W4111 – Introduction to Databases
Lecture 9: Module II (3), NoSQL (3)

COLUMBIA | ENGINEERING
The Fu Foundation School of Engineering and Applied Science

Contents

Contents

Module II Reminder

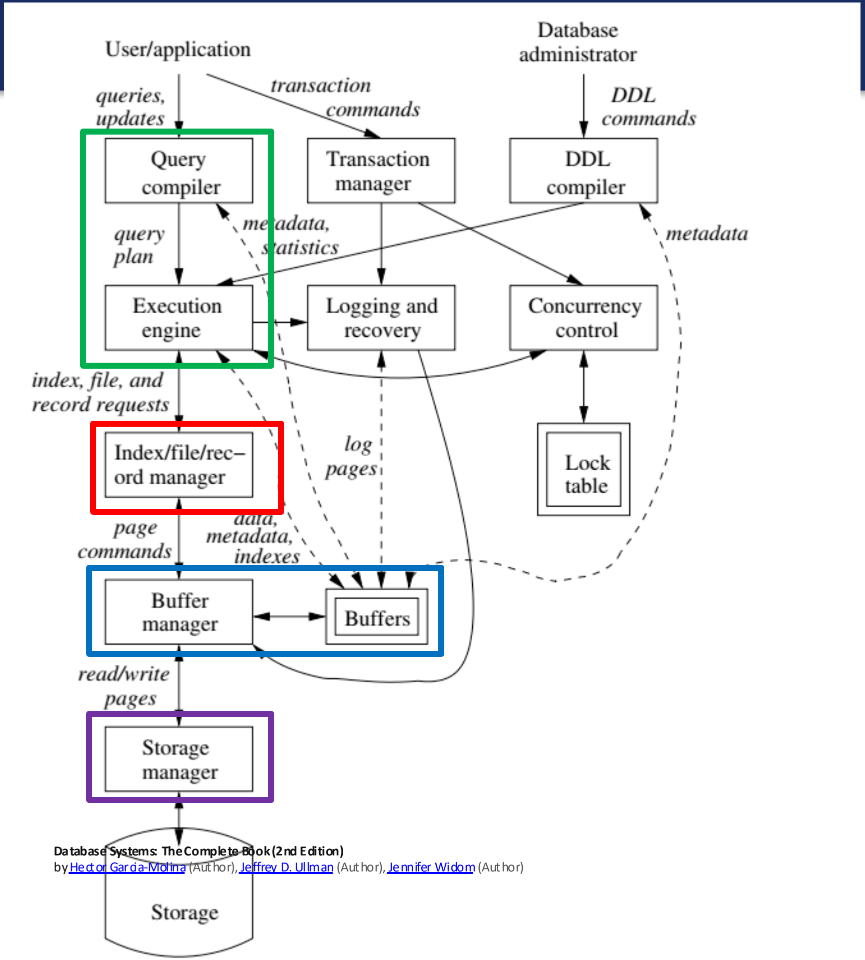
Data Management

Previously

- Load/save things quickly.
- Storage Mgmt. (cont)
- Access data quickly.

Today

- Find things quickly (cont).
- Query processing, e.g. transform
  - Declarative language to
  - Procedural, functional, execution control



Database Systems: The Complete Book (2nd Edition)
by Hector Garcia-Molina (Author), Jeffrey D. Ullman (Author), Jennifer Widom (Author)

Indexes

Reminder

Basic Concepts

- Indexing mechanisms used to speed up access to desired data.
  - E.g., author catalog in library
- **Search Key** - attribute to set of attributes used to look up records in a file.
- An **index file** consists of records (called **index entries**) of the form

search-key	pointer

- Index files are typically much smaller than the original file
- Two basic kinds of indices:
  - **Ordered indices:** search keys are stored in sorted order
  - **Hash indices:** search keys are distributed uniformly across "buckets" using a "hash function".

("c:\", LBN, offset)

search-key	pointer
search-key	pointer
search-key	pointer

Index Concepts

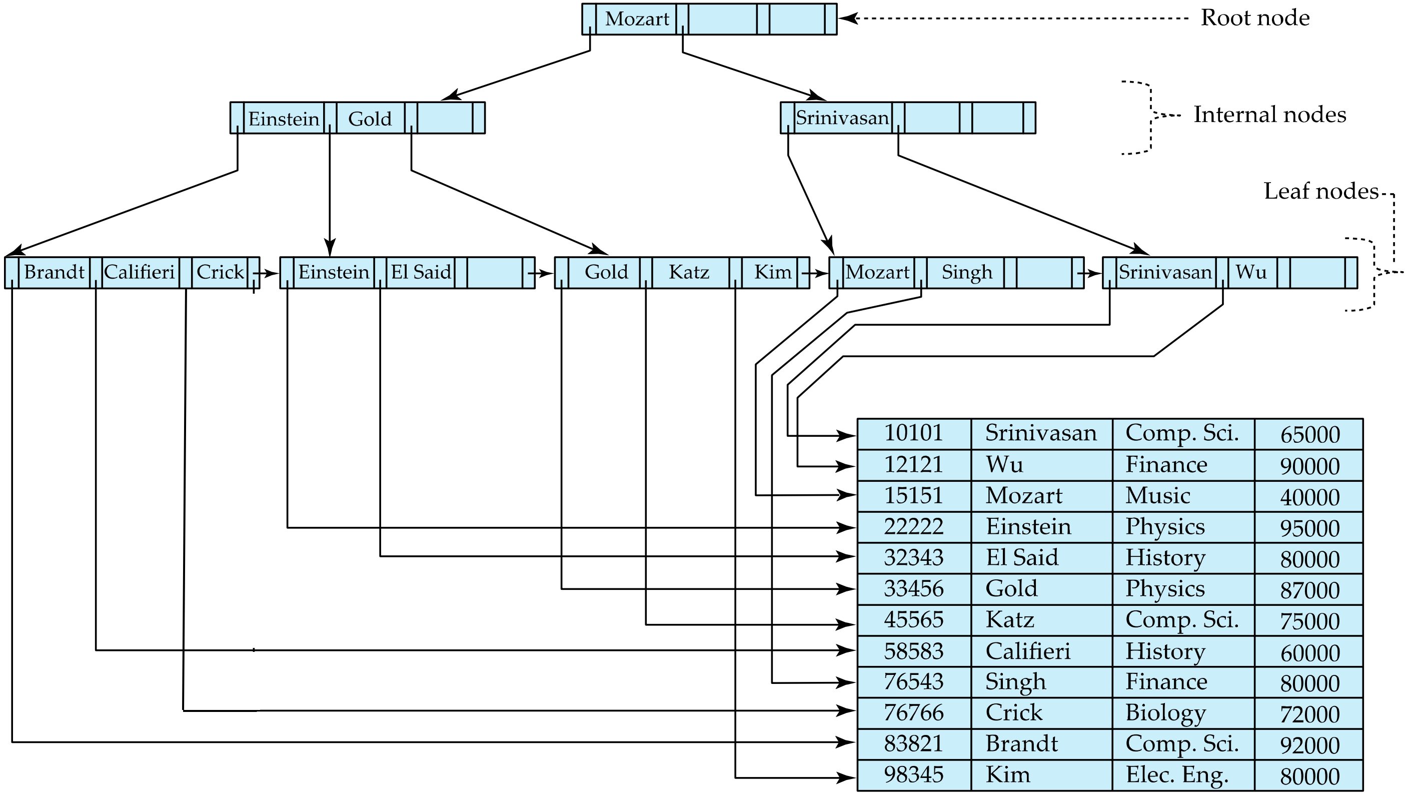
- Index evaluation and selection criteria
  - Access types supported efficiently. E.g.,
    - Records with a specified value in the attribute
    - Records with an attribute value falling in a specified range of values.
  - Access time
  - Update performance: insertion time, deletion time
  - Space overhead
- Index concepts
  - Primary versus secondary
  - Clustered vs Non-clustered
  - Dense versus sparse
  - Ordered vs Unordered
  - Single level vs multilevel

