## Query Optimization

### Using Heuristics in Query Optimization

- Process for heuristics optimization
  - The parser of a high-level query generates an initial internal representation;
  - Apply heuristics rules to optimize the internal representation.
  - A query execution plan is generated to execute groups of operations based on the access paths available on the files involved in the query.
- The main heuristic is to apply first the operations that reduce the size
  of intermediate results.
  - E.g., Apply SELECT and PROJECT operations before applying the JOIN or other binary operations.

### Example

#### Example:

• For every project located in 'Stafford', retrieve the project number, the controlling department number and the department manager's last name, address and birthdate.

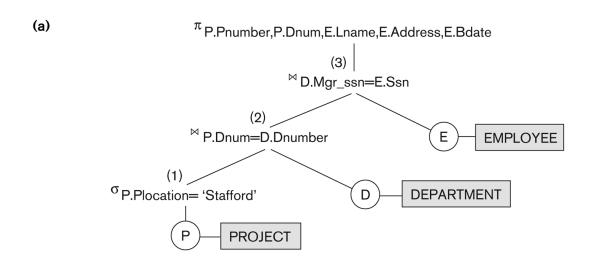
#### Relation algebra:

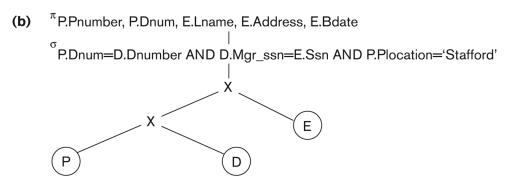
```
\pi_{Pnumber, Dnum, Lname, Address, Bdate} (((\sigma_{Plocation='Stafford'}(PROJECT)) \bowtie_{Dnum=Dnumber}(DEPARTMENT)) \bowtie_{Mgr\_ssn=Ssn}(EMPLOYEE))
```

#### SQL query:

```
FROM PROJECT P, DEPARTMENT D, EMPLOYEE E
WHERE P.Dnum=D.Dnumber AND D.Mgr_ssn=E.Ssn AND
P.Plocation= 'Stafford';
```

## Example (cont'd)





#### Figure 15.4

Two query trees for the query Q2. (a) Query tree corresponding to the relational algebra expression for Q2. (b) Initial (canonical) query tree for SQL query Q2. (c) Query graph for Q2.

#### Selection and projections

Cascading of selections

$$| \sigma_{c_1 \wedge c_2 \wedge \dots \wedge c_n}(R) \equiv \sigma_{c_1}(\sigma_{c_2}(\dots(\sigma_{c_n}(R))))$$

Commutativity

$$\mid \sigma_{c_1} (\sigma_{c_2} (R)) \equiv \sigma_{c_2} (\sigma_{c_1} (R))$$

Cascading of projections

```
\Pi_{a_1}(R) \equiv \Pi_{a_1}(\Pi_{a_2}(...(\Pi_{a_n}(R))...)

\Pi_{a_i} \subseteq a_{i+1}, i = 1, 2, ..., n-1
```

#### Cartesian products and joins

Commutativity

```
 | R \times S \equiv S \times R 
 | R \bowtie S \equiv S \bowtie R
```

Assosiativity

```
 | R \times (S \times T) \equiv (R \times S) \times T 
 | R \bowtie (S \bowtie T) \equiv (R \bowtie S) \bowtie T
```

Their combination

```
 | R \bowtie (S \bowtie T) \equiv R \bowtie (T \bowtie S) \equiv (R \bowtie T) \bowtie S 
 \equiv (T \bowtie R) \bowtie S
```

### Other operations

- Selection-projection commutativity
  - $\Pi_a (\sigma_c(R)) \equiv \sigma_c(\Pi_a(R))$
  - iff every attribute in c is included in the set of attributes a
- Combination (join definition)

$$\vdash \sigma_c (R \times S) \equiv R \bowtie_c S$$

- Selection-Cartesian/join commutativity

  - iff the attributes in c appear only in R and not in S
- Selection distribution/replacement
  - $| \sigma_{c}(R \bowtie S) \equiv \sigma_{c_{1} \wedge c_{2}} (R \bowtie S) \equiv \sigma_{c_{1}} (\sigma_{c_{2}} (R \bowtie S)) \equiv \sigma_{c_{1}} (R \bowtie S)$
  - iff  $c_1$  is relevant only to R and  $c_2$  is relevant only to S

