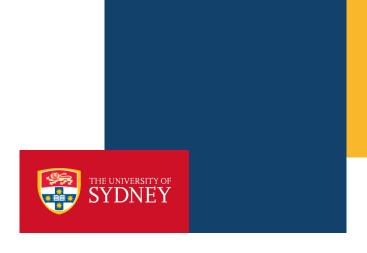
COMP9120

Week 12: Query Processing and Evaluation

Semester 1, 2025



Professor Athman Bouguettaya School of Computer Science



Acknowledgement of Country

I would like to acknowledge the Traditional Owners of Australia and recognise their continuing connection to land, water and culture. I am currently on the land of the Gadigal people of the Eora nation and pay my respects to their Elders, past, present and emerging.





COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

Copyright Regulations 1969

WARNING

This material has been reproduced and communicated to you by or on behalf of the University of Sydney pursuant to Part VB of the Copyright Act 1968 (**the Act**).

The material in this communication may be subject to copyright under the Act. Any further copying or communication of this material by you may be the subject of copyright protection under the Act

Do not remove this notice.

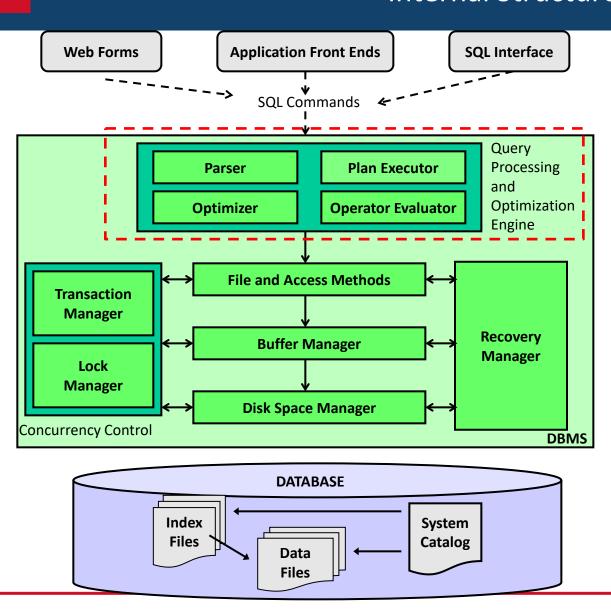




- > Basic Steps in Query Processing
- > Query Optimization
 - Logical Query Plan: Heuristic-based Optimization
 - Physical Query Plan: Cost Estimate Optimization
- > Query Execution



Internal Structure of a DBMS







- > Basic Steps in Query Processing
- > Query Optimization
 - Logical Query Plan: Heuristic-based Optimization
 - Physical Query Plan: Cost Estimate Optimization
- > Query Execution





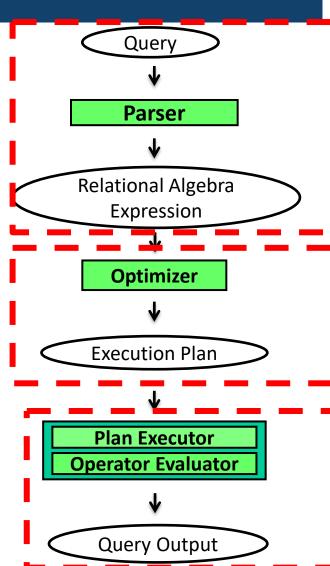
Main issues:

- How is a query transformed in a form understood by the DBMS? (processing phase)
- What is the best strategy to execute a query? (optimization phase)
- What are the criteria that are used to execute a query? (execution phase)



Basic Steps in Query Processing

- Step 1: Parsing and Translation
 - Check for syntactic and semantic errors
 - Translate the SQL query into relational algebra.
 - Rewrite Queries: Views are replaced with actual subquery on relations
- Step 2: Query Optimization
 - Amongst all **equivalent** query **evaluation plans, choose** the one with the **lowest expected cost**.
 - Use heuristics to optimize at the relational algebra level
 - Select a query execution strategy based on cost estimate
- > Step 3: Query Execution
 - Strategies to execute the operations in a query execution tree





Relational model:

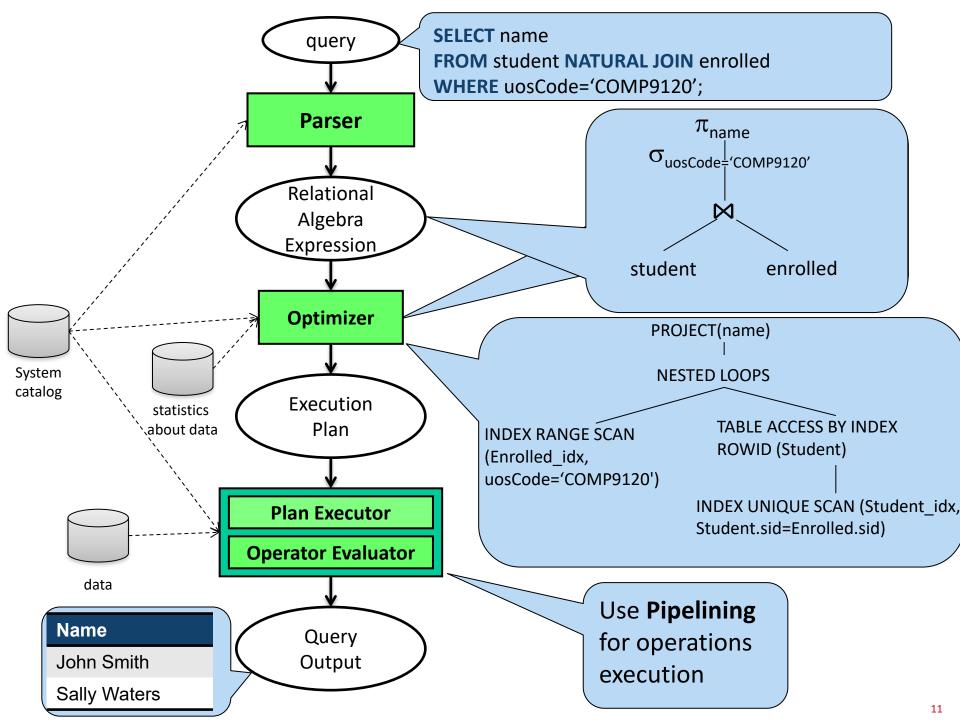
- Provides more abstraction (through the declarative model) to make databases more usable by general users.
 - Drawback: High level abstraction also makes it hard for non-expert users to optimize queries.
 - General users are focused on correctness of the query, not its efficiency
- Unlike early database models (e.g., hierarchical/network) where optimization was mostly left to the application programmer, relational models are based on the declarative (SQL queries) models
 - Focus of queries is mostly on the what and not the how.
 - Good news: These declarative queries lend themselves to computer-based optimization.