There are two main types used:

- B+ tree
- Hash

B+ Tree

Example of B+-Tree



Root node

Internal nodes

Leaf nodes

Mozart

Einstein | Gold

Srinivasan

Brandt | Califieri | Crick

Einstein | El Said

Gold | Katz | Kim

Mozart | Singh

Srinivasan | Wu

10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
32343	El Said	History	80000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
58583	Califieri	History	60000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000
76766	Crick	Biology	72000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

B^+-Tree Index Files (Cont.)

A B^+-tree is a rooted tree satisfying the following properties:

- All paths from root to leaf are of the same length
- Each node that is not a root or a leaf has between $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ and n children.
- A leaf node has between $\lceil (n–1)/2 \rceil$ and n–1 values
- Special cases:
  - If the root is not a leaf, it has at least 2 children.
  - If the root is a leaf (that is, there are no other nodes in the tree), it can have between 0 and (n–1) values.

B⁺-Tree Node Structure

- Typical node

P_1	K_1	P_2	…	$P_{n\text{-}1}$	$K_{n\text{-}1}$	P_n

  - K_i are the search-key values
  - P_i are pointers to children (for non-leaf nodes) or pointers to records or buckets of records (for leaf nodes).

- The search-keys in a node are ordered

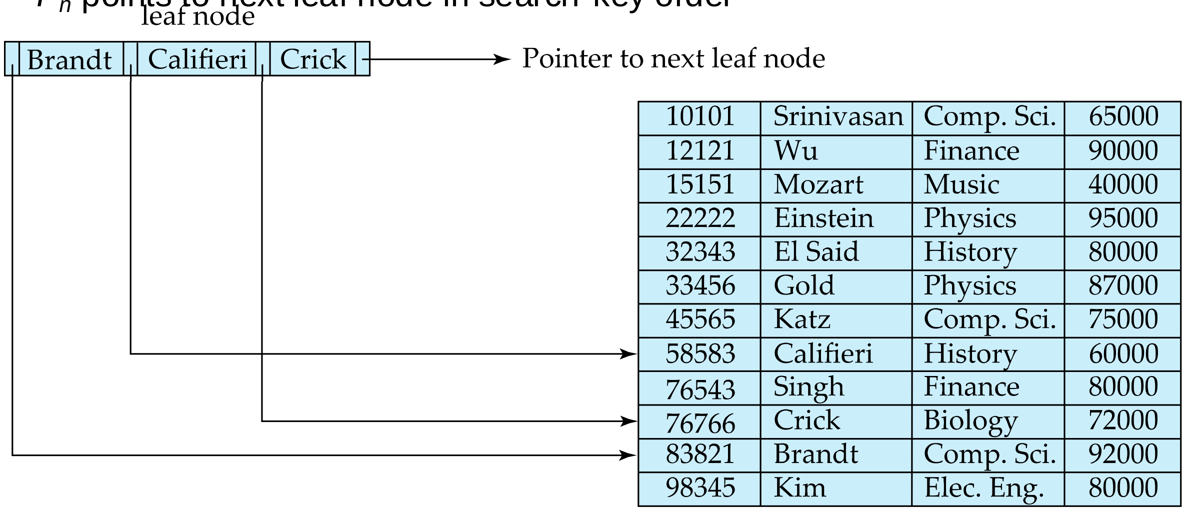
$$K_1 < K_2 < K_3 < . . . < K_{n-1}$$

(Initially assume no duplicate keys, address duplicates later)

Leaf Nodes in B⁺-Trees

Properties of a leaf node:

- For $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n–1$, pointer P_i points to a file record with search-key value K_i,
- If L_i, L_j are leaf nodes and $i < j$, L_i's search-key values are less than or equal to L_j's search-key values
- P_n points to next leaf node in search-key order



10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
12121	Wu	Finance	90000
15151	Mozart	Music	40000
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
32343	El Said	History	80000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
58583	Califieri	History	60000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000
76766	Crick	Biology	72000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

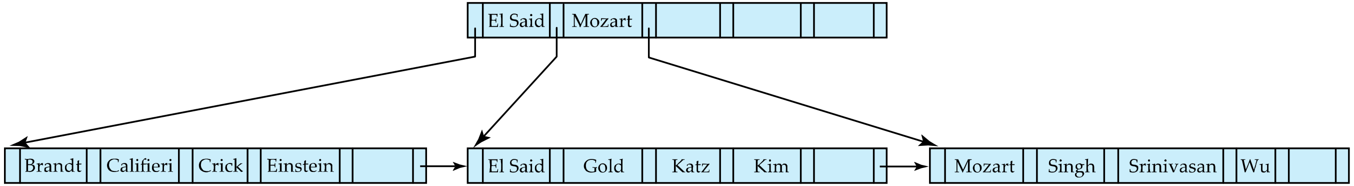
Non-Leaf Nodes in B$^+$-Trees

- Non leaf nodes form a multi-level sparse index on the leaf nodes. For a non-leaf node with *m* pointers:
  - All the search-keys in the subtree to which P_1 points are less than K_1
  - For $2 \leq i \leq n - 1$, all the search-keys in the subtree to which P_i points have values greater than or equal to K_{i-1} and less than K_i
  - All the search-keys in the subtree to which P_n points have values greater than or equal to K_{n-1}
  - General structure

P_1	K_1	P_2	…	P_{n-1}	K_{n-1}	P_n

Example of B⁺-tree

- B⁺-tree for *instructor* file (*n* = 6)



- Leaf nodes must have between 3 and 5 values ($\lceil(n–1)/2\rceil$ and *n* –1, with *n* = 6).
- Non-leaf nodes other than root must have between 3 and 6 children ($\lceil(n/2\rceil$ and *n* with *n* =6).
- Root must have at least 2 children.

