly from other highly important ones, suggesting a higher likelihood of redundancy.

Capacity Estimation To constrain redundancy in the schema linking process, we define weight capacity C as the maximum allowable weight for KaSLA. We begin by selecting a top- K_C similar demonstration set D from the training dataset, based on the similarity between the user queries in the training dataset and the given query q. For each sample d in D, we define a schema element set that includes all ground truth elements as well as all elements with an estimated importance greater than the ground truth ones. We denote this set as Knap(d) to represent an assumed full knapsack:

$$\operatorname{Knap}(d) = \mathbf{S}_d + \{s \mid I_{s,q_d} \ge \min\{I_{z,q_d}\}_{z \in \mathbf{S}_d}\}_{s \in \mathcal{S}_d \setminus \mathbf{S}_d},\tag{10}$$

where S_d is the ground truth linking set, and S_d is the original schema of d. We then calculate the sum of the predicted weights of all elements in Knap(d) to represent the assumed capacity of d. Accordingly, we define the prediction function of C as follows:

$$\widehat{C}_q = f_C(q) = \gamma \cdot \max\{\sum_{s \in \operatorname{Knap}(d)} \widehat{W}_{s,q}\}_{d \in D},\tag{11}$$

where $\gamma > 0$ is a hyperparameter. The maximum capacity among all samples in the most similar demonstrations of q provides a robust prediction of the capacity.

4.3 HIERARCHICAL KASLA SCHEMA LINKING

Our KaSLA operates in a hierarchical manner to effectively address schema linking challenges.
 The process unfolds in two stages: first, KaSLA performs table linking, and subsequently, for each
 selected table, it simultaneously accomplishes column linking. This hierarchical approach enables
 KaSLA to efficiently reduce the dimensionality of the schema space, thereby enhancing its capability
 to handle large-scale and complex schema linking and text-to-SQL generation tasks encountered in
 real-world applications.

KaSLA Agent Details The core of KaSLA's schema linking process is formulated as an optimization problem, which we solve using a tailored integer 0-1 knapsack dynamic programming algorithm. Given the estimated values $\hat{V}_{s,q}$ and weights $\widehat{W}_{s,q}$ for all elements *s*, and the estimated capacity \widehat{C}_q of the query *q*, we aim to solve:

$$\boldsymbol{S}^* = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\boldsymbol{S} \subseteq \mathcal{S}} \sum_{s \in \boldsymbol{S}} \widehat{V}_{s,q}, \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{s \in \boldsymbol{S}} \widehat{W}_{s,q} \le \widehat{C}_q. \tag{12}$$

This optimization problem is efficiently solved using dynamic programming, leveraging the discrete nature of the weights and capacity. The algorithm systematically builds an optimal solution by considering all possible element combinations within the capacity constraint, ensuring that KaSLA selects the most valuable elements while respecting the query's capacity limit. This approach not only guarantees an optimal solution but also provides insights into the trade-offs between element value and computational capacity, allowing for adaptable and efficient schema linking across diverse query complexities.

Hierarchical KaSLA Strategy The hierarchical nature of KaSLA allows for a more efficient and scalable approach to schema linking. This strategy is implemented in two distinct phases: table linking and column linking. The full algorithm is provided in Appendix D Algorithm 1 and the complexity analysis is provided in Appendix E.

TABLE LINKING PHASE In the first phase, KaSLA focuses on identifying the relevant tables for the given query. Let T be the set of all available tables and q be the input query. The table linking optimization problem is formulated as:

$$\boldsymbol{T}^* = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\boldsymbol{T} \subseteq \mathcal{T}} \sum_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}} \widehat{V}_{t,q}, \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}} \widehat{W}_{t,q} \le \widehat{C}_q^t, \tag{13}$$

where $\widehat{V}_{t,q}$ and $\widehat{W}_{t,q}$ are the estimated value and weight of table t for query q, respectively, and \widehat{C}_q^t is the estimated capacity for tables in query q.

COLUMN LINKING PHASE Following the table linking, KaSLA proceeds to select relevant columns for each chosen table. For each table $t \in T^*$, let C_t be the set of columns in table t. The column linking optimization problem for each table is defined as:

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{t}^{*} = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\boldsymbol{T}' \subseteq \boldsymbol{T}_{t}} \sum_{c \in \boldsymbol{T}'} \widehat{V}_{c,q,t}, \quad \text{subject to} \quad \sum_{c \in \boldsymbol{T}'} \widehat{W}_{c,q,t} \leq \widehat{C}_{q,t}^{c}, \tag{14}$$

where $\widehat{V}_{c,q,t}$ and $\widehat{W}_{c,q,t}$ are the estimated value and weight of column c in table t for query q, respectively, and $\widehat{C}_{q,t}^c$ is the estimated capacity for columns of table t in query q. The final schema linking result S^* is the union of all selected tables and the corresponding selected columns:

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{S}}_{\text{KaSLA}} = \boldsymbol{T}^* \cup \bigcup_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}^*} \boldsymbol{C}_t^*.$$
(15)

Final KaSLA Application In the deployment phase, both during training and inference, KaSLA can integrate with any text-to-SQL model \mathcal{M} . This flexibility allows KaSLA to enhance the performance of existing state-of-the-art models while maintaining their underlying strengths. Given an input query q, KaSLA's predicted schema linking \hat{S}_{KaSLA} , and the ground truth schema linking result S, the training process of a SQL generation model is formulated as follows:

$$\widehat{y} = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P_{\mathcal{M}}(y|q, \widehat{S}_{\mathrm{KaSLA}} \cup S), \tag{16}$$

where \mathcal{Y} represents the target SQL queries, and $P_{\mathcal{M}}(y|q, \widehat{S}_{KaSLA} \cup S)$ denotes the probability assigned by model \mathcal{M} to token y in \mathcal{Y} , conditioned on the input query q and the unified schema information. During the inference stage, only the schema linking results generated by KaSLA are used:

$$\widehat{\mathcal{Y}} = \mathcal{M}(q, \widehat{\boldsymbol{S}}_{\text{KaSLA}}), \tag{17}$$

where $\widehat{\mathcal{Y}}$ represents the predicted SQL queries.

³⁷⁸ 5 EXPERIMENTS

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We conducted comprehensive experiments on two public text-to-SQL datasets to evaluate KaSLA and address the following research questions: **RQ1**: Does KaSLA outperform existing text-to-SQL baselines? **RQ2**: Can KaSLA enhance the performance of other text-to-SQL models? **RQ3**: Does KaSLA demonstrate better schema linking performance? **RQ4**: Is KaSLA a solution for real-world text-to-SQL applications without training data? (We addressed RQ4 in Appendix F.)

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5.1 EXPERIMENT SETUP

We conducted experiments on two well-known large-scale text-to-SQL datasets, BIRD (Li et al., 2023c) and Spider (Yu et al., 2018). We included multiple robust baselines based on LMs, LLMs with in-context learning, and LLMs with fine-tuning. For evaluation, we used the proposed metrics Schema Missing Rate (\mathcal{R}_{miss}) and Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{redun}) for schema linking, as well as Execution Accuracy (EX) (Yu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2023c) and Valid Efficiency Score (VES) (Li et al., 2023c) for text-to-SQL. The detailed experimental settings are presented in Appendix B.

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395 5.2 MAIN RESULTS OF SQL GENERATION396

To address **RQ1**, we conduct experiments to evaluate the SQL generation ability of our KaSLA and other baselines with Execution Accuracy (EX) and Valid Efficiency Score (VES) on the BIRD-dev and Spider-dev datasets and report the results in Table 1.

KaSLA's superior performance. Based on the experimental results, KaSLA demonstrates out standing performance across both BIRD-dev and Spider-dev. KaSLA achieves the highest overall
 EX (63.75%) and VES (69.68%) on both BIRD-dev and Spider-dev datasets, clearly surpassing all
 other approaches. While its scores on Spider-dev are 88.01% EX and 86.06% VES, significantly
 outperforming other models.

405 Comparison with GPT-4 ICL baseline. In comparison to the best In-Context Learning (ICL) 406 baseline, which uses the powerful GPT-4, KaSLA shows remarkable improvements. On BIRD-dev, 407 KaSLA outperforms the best ICL baseline by 6.77% in EX and 5.56% in VES. On the Spider-408 dev dataset, KaSLA's EX improvement compared to GPT4-based methods is slightly lower, this 409 discrepancy can be attributed to the inherently simpler and more regular schema of the Spiderdev dataset. A simpler schema can be processed well without specially designed linking methods, 410 thereby making advanced systems like KaSLA appear less dominant in terms of improvement 411 gains. Consequently, these improvements on BIRD-dev highlight KaSLA's advanced capabilities, 412 particularly in more intricate database environments. 413

Performance across difficulty levels. When evaluating the models based on the difficulty levels,
KaSLA consistently excels across all difficulty levels—easy, medium, and hard. On BIRD-dev,
KaSLA achieves significant EX improvements of 4.20%, 18.50%, and 1.58% over the best ICL
baselines and 2.54%, 12.55%, and 12.28% over the best ICL baselines on easy, medium, and hard
queries, respectively. On Spider-dev, while the overall improvement is smaller, KaSLA still shows
performance enhancements across hard and extra hard queries compared with the best SFT baseline.

- 420 421
- 421 5.3 APPLY KASLA TO EXISTING TEXT-TO-SQL MODELS 422

To address **RQ2**, we evaluated the impact of integrating KaSLA as a plug-in model into existing textto-SQL methods and provided the results in Table 2. For our analysis, we specifically incorporated the schema elements linked by KaSLA into prominent text-to-SQL baselines. Through this integration, KaSLA's enhanced schema linking capabilities are utilized as part of the input prompt for SQL generation, promising improvements in both EX and VES.

Improvements with KaSLA. As shown in Table 2, integrating KaSLA leads to noticeable improvements. For instance, the combination of CodeS-15B-SFT with KaSLA demonstrates an improvement in overall EX on the BIRD-dev dataset from 58.08% to 60.95%, alongside a boost in VES from 59.87% to 66.11%. Similar enhancements are observed with DAIL-SQL, E-SQL, and CHESS when augmented with KaSLA, notably improving EX and VES across various difficulty levels and datasets.

Table 1: The text-to-SQL performance of our KaSLA and three main types of baselines: regular LMs, In-Context Learning (ICL) with LLMs, and Supervised Fine-Tuning (SFT) with LLMs, with Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) and Valid Efficiency Score (VES) (%) on BIRD-dev and Spider-dev datasets. The numbers in parentheses next to each method (e.g., 23', 24') represent the release year of the respective models or methods. (SC) refers DAIL-SQL with self-consistency.

		Taxt to SOL		I	BIRD-dev					Spide	er-dev		
Type	Method	Model		ΕΣ	K		VES			EX			VES
		Widdei	Easy	Medium	Hard	Total	Total	Easy	Medium	Hard	Extra	Total	Total
, se		T5-Base	42.27	20.22	15.97	33.12	32.85	91.94	83.63	68.39	51.81	77.95	77.71
Ξ,	ResdSQL (23')	T5-Large	46.49	27.96	22.92	38.66	40.62	93.55	85.43	72.41	53.61	80.08	79.72
-		T5-3B	53.51	33.33	16.67	43.94	44.42	<u>94.76</u>	87.67	72.99	56.02	81.82	80.89
	C3-SQL (23')	GPT-3.5	58.92	38.49	31.94	50.20	50.77	92.74	85.20	77.59	62.05	82.01	80.09
ĺ	MAC-SQL (23')		-	-	-	57.56	58.76	-	-	-	-	86.75	-
	DIN-SQL (23')		-	-	-	50.72	58.79	92.34	87.44	76.44	62.65	82.79	81.70
H	DAIL-SQL (23')		62.49	43.44	38.19	54.43	55.74	91.53	89.24	77.01	60.24	83.08	83.11
2	DAIL-SQL (SC)	GPT-4	63.03	45.81	43.06	55.93	57.20	91.53	90.13	75.29	62.65	83.56	-
	TA-SQL (24')		63.14	48.82	36.81	56.32	-	93.50	90.80	77.60	64.50	85.00	-
	SuperSQL (24')		66.92	46.67	43.75	58.60	60.62	94.35	91.26	83.33	68.67	87.04	85.92
	Dubo-SQL (24')		-	-	-	<u>59.71</u>	<u>66.01</u>	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Pure-SL(24')		56.65	43.23	31.94	50.26	57.09	93.15	87.89	74.71	59.04	82.30	80.63
	DTS-SQL (24')	Stor Collars	63.03	46.02	34.72	55.22	64.17	91.94	90.58	78.74	66.87	85.11	85.49
E	TA-SL (24')	StarCoder2	59.89	45.38	34.72	53.13	60.51	95.56	92.38	79.89	63.25	86.36	85.03
	CodeS (24')	-13B	68.00	51.40	39.58	60.30	65.04	94.76	91.26	72.99	64.46	84.72	83.52
	KaSLA (Ours)		69.73	57.85	44.44	63.75	69.68	96.77	93.27	82.76	66.27	88.01	86.06
%In	prov. vs. the best I	CL baseline	+4.20%	+18.50%	+1.58%	+6.77%	+5.56%	+2.56%	+2.20%	-0.68%	-3.49%	+1.11%	+0.16%
%Im	prov. vs. the best S	FT baseline	+2.54%	+12.55%	+12.28%	+5.72%	+7.13%	+1.27%	+0.96%	+3.59%	+2.81%	+1.91%	+3.04%