Query processing and optimization: main steps

Output of each step:

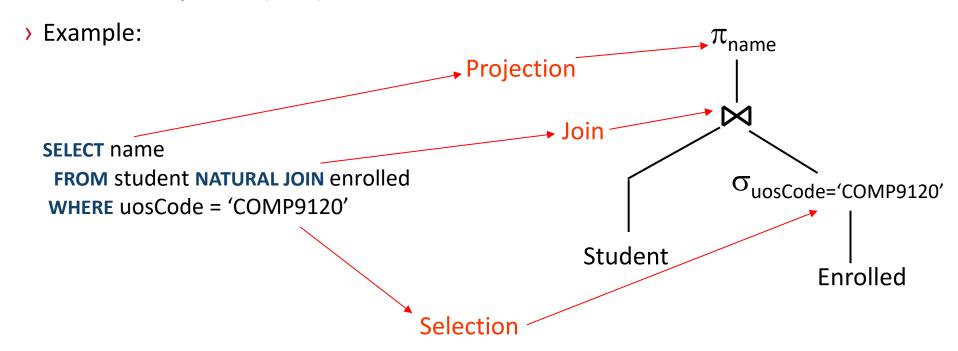
- Step 1: Parser
 - A parse tree consists of a SFW (Select-From-Where) expression
 - Converts the parse tree into an initial logical query plan
- Step 2: Optimization
 - Heuristics: efficient logical query plan
 - Cost estimate: efficient physical query plan
- Step 3: Query execution
 - Select an execution order of operations in a query execution tree





Step 1: Parsing and Translation

- > SQL query gets translated into Relational Algebra (RA) expression, which is represented by a logical query plan (also called expression tree).
 - Operators have one or more input sets and return one output set.
 - Leafs correspond to (base) tables.





Step 2: Query Optimization

Query optimization:

Two (2) main thrusts:

- Heuristic rules to rearrange operations in a query tree: output is an efficient logical query plan
 - Heuristics: minimize the size of intermediate results (relations) using equivalent algebraic expressions.
- Cost estimate of different execution strategies/plans to select the one with minimal cost: output is an efficient physical query plan
 - Cost estimate objective: minimizing the number of disk I/Os.





- > Basic Steps in Query Processing
- > Query Optimization
 - Logical Query Plan: Heuristic-based Optimization
 - Physical Query Plan: Cost Estimate Optimization
- > Query Execution



Equivalence of expressions

Equivalence of expressions

Note:

- We can transform any tuple calculus expression (i.e., SQL query) to an equivalent algebraic expression
 - Make sure the equivalent algebraic expression is executed efficiently
- Heuristic optimization is mostly concerned with unary operations (e.g., selection, projection)
 - Strategy is to always pick a sequence of operations that would most likely minimize size of intermediate results. Why?
 - This would most likely minimize I/Os!



Consider the following query:

"find the <u>assets</u> and <u>names of all banks</u> which have depositors <u>living in Sydney</u>". Assume we have three relations: **Deposit, Customer**, and **Branch**.

Schema:

Deposit						
branchname	account#	customernar		balance		
Customer						
customername stree		et	customercity			
Branch						
branchname	e asse	ts	branch	ncity		

The above query is *equivalent* to the following *algebraic expression*:

Π _{Branchname, Assets} (σ _{Customercity=Sydney} (Customer ⋈ Deposit ⋈ Branch))



The **join** of the **three relations** may yield **a large relation** that *may not fit* in memory.

Note that:

We **most likely** only **need** a **handful of tuples** to begin with (those with *Customercity = Sydney*). Furthermore, we are only **interested** in **two attributes** (*Branchname* and *assets*).

Question: Could we make the evaluation a bit more "intelligent"?



Algebraic manipulation

Answer: YES!

but how?

Use some *rearrangements* of the operations (algebraic manipulation).

How do we ensure the **rearrangement** is **equivalent** to the **original arrangement**?

Use *knowledge* about the rules governing algebraic operations.

For instance: the previous expression

 $\Pi_{Branchname, Assets}$ ($\sigma_{Customercity=Sydney}$ (Customer ∞ Deposit ∞ Branch)) is **equivalent** to:

 $\Pi_{Branchname, Assets}((\sigma_{Customercity=Sydney}(Customer)) \sim Deposit \sim Branch)$



Selection optimization

Selection optimization:

Whenever possible, do a *selection as soon as possible*.