Observations about B$^+$-trees

- Since the inter-node connections are done by pointers, “logically” close blocks need not be “physically” close.
- The non-leaf levels of the B$^+$-tree form a hierarchy of sparse indices.
- The B$^+$-tree contains a relatively small number of levels
    - Level below root has at least 2* $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ values
    - Next level has at least 2* $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ * $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ values
    - .. etc.
  - If there are K search-key values in the file, the tree height is no more than $\lceil \log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K) \rceil$
  - thus searches can be conducted efficiently.
- Insertions and deletions to the main file can be handled efficiently, as the index can be restructured in logarithmic time (as we shall see).

Show the Simulator

https://www.cs.usfca.edu/~galles/visualization/BPlusTree.html

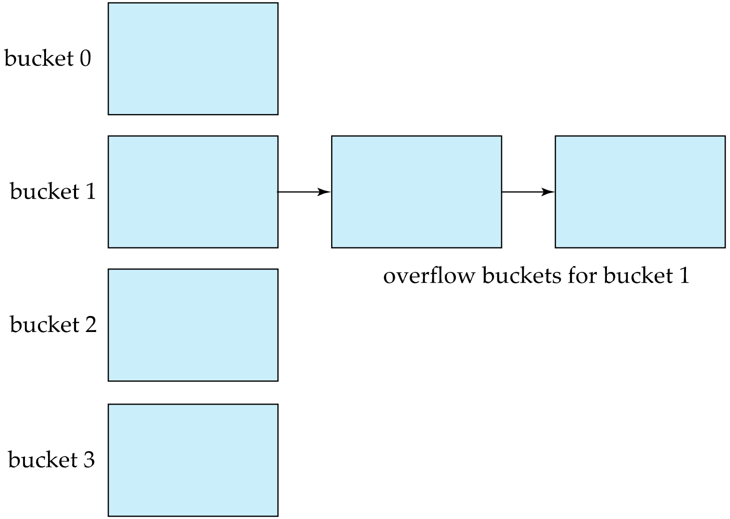
Hash

Static Hashing

- A **bucket** is a unit of storage containing one or more entries (a bucket is typically a disk block).
  - we obtain the bucket of an entry from its search-key value using a **hash function**
- Hash function *h* is a function from the set of all search-key values *K* to the set of all bucket addresses *B.*
- Hash function is used to locate entries for access, insertion as well as deletion.
- Entries with different search-key values may be mapped to the same bucket; thus entire bucket has to be searched sequentially to locate an entry.
- In a **hash index**, buckets store entries with pointers to records
- In a **hash file-organization** buckets store records

Handling of Bucket Overflows (Cont.)

- **Overflow chaining** – the overflow buckets of a given bucket are chained together in a linked list.
- Above scheme is called **closed addressing (**also called **closed hashing or open hashing** depending on the book you use**)**
  - An alternative, called **open addressing (**also called **open hashing** or **closed hashing** depending on the book you use) which does not use overflow buckets, is not suitable for database applications.



Example of Hash File Organization

Hash file organization of *instructor* file, using *dept_name* as key.

bucket 0

bucket 1

15151	Mozart	Music	40000

bucket 2

32343	El Said	History	80000
58583	Califieri	History	60000

bucket 3

22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

bucket 4

12121	Wu	Finance	90000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000

bucket 5

76766	Crick	Biology	72000

bucket 6

10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000

bucket 7

Deficiencies of Static Hashing

- In static hashing, function *h* maps search-key values to a fixed set of *B* of bucket addresses. Databases grow or shrink with time.
  - If initial number of buckets is too small, and file grows, performance will degrade due to too much overflows.
  - If space is allocated for anticipated growth, a significant amount of space will be wasted initially (and buckets will be underfull).
  - If database shrinks, again space will be wasted.
- One solution: periodic re-organization of the file with a new hash function
  - Expensive, disrupts normal operations
- Better solution: allow the number of buckets to be modified dynamically.

Show the Simulator

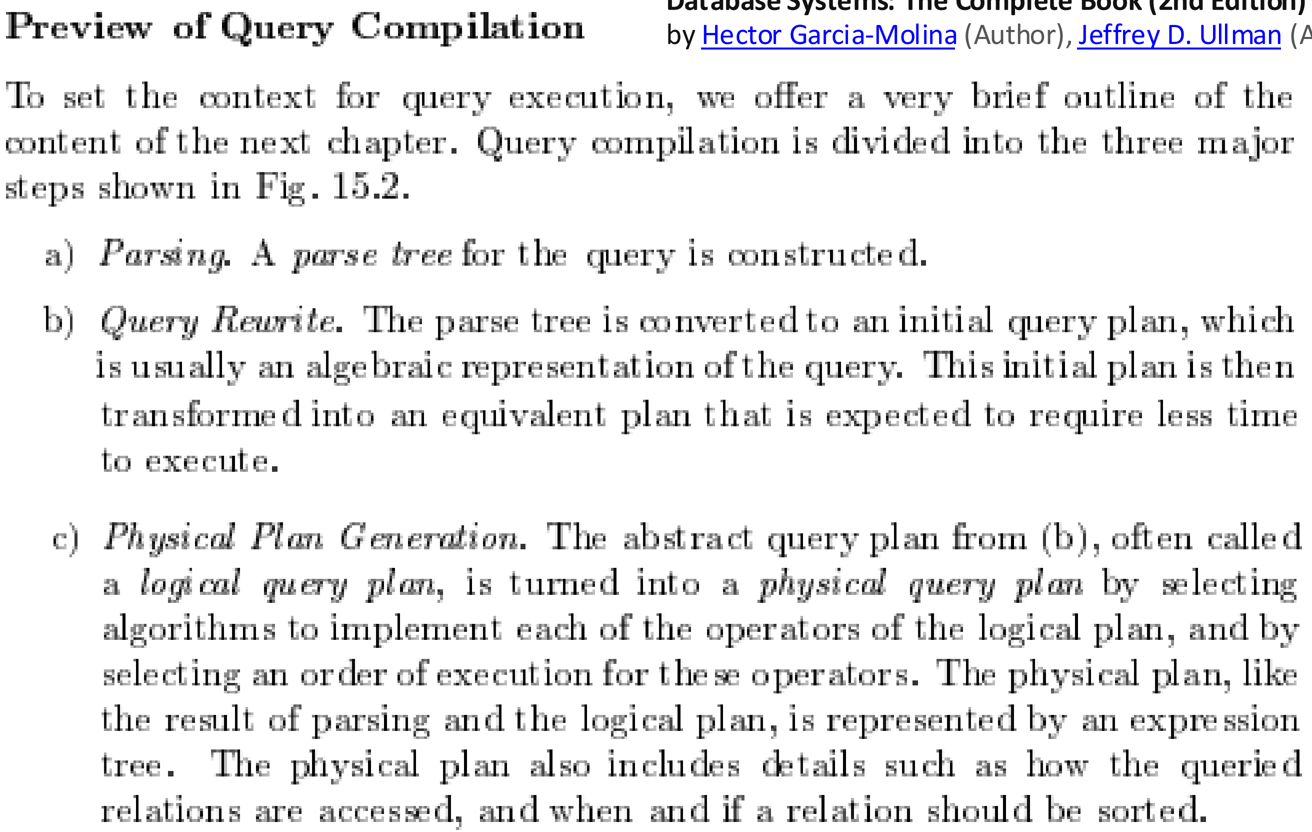
http://iswsa.acm.org/mphf/openDSAPerfectHashAnimation/perfectHashAV.html
https://opendsa-server.cs.vt.edu/ODSA/AV/Development/hashAV.html

Query Processing

Overview

Query Compilation

Database Systems: The Complete Book (2nd Edition) 2nd Edition
by Hector Garcia-Molina (Author), Jeffrey D. Ullman (Author), Jennifer Widom (Author)



Preview of Query Compilation

To set the context for query execution, we offer a very brief outline of the content of the next chapter. Query compilation is divided into the three major steps shown in Fig. 15.2.

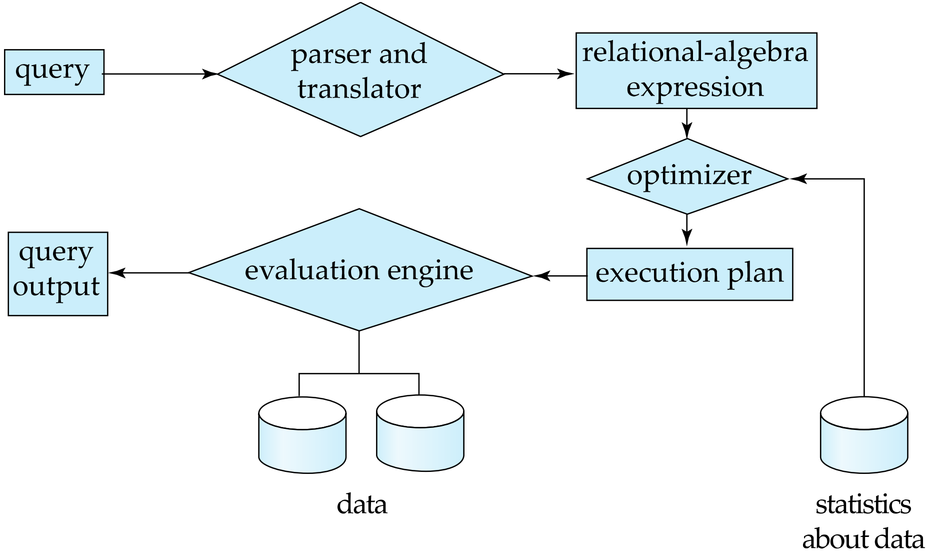
a) *Parsing*. A *parse tree* for the query is constructed.

b) *Query Rewrite*. The parse tree is converted to an initial query plan, which is usually an algebraic representation of the query. This initial plan is then transformed into an equivalent plan that is expected to require less time to execute.

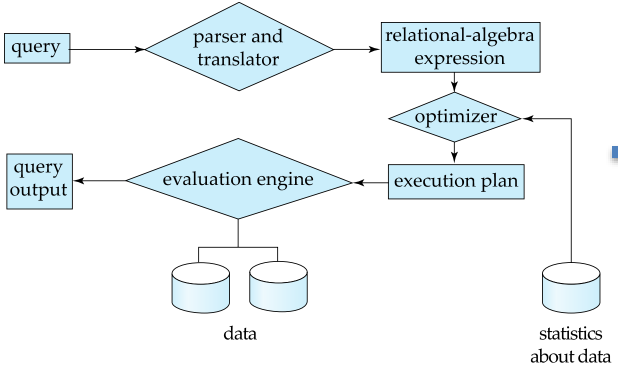
c) *Physical Plan Generation*. The abstract query plan from (b), often called a *logical query plan*, is turned into a *physical query plan* by selecting algorithms to implement each of the operators of the logical plan, and by selecting an order of execution for these operators. The physical plan, like the result of parsing and the logical plan, is represented by an expression tree. The physical plan also includes details such as how the queried relations are accessed, and when and if a relation should be sorted.