### Other operations (cont.)

- Projection-Cartesian product commutativity
  - $\Pi_a(R \times S) \equiv \Pi_{a_1}(R) \times \Pi_{a_2}(S)$
  - iff a<sub>1</sub> is the subset of attributes in a appearing in R and a<sub>2</sub> is the subset of attributes in a appearing in S
- Projection-join commutativity
  - $\sqcap_{a} (R \bowtie_{c} S) \equiv \Pi_{a_{1}}(R) \bowtie_{c} \Pi_{a_{2}}(S)$
  - iff same as before and every attribute in c appears in a
- Attribute elimination
  - $\sqcap_{a}(R\bowtie_{c}S) \equiv \Pi_{a}(\Pi_{a_{1}}(R)\bowtie_{c}\Pi_{a_{2}}(S))$
  - iff a<sub>1</sub> subset of attributes in R appearing in either a or c and a<sub>2</sub> is the subset of attributes in S appearing in either a or c

### Query Optimization using Equivalence Rules

- Break up any select operations with conjunctive conditions into a cascade of select operations.
- 2. Move each select operation as far down the query tree as is permitted by the attributes involved in the select condition.
- Rearrange the leaf nodes of the tree so that the leaf node relations with the most restrictive select operations are executed first in the query tree representation.
- 4. Combine a Cartesian product operation with a subsequent select operation in the tree into a join operation.
- 5. Break down and move lists of projection attributes down the tree as far as possible by creating new project operations as needed.
- 6. Identify subtrees that represent groups of operations that can be executed by a single algorithm.

#### Query Execution Plans

- An execution plan for a relational algebra query consists of a combination of the relational algebra query tree and information about the access methods to be used for each relation as well as the methods to be used in computing the relational operators stored in the tree.
- Materialized evaluation: the result of an operation is stored as a temporary relation.
- **Pipelined evaluation**: as the result of an operator is produced, it is forwarded to the next operator in sequence.

## Using Selectivity and Cost Estimates in Query Optimization

#### Cost-based query optimization:

- Estimate and compare the costs of executing a query using different execution strategies and choose the strategy with the lowest cost estimate.
- More suitable for compiled queries (Stored Procedure).
- (Compare to heuristic query optimization)

#### Issues

- Cost function
- Number of execution strategies to be considered

#### Cost estimation

- A plan is a tree of operators
- Two parts to estimating the cost of a plan
  - For each node, estimate the cost of performing the corresponding operation
  - For each node, estimate the size of the result and any properties it might have (e.g., sorted)
- Combine the estimates and produce an estimate for the entire plan
- We have seen various storage methods and algorithms
  - And *know the cost* of *using each* one, *depending* on the *input* cardinality
- The problem is estimating the output cardinality of the operations
  - Namely, selections and joins

### Selectivity factor

- The *maximum number of tuples* in the *result* of any *query* is the *product* of the *cardinalities* of the *participating relations*
- Every predicate in the where-clause eliminates some of these potential results
- Selectivity factor of a single predicate is the ratio of the expected result size to the maximum result size
- Total result size is estimated as the maximum size times the product of the selectivity factors

#### Various selectivity factors

- $column = value \rightarrow \frac{1}{\#keys(column)}$ 
  - Assumes uniform distribution in the values
  - □ Is itself an approximation
- $oldsymbol{column}$  column<sub>1</sub> = column<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow \frac{1}{\max(\#keys(column_1),\#keys(column_2))}$ 
  - Each value in column<sub>1</sub> has a matching value in column<sub>2</sub>; given a value in column<sub>1</sub>, the predicate is just a selection
  - Again, an approximation

#### Various selectivity factors (cont.)

- column > value  $\rightarrow \frac{(high(column)-value)}{(high(column)-low(column))}$
- $value_1 < column < value_2 \rightarrow \frac{(value_2 value_1)}{(high(column) low(column))}$
- **column** in list  $\rightarrow$  number of items in list times s.f. of column = value
- column in sub-query → ratio of subquery's estimated size to the number of keys in column
- not (predicate)  $\rightarrow$  1 (s.f. of predicate)
- $P_1 \lor P_2 \to f_{P_1} + f_{P_2} f_{P_1} \cdot f_{P_2}$

### Key assumptions made

- The values across columns are uncorrelated
- The values in a single column follow a uniform distribution
- Both of these assumptions rarely hold
- The first assumption is hard to lift
  - Only recently have researchers started tackling the problem
- The uniform distribution assumption can be lifted with better statistical methods
  - In our case, *histograms*

#### Histograms

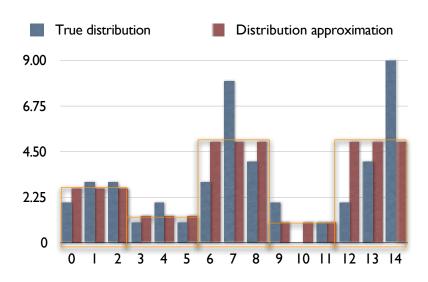
- Elegant data structures to capture value distributions
  - Not affected by the uniform distribution assumption (though this is not entirely true)
- They offer trade-offs between size and accuracy
  - The *more memory* that is dedicated to a histogram, the *more accurate* it is
  - But also, the more expensive to manipulate
- Two basic classes: equi-width and equi-depth

### Desirable histogram properties

- Small
  - Typically, a DBMS will allocate a *single page* for a histogram!
- Accurate
  - Typically, less than 5% error
- Fast access
  - Single lookup access and simple algorithms

#### Equi-width histogram construction

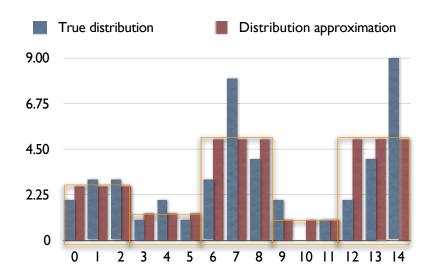
- The total range is divided into sub-ranges of equal width
- Each sub-range becomes a bucket
- The total number of tuples in each bucket is stored



min	max	count
0	2	8
3	5	4
6	8	15
9	11	3
12	14	15

### Equi-width histogram estimation

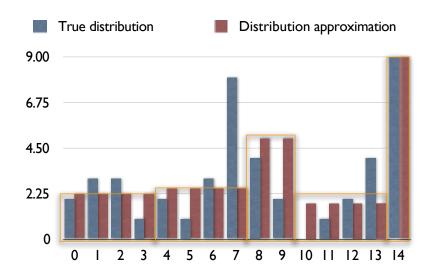
- To estimate the output cardinality of a range query
  - The starting bucket is identified
  - The histogram is then scanned forward until the ending bucket is identified
  - The *numbers of tuples* in the *buckets* of the range are *summed*
  - Within each bucket the uniform distribution assumption is made
- $6 \le v \le 10$ :  $\frac{3}{3} \cdot 15 + \frac{2}{3} \cdot 3 = 17$



min	max	count
0	2	8
3	5	4
6	8	15
9	11	3
12	14	15

## Equi-depth histogram construction and estimation

- The total range is divided into sub-ranges so that the number of tuples in each range is (approximately) equal
- Each sub-range becomes a bucket
- The same schema as in equi-width histograms is used
- In fact, the same algorithm is used for estimation (!)
- $6 \le v \le 10$ :  $\frac{2}{4} \cdot 10 + \frac{2}{2} \cdot 10 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 7 \approx 17$



min	max	count
0	3	8
4	7	10
8	9	10
10	13	7
14	14	9

## Using Selectivity and Cost Estimates in Query Optimization

- Catalog Information Used in Cost Functions
  - Information about the size of a file
    - number of records (tuples) (r),
    - record size (R),
    - number of blocks (b)
    - blocking factor (bfr)
  - Information about indexes and indexing attributes of a file
    - Number of levels (x) of each multilevel index
    - Number of first-level index blocks (bl1)
    - Number of distinct values (d) of an attribute
    - Selectivity (sl) of an attribute
    - Selection cardinality (s) of an attribute. (s = sl \* r)

# Using Selectivity and Cost Estimates in Query Optimization (Cont'd)

- Examples of Cost Functions for SELECT (in terms of block transfers)
  - S1. Linear search (brute force) approach
    - $C_{S1a} = b;$
    - For an equality condition on a key,  $C_{S1a} = (b/2)$  if the record is found; otherwise  $C_{S1a} = b$ .
    - S2. Binary search:
      - $C_{S2} = log_2b + [(s/bfr)] -1$
      - For an equality condition on a unique (key) attribute,  $C_{S2} = log_2 b$
      - Where s is the selection cardinality
  - S3. Using a primary index (S3a) or hash key (S3b) to retrieve a single record
    - $C_{S3a} = x + 1$ ;  $C_{S3b} = 1$  for static or linear hashing;
    - C<sub>S3b</sub> = 2 for extendible hashing;
    - Where x is number of index levels

## Using Selectivity and Cost Estimates in Query Optimization (Cont'd)

- Examples of Cost Functions for SELECT (contd.)
- S4. Using an ordering index to retrieve multiple records:
  - For the comparison condition on a key field with an ordering index,
  - $C_{S4} = x + (b/2)$
  - S5. Using a clustering index to retrieve multiple records:
    - $C_{S5} = x + [(s/bfr)]$
  - S6. Using a secondary (B+-tree) index:
    - For an equality comparison,  $C_{S6a} = x + s$ ;
    - For an comparison condition such as >, <, >=, or <=,
    - $C_{S6a} = x + (b_{11}/2) + (r/2)$

# Using Selectivity and Cost Estimates in Query Optimization (Cont'd)

- Examples of Cost Functions for SELECT (contd.)
- S7. Conjunctive selection:
  - Use either S1 or one of the methods S2 to S6 to solve.
  - For the latter case, use one condition to retrieve the records and then check in the memory buffer whether each retrieved record satisfies the remaining conditions in the conjunction.
  - S8. Conjunctive selection using a composite index:
    - Same as S3a, S5 or S6a, depending on the type of index.

#### **Example of Cost Functions for SELECT**

- EMPLOYEE file has r=10,000 records stored in b=2000 blocks with bfr=5 records/block and the following access path:
  - A clustering index on Salary with levels x<sub>Salary</sub>=3 and average selection cardinality s<sub>Salary</sub>=20.
  - A secondary index on the key attribute Ssn with  $x_{ssn}=4$  ( $s_{ssn}=1$ )
- For the statement Sigma<sub>ssn=123456789</sub> (Employee)
- Using  $S_1$ : Cost = b/2=1000
- Using  $S_{6a}$ : Cost =  $x_{ssn} + 1 = 4 + 1 = 5$

#### Cost-based query optimisation

- The paradigm employed is cost-based query optimisation
  - Simply put: enumerate alternative plans, estimate the cost of each plan, pick the plan with the minimum cost
- For cost-based optimisation, we need a cost model
  - Since what "hurts" performance is I/O, the cost model should use I/O as its basis
  - Hence, the cardinality-based cost model
    - F Cardinality is the number of tuples in a relation

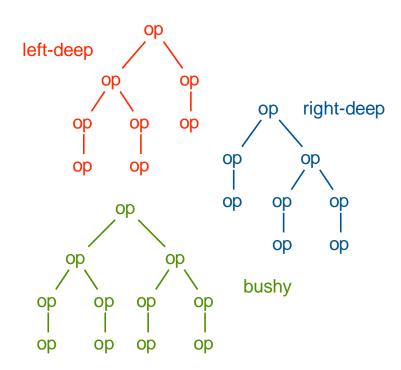
#### Plan enumeration

- Plan enumeration consists of two parts (again, not necessarily independent from one another)
  - Access method selection (i.e., what is the best way to access a relation that appears in the query?)
  - Join enumeration (i.e., what is the best algorithm to join two relations, and when should we apply it?)
- Access methods, join algorithms and their various combinations define a search space
  - The search space can be huge
  - Plan enumeration is the exploration of this search space

#### Search space exploration

- As was stated, the search space is huge
  - Exhaustive exploration is out of the question
  - Because it could be the case that exploring the search space might take longer than actually evaluating the query
  - The way in which we explore the search space describes a query optimisation method
    - F Dynamic programming, rule-based optimisation, randomised exploration, . . .

### Types of plan



- There are two types of plan, according to their shape
  - Deep (left or right)
  - Bushy
- Different shapes for different objectives

#### Just an idea . . .

- A query over five relations, only one access method, only one join algorithm, only left-deep plans
  - Remember,  $cost(R \bowtie S) != cost(S \bowtie R)$
  - So, the number of possible plans is 5! = 120
  - If we add *one extra access method*, the number of *possible plans* becomes  $2^5 \cdot 5! = 3840$
  - If we add one extra join algorithm, the number of possible plans becomes  $2^4 \cdot 2^5 \cdot 5! = 61440$

### Cardinality-based cost model

- A cardinality-based cost model means we need good ways of doing the following
  - Using cardinalities to estimate costs (e.g., accurate cost functions)
  - Estimating output cardinalities after we apply certain operations (e.g., after a selection the cardinality will change; it will not change after a projection)
    - F Because these output cardinalities will be used as inputs to the cost functions of other operations

#### Dynamic programming

- In the beginning, there was System R, which had an optimiser
- System R's optimiser was using dynamic programming
  - An efficient way of exploring the search space
- Heuristics: use the equivalence rules to push down selections and projections, delay Cartesian products
  - Minimise input cardinality to, and memory requirements of the joins
- Constraints: left-deep plans, nested loops and sort-merge join only
  - Left-deep plans took better advantage of pipelining
  - Hash-join had not been developed back then

#### Dynamic programming steps

- Identify the cheapest way to access every single relation in the query, applying local predicates
  - For every relation, keep the cheapest access method overall and the cheapest access method for an interesting order
- For every access method, and for every join predicate, find the cheapest way to join in a second relation
  - For every join result keep the cheapest plan overall and the cheapest plan in an interesting order
- Join in the rest of the relations using the same principle

### Rule-based optimisation

- Basically an issue of if-then rules
  - If (condition list) then apply some transformation to the plan constructed so far
    - F Estimate the cost of the new plan, keep it only if it is cheaper than the original
  - The *order* in which the *rules are applied* is *significant*
  - As a consequence, rules are applied by precedence
    - F For instance, *pushing down selections* is given *high precedence*
    - Combining two relations with a *Cartesian product* is given *low precedence*

### Randomised exploration

- Mostly useful in big queries (more than 15 joins or so)
- The *problem* is one of *exploring a bigger portion* of the search space
  - So, every once in a while the optimiser "jumps" to some other part of the search space with some probability
- As a consequence, it gets to explore parts of the search space it would not have explored otherwise

## Overview of Query Optimization in Oracle

#### Oracle DBMS V8

- Rule-based query optimization: the optimizer chooses execution plans based on heuristically ranked operations.
  - (Currently it is being phased out)
- Cost-based query optimization: the optimizer examines alternative access paths and operator algorithms and chooses the execution plan with lowest estimate cost.
  - The query cost is calculated based on the estimated usage of resources such as I/O, CPU and memory needed.
- Application developers could specify hints to the ORACLE query optimizer.
- The idea is that an application developer might know more information about the data.

## Semantic Query Optimization

#### Semantic Query Optimization:

 Uses constraints specified on the database schema in order to modify one query into another query that is more efficient to execute.

Consider the following SQL query,

SELECT E.LNAME, M.LNAME

FROM EMPLOYEE E M

WHERE E.SUPERSSN=M.SSN AND E.SALARY>M.SALARY

#### Explanation:

Suppose that we had a constraint on the database schema that stated that
no employee can earn more than his or her direct supervisor. If the
semantic query optimizer checks for the existence of this constraint, it
need not execute the query at all because it knows that the result of the
query will be empty. Techniques known as theorem proving can be used
for this purpose.