Another example:

Query: "find the <u>assets</u> and <u>names of all banks</u> which have depositors living in <u>Sydney</u> and have a <u>balance</u> of more than \$500".

This query is equivalent to the following algebraic expression:

 $\Pi_{Branchname, Assets}$ ($\sigma_{Customercity=Sydney \land Balance > 500}$ (Customer \sim Deposit \sim Branch))

Problem: cannot do the selection on Customer only, because Balance is an attribute of Deposit.

What is the solution then?

Do the selection *after* doing a join on *Customer* and *Deposit*. The resulting expression is therefore:

 $\Pi_{Branchname, Assets}$ ($\sigma_{Customercity=Sydney \land Balance > 500}$ (Customer ∞ Deposit) ∞ Branch)

The intermediate result has now been reduced.





Can we do better?

The answer is YES!

but how?

Break up the selection condition into two selections and we get:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Balance} > 500}$ (Customer ∞ Deposit)) ∞ Branch)

And then move the second selection past the first join:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}}$ (Customer) $\sim \sigma_{\text{Balance} > 500}$ (Deposit)) $\sim \text{Branch}$





Projection optimization:

Whenever possible, do a *projection as soon as possible*. Consider the query in the first example:

```
\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}} ((\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}} (Customer) \infty Deposit) \infty Branch)
```

When we compute the subexpression:

Heuristics: We should *eliminate those attributes* that will *not play any role* in the remaining operations as soon as possible.

In the example above, the attribute *Branchname* is the **only attribute** we need in the **first join**. The attribute *Assets* is in the table *Branch*. One **efficient** way is to do a **projection** of *Branchname* on the **result of the first join**.

The resulting transformation is as follows:

```
\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}} (\Pi_{\text{Branchname}} (\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}}) (Customer) \infty \text{ Deposit}) \infty \text{ Branch})
```





Can we do better?

Yes!

For instance, *Branchcity* in the table *Branch* is not needed. Therefore, we can then do a projection on only *Branchanme* and *Assets* on the table *Branch*.

The transformation is as follows:



Now the **first projection** is **redundant** because the result is exactly the same **without it**: **remove it**!

The *final transformation* is as follows:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}}$ (Customer) \sim Deposit) \sim $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}}$ (Branch)



Rules for equivalent algebraic transformations

Heuristics based optimization consists of applying rules that yield equivalent transformations to obtain more efficient logical query plans.

In the previous optimization steps, we *intuitively* came up with *transformation* rules.

Rules: What are the *formal algebraic transformation* rules that enabled us to **perform** the previous **transformations**?

Here is a **sample set of rules** for algebraic transformations:

1. Commutative rule for joins:

$$R1 \propto R2 = R2 \propto R1$$

2. **Associative rule** for joins

$$(R1 \infty R2) \infty R3 = R1 \infty (R2 \infty R3)$$

3. **Cascade of projections**: if attributes B1,.....,Bn are a subset of A1,....,An then

$$\Pi_{B1,...,Bn} (\Pi_{A1,...,An} (R)) = \Pi_{B1,...,Bn} (R)$$

4. Cascade of selections

$$\sigma_{\Theta 1} (\sigma_{\Theta 2}(R)) = \sigma_{\Theta 2} (\sigma_{\Theta 1}(R)) = \sigma_{\Theta 1 \wedge \Theta 2}(R)$$

5. Distributive property of selections over joins. σ_{Θ} distributes over the join operation when all the attributes in the selection condition θ involve only the attributes of one of the relations (e.g., R1) being joined.

$$\sigma_{\theta}(R1 \infty R2) = (\sigma_{\theta}(R1)) \infty R2$$



Example of an equivalent algebraic transformation

Assume we have the following relations:

Deposit							
branchname	account#	customername		balance			
Customer							
customernan	customername stree		customercity				
Branch							
branchname	e asse	ts	branch	ncity			



Example of using algebraic rules

Using our previous query: "find the <u>assets</u> and <u>names of all banks</u> which have depositors living in <u>Sydney</u> and have a <u>balance</u> of more than \$500".

This query is equivalent to the following algebraic expression:

 $\Pi_{Branchname, Assets}$ ($\sigma_{Customercity=Sydney \land Balance > 500}$ (Customer \sim Deposit \sim Branch))

Use **Rule #5**: $\sigma_{\theta}(R1 \otimes R2) = (\sigma_{\theta}(R1)) \otimes R2$, to do the selection *after* doing a join on *Customer* and *Deposit*. The resulting expression is therefore:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney } \land \text{Balance} > 500}$ (Customer ∞ Deposit) ∞ Branch).