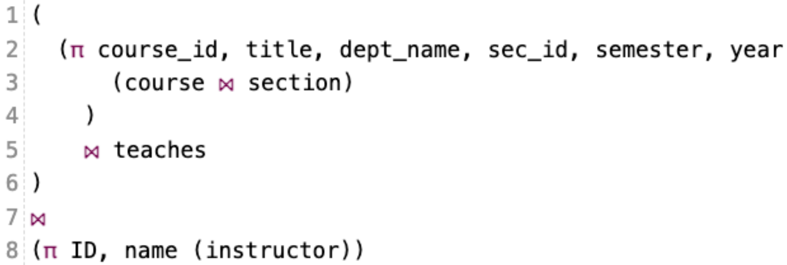
Basic Steps in Query Processing

1. Parsing and translation
2. Optimization
3. Evaluation

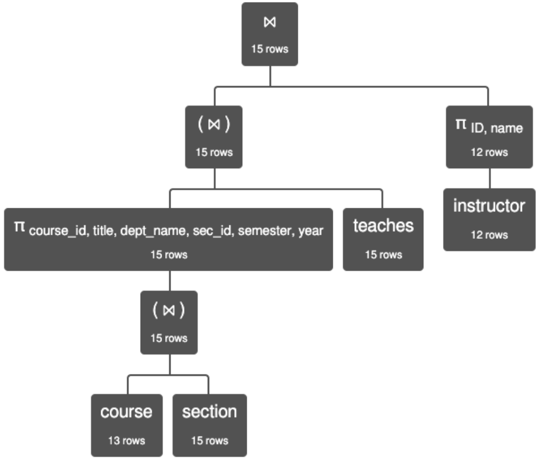


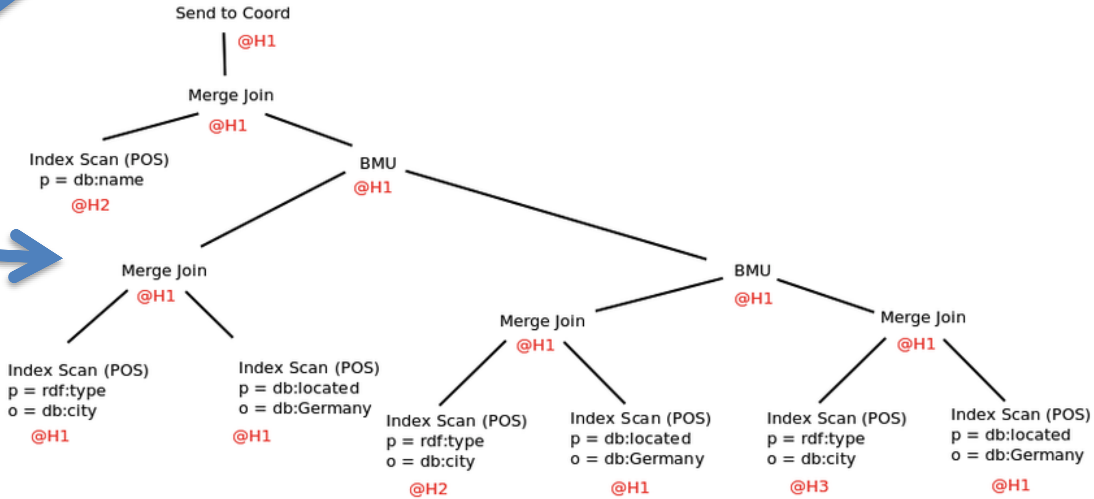
Query Processing





```
(
 (π course_id, title, dept_name, sec_id, semester, year
    (course ⋈ section)
  )
  ⋈ teaches
)
⋈
(π ID, name (instructor))
```



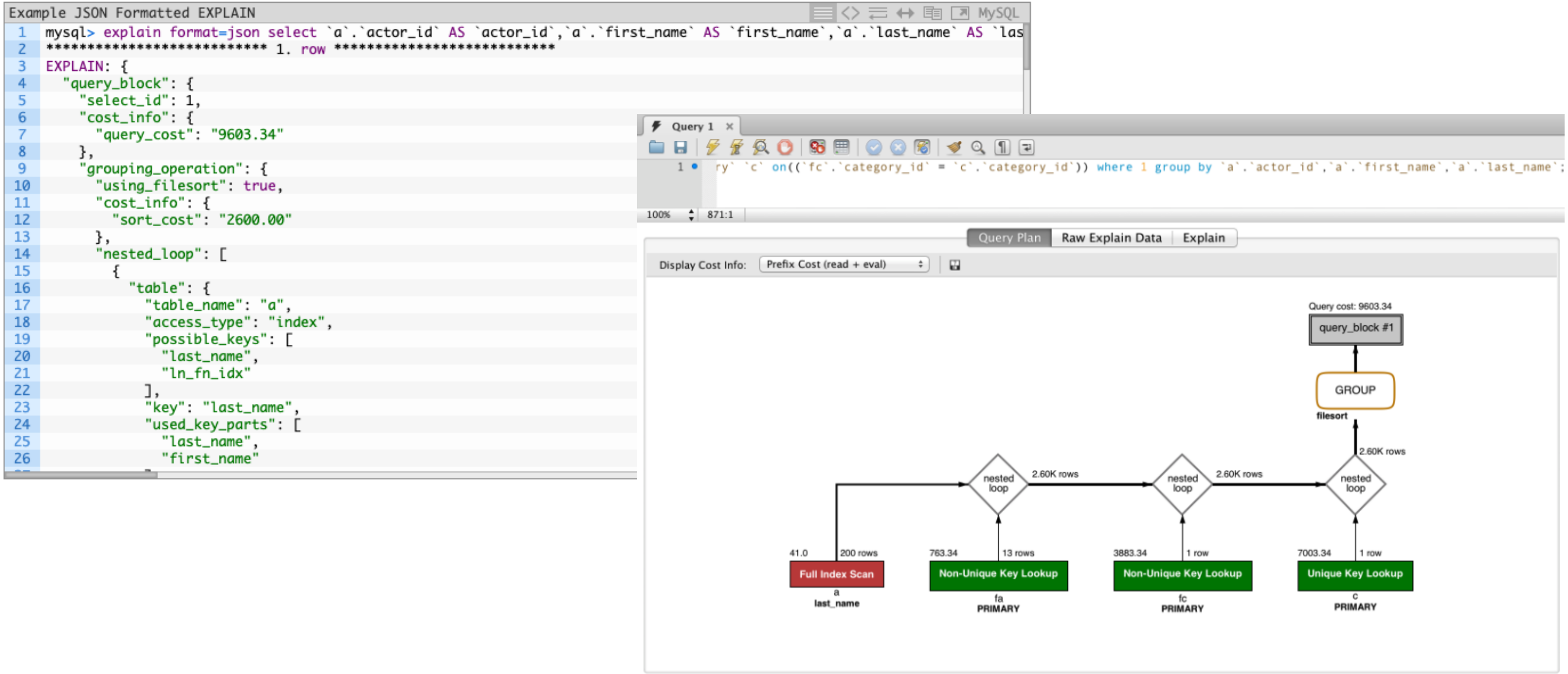


Parsing and Execution

- Parser/Translator
  - Verifies syntax correctness and generates a *parse tree.*
  - Converts to *logical plan tree* that defines how to execute the query.
    - Tree nodes are *operator(tables, parameters)*
    - Edges are the flow of data “up the tree” from node to node.
- Optimizer
  - Modifies the logical plan to define an improved execution.
  - Query rewrite/transformation.
  - Determines *how* to choose among multiple implementations of operators.
- Engine
  - Executes the plan
  - May modify the plan to *optimize* execution, e.g. using indexes.

EXPLAIN Example

JSON EXPLAIN



Example JSON Formatted EXPLAIN

```
mysql> explain format=json select `a`.`actor_id` AS `actor_id`,`a`.`first_name` AS `first_name`,`a`.`last_name` AS `las
*************************** 1. row ***************************
EXPLAIN: {
  "query_block": {
    "select_id": 1,
    "cost_info": {
      "query_cost": "9603.34"
    },
    "grouping_operation": {
      "using_filesort": true,
      "cost_info": {
        "sort_cost": "2600.00"
      },
      "nested_loop": [
        {
          "table": {
            "table_name": "a",
            "access_type": "index",
            "possible_keys": [
              "last_name",
              "ln_fn_idx"
            ],
            "key": "last_name",
            "used_key_parts": [
              "last_name",
              "first_name"
```

```
ry` `c` on((`fc`.`category_id` = `c`.`category_id`)) where 1 group by `a`.`actor_id`,`a`.`first_name`,`a`.`last_name`;
```

Display Cost Info: Prefix Cost (read + eval)

Basic Steps in Query Processing (Cont.)

- Parsing and translation
  - translate the query into its internal form. This is then translated into relational algebra.
  - Parser checks syntax, verifies relations
- Evaluation
  - The query-execution engine takes a query-evaluation plan, executes that plan, and returns the answers to the query.

Basic Steps in Query Processing: Optimization

- A relational algebra expression may have many equivalent expressions
  - E.g., $\sigma_{salary<75000}(\prod_{salary}(instructor))$ is equivalent to
    $\prod_{salary}(\sigma_{salary<75000}(instructor))$
- Each relational algebra operation can be evaluated using one of several different algorithms
  - Correspondingly, a relational-algebra expression can be evaluated in many ways.
- Annotated expression specifying detailed evaluation strategy is called an **evaluation-plan**. E.g.,:
  - Use an index on *salary* to find instructors with salary < 75000,
  - Or perform complete relation scan and discard instructors with salary ≥ 75000

Basic Steps: Optimization (Cont.)

- **Query Optimization**: Amongst all equivalent evaluation plans choose the one with lowest cost.
  - Cost is estimated using statistical information from the database catalog
    - e.g.. number of tuples in each relation, size of tuples, etc.
- In this chapter we study
  - How to measure query costs
  - Algorithms for evaluating relational algebra operations
  - How to combine algorithms for individual operations in order to evaluate a complete expression
- In Chapter 16
  - We study how to optimize queries, that is, how to find an evaluation plan with lowest estimated cost

Today's Topics

Next Lecture

Query Cost

Measures of Query Cost

- Many factors contribute to time cost
  - *disk access, CPU*, and network *communication*
- Cost can be measured based on
  - **response time**, i.e. total elapsed time for answering query, or
  - total **resource consumption**
- We use total resource consumption as cost metric
  - Response time harder to estimate, and minimizing resource consumption is a good idea in a shared database
- We ignore CPU costs for simplicity
  - Real systems do take CPU cost into account
  - Network costs must be considered for parallel systems
- We describe how estimate the cost of each operation
  - We do not include cost to writing output to disk

Measures of Query Cost

- Disk cost can be estimated as:
  - Number of seeks * average-seek-cost
  - Number of blocks read * average-block-read-cost
  - Number of blocks written * average-block-write-cost
- For simplicity we just use the **number of block transfers** *from disk and the* **number of seeks** as the cost measures
  - t_T – time to transfer one block
    - Assuming for simplicity that write cost is same as read cost
  - t_S – time for one seek
  - Cost for b block transfers plus S seeks

    $b * t_T + S * t_S$
- t_S and t_T depend on where data is stored; with 4 KB blocks:
  - High end magnetic disk: t_S = 4 msec and t_T =0.1 msec
  - SSD: t_S = 20-90 microsec and t_T = 2-10 microsec for 4KB

If I ask a query cost estimation question on a HW or exam, you only need to estimate the number of block transfers.

Measures of Query Cost (Cont.)

- Required data may be buffer resident already, avoiding disk I/O
  - But hard to take into account for cost estimation
- Several algorithms can reduce disk IO by using extra buffer space
  - Amount of real memory available to buffer depends on other concurrent queries and OS processes, known only during execution
- Worst case estimates assume that no data is initially in buffer and only the minimum amount of memory needed for the operation is available
  - But more optimistic estimates are used in practice

Selection

Selection Operation

- **File scan**
- Algorithm **A1** (**linear search**). Scan each file block and test all records to see whether they satisfy the selection condition.
  - Cost estimate = b_r block transfers + 1 seek
    - b_r denotes number of blocks containing records from relation r
  - If selection is on a key attribute, can stop on finding record
    - cost = (b_r /2) block transfers + 1 seek
  - Linear search can be applied regardless of
    - selection condition or
    - ordering of records in the file, or
    - availability of indices
- Note: binary search generally does not make sense since data is not stored consecutively
  - except when there is an index available,
  - and binary search requires more seeks than index search

Selections Using Indices

- **Index scan** – search algorithms that use an index
  - selection condition must be on search-key of index.
- **A2** (**clustering index, equality on key**). Retrieve a single record that satisfies the corresponding equality condition
  - $Cost = (h_i + 1) * (t_T + t_S)$
- **A3** (**clustering index, equality on nonkey**) Retrieve multiple records.
  - Records will be on consecutive blocks
    - Let b = number of blocks containing matching records
  - $Cost = h_i * (t_T + t_S) + t_S + t_T * b$

Selections Using Indices

- **A4** (**secondary index, equality on key/non-key**).
  - Retrieve a single record if the search-key is a candidate key
    - *Cost* = $(h_i + 1) * (t_T + t_S)$
  - Retrieve multiple records if search-key is not a candidate key
    - each of *n* matching records may be on a different block
    - Cost = $(h_i + n) * (t_T + t_S)$
      - Can be very expensive!

Selections Involving Comparisons

- Can implement selections of the form $\sigma_{A \leq V}(r)$ or $\sigma_{A \geq V}(r)$ by using
  - a linear file scan,
  - or by using indices in the following ways:
- **A5** (**clustering index, comparison**). (Relation is sorted on A)
  - For $\sigma_{A \geq V}(r)$ use index to find first tuple ≥ *v* and scan relation sequentially from there
  - For $\sigma_{A \leq V}(r)$ just scan relation sequentially till first tuple > *v;* do not use index
- **A6** (**clustering index, comparison**).
  - For $\sigma_{A \geq V}(r)$ use index to find first index entry ≥ *v* and scan index sequentially from there, to find pointers to records.
  - For $\sigma_{A \leq V}(r)$ just scan leaf pages of index finding pointers to records, till first entry > *v*
  - In either case, retrieve records that are pointed to
  - requires an I/O per record; Linear file scan may be cheaper!

Implementation of Complex Selections

- **Conjunction:** $\sigma_{\theta 1 \wedge \theta 2 \wedge \ldots \theta n}(r)$
- **A7** (**conjunctive selection using one index**).
  - Select a combination of θ_i and algorithms A1 through A7 that results in the least cost for $\sigma_{\theta i}(r)$.
  - Test other conditions on tuple after fetching it into memory buffer.
- **A8** (**conjunctive selection using composite index**).
  - Use appropriate composite (multiple-key) index if available.
- **A9** (**conjunctive selection by intersection of identifiers**).
  - Requires indices with record pointers.
  - Use corresponding index for each condition, and take intersection of all the obtained sets of record pointers.
  - Then fetch records from file
  - If some conditions do not have appropriate indices, apply test in memory.

Algorithms for Complex Selections

- **Disjunction:** $\sigma_{\theta_1 \vee \theta_2 \vee . . . \theta_n}(r)$.
- **A10** (**disjunctive selection by union of identifiers**).
  - Applicable if *all* conditions have available indices.
    - Otherwise use linear scan.
  - Use corresponding index for each condition, and take union of all the obtained sets of record pointers.
  - Then fetch records from file
- **Negation:** $\sigma_{\neg\theta}(r)$
  - Use linear scan on file
  - If very few records satisfy $\neg\theta$, and an index is applicable to θ
    - Find satisfying records using index and fetch from file

Index Creation
Sorting and Hash

Sorting

- We may build an index on the relation, and then use the index to read the relation in sorted order. May lead to one disk block access for each tuple.
- For relations that fit in memory, techniques like quicksort can be used.
  - For relations that don't fit in memory, **external sort-merge** is a good choice.

- The engine may build either a sorted index or a hash index.
- The key idea is:
  - The cost of building the index and then using the index in the algorithm
  - Is cheaper than running the default algorithm with an index

JOIN

Join Operation

- Several different algorithms to implement joins
  - Nested-loop join
  - Block nested-loop join
  - Indexed nested-loop join
  - Merge-join
  - Hash-join
- Choice based on cost estimate
- Examples use the following information
  - Number of records of *student*: 5,000 *takes*: 10,000
  - Number of blocks of *student*: 100 *takes*: 400

Nested-Loop Join

- To compute the theta join $r \bowtie_{\theta} s$

```
for each tuple $t_r$ in $r$ do begin
    for each tuple $t_s$ in $s$ do begin
        test pair $(t_r, t_s)$ to see if they satisfy the join condition $\theta$
        if they do, add $t_r \cdot t_s$ to the result.
    end
end
```

- *r* is called the **outer relation** and *s* the **inner relation** of the join.
- Requires no indices and can be used with any kind of join condition.
- Expensive since it examines every pair of tuples in the two relations.

For clarity (or confusion), I sometimes use the terms:

- Scan table for the outer relation
- Probe table for the inner relation

Nested-Loop Join (Cont.)

- In the worst case, if there is enough memory only to hold one block of each relation, the estimated cost is

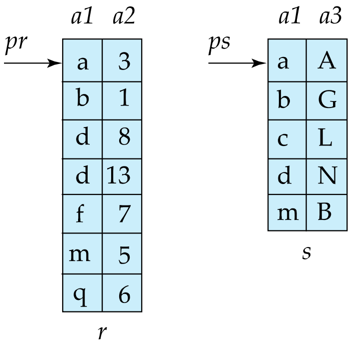
  $n_r * b_s + b_r$ block transfers, plus $n_r + b_r$ seeks
- If the smaller relation fits entirely in memory, use that as the inner relation.
  - Reduces cost to $b_r + b_s$ block transfers and 2 seeks
- Assuming worst case memory availability cost estimate is
  - with *student* as outer relation:
    - 5000 $*$ 400 + 100 = 2,000,100 block transfers,
    - 5000 + 100 = 5100 seeks
  - with *takes* as the outer relation
    - 10000 $*$ 100 + 400 = 1,000,400 block transfers and 10,400 seeks
- If smaller relation (*student*) fits entirely in memory, the cost estimate will be 500 block transfers.
- Block nested-loops algorithm (next slide) is preferable.

Indexed Nested-Loop Join

- Index lookups can replace file scans if
  - join is an equi-join or natural join and
  - an index is available on the inner relation's join attribute
    - Can construct an index just to compute a join.
- For each tuple t_r in the outer relation *r,* use the index to look up tuples in *s* that satisfy the join condition with tuple t_r.
- Worst case: buffer has space for only one page of *r*, and, for each tuple in *r*, we perform an index lookup on *s.*
- Cost of the join: $b_r\ (t_T + t_S) + n_r * c$
  - Where *c* is the cost of traversing index and fetching all matching *s* tuples for one tuple or *r*
  - *c* can be estimated as cost of a single selection on *s* using the join condition.
- If indices are available on join attributes of both *r* and *s,* use the relation with fewer tuples as the outer relation.

Merge-Join

1. Sort both relations on their join attribute (if not already sorted on the join attributes).
2. Merge the sorted relations to join them
   1. Join step is similar to the merge stage of the sort-merge algorithm.
   2. Main difference is handling of duplicate values in join attribute — every pair with same value on join attribute must be matched
   3. Detailed algorithm in book



a1	*a2*
a	3
b	1
d	8
d	13
f	7
m	5
q	6

a1	*a3*
a	A
b	G
c	L
d	N
m	B

#(A) = n, #(B) = m

n*m

n*log(n) + m*log(m) + n + m

Merge-Join (Cont.)

- Can be used only for equi-joins and natural joins
- Each block needs to be read only once (assuming all tuples for any given value of the join attributes fit in memory
- Thus the cost of merge join is:

  $b_r + b_s$ block transfers $+ \lceil b_r / b_b \rceil + \lceil b_s / b_b \rceil$ seeks

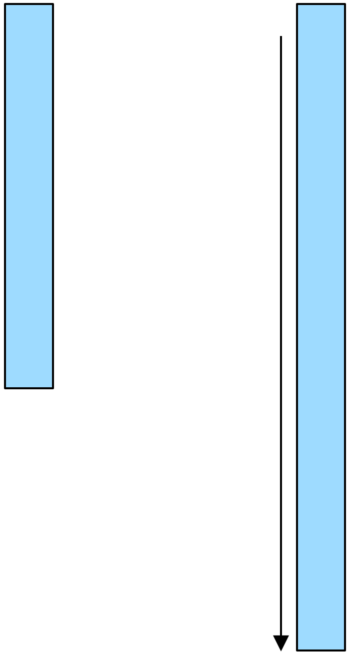
  + the cost of sorting if relations are unsorted.
- **hybrid merge-join:** If one relation is sorted, and the other has a secondary B$^+$-tree index on the join attribute
  - Merge the sorted relation with the leaf entries of the B$^+$-tree .
  - Sort the result on the addresses of the unsorted relation's tuples
  - Scan the unsorted relation in physical address order and merge with previous result, to replace addresses by the actual tuples
    - Sequential scan more efficient than random lookup

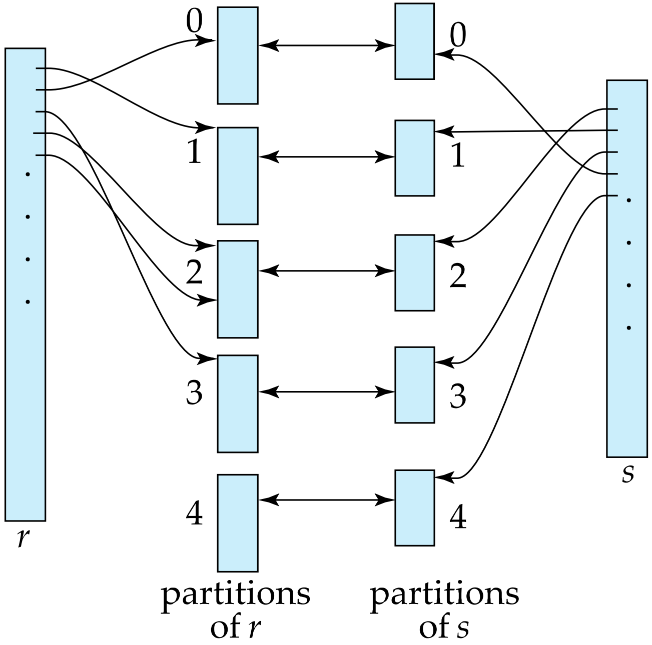
Hash-Join

- Applicable for equi-joins and natural joins.
- A hash function *h* is used to partition tuples of both relations
- *h* maps *JoinAttrs* values to {0, 1, ..., *n*}, where *JoinAttrs* denotes the common attributes of *r* and *s* used in the natural join.
  - r_0, r_1, . . ., r_n denote partitions of *r* tuples
    - Each tuple $t_r \in r$ is put in partition r_i where $i = h(t_r\,[JoinAttrs])$.
  - r_0,, r_1. . ., r_n denotes partitions of *s* tuples
    - Each tuple $t_s \in s$ is put in partition s_i, where $i = h(t_s\,[JoinAttrs])$.
- *Note:* In book, Figure 12.10 r_i is denoted as $H_{ri,}$ s_i is denoted as H_{si} and *n* is denoted as $n_{h.}$

Hash-Join (Cont.)

On a.X=b.Z





Hash-Join Algorithm

The hash-join of *r* and *s* is computed as follows.

1. Partition the relation *s* using hashing function *h*. When partitioning a relation, one block of memory is reserved as the output buffer for each partition.
2. Partition *r* similarly.
3. For each *i:*

   (a) Load s_i into memory and build an in-memory hash index on it using the join attribute. This hash index uses a different hash function than the earlier one *h.*

   (b) Read the tuples in r_i from the disk one by one. For each tuple t_r locate each matching tuple t_s in s_i using the in-memory hash index. Output the concatenation of their attributes.

Relation *s* is called the **build input** and *r* is called the **probe input**.

Hash-Join algorithm (Cont.)

- The value *n* and the hash function *h* is chosen such that each s_i should fit in memory.
  - Typically n is chosen as $\lceil b_s/M \rceil * f$ where f is a "**fudge factor**", typically around 1.2
  - The probe relation partitions s_i need not fit in memory
- **Recursive partitioning** required if number of partitions *n* is greater than number of pages *M* of memory.
  - instead of partitioning *n* ways, use *M* – 1 partitions for s
  - Further partition the *M* – 1 partitions using a different hash function
  - Use same partitioning method on *r*
  - Rarely required: e.g., with block size of 4 KB, recursive partitioning not needed for relations of < 1GB with memory size of 2MB, or relations of < 36 GB with memory of 12 MB

Other Operations

Other Operations

- **Duplicate elimination** can be implemented via hashing or sorting.
  - On sorting duplicates will come adjacent to each other, and all but one set of duplicates can be deleted.
  - *Optimization:* duplicates can be deleted during run generation as well as at intermediate merge steps in external sort-merge.
  - Hashing is similar – duplicates will come into the same bucket.
- **Projection**:
  - perform projection on each tuple
  - followed by duplicate elimination.

Other Operations : Aggregation

- **Aggregation** can be implemented in a manner similar to duplicate elimination.
  - **Sorting** or **hashing** can be used to bring tuples in the same group together, and then the aggregate functions can be applied on each group.
  - Optimization*:* **partial aggregation**
    - combine tuples in the same group during run generation and intermediate merges, by computing partial aggregate values
    - For count, min, max, sum: keep aggregate values on tuples found so far in the group.
      - When combining partial aggregate for count, add up the partial aggregates
    - For avg, keep sum and count, and divide sum by count at the end

Evaluation of Expressions

- So far: we have seen algorithms for individual operations
- Alternatives for evaluating an entire expression tree
  - **Materialization**: generate results of an expression whose inputs are relations or are already computed, **materialize** (store) it on disk. Repeat.
  - **Pipelining**: pass on tuples to parent operations even as an operation is being executed
- We study above alternatives in more detail

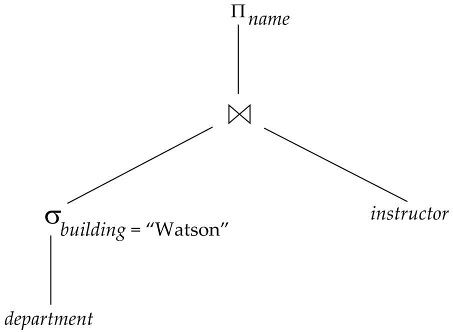
Evaluation

Materialization

- **Materialized evaluation**: evaluate one operation at a time, starting at the lowest-level. Use intermediate results materialized into temporary relations to evaluate next-level operations.
- E.g., in figure below, compute and store

$$\sigma_{building="\text{Watson}"}(department)$$

then compute the store its join with *instructor,* and finally compute the projection on *name.*



Materialization (Cont.)

- Materialized evaluation is always applicable
- Cost of writing results to disk and reading them back can be quite high
  - Our cost formulas for operations ignore cost of writing results to disk, so
    - Overall cost = Sum of costs of individual operations +
      cost of writing intermediate results to disk
- **Double buffering**: use two output buffers for each operation, when one is full write it to disk while the other is getting filled
  - Allows overlap of disk writes with computation and reduces execution time

Pipelining

- **Pipelined evaluation**: evaluate several operations simultaneously, passing the results of one operation on to the next.
- E.g., in previous expression tree, don’t store result of

$$\sigma_{building = \text{"Watson"}}(department)$$

  - instead, pass tuples directly to the join.. Similarly, don’t store result of join, pass tuples directly to projection.
- Much cheaper than materialization: no need to store a temporary relation to disk.
- Pipelining may not always be possible – e.g., sort, hash-join.
- For pipelining to be effective, use evaluation algorithms that generate output tuples even as tuples are received for inputs to the operation.
- Pipelines can be executed in two ways: **demand driven** and **producer driven**

Pipