Carnegie Mellon University Query Optimization



_ecture #13

Database Systems 15-445/15-645 Fall 2018

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ADMINISTRIVIA

Mid-term Exam is on Wednesday October 17th

 \rightarrow See <u>mid-term exam guide</u> for more info.

Project #2 – Checkpoint #2 is due Friday October 19th @ 11:59pm.



QUERY OPTIMIZATION

Remember that SQL is declarative.

→ User tells the DBMS what answer they want, not how to get the answer.

There can be a big difference in performance based on plan is used:

 \rightarrow See last week: 1.3 hours vs. 0.45 seconds



IBM SYSTEM R

First implementation of a query optimizer.
People argued that the DBMS could never choose a query plan better than what a human could write.

A lot of the concepts from **System R**'s optimizer are still used today.



QUERY OPTIMIZATION

Heuristics / Rules

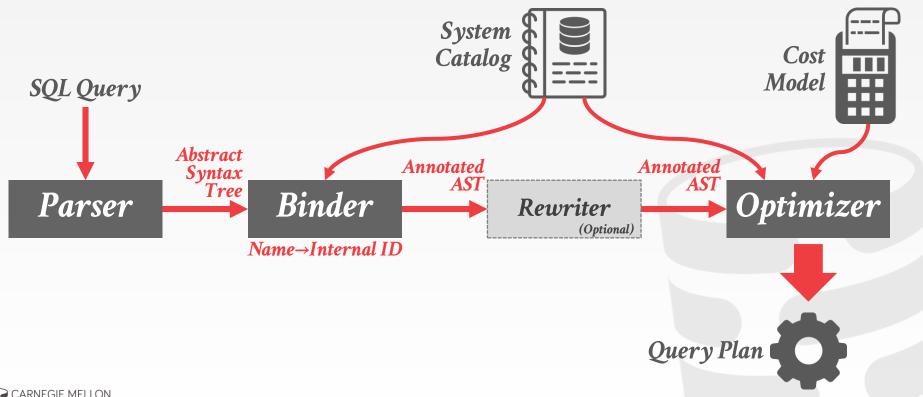
- → Rewrite the query to remove stupid / inefficient things.
- \rightarrow Does not require a cost model.

Cost-based Search

→ Use a cost model to evaluate multiple equivalent plans and pick the one with the lowest cost.



QUERY PLANNING OVERVIEW





TODAY'S AGENDA

Relational Algebra Equivalences

Plan Cost Estimation

Plan Enumeration

Nested Sub-queries

Mid-Term Review



Two relational algebra expressions are <u>equivalent</u> if they generate the same set of tuples.

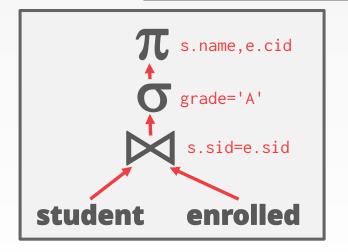
The DBMS can identify better query plans without a cost model.

This is often called **query rewriting**.

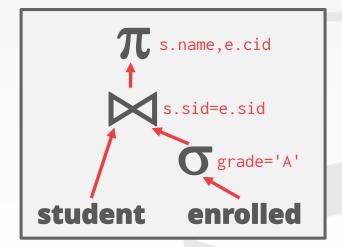


PREDICATE PUSHDOWN

SELECT s.name, e.cid
 FROM student AS s, enrolled AS e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
 AND e.grade = 'A'









```
SELECT s.name, e.cid
  FROM student AS s, enrolled AS e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
  AND e.grade = 'A'
```



Selections:

- \rightarrow Perform filters as early as possible.
- → Reorder predicates so that the DBMS applies the most selective one first.
- → Break a complex predicate, and push down

$$\sigma_{p1 \wedge p2 \wedge ...pn}(\mathbf{R}) = \sigma_{p1}(\sigma_{p2}(...\sigma_{pn}(\mathbf{R})))$$

Simplify a complex predicate

$$\rightarrow$$
 (X=Y AND Y=3) \rightarrow X=3 AND Y=3



Projections:

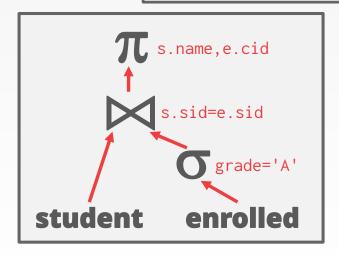
- → Perform them early to create smaller tuples and reduce intermediate results (if duplicates are eliminated)
- → Project out all attributes except the ones requested or required (e.g., joining keys)

This is not important for a column store...

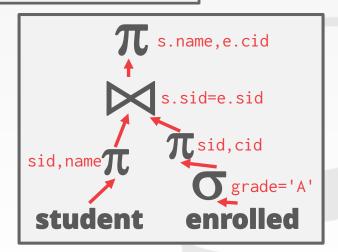


PROJECTION PUSHDOWN

```
SELECT s.name, e.cid
FROM student AS s, enrolled AS e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
AND e.grade = 'A'
```









```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 1;
```



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 0;
```

SELECT * FROM A;



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 0; X

SELECT * FROM A;
```

Join Elimination

```
SELECT A1.*

FROM A AS A1 JOIN A AS A2

ON A1.id = A2.id;
```



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 0;
```

SELECT * FROM A;

Join Elimination

SELECT * FROM A;



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Ignoring Projections

```
SELECT * FROM A AS A1
WHERE EXISTS(SELECT * FROM A AS A2
WHERE A1.id = A2.id);
```



CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL);

MORE EXAMPLES

Ignoring Projections

SELECT * FROM A;



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Ignoring Projections

```
SELECT * FROM A;
```

Merging Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A
WHERE val BETWEEN 1 AND 100
OR val BETWEEN 50 AND 150;
```



```
CREATE TABLE A (
id INT PRIMARY KEY,
val INT NOT NULL );
```

Ignoring Projections

```
SELECT * FROM A;
```

Merging Predicates

```
SELECT * FROM A
WHERE val BETWEEN 1 AND 150;
```



Joins:

→ Commutative, associative

$$R \bowtie S = S \bowtie R$$

 $(R \bowtie S) \bowtie T = R \bowtie (S \bowtie T)$

How many different orderings are there for an *n*-way join?



How many different orderings are there for an *n*-way join?

Catalan number ≈4ⁿ

 \rightarrow Exhaustive enumeration will be too slow.

We'll see in a second how an optimizer limits the search space...



COST ESTIMATION

How long will a query take?

- → CPU: Small cost; tough to estimate
- → Disk: # of block transfers
- → Memory: Amount of DRAM used
- → Network: # of messages

How many tuples will be read/written?

What statistics do we need to keep?



STATISTICS

The DBMS stores internal statistics about tables, attributes, and indexes in its internal catalog.

Different systems update them at different times.

Manual invocations:

- → Postgres/SQLite: **ANALYZE**
- → Oracle/MySQL: **ANALYZE TABLE**
- → SQL Server: **UPDATE STATISTICS**
- → DB2: RUNSTATS



STATISTICS

For each relation R, the DBMS maintains the following information:

- \rightarrow N_R: Number of tuples in R.
- \rightarrow V(A,R): Number of distinct values for attribute A.



DERIVABLE STATISTICS

The <u>selection cardinality</u> SC(A,R) is the average number of records with a value for an attribute A given N_R / V(A,R)

Note that this assumes *data uniformity*.

→ 10,000 students, 10 colleges – how many students in SCS?



SELECTION STATISTICS

Equality predicates on unique keys are easy to estimate.

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE id = 123

What about more complex predicates? What is their selectivity?

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE val > 1000

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age = 30
AND status = 'Lit'

COMPLEX PREDICATES

The <u>selectivity</u> (sel) of a predicate P is the fraction of tuples that qualify.

Formula depends on type of predicate:

- → Equality
- → Range
- → Negation
- \rightarrow Conjunction
- → Disjunction



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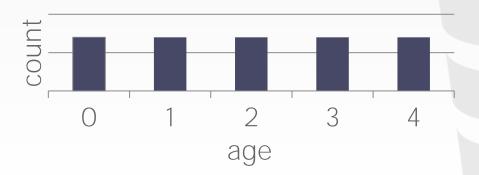


Assume that V(age, people) has five distinct values (0-4) and $N_R = 5$

Equality Predicate: A=constant

- \rightarrow sel(A=constant) = SC(P) / V(A,R)
- \rightarrow Example: sel(age=2) =

SELECT * FROM people WHERE age = 2





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Equality Predicate: A=constant

- \rightarrow sel(A=constant) = SC(P) / V(A,R)
- \rightarrow Example: sel(age=2) = 1/5

SELECT * FROM people WHERE age = 2





Range Query:

```
\rightarrow sel(A>=a) = (A<sub>max</sub> -a) / (A<sub>max</sub> -A<sub>min</sub>)

→ Example: sel(age>=2) = (4 - 2) / (4 - 0)

= 1/2
```

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age >= 2





Negation Query:

- \rightarrow sel(not P) = 1 sel(P)
- \rightarrow Example: sel(age != 2)

SELECT * **FROM** people WHERE age != 2





Negation Query:

```
\rightarrow sel(not P) = 1 - sel(P)
```

 \rightarrow Example: sel(age != 2) = 1 - (1/5) = 4/5

SELECT * FROM people WHERE age != 2

Observation: Selectivity \approx Probability



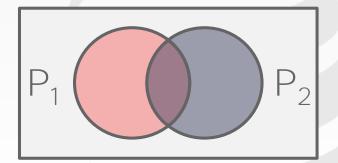


Conjunction:

 \rightarrow sel(P1 \land P2) = sel(P1) • sel(P2) \rightarrow sel(age=2 \land name LIKE 'A%')

This assumes that the predicates are independent.

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age = 2
AND name LIKE 'A%'



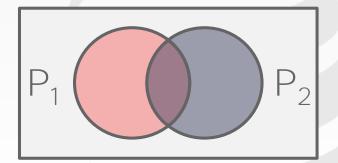


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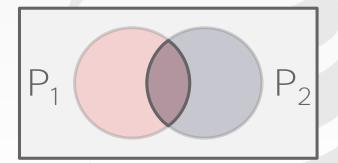


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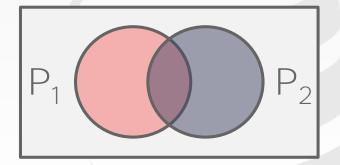




Disjunction:

This again assumes that the selectivities are independent.

```
SELECT * FROM people
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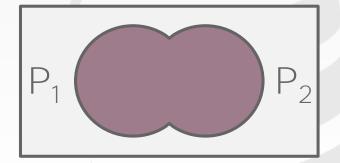




Disjunction:

This again assumes that the selectivities are independent.

```
SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age = 2
OR name LIKE 'A%'
```





RESULT SIZE ESTIMATION FOR JOINS

Given a join of R and S, what is the range of possible result sizes in # of tuples?

In other words, for a given tuple of **R**, how many tuples of **S** will it match?



RESULT SIZE ESTIMATION FOR JOINS

General case: $R_{cols} \cap S_{cols} = \{A\}$ where A is not a key for either table.

```
→ Match each R-tuple with S-tuples:
estSize \approx N_R \cdot N_S / V(A,S)
```

→ Symmetrically, for S:
 estSize ≈ N_R • N_S / V(A,R)

Overall:

 \rightarrow estSize \approx N_R \bullet N_S / max({V(A,S), V(A,R)})



COST ESTIMATIONS

Our formulas are nice but we assume that data values are uniformly distributed.

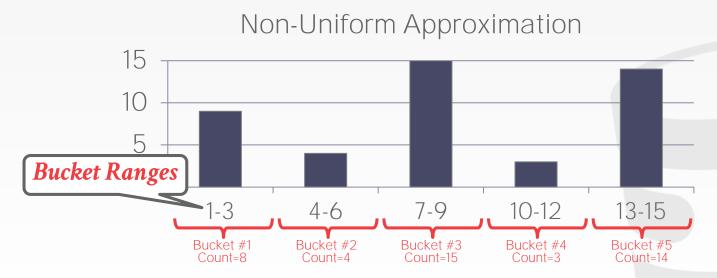
Uniform Approximation





COST ESTIMATIONS

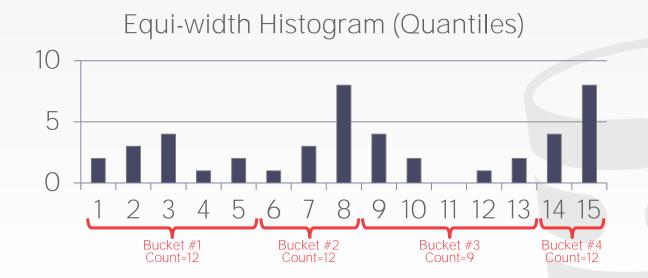
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HISTOGRAMS WITH QUANTILES

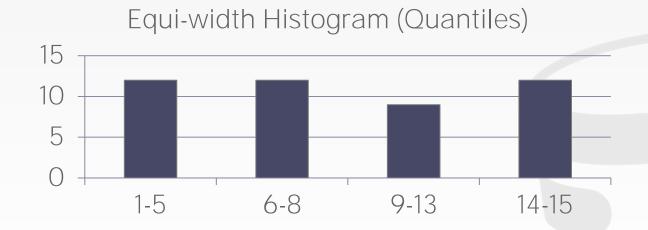
A histogram type wherein the "spread" of each bucket is same.





HISTOGRAMS WITH QUANTILES

A histogram type wherein the "spread" of each bucket is same.





SAMPLING

Modern DBMSs also collect samples from tables to estimate selectivities.

Update samples when the underlying tables changes significantly.

SELECT AVG(age)
 FROM people
WHERE age > 50

id	name	age	status
1001	Obama	56	Rested
1002	Kanye	40	Weird
1003	Tupac	25	Dead
1004	Bieber	23	Crunk
1005	Andy	37	Lit

: 1 billion tuples



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Table Sample

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sel(age>50) =



SAMPLING

Modern DBMSs also collect samples from tables to estimate selectivities.

Update samples when the underlying tables changes significantly.

Table Sample

1/3 | 1001 | Obama | 56 | Rested | | 1/3 | 1003 | Tupac | 25 | Dead | | 1005 | Andy | 37 | Lit

FROM people
WHERE age > 50

id	name	age	status
1001	Obama	56	Rested
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1005	Andy	37	Lit

: 1 billion tuples

sel(age>50) = 1/3



OBSERVATION

Now that we can (roughly) estimate the selectivity of predicates, what can we actually do with them?



QUERY OPTIMIZATION

After performing rule-based rewriting, the DBMS will enumerate different plans for the query and estimate their costs.

- \rightarrow Single relation.
- → Multiple relations.
- → Nested sub-queries.

It chooses the best plan it has seen for the query after exhausting all plans or some timeout.



SINGLE-RELATION QUERY PLANNING

Pick the best access method.

- → Sequential Scan
- → Binary Search (clustered indexes)
- → Index Scan

Simple heuristics are often good enough for this.

OLTP queries are especially easy.



OLTP QUERY PLANNING

Query planning for OLTP queries is easy because they are **sargable**.

- → Search Argument Able
- \rightarrow It is usually just picking the best index.
- → Joins are almost always on foreign key relationships with a small cardinality.
- \rightarrow Can be implemented with simple heuristics.



As number of joins increases, number of alternative plans grows rapidly

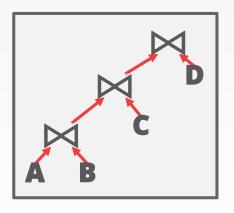
 \rightarrow We need to restrict search space.

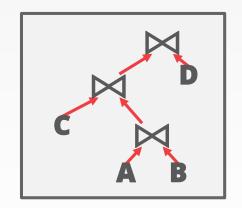
Fundamental decision in System R: only left-deep join trees are considered.

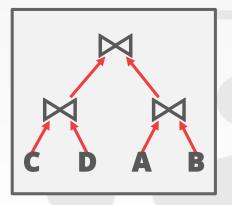
→ Modern DBMSs do not always make this assumption anymore.



Fundamental decision in **System R**: Only consider left-deep join trees.

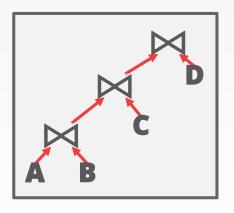


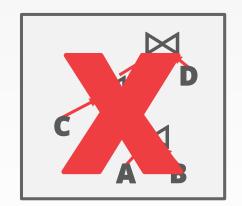


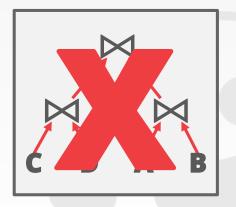




Fundamental decision in **System R**: Only consider left-deep join trees.









Fundamental decision in **System R**: Only consider left-deep join trees.

Allows for fully pipelined plans where intermediate results are not written to temp files.

 \rightarrow Not all left-deep trees are fully pipelined.



Enumerate the orderings

→ Example: Left-deep tree #1, Left-deep tree #2...

Enumerate the plans for each operator

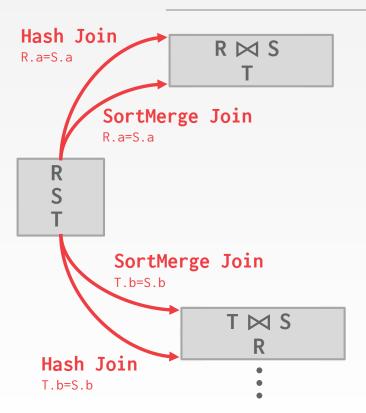
→ Example: Hash, Sort-Merge, Nested Loop...

Enumerate the access paths for each table

→ Example: Index #1, Index #2, Seq Scan...

Use **dynamic programming** to reduce the number of cost estimations.

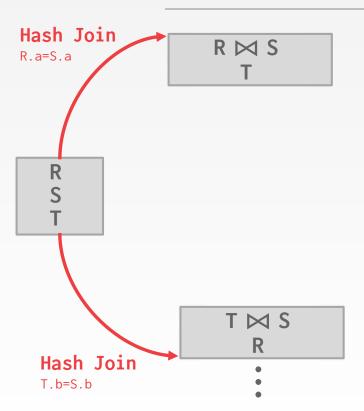




SELECT * FROM R, S, T WHERE R.a = S.a AND S.b = T.b

 $R \bowtie S \bowtie T$

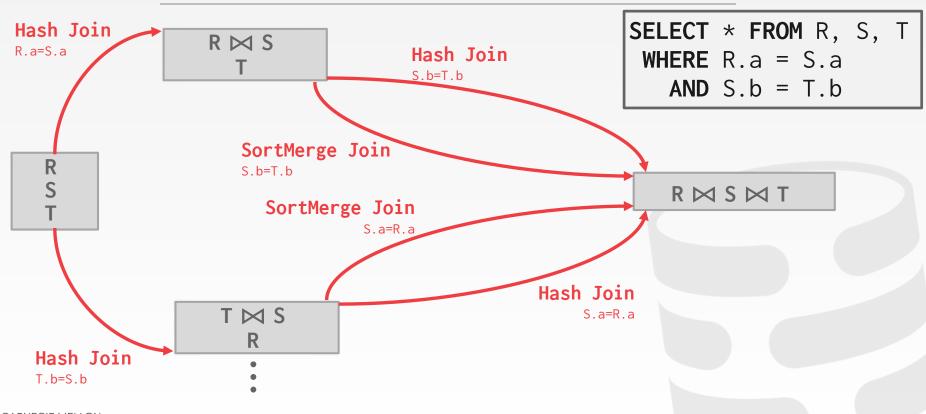


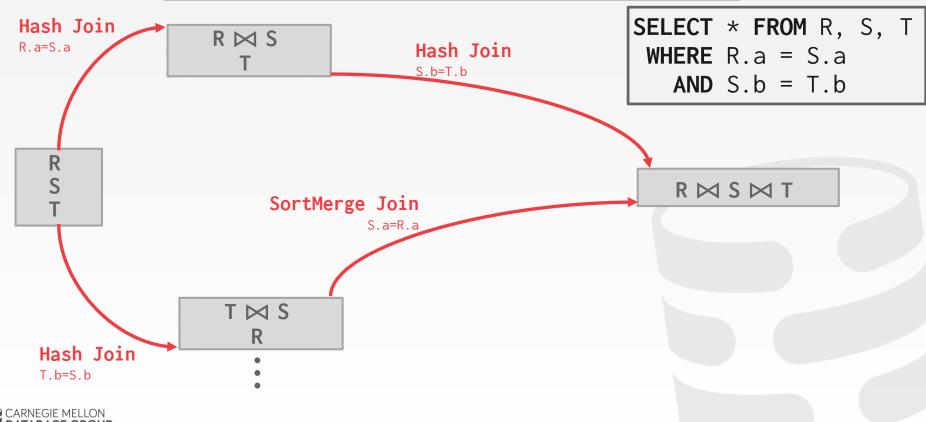


SELECT * FROM R, S, T WHERE R.a = S.a AND S.b = T.b

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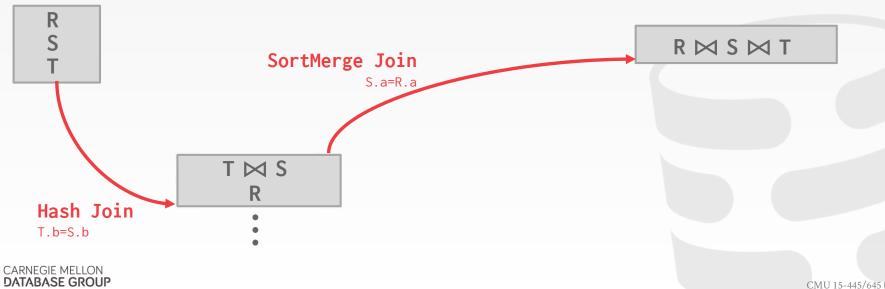








SELECT * **FROM** R, S, T $R \bowtie S$ WHERE R.a = S.aAND S.b = T.b





CANDIDATE PLAN EXAMPLE

How to generate plans for search algorithm:

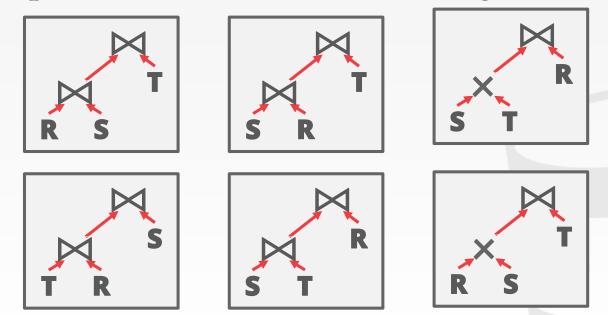
- → Enumerate relation orderings
- → Enumerate join algorithm choices
- → Enumerate access method choices

No real DBMSs does it this way. It's actually more messy...

SELECT * FROM R, S, T WHERE R.a = S.a AND S.b = T.b

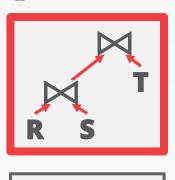


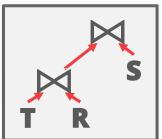
Step #1: Enumerate relation orderings

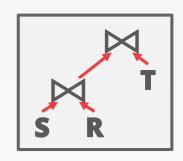


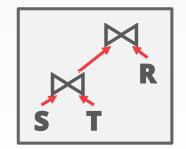


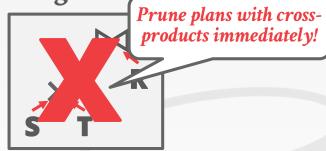
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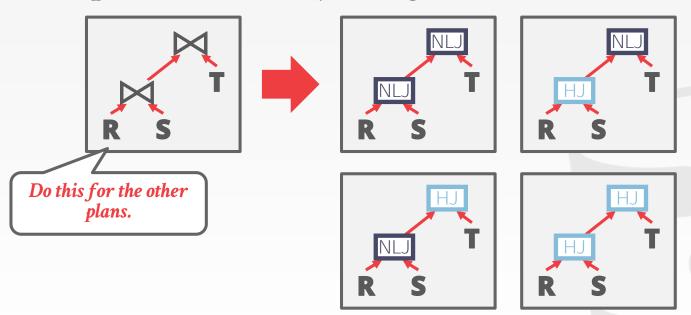






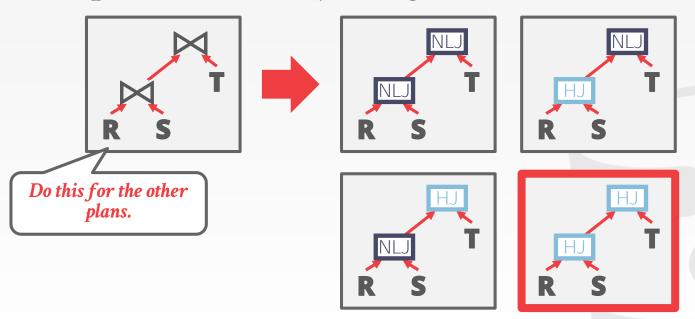


Step #2: Enumerate join algorithm choices



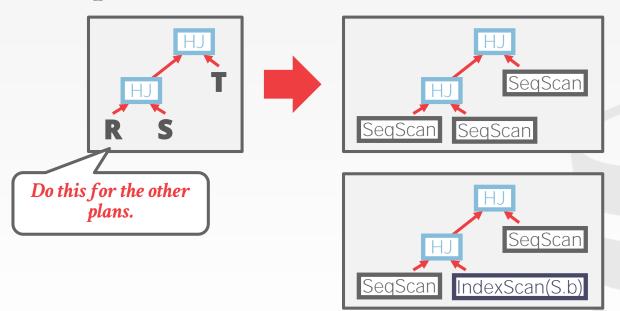


Step #2: Enumerate join algorithm choices





Step #3: Enumerate access method choices





NESTED SUB-QUERIES

The DBMS treats nested sub-queries in the where clause as functions that take parameters and return a single value or set of values.

Two Approaches:

- → Rewrite to de-correlate and/or flatten them
- → Decompose nested query and store result to temporary table



NESTED SUB-QUERIES: REWRITE

```
SELECT name FROM sailors AS S
WHERE EXISTS (
    SELECT * FROM reserves AS R
    WHERE S.sid = R.sid
    AND R.day = '2018-10-15'
)
```

```
SELECT name
  FROM sailors AS S, reserves AS R
WHERE S.sid = R.sid
  AND R.day = '2018-10-15'
```



NESTED SUB-QUERIES: DECOMPOSE

```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
  FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
 WHERE S.sid = R.sid
   AND R.bid = B.bid
   AND B.color = 'red'
   AND S.rating = (SELECT MAX(S2.rating)
                     FROM sailors S2)
 GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

For each sailor with the highest rating (over all sailors) and at least two reservations for red boats, find the sailor id and the earliest date on which the sailor has a reservation for a red boat.



For harder queries, the optimizer breaks up queries into blocks and then concentrates on one block at a time.

Sub-queries are written to a temporary table that are discarded after the query finishes.



```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
  FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
 WHERE S.sid = R.sid
  AND R.bid = B.bid
  AND B.color = 'red'
  AND S.rating = (SELECT MAX(S2.rating)
                     FROM sailors S2)
GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

Nested Block



SELECT MAX(rating) **FROM** sailors

```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
 FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
 WHERE S.sid = R.sid
  AND R.bid = B.bid
  AND B.color = 'red'
  AND S.rating = ###
GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

Nested Block



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SELECT MAX(rating) FROM sailors
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HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

Outer Block



CONCLUSION

Filter early as possible.

Selectivity estimations

- → Uniformity
- → Independence
- → Histograms
- → Join selectivity

Dynamic programming for join orderings

Rewrite nested queries

Query optimization is really hard...



Midterm Exam

Who: You

What: Midterm Exam

When: Wed Oct 17th 12:00pm - 1:20pm

Where: Posner Mellon Auditorium

Why: https://youtu.be/xgMiaIPxSlc



MIDTERM

What to bring:

- → CMU ID
- → Calculator
- → One 8.5x11" page of notes (double-sided)

What not to bring:

- \rightarrow Live animals
- → Your wet laundry



MIDTERM

Covers up to Joins (inclusive).

- → Closed book, one sheet of notes (double-sided)
- → Please email Andy if you need special accommodations.

https://15445.courses.cs.cmu.edu/fall2018/midter m-guide.html



RELATIONAL MODEL

Integrity Constraints Relation Algebra



SQL

Basic operations:

- → SELECT / INSERT / UPDATE / DELETE
- → WHERE predicates
- → Output control

More complex operations:

- \rightarrow Joins
- → Aggregates
- → Common Table Expressions



STORAGE

Buffer Management Policies

→ LRU / MRU / CLOCK

On-Disk File Organization

- → Heaps
- → Linked Lists

Page Layout

- → Slotted Pages
- \rightarrow Log-Structured



HASHING

Static Hashing

- → Linear Probing
- → Robin Hood
- → Cuckoo Hashing

Dynamic Hashing

- → Extendible Hashing
- → Linear Hashing

Comparison with B+Trees



TREE INDEXES

B+Tree

- → Insertions / Deletions
- → Splits / Merges
- → Difference with B-Tree
- → Latch Crabbing / Coupling

Radix Trees

Skip Lists



SORTING

Two-way External Merge Sort General External Merge Sort

Cost to sort different data sets with different number of buffers.



QUERY PROCESSING

Processing Models

→ Advantages / Disadvantages

Join Algorithms

- → Nested Loop
- → Sort-Merge
- \rightarrow Hash



NEXT CLASS

Parallel Query Execution