Using **Rule #4:** $\sigma_{\Theta_1}(\sigma_{\Theta_2}(R)) = \sigma_{\Theta_2}(\sigma_{\Theta_1}(R)) = \sigma_{\Theta_1 \wedge \Theta_2}(R)$, to break up the selection condition into two selections and we get:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}}$ ($\sigma_{\text{Balance} > 500}$ (Customer ∞ Deposit)) ∞ Branch)

Use **Rule #5 twice:** $\sigma_{\theta}(R1 \propto R2) = (\sigma_{\theta}(R1)) \propto R2$, to move the first and second selections to their respective relations:

 $\Pi_{\text{Branchname, Assets}} (\sigma_{\text{Customercity=Sydney}} (\text{Customer}) \propto \sigma_{\text{Balance} > 500} (\text{Deposit})) \propto \text{Branch})$





- > Basic Steps in Query Processing
- > Query Optimization
 - Logical Query Plan: Heuristic-based Optimization
 - Physical Query Plan: Cost Estimate Optimization
- > Query Execution





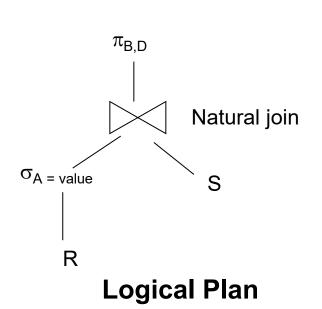
- Read as input the query expression tree of logical (RA) operations and generate a Query Execution Plan:
 - Tree of relational algebra operators + choice of algorithm for each operator.
- > The aim of this step is to:
 - Find an optimal plan among a set of all equivalent plans
 - Main criterion: Lowest estimated I/O

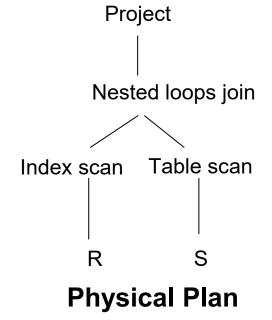


Query Execution Plan

- An annotated expression tree which specifies a detailed evaluation strategy using physical operators is called an evaluation plan or physical plan
 - RA operators are logical operators
 - Physical operators show how query is evaluated and executed

Given a natural join between two relations R(A,B,C) and S(C,D) and the following algebraic expression: $\pi_{B,D}$ ($\sigma_{A = value}(R) \sim S$)

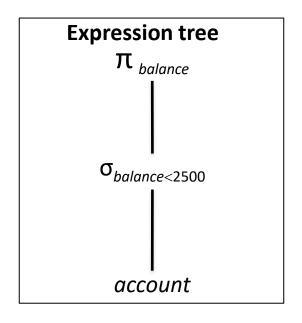


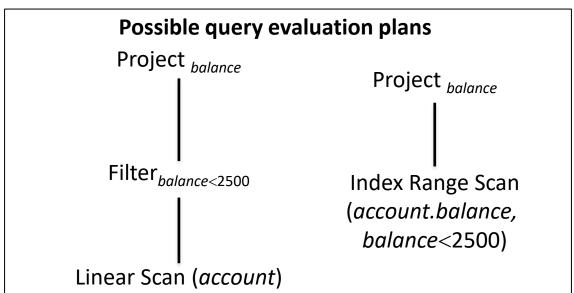




Query Execution Plan

Multiple possible query evaluation plans for the expression tree are considered by the query optimizer. Here is another example:







Cost of query processing

Cost of query processing:

Compute the cost of every algebraic operation in terms of I/Os

To compute this cost, use

- Access methods available
- Data physical organization: collected facts (e.g., blocking factor, sorted table?, etc)
- Using statistics (e.g., selection cardinality)

Output of the cost estimate optimization: Efficient physical query plan

Let us menti....



Please complete the Unit of Study Survey (USS)!

Important note: When you complete your Survey, this will give you an entry into the prize draw for a range of JB HiFi Giftcards totalling \$2500.





Unit of Study Survey (USS) now open!

How to make your USS feedback count

Your Unit of Study Survey (USS) feedback is confidential.

It's a way to share what you enjoyed and found most useful in your learning, and to provide constructive feedback. It's also a way to 'pay it forward' for the students coming behind you, so that their **learning experience** in this class is as good, or even better, than your own.

When you complete your USS survey (https://student-surveys.sydney.edu.au), please:

Be specific.

Which class tasks, assessments or other activities helped you to learn? Why were they helpful? Which one(s) didn't help you to learn? Why didn't they work for you?

Be constructive.

What practical changes can you suggest to class tasks, assessments or other activities, to help the next class learn better?

Be relevant.

Imagine you are the teacher. What sort of feedback would you find most useful to help make your teaching more effective?





- Join is the most used operation in SQL queries!
 - It is also usually the *most expensive operation* to execute in terms of I/Os!
 - Therefore, there is a need to **optimize** the **join operation**

Example:

SELECT * FROM Students R, Enrolled S WHERE R.sid=S.sid

- > Note that:
 - R × S (Cartesian product) followed by a selection is semantically the same as R ∞ S
 - However, the result of R × S is usually **significantly larger** than R ∞ S; therefore, executing R × S followed by a selection is inefficient.
- > Instead, use the equivalent optimized join operation!





- Several algorithms that implement joins:
 - **Nested loop** join
 - Block-nested loop join
 - *Indexed-nested* loop join
- Choice of the join algorithm is based on a cost estimate (i.e., choose the join algorithm with the smallest cost)
 - Cost metric: # of I/Os



Example Table Sizes for Cost Estimates

- We will use the following statistics:
 - |R|: number of tuples in R, stored in b_R pages
 - |S|: number of tuples in S, stored in b_s pages
 - In our example, R refers to the relation **Students** and S refers to the relation **Enrolled**.

Supposed we would like to perform a join of Student and Enrolled

Assume

Number of tuples of

Students (/*R***/)**: 1,000

Enrolled (/S/): 10,000

Number of pages of

Students (b_R): 100

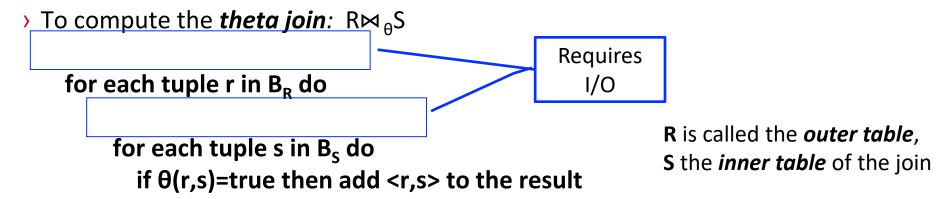
Enrolled (b_s): 400

Student					
<u>sid</u>	name	gender	country		
1001	lan	М	AUS		
1002	Ha Tschi	F	ROK		
1003	Grant	М	AUS		

Enrolled					
<u>sid</u>	uos_code	semester			
1001	COMP5138	2020-S2			
1002	COMP5702	2020-S2			
1003	COMP5138	2020-S2			
1006	COMP5318	2020-S2			







- > For each tuple in the *outer* table **R**, we scan the entire *inner* table **S**.
- > Pro: Requires no indexes and can be used with any kind of join condition.
- > Con: Expensive since it examines every possible pair of tuples in the two tables.
- \rightarrow The number of I/Os of table **R** is b_R
 - each page of **R** is read only once
- The number of I/Os of table **S** is $|R|*b_S$
 - each page of **S** is read once for every tuple of **R**



Cost-Analysis: Nested Loop Join

The estimated cost of nested loop join is

$$b_R + |R| * b_S$$

- > Example:
 - students (R) as outer table: 100 + 1000 * 400 = 400,100 disk I/Os
 - enrolled (S) as outer table: 400 + 10,000 * 100 = 1,000,400 disk I/Os $(b_S + |S| * b_R)$

Number of tuples of **students** (/R/): 1,000

enrolled (/*S***/)** : 10,000

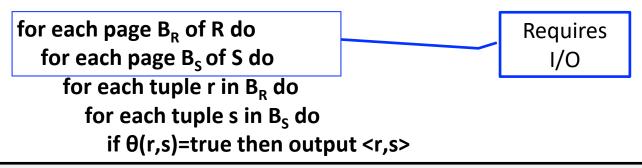
Number of pages of **students** (b_R) : 100

enrolled (b_s) : 400



Block-Nested Loop Join

- We assume that the buffer can only hold two pages for the two relations. In this case, Block-Nested Loop Join behaves the same as Page-Oriented Nested Loop Join. This will be the case whenever we use Block-Nested Loop Join, unless otherwise stated.
 - Block-Nested Loop Join: Variant of nested loop join in which every page of inner table is paired with every page of outer table.
 - For each *page* of R, get each *page* of S, and write out matching pairs of tuples <r, s>, where r is in R-page and S is in S-page.



Nested Loop Join for each page B_R of R do
for each tuple r in B_R do
for each page B_S of S do
for each tuple s in B_S do

if θ(r,s)=true then add <r,s> to the result



Cost Analysis: Block-Nested Loop Join

- The number of I/Os of table R is b_R (each page of R is read only once)
- > The number of I/Os of table S is $b_R^*b_S$ (each page of S is read once for every page of R)
- Cost of block-nested loop join is

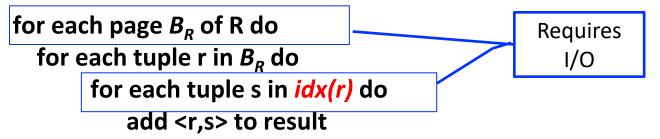
$$b_R + b_R * b_S$$

- > Example:
 - students (R) as outer table: 100 + 100 * 400 = 40,100 disk I/Osenrolled (S) as outer table: 400 + 400 * 100 = 40,400 disk I/Os $(b_S + b_S * b_R)$





Given an **index** idx built on the **join attribute of S**



- > To use index-nested loop join, the following conditions must be satisfied:
 - join is an equi-join or natural join, and
 - an index is available on the inner table's join attribute
- For each tuple r in the outer table R, use the index on S to look up tuples in S that satisfy the join condition with tuple r.

Cost Analysis: Index-Nested Loop Join

- > For each tuple in **R**, we perform an index lookup on **S**.
 - Cost: $b_R + (|R| * c)$
 - Where c is the cost of traversing index and fetching all matching S tuples for one tuple of R.
- > If indexes are available on join attributes of both **R** and **S**, use the table with fewer tuples as the outer table.
- > Example: if $c_1 = 4$ for the relation **S** and $c_2 = 3$ for the relation **R**
 - If index on **S** is available: cost is $b_R + (|R| * c_1)$
 - 100 +1,000 * 4 = **4,400** disk I/Os
 - If index on **R** is available: cost is $b_S + (|S| * c_2)$
 - 400 + 10,000 * 3 = **30,400** disk I/Os



Importance of Sorting for DBMS

- > SQL queries can specify that the output be sorted (ORDER BY). Additionally, SQL operators (e.g., JOIN, GROUP BY, DISTINCT, UNION, EXCEPT, etc) can be implemented efficiently if the input is sorted.
- > Example: consider the set operations UNION, INTERSECT, and EXCEPT
 - Each of the above operations *first eliminates duplicates* from the input tables, and then does the set operation
 - > The *expensive* part is *removing* duplicates.
 - > If the file is *not sorted*, removing duplicates may require sequentially comparing each value in a record against all other values in the file!
- > Another example: Join operation
 - > If both relations are sorted on the join key, the join operation can be efficiently implemented, i.e., the total number of I/Os will be equal to the sum of the size (in pages) of each relation in the case of a natural join. Contrast this with the nested-loop join.





- > The **Sort-Merge Join** (also known as **Merge-Join**) is a **join algorithm** used in one of the **implementations** of a **Join**.
- The most expensive part of performing a sort-merge join is arranging for both inputs (tables) to the algorithm to be presented in sorted order.
 - The key idea of the **sort-merge join algorithm** is to first **sort** the relations by the **join attribute**, so that **linear scans** can match the **corresponding values** at the **same time**.
- > For small tables that fit in memory, techniques like *QuickSort* may be used.
 - However, when the database is large, we cannot use these techniques: e.g., sort 10GB of data with 4GB of RAM...

Solution: External Sorting called External Merge-Sort



External Merge Sort Algorithm

Let B denote the buffer size (in pages). N is the size (in pages) of the file (table).

Three main steps:

1. Create sorted runs. (A run is the name of a sorted subset of the file records)

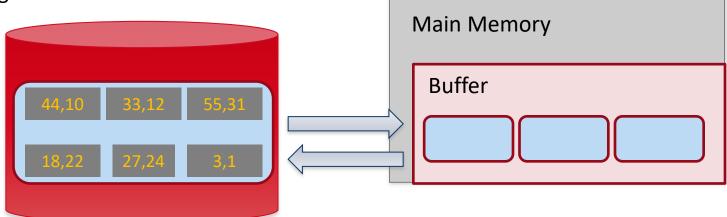
Let *i* be 0 initially. **Repeatedly** do the following till the end of the file:

- (a) Read B pages of records from disk into buffer
- (b) Sort the in-buffer pages
- (c) Write the sorted data to run R_i ; increment i by 1. Let the final value of i be $m = \lceil N / B \rceil$; there are m sorted runs.
- **2.** Merge each contiguous group of B-1 runs into 1 run: (B-1)-way merge.
- 3. After each merge pass, the number of runs is reduced by a factor of B-1. Let $m = \lceil N / B \rceil$, if m > B, several merge passes are required. The number of passes (including the initial sorting pass) for the multiway merging is $\lceil \log_{(B-1)}(N/B) \rceil + 1$





- A file consists of N=6 pages
- **B=3** buffer pages



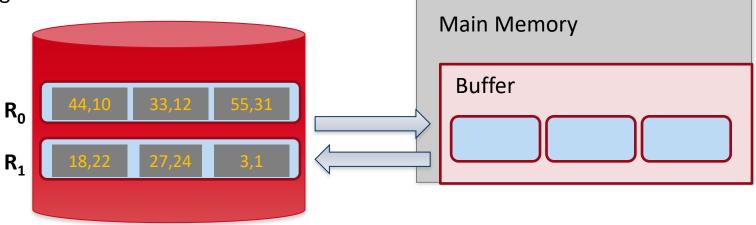
Disk

1. Split into runs small enough to sort in memory





- A file consists of 6 pages
- 3 buffer pages



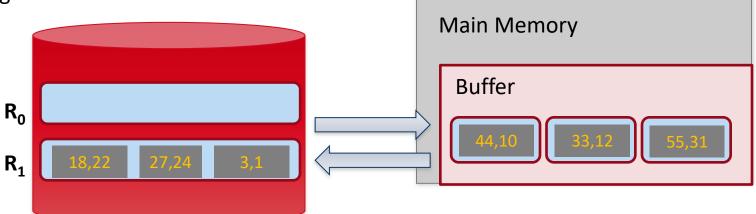
Disk

1. Split into runs small enough to sort in memory





- A file consists of 6 pages
- 3 buffer pages



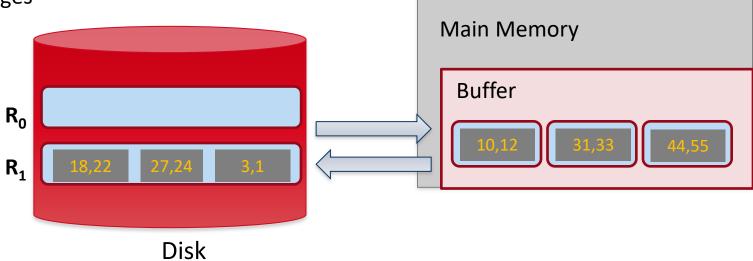
Disk

2. Load run R_0 into main memory





- A file consists of 6 pages
- 3 buffer pages



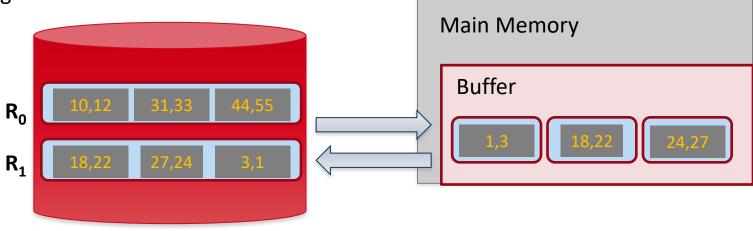
3. Sort run R_0 in main memory, and write back R_0 to disk



Example Step 1: Create Sorted Runs

Example:

- A file consists of 6 pages
- 3 buffer pages



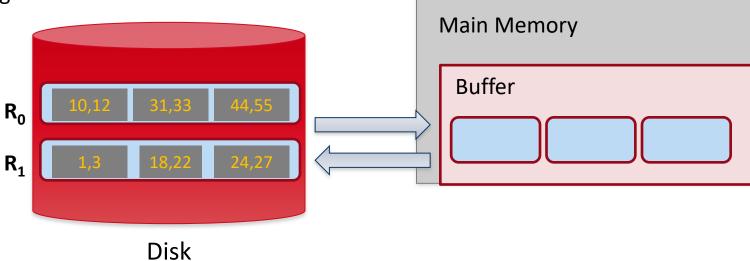
Disk

4. Similarly, load R_1 into main memory, sort it, and write it back to disk





- A file consists of 6 pages
- 3 buffer pages



5. Now, we have *sorted runs*, and we next run the second step of the external merge sort algorithm



External Merge Sort Algorithm

Let B denote memory size (in pages). N is the size (# of records) of the file.

Three main steps

1. Create sorted runs. (A run is a sorted subset of records)

Let *i* be 0 initially. **Repeatedly** do the following till the end of the file:

- (a) Read B pages of records from disk into buffer
- (b) Sort the in-buffer blocks
- (c) Write sorted data to run i; increment i by 1.

Let the final value of i be m = (N / B); there are m sorted runs.

2. Merge each contiguous group of *B-1* runs into *1* run: (*B-1*)-way merge. Use *B-1* buffer pages to buffer input runs, and 1 page to buffer output.

Read the first page of each run R; into its allocated buffer page

i. repeat

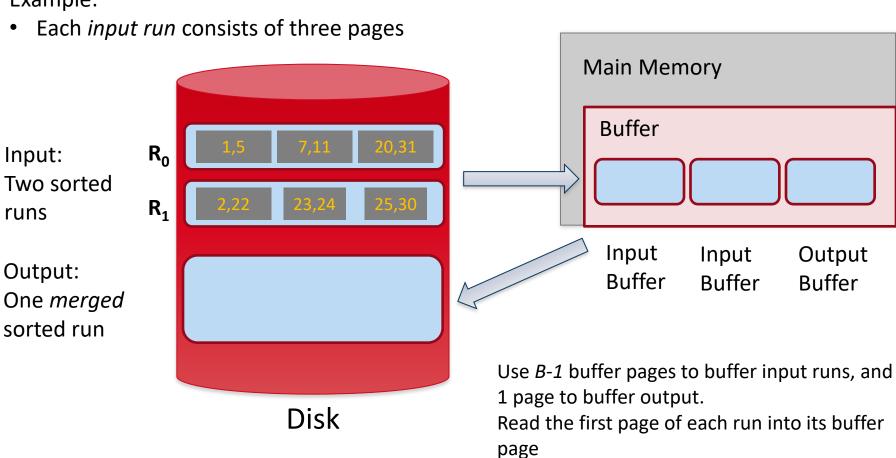
- 1. Select the first record (in sorted order) among all input buffer pages
- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.

until all input buffer pages are empty:

3. After each merge pass, the number of runs is reduced by a factor of B-1. Let $\mathbf{m} = \lceil \mathbf{N} / \mathbf{B} \rceil$, , if m > B, several merge passes are required. The number of passes (including the initial sorting pass) for the multiway merging is $\lceil \log_{(B-1)}(\mathbf{N}/\mathbf{B}) \rceil + 1$



Example:





Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk

Buffer

Input Input Output
Buffer Buffer Buffer

- Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk Buffer

| Solution | S

- 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
 - Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example Step-2: Merge Sorted Runs

Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk Buffer

Input Input Output
Buffer Buffer Buffer

- Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
 - 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
 - **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages Main Memory Buffer R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Input Input Output Output: Buffer Buffer Buffer One *merged* sorted run Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk. Disk Which run to load a page If this is the last record of the input buffer page from next? allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

Input: R₀
Two sorted runs R₁

Output: One merged sorted run

The empty buffer block is reserved for R_0 ... so we should load from R_0 if it is not empty!

Disk

Main Memory Buffer Input Input Output Buffer Buffer Buffer Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
 - If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

Input: R₀
Two sorted runs R₁

Output: One merged sorted run

Disk

Buffer

7,11

22

5

Input Input Output Buffer Buffer Buffer

- 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- 3. If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk Main Memory

Buffer

Input Input Output
Buffer Buffer Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

Write the record to the output buffer. If output

- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk Main Memory

Buffer

Input Input Output Buffer Buffer Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.

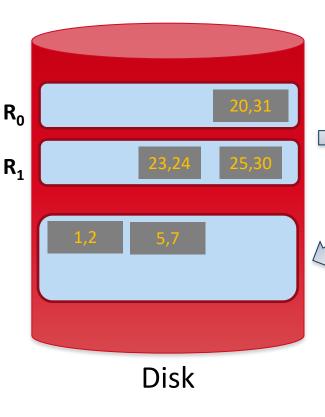


Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

Input: Two sorted runs

Output:
One *merged*sorted run



Buffer

| Description of the content of the content

- 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.

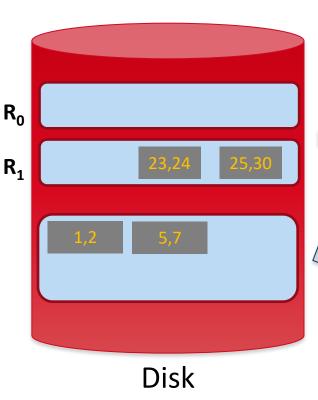


Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

Input: Two sorted runs

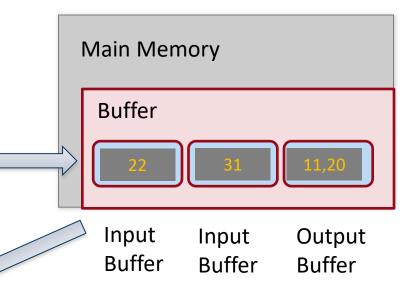
Output:
One *merged*sorted run



Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.

If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.

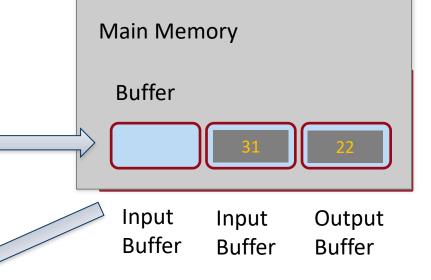




Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk



- 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
 - If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk

Main Memory

Buffer

24

31

22,23

Input Input Output
Buffer Buffer Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

- Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk

Buffer

Input Input Output
Buffer Buffer Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk

Buffer

30
31
24,25

Input Input Output Buffer Buffer Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

- 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.



Example:

Each input run consists of three pages

 R_0 Input: Two sorted R_1 runs Output: One *merged* sorted run Disk

Main Memory

Buffer

30,31

Input

Buffer

Output

Buffer

Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages

Input

Buffer

- Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
- **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run



External Merge Sort Algorithm

Let *B* denote memory size (in pages).

1. Create sorted *runs*. (A run is a sorted subset of records)

Let *i* be 0 initially. **Repeatedly** do the following till the end of the file:

- (a) Read B pages of records from disk into memory
- (b) Sort the in-memory blocks
- (c) Write sorted data to run *i*; increment *i by 1*.

Let the final value of i be m = N / B; there are m sorted runs. N is the size of the file.

- 2. Merge each contiguous group of B-1 runs into 1 run: (B-1)-way merge.
 - Use B-1 pages of memory to buffer input runs, and 1 page to buffer output.
 Read the first page of each run into its buffer page
 - ii. repeat
 - 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all input buffer pages
 - 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If output is full, write it to disk.
 - **3.** If this is the last record of the input buffer page allocated to run R_i then read the next page of the run R_i into the buffer. If none is left in run R_i , then go to next run.

until all input buffer pages are empty:

3. After each merge pass, the number of runs is reduced by a factor of B-1. If $m \ge B$, several merge passes are required. The number of passes (including the initial sorting pass) for the multiway merging is $\lceil \log_{(B-1)}(N/B) \rceil + 1$. In this case here, the value is $\lceil \log_2 2 \rceil + 1 = 1 + 1 = 2$ passes





- > Basic Steps in Query Processing
- > Query Optimization
 - Logical Query Plan: Heuristic-based Optimization
 - Physical Query Plan: Cost Estimate Optimization
- > Query Execution



Step 3: Evaluation of Operations

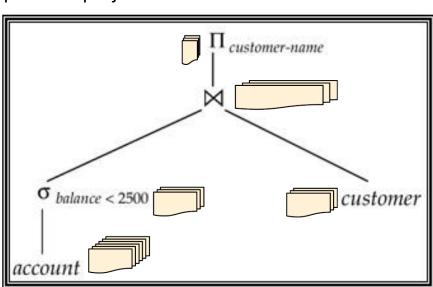
> Two approaches:

- Materialization (also: set-at-a-time):
 - simply evaluate one operation at a time. The result of each evaluation is materialized (stored) in a temporary relation for subsequent use.
 - In other words: Output of one operator written to disk and the next operator will read it from the disk.
- Pipelining (also: tuple-at-a-time or on-the-fly processing):
 evaluate several operations in a pipeline
 - In other words: Output of one operator is directly input to next operator





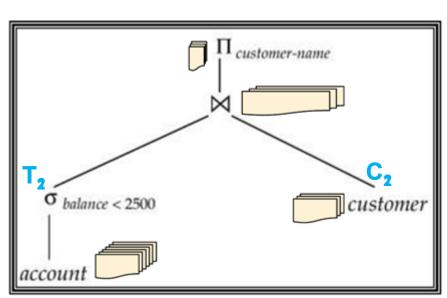
- Materialized evaluation: evaluate one operation at a time, starting at the lowest-level. Use intermediate materialized (stored) results into temporary tables to evaluate next-level operations.
- Example
 - 1. compute and store new table for $\sigma_{balance < 2500}(account)$
 - 2. Compute and store result of materialized result joined with customer
 - 3. Read back new materialized result and compute the projection on customer-name.
 - Advantage: Can always apply materialized evaluation
 - Disadvantage: Costs can be quite high







- > Pipelined evaluation: evaluate several operations concurrently, passing the results of one operation on to the next. Each tuple goes through a pipeline of operations.
- Example
 - 1. Find next tuple matching $\sigma_{balance < 2500}(account)$
 - a) Join matching tuple with tuples of customer until new tuples are generated
 - b) Project customer name from joined tuples
 - c) Repeat for all join results
 - 2. Repeat for next selection result
- > Much cheaper than materialization:
 - no need to store a temporary table
 - Issues: If algorithm requires sorted output,
 pipelining may not work well if data is
 not already sorted.







- > Understanding of Role and Structure of Query Processing
 - From SQL to physical data access
 - 3 Steps: Query Parsing, Optimization, Execution
 - Expression Tree vs. Evaluation Plan
 - Query Execution Algorithms
- Operator Algorithms
 - Joins
 - Nested loop
 - Block-nested loop
 - Indexed-nested loop
 - External Merge Sort (for Merge-Join)





- > Ramakrishnan/Gehrke Chapters 13 and 14
- > Kifer/Bernstein/Lewis Chapter 10
- Garcia-Molina/Ullman/Widom Chapter 15



Next Week: Review Session

- Discussion regarding Final Exam
 - Instructions
 - Question types
- Content Review

See you next week!