Table 2: The text-to-SQL performance of adding KaSLA as a plug-in model dedicated to schema linking to other text-to-SQL methods on BIRD-dev and Spider-dev.

	Taxt to SOI		B	RD-dev					Spider	-dev		
Method	Model		EX	[VES			EX			VES
	Widdei	Easy	Medium	Hard	Total	Total	Easy	Medium	Hard	Extra	Total	Total
CodeS	CodeS 15D SET	65.62	49.68	36.81	58.08	59.87	95.97	89.01	75.29	62.05	84.04	81.74
CodeS + KaSLA	Codes-15B-SF1	68.54	52.04	40.97	60.95	66.11	95.97	90.58	75.86	59.64	84.43	83.06
DTS-SQL	StarCoder2 15B	63.03	46.02	34.72	55.22	64.17	91.94	90.58	78.74	66.87	85.11	85.49
DTS-SQL + KaSLA	StarCouer2=15B	65.95	49.89	37.50	58.41	65.56	96.37	92.38	79.31	69.28	87.43	85.73
TA-SL	StarCodor 2 15D	59.89	45.38	34.72	53.13	60.51	95.56	92.38	79.89	63.25	86.36	85.03
TA-SL + KaSLA	StarCouer2-13B	65.30	49.46	38.89	58.02	65.88	95.97	92.83	80.46	64.46	86.94	85.58
DAIL-SQL	CDT 4	62.49	43.44	38.19	54.43	55.74	91.53	89.24	77.01	60.24	83.08	83.11
DAIL-SQL + KaSLA	0r 1-4	64.86	49.89	38.89	57.89	59.39	95.97	90.13	84.48	66.87	86.85	85.51
CHESS	CDT 4	69.51	57.20	40.97	63.10	67.23	95.97	93.05	81.61	63.86	87.14	85.66
CHESS + KaSLA	011-4	69.84	58.28	43.75	63.89	68.72	97.18	93.50	82.18	66.87	88.20	86.12
E-SQL	CPT 4o	70.70	60.43	45.83	65.25	70.01	97.18	93.72	83.33	65.66	88.30	86.38
E-SQL + KaSLA	01 1-40	71.14	61.29	47.22	65.91	70.86	97.58	93.72	83.91	66.87	88.68	86.82

KaSLA's adaptability and robustness. These results underscore KaSLA's flexibility and effectiveness as a plug-in model. The performance uplift attributed to KaSLA supports its invaluable role in improving complex text-to-SQL tasks, making it a versatile and powerful addition to any existing system. This adaptability not only confirms KaSLA's robustness but also promotes its universal applicability across different models to achieve superior performance outcomes.

5.4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS OF SCHEMA LINKING

To answer the **RQ3**, we conduct the experiments and report the benchmark results of schema linking methods on BIRD-dev in Table 3 and report the results on Spider-dev in Appendix I Table 12. We utilize the proposed evaluation metrics: Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{miss}) and Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{redun}). We also involve a combined metric ($\mathcal{R}_{correct} = 1 - (\mathcal{R}_{miss} + \mathcal{R}_{redun})/2$) to evaluate the comprehensive ability of schema linking model to avoid missing and redundancy.

KaSLA's superior performance. The experimental results demonstrate that our KaSLA method exhibits significantly lower missing rates and redundancy rates, resulting in higher overall correctness rates, consistently achieving a superior performance compared to several other schema linking methods. For instance, on the BIRD-dev dataset, KaSLA attains an impressive $R_{correct}$ of 85.99% (table) and 75.97% (column), far surpassing other methods such as CodeS-SL or DTS-SL.

Table 3: Schema linking benchmarks with R_{miss} and R_{redun} on BIRD-dev. We define a comprehen-
sive metric $\mathcal{R}_{correct} = 1 - (\mathcal{R}_{miss} + \mathcal{R}_{redun})/2$ to evaluate the ability of schema linking model to
avoid element missing and redundancy.

							Schema	linking Met	hod				
ase	Metri	c		CodeS-SI	Ĺ	10shot I	CL-SL	DIN-	-SL	DTS-SL	Pure-SL	TA-SL	KaSLA
Dat	wieur	c	RoB	ERTa	SGPT	GPT 3.5	GPT 4	GPT 3.5	GPT 4	Sta	rCoder? 15	B	(Ours)
П			Base	Large	-1.3B	01 1-5.5	011-4	01 1-5.5	011-4	514	rcouci2-15	D	
	\mathcal{D}	table	1.56	0.85	3.59	33.57	31.23	49.61	36.83	35.01	35.01	21.32	5.21
ev	$\kappa_{miss} \downarrow$	colmn	15.00	<u>12.53</u>	15.94	93.84	91.49	96.18	93.64	35.77	57.54	43.80	5.83
-d	\mathcal{P} . \mid	table	57.43	56.97	58.48	42.81	35.74	52.31	39.78	39.71	39.71	<u>25.77</u>	22.80
RI	$hardun \downarrow$	colmn	81.50	80.83	82.13	95.29	92.18	96.49	94.13	83.04	61.75	<u>46.25</u>	42.24
B	\mathcal{D} \wedge	table	70.50	71.09	68.97	61.81	66.52	49.04	61.69	62.64	62.64	76.46	85.99
	<i>∧</i> correct	colmn	51.75	53.32	50.96	5.44	8.16	3.66	6.12	40.60	40.36	<u>54.97</u>	75.97

Balancing metrics for effectiveness. Despite some methods achieving lower R_{miss} or R_{redun} individually, they fail to strike a balance between the two metrics. For example, CodeS-SL with a RoBERTa-Large achieves the lowest R_{miss} of 0.85% for table linking on BIRD-dev, yet its R_{redun} is quite high at 56.97%, leading to a lower $R_{correct}$. In contrast, KaSLA not only maintains a low R_{miss} but also substantially reduces R_{redun} , thus demonstrating its comprehensive capability in schema linking. This ability to effectively avoid both element missing and redundancy verifies KaSLA's robustness and efficacy, making it a reliable choice for schema linking tasks in complex datasets.

6 LIMITATION

A natural limitation of KaSLA is the inference delay. KaSLA uses a fine-tuned StarCoder2-15B to generate nomination scores for the entire schema, aiming for improved semantic understanding, but this results in additional time consumption during inference. We analyzed the average processing time per instance during inference for each component of KaSLA on the BIRD and Spider datasets, as detailed in Table 4. We found that the nomination model with StarCoder2-15B contributes to this inference delay, while other components, such as the guaranteed model with RoBERTa-Large and the hierarchical knapsack optimization using dynamic programming, do not significantly increase time consumption. In the future, we aim to reduce the time usage of the nomination model when processing the entire schema, while maintaining accuracy.

Table 4: Inference time cost per instance of each component in KaSLA

-	Dataset	Schema linking model	Nomination model with StarCoder2-15B	Guaranteed model with RoBERTa-Large	Factor estimation and dynamic programming	Text-to-SQL	Total
-	BIRD-dev	Full Schema KaSLA	/ 12.87 s	/ 0.12 s	/ < 0.01 s	14.35 s 8.80 s	14.35 s 21.80 s
-	Spider-dev	Full Schema KaSLA	/ 9.17 s	/ 0.06 s	/ < 0.01 s	9.69 s 7.89 s	9.69 s 17.13 s

7 CONCLUSION

This paper introduced the Knapsack Schema Linking Agent (KaSLA), a novel approach to address
the schema linking challenges in text-to-SQL tasks. By framing schema linking as a Knapsack
problem, KaSLA effectively balances the trade-off between missing and redundant schema linkages,
significantly enhancing the accuracy of SQL generation. Our proposed benchmarks and metrics
provide a new standard for evaluating schema linking performance, fostering further advancements
in the field. Extensive experiments demonstrate KaSLA's superiority over existing methods.

These findings highlight KaSLA's potential to revolutionize schema linking and advance the broader
 capabilities of text-to-SQL systems. By effectively reducing both missing and redundant information,
 KaSLA not only improves schema linking accuracy but also enhances the overall performance of
 SQL generation. The innovation of the nomination-guaranteed score function plays a crucial role
 in overcoming the missing and redundancy seesaw problem, offering a robust solution that can be
 integrated into mainstream text-to-SQL models. Our contributions pave the way for more precise and
 efficient database interactions, underscoring the transformative impact of KaSLA in the field.

400	л	1	5	1	2
	4	1	2	1	2

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- natural language processing (NLP) research (Wang et al., 2022; Qin et al., 2022). The techniques involved in text-to-SQL implementation have undergone a long period of evolution (Hong et al., 2024b). Early methods in text-to-SQL research largely focused on template and rule-based human

702 engineering (Li & Jagadish, 2014; Mahmud et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2021). Subsequently, with the 703 emergence of deep learning (Katsogiannis-Meimarakis & Koutrika, 2023) and pre-trained language 704 models (PLMs) (Liu et al., 2019; Devlin et al., 2019), text-to-SQL has further advanced along with 705 these developments (Yin et al., 2020; Choi et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023b). Most recently, as LLMs 706 have gained prevalence in both research-oriented papers and industrial projects, text-to-SQL systems integrating LLMs are now a research hotspot in the NLP and database communities. Our study 707 follows an LLM-based text-to-SQL paradigm, consisting of in-context learning and fine-tuning 708 techniques. 709

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A.1 IN-CONTEXT LEARNING-BASED TEXT-TO-SQL

713 At the inception of LLMs, in-context learning (ICL) and prompt engineering emerged as a core 714 method driving advancements in the study of LLMs (Reynolds & McDonell, 2021). Early efforts in 715 LLM-based text-to-SOL studied the effectiveness of ICL with different prompt designs on various 716 LLMs (Liu et al., 2023). The natural language understanding (NLU) capabilities empowered by 717 numerous training corpora enable LLMs to perform well in SQL generation with simple prompt 718 engineering (Rajkumar et al., 2022). With the success of well-designed ICL methods in other NLU tasks (Wei et al., 2022; 2021), the integration into the text-to-SQL task has also achieved solid 719 improvement (Tai et al., 2023). Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting (Wei et al., 2022) shows great 720 potential in natural language reasoning tasks. DIN-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2023) proposed a CoT-721 based decomposed ICL framework with self-correction; ACT-SQL () designed a method to generate 722 automatic CoT exemplars to enhance SQL reasoning. To optimize the prompt towards better quality, 723 DAIL-SQL (Gao et al., 2024) introduces a few-shot sampling strategy, providing related samples 724 for LLMs to learn from, and the Knowledge-to-SQL (Hong et al., 2024a) framework is proposed 725 to generate helpful knowledge to assist SQL generation. Self-consistency (Wang et al., 2023) for 726 LLM-based text-to-SQL ensures accuracy based on the execution result. The C3 (Dong et al., 2023) 727 framework conducts a majority vote of consistency; SQL-PaLM (Sun et al., 2023) introduces an 728 error-filtering-aided consistency decoding based on execution for better SQL generation. Multi-stage 729 decomposition is also popular in text-to-SQL studies. MAC-SQL (Wang et al., 2024) employs a multi-agent collaboration framework to generate and refine SQL; TA-SQL (Qu et al., 2024) introduces 730 a two-stage generation framework incorporating schema linking and logical synthesis. ICL-based 731 methods are the mainstream paradigm of LLM-based text-to-SQL, which have made significant 732 progress and continue to be widely studied in the most current work. CHASE-SQL (Pourreza et al., 733 2024) proposes an in-context learning prompt for question decomposition and involves a novel 734 online synthetic example generation method to adapt LLMs to test datasets. Our proposed method 735 also follows the ICL paradigm for text-to-SQL. Firstly, we generate a schema linking and then use 736 adaptive evaluation to improve its quality, providing clear guidance to understand the user query and 737 the corresponding database schema. Then, the LLMs incorporate the provided schema linking to 738 generate accurate SQL queries.

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A.2 FINE-TUNING-BASED TEXT-TO-SQL

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Fine-tuning is an intuitive and widely recognized technique for enabling LLMs to perform specific 743 downstream tasks (Wei et al., 2021). The fine-tuning methods for aligning LLMs with instructional 744 tasks are gradually evolving towards better performance and greater effectiveness (Rafailov et al., 745 2023). Even though code-specific LLMs are trained on massive programming scenarios, they still 746 struggle when facing challenging user queries and complex database environments (Gan et al., 747 2021; Deng et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023c). As a straightforward method, supervised fine-tuning 748 (SFT) (Wei et al., 2021) is utilized to adapt open-source LLMs for SQL generation, which elicits a 749 solid improvement (Gao et al., 2024). For well-designed methods, CodeS (Li et al., 2024b) proposes 750 a two-stage training framework. First, a backbone code-LLM is pre-trained on an incremental 751 training corpus, followed by SFT on bi-directional augmented query-SQL pairs, achieving impressive 752 performance with open-source LLMs. Instead of fine-tuning a single model, DTS-SQL (Pourreza & 753 Rafiei, 2024) fine-tunes two LLMs separately for schema linking generation and SQL generation. This two-stage generation process elicits higher accuracy. Our work involves fine-tuning the LLMs 754 and the PLMs based on the schema linking task, then incorporating the generated schema linking to 755 assist in accurate SQL generation.

756 A.3 SCHEMA LINKING

Schema linking is a crucial step in text-to-SQL tasks, involving the identification and association of
natural language query elements with corresponding database schema components, such as tables
and columns. This process significantly influences the overall performance of SQL generation and
has been the focus of extensive research.

762 With the advent of Large Language Models (LLMs), schema linking has seen considerable innovation 763 and potential. DIN-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2023) marked a significant advancement by using LLMs 764 to generate schema linkages, utilizing the entire schema as input to leverage the LLMs' contextual 765 understanding. Building on this, DAIL-SQL (Gao et al., 2024) incorporated historical query-SQL pairs as evidence, refining schema linking by utilizing past interactions. DELLM (Hong et al., 2024a) 766 extended these capabilities with a specialized data expert LLM, providing additional knowledge 767 to improve schema linking in complex scenarios. Similarly, E-SQL (Caferoğlu & Ulusoy, 2024) 768 introduced a query enrichment method that incorporates relevant database elements to enrich user 769 queries rather than simplifying the full schema. DTS-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2024) fine-tuned 770 LLMs specifically for table linking and SQL generation, ensuring task-focused training at each 771 process stage. TA-SQL (Qu et al., 2024) introduced the approach of generating a dummy SQL to 772 abstract linked schemas via an LLM, allowing for iterative refinement before the final SQL generation. 773 Conversely, CodeS (Li et al., 2024b) implemented a retrieval-based strategy, recalling semantically 774 matching schema elements as inputs for SQL generation models. CHESS (Talaei et al., 2024) treated 775 column linking as a binary classification task to eliminate obviously irrelevant columns and then linked tables and columns from the filtered schema. To address the challenge of missing elements, 776 RSL-SQL (Cao et al., 2024) proposed bidirectional schema linking, with forward schema linking 777 identifying potential matching elements from the full schema and backward schema linking extracting 778 elements from preliminary SOL generated based on these potential matches. Distillery (Maamari 779 et al., 2024) explored schema linking performance with extremely large LLMs like GPT-40 and Llama 3.1-405b, finding that these models can effectively process full schema without a schema 781 linking model, while moderately-sized models, like Llama 3.1-8B, still rely on schema linking. 782

Effective schema linking demands no missing elements and minimal redundant elements; any missing
schema element can cause SQL generation to fail directly, while redundant elements can confuse the
process and lead to incorrect outputs. This challenge aligns with the knapsack problem—maximizing
value while minimizing weight within constraints. Inspired by this, we formulated schema linking as
a knapsack problem and proposed KaSLA, which aims to link the most relevant and least redundant
schema element sets according to user queries.

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B DETAILED EXPERIMENT SETUP

In this section, we provide the experiment setup in the view of datasets, evaluation metrics, and
baselines. We also report the implementation details of the proposed KaSLA and the used input
format of LLMs in Appendix D.3.

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Datasets and Evaluation Metrics. We conducted experiments on two well-known large-scale 796 text-to-SQL datasets, BIRD (Li et al., 2023c) and Spider (Yu et al., 2018). Both datasets feature 797 human-annotated queries and SQLs, complex database elements, and challenging cross-domain 798 scenarios meticulously. The statistics for BIRD and Spider are reported in Appendix C Table 5. For 799 evaluation, we evaluated our approach and baselines on both schema linking and text-to-SQL tasks. 800 For schema linking evaluation, we employed the metrics introduced in Section 3.2: Schema Missing 801 Rate (\mathcal{R}_{miss}) and Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{redun}). For text-to-SQL evaluation, we measured 802 performance using two well-established execution-based metrics: Execution Accuracy (EX) (Yu 803 et al., 2018; Li et al., 2023c) and Valid Efficiency Score (VES) (Li et al., 2023c).

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Baselines. To ensure a comprehensive and credible evaluation, we included multiple robust baselines from three categories: (*i*) *LMs baselines*: ResdSQL (Li et al., 2023a); (*ii*) *LLMs + in-context learning baselines*: C3-SQL (Dong et al., 2023), DIN-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2023), MAC-SQL (Wang et al., 2024), DAIL-SQL (Gao et al., 2024), SuperSQL (Li et al., 2024a), Dubo-SQL (Thorpe et al., 2024), TA-SQL (Qu et al., 2024), E-SQL (Caferoğlu & Ulusoy, 2024), CHESS (Talaei et al., 2024); and (*iii*) *LLMs + fine-tuning baselines*: DTS-SQL (Pourreza & Rafiei, 2024),

CodeS (Li et al., 2024b). We also involve PureSL, which means directly fine-tuning an LLM for schema linking in our benchmarks without any tailored design. For DIN-SQL, TA-SQL, CodeS, and DTS-SQL that include a schema linking process in their framework, we denoted them as DIN-SL, TA-SL, CodeS-SL, and DTS-SL. We reported the overall text-to-SQL performance and schema linking performance, respectively.

C STATISTICS OF DATASET

 We provide the statistics for the BIRD and Spider datasets in Table 5, and the imbalanced proportions of matching versus non-matching schema elements are illustrated in Figure 4.

As illustrated in Figure 4, schema linking is inherently an imbalanced classification task, where a small subset of elements matches the natural language query compared to the numerous non-matching ones. Previous research has primarily utilized metrics such as AUC (Li et al., 2023a; 2024b) for evaluating schema linking. In this imbalanced classification scenario, a schema linking model can achieve high AUC scores by predicting mostly irrelevant schema elements, leading to results replete with redundant elements. Additionally, missing any matching element directly results in incorrect SQL generation despite causing only minor fluctuations in AUC.

Such biased evaluations lead to sub-optimal outcomes and hinder further advancements in schema linking and SQL generation. This underscores the significance and potential value of our proposed Schema Missing Rate (\mathcal{R}_{miss}) and Schema Redundancy Rate (\mathcal{R}_{redun}), which provide more accurate and meaningful evaluations in the context of imbalanced schema element distributions.

Data	aset	N	#DB	#Table	e / DB	#Colun	nn / DB	#Tab	le / N	#Colu	mn / N
Duu				Avg.	Max	Avg.	Max	Avg.	Max	Avg.	Max
BIRD	train	9428	69	7.57	65	51.29	455	2.00	6	4.47	16
	dev	1534	11	6.82	13	72.55	199	1.93	4	4.44	12
Spider	train	8659	146	5.43	26	27.79	352	1.71	6	3.35	13
	dev	1034	20	4.00	11	21.95	56	1.51	4	2.78	8



Table 5: The statistics of datasets. 'N' is the total number of samples in dataset. '#' denotes 'The number of'. 'Avg.' and 'Max' represent the average value and the maximum value, respectively. For example, 'Avg. #Table / DB' means the average number of tables per database, 'Max. #Column / N' means the maximum number of matching columns for instances in the dataset.

Figure 4: The imbalanced proportion of matching schema elements with the non-matching ones.

Algorithm 1: Hierarchical KaSLA Strategy

Input: user query q, schema S

Output: schema linking results \widehat{S}_{KaSLA} , including a table linking set T^* and the corresponding column linking set C_t^* for $t \in T^*$ $\mathcal{I}_{\boldsymbol{T}} = \left\{ \widehat{I}_{t,q} \leftarrow f_{I}(t,q) \right\}_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}}, \\ \mathcal{V}_{\boldsymbol{T}} = \left\{ \widehat{V}_{t,q} \leftarrow f_{V}(t,q) \right\}_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}}, \\ \mathcal{W}_{\boldsymbol{T}} = \left\{ \widehat{W}_{t,q} \leftarrow f_{W}(t,q) \right\}_{t \in \boldsymbol{T}}, \\ \mathcal{O}_{q}^{t} \leftarrow f_{C}(q) \text{ for table linking, } \\ \widehat{C}_{q,t}^{c} \leftarrow f_{C}(q) \text{ for column linking}$ $T^* \leftarrow \text{KDP}(\mathcal{V}_T, \mathcal{W}_T, \widehat{C}_a^t)$ // We present KDP in Algorithm 2 for $t \in T^*$ do $\mathcal{I}_{C_t} = \left\{ \widehat{I}_{c,q,t} \leftarrow f_I(c,q) \right\}_{c \in C_t}, \mathcal{V}_{C_t} = \left\{ \widehat{V}_{c,q,t} \leftarrow f_V(c,q) \right\}_{c \in C_t},$ $\mathcal{W}_{C_t} = \left\{ \widehat{W}_{c,q,t} \leftarrow f_W(c,q) \right\}_{c \in C_t}$ $C_t^* \leftarrow \text{KDP}(\mathcal{V}_{C_t}, \mathcal{W}_{C_t}, \hat{C}_{a\,t}^c)$ return $\widehat{S}_{KaSLA} = T^* \cup igcup_{t \in T^*} C_t^*$

⁸⁶⁴ D IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS.

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D.1 TRAINING AND INFERENCE PROCESS

868 We implemented the proposed KaSLA and baselines under the following settings: (i) *Close-source LLM-based experiments:* We conducted all in-context learning experiments on GPT-4-turbo. For baselines with publicly available SQL generation results, we directly evaluated them using our 870 evaluation settings. (ii) Open-source LLM-based experiments: We utilized LoRA (Hu et al., 2021) 871 for parameter-efficient fine-tuning. In KaSLA, we utilize StarCoder2-15B (Lozhkov et al., 2024) as 872 the base model and use two LoRA networks: one for the nomination scoring model in the importance 873 evaluation component and one for the text-to-SQL model in the final SQL generation. The learning 874 rate was initialized to 1e - 4 with a cosine decay, the batch size was set to 16, and the training 875 epoch was 3. We used the same settings for all fine-tuning baselines. (iii) Open-source LM-based 876 experiments: We fine-tuned a RoBERTa-Large (Liu et al., 2019) following (Li et al., 2024b) for the 877 guaranteed scoring model used in the importance prediction component.

For the knapsack factors prediction, we set the following parameters: For top- K_r used in the filter of the recall results, we set it to 5 for tables and 6 for columns, as recommended by Li et al. (2024b). For top- K_c used in demonstration conduction, we set it to 30. We set $\alpha = 1$, $\tau = 0.5$, and $\gamma = 1$ in the prediction of value, weight, and capacity, respectively.

B83 D.2 PROCEDURE OF KASLA

We present the complete procedure of hierarchical KaSLA strategy in Algorithm 1 and illustrate the details of the dynamic programming algorithm used in KaSLA in Algorithm 2.

887 888 Algorithm 2: Dynamic Programming-based 0-1 Knapsack Problem Optimization 889 **Input:** value set \mathcal{V} , corresponding weight set \mathcal{W} , capacity \mathcal{C} 890 **Output:** selection set \mathcal{H} 891 $n \leftarrow |\mathcal{V}|, \mathcal{H} \leftarrow \{\}$ 892 $\mathcal{A} \leftarrow \text{array of } (n+1) \times (\mathcal{C}+1) \text{ initialized to } 0$ 893 $keep \leftarrow array of (n+1) \times (\mathcal{C}+1)$ initialized to False 894 for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do 895 for $w \leftarrow 0$ to C do 896 if $\mathcal{W}[i-1] \leq w$ then if $(\mathcal{V}[i-1] + \mathcal{A}[i-1][w - \mathcal{W}[i-1]]) > \mathcal{A}[i-1][w]$ then $\mathcal{A}[i][w] \leftarrow \mathcal{V}[i-1] + \mathcal{A}[i-1][w - \mathcal{W}[i-1]]$ 899 $keep[i][w] \leftarrow True$ 900 else $\mathcal{A}[i][w] \leftarrow \mathcal{A}[i-1][w]$ 901 else 902 $\mathcal{A}[i][w] \leftarrow \mathcal{A}[i-1][w]$ 903 $k \leftarrow \mathcal{C} \text{ for } i \leftarrow n \text{ downto } 1 \text{ do}$ 904 if keep[i][k] then 905 $\hat{\mathcal{H}}.add(i-1)$ 906 $k \leftarrow k - \mathcal{W}[i-1]$ 907 return $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ 908 909

D.3 INPUT FORMATS

We provided the input formats used in our KaSLA of generation with LLMs in Table 6.

E COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

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The efficiency of KaSLA stems from its hierarchical approach, strategic use of dynamic programming,

and inherent parallelism. KaSLA's time complexity is determined by two main phases: table linking

Туре	Input format
	table department, columns = [department_id (int primary key values: 1), name (text values: State, Treasury), ranking (int values: 1, 2)]
Schema	table head, columns = [head_id (int primary key values: 1), name (text values: Tiger Woods), age (real values: 67.0
	table management, columns = $\begin{bmatrix} depertment & id (int primery key yelves; 2) \\ based & id (int primery key yelves; 5) \end{bmatrix}$
	temporary_acting (text values: Yes)]
	foreign keys: management.head_id = head.head_id, management.department_id = department_department_id
Question	How many heads of the departments are older than 56?
Schema linking	List the relevant columns in each table:
SQL generation	Generate SQL to solve the above question:

Model	SuperSQL	CodeS	KaSLA
Original BIRD-dev	58.60	60.30	63.75
Presented BIRD-dev	69.90	67.58	71.92
non-presented BIRD-dev	49.35	51.01	88.01

Model	SuperSQL	CodeS	KaSLA	KaSLA (Transfer)	%Improve
BIRD-dev	58.60	60.30	63.75	63.10	-1.02%
Spider-dev	87.40	84.72	88.01	87.23	-0.89%

Table 7: Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) of textto-SQL models trained on whole BIRD-train but evaluated on presented BIRD-dev and nonpresented BIRD-dev.

TRANSFERABILITY OF KASLA

Table 8: Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) of KaSLA trained on Spider-train but evaluated on BIRD-dev, and vice versa, for cross-scenario transfer ability evaluation.

and column linking within the linked tables. For a database with n_t tables and a table capacity of C_t , the table linking phase has a time complexity of $O(n_tC_t)$. KaSLA then links columns within the selected table. Let n_c and C_c represent the number of columns and the column capacity of a selected table, respectively. The time complexity of the column linking phase is $O(n_cC_c)$. Consequently, the total time complexity of KaSLA is $O(n_tC_t + n_t(n_cC_c))$, indicating that the complexity of KaSLA scales relevant with the database dimensions.

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In real-world scenarios, databases often have different backgrounds and come from various domains, leading to diverse database contents and user queries. This diversity poses challenges to the transferability of schema linking models, which are typically pre-trained on public datasets. We conducted two experiments to evaluate KaSLA's performance in cross-scenario transfer.

958 We first selected databases from the BIRD dataset's dev set with no similar scenarios to those in 959 the training dataset. We created a non-represented BIRD-dev dataset using the selected databases 960 whose background knowledge differs from the training dataset. The remaining data was treated as 961 the presented BIRD-dev dataset. The non-presented dataset helps in assessing the model's transfer 962 capability. Since there are only two importance scoring models of KaSLA that need to be trained, we 963 pre-trained them on the whole BIRD-train data and evaluated the SQL generation performance on the non-presented dataset and the presented dataset with the same SQL generation model. As shown in 964 Table 7, KaSLA demonstrates a clear advantage over baselines in dealing with both presented and 965 non-presented development data. 966

We also performed transfers between different datasets, such as the Spider and BIRD datasets. We
 trained the two importance scoring models on the Spider training dataset and evaluated it on the BIRD
 dev dataset, and vice versa, to explore its cross-scenario transfer ability. The results are provided
 in Table 8. We can find that pre-training KaSLA on public datasets yields results that outperform
 the baselines and are only slightly lower than what domain-specific fine-tuning would achieve. The
 above results show that KaSLA demonstrates strong cross-scenario transferability.

972 G COMPARISON WITH TRADITIONAL METRICS 973

Traditional metrics, recall, and precision, are also utilized widely in the schema linking evaluation. However, they have drawbacks that hinder their usage in schema linking and cannot reflect the actual schema linking performance.

G.1 LIMITATIONS OF TRADITIONAL METRICS

80 Recall, $R_{recall} = \frac{|\hat{S}_q \cap S_q|}{|S_q|}$ for each instance, can reflect the degree of an element missing, but such 81 continuous degree can not directly reflect the actual impact of schema linking to SQL generation. Any 82 missing element, whether more or less, will directly result in incorrect SQL generation. However, it 83 may not have a noticeable effect on recall cause recall can only measure a continuous degree instead 84 of a definitive judgment about whether this instance has an element missing or not. For example, 85 assume $\hat{S}_q = \{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$ and $S_q = \{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5\}$ for table linking. This \hat{S}_q will result in 86 incorrect SQL generation because t_5 is missing. However, R_{recall} will be 80%, which unjustly gives 87 a positive evaluation.

Precision, $R_{precision} = \frac{|\hat{S}_q \cap S_q|}{|\hat{S}_q|}$ for each instance, can reflect the degree of redundancy only if there are no missing elements. However, element missing is still common for current schema linking methods. Any missing element will directly result in incorrect SQL generation, but the precision might still give a positive evaluation as long as the number of missing elements is small compared to the total elements in the linking results. For example, assume $\hat{S}_q = \{t_1, t_2, t_3\}$ and $S_q = \{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5\}$ for table linking. With tables t_4 and t_5 missing, the SQL generation will always be incorrect. However, $R_{precision}$ will be 100%, a highly positive evaluation, which is meaningless.

AUC is also unsuitable because schema linking is an imbalanced classification task. As shown in Figure 4, matching elements are only a small subset of all elements. A schema linking model can achieve a high AUC score by predominantly predicting non-matching elements and ignoring matching elements.

1002 G.2 Advantages of the Proposed Metrics

Compared with Recall, our schema missing rate, R_{miss} in Eq. (2), for each instance, can reflect the actual impact of schema linking results to SQL generation by a strict evaluation. It considers an instance a failure if any element is missing, acknowledging success only when no elements are missing. This aligns with the fact that any missing element leads to incorrect SQL generation.

1008Compared with Precision, Our schema redundancy rate, R_{redun} in Eq. (3), can provide a meaningful1009evaluation by only calculating redundancy only when all matching elements are present in the linking1010results. The main difference between precision and our redundancy rate is the Non-missing indicator.1011The prediction with element missing will be judged as failure because, in such cases, redundancy is1012not the sole reason for incorrect SQL generation, thus making its evaluation meaningless.

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1014 H ABLATION STUDY

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1016 We presented the ablation study results for the importance score I with the nomination score \mathcal{I}_{nomi} 1017 and the guaranteed score \mathcal{I}_{guar} in Table 9, the results concerning the choice of language model for 1018 the guaranteed scoring model are shown in Table 10, and the results for the hyperparameters α , τ , 1019 and γ are provided in Table 11.

1020 In Table 9, we observe that using only the soft score \mathcal{I}_{guar} without the binary score \mathcal{I}_{nomi} results in 1021 sub-optimal performance. This occurs because the RoBERTa-Large-based guaranteed model provides 1022 only a general representation, which may lack clear differentiation, potentially causing confusion 1023 that the StarCoder2-based nomination model addresses. Additionally, relying solely on the binary 1024 score \mathcal{I}_{nomi} also leads to sub-optimal outcomes. The Starcoder2-based nomination model tends to 1025 confirm elements with high confidence, resulting in distinct scoring differences and possibly missing elements that match with medium confidence. This issue is addressed by the RoBERTa-Large-based guaranteed model. These findings emphasize the importance of combining the binary score \mathcal{I}_{nomi} and the soft score \mathcal{I}_{auar} , allowing them to collaborate for accurate importance score estimation.

In Table 10, we compared various models and sizes for the guaranteed scoring model in SQL generation and found that RoBERTa-Large produced the best results on both datasets. RoBERTa enhances BERT by employing a more comprehensive training process, leading to improved text representation abilities (Min et al., 2023). This allows RoBERTa-Large to provide better general-ization and understanding of language nuances, which are crucial for schema linking tasks where capturing subtle semantic relationships is important. Moreover, using fewer parameters (BERT-base or RoBERTa-base) or more parameters (SGPT-1.3B) did not lead to performance improvements, indicating that RoBERTa-Large is an excellent choice for the guaranteed scoring model.

Regarding the range of hyperparameters, α , τ , and γ , Table 11 shows that these hyperparameters only slightly affect KaSLA's performance, yet they offer the potential for optimal results. This highlights the generalization ability of KaSLA.

Dataset	origin $\mathcal{I}_{nomi}\&\mathcal{I}_{guar}$	w/o \mathcal{I}_{guar}	w/o \mathcal{I}_{nomi}	Dataset	BERT -Base	BERT -Large	RoBERTa -Base	RoBERTa -Large	SGPT -1.3B
BIRD-dev	63.75	53.13	57.63	BIRD-dev	61.67	61.92	62.78	63.75	63.75
Spider-dev	88.01	86.36	85.40	Spider-dev	86.94	87.33	87.52	88.01	87.72

Table 9: Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) of the ablation study about the importance score Iwith \mathcal{I}_{nomi} and \mathcal{I}_{guar} .

Table 10: Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) of the ablation study about the choice of language model for guaranteed scoring model.

Table 11: Execution Accuracy (EX) (%) of the ablation study about the hyperparameters α , τ , and γ .

$\tau = 0.5, \gamma = 1$	$\alpha = 0.1$	$\alpha = 0.5$	$\alpha = 1$	$\alpha = 5$
BIRD-dev	63.10	63.69	63.75	61.15
Spider-dev	87.72	88.10	88.01	86.27
$\alpha = 1, \gamma = 1$	$\tau = 0.1$	$\tau = 0.5$	$\tau = 0.7$	$\tau = 0.9$
BIRD-dev	63.10	63.75	63.43	63.10
Spider-dev	87.43	88.01	87.81	87.52
$\alpha = 1, \tau = 0.5$	$\gamma = 0.5$	$\gamma = 1$	$\gamma = 1.5$	$\gamma = 2$
BIRD-dev	49.02	63.75	63.10	62.84
Spider-dev	57.25	88.01	87.72	87.14

Ι SCHEMA LINKING BENCHMARK ON SPIDER-DEV

We provide the whole schema linking evaluation results with R_{miss} , R_{redun} and $R_{correct}$ on BIRDdev and Spider-dev. Similarly, KaSLA scores a high R_{correct} for column linking on the Spider-dev dataset, outperforming all other methods by a considerable margin.

Table 12: Schema linking benchmarks with R_{miss}, R_{redun} and R_{correct} on Spider-dev.

Dataset	Metric		Schema linking Method										
			CodeS-SL			10shot ICL-SL		DIN-SL		DTS-SL	Pure-SL	TA-SL	KaSLA
			RoBERTa		SGPT	GPT-3.5	GPT-4	GPT-3.5	GPT-4	StarCoder2-15B		(Ours)	
			Base	Large	-1.3B		011.		0				
Spider-dev	$\mathcal{R}_{miss}\downarrow$	table	0.00	<u>0.00</u>	29.00	33.57	31.23	49.61	36.83	6.29	6.29	2.42	1.26
		colmn	0.81	<u>0.30</u>	2.12	93.84	91.49	96.18	93.64	6.55	15.62	9.07	2.12
	$\mathcal{R}_{redun}\downarrow$	table	55.96	55.96	56.13	42.81	35.74	52.31	39.78	9.90	9.90	<u>4.73</u>	6.41
		colmn	80.77	80.55	80.97	95.29	92.18	96.49	94.13	69.50	19.23	<u>11.24</u>	12.44
	$\mathcal{R}_{correct}$ \uparrow	table	72.02	72.02	71.79	61.81	66.52	49.04	61.69	91.91	91.91	<u>96.43</u>	96.17
		colmn	59.21	59.57	58.46	5.44	8.16	3.66	6.12	61.97	82.57	<u>89.84</u>	92.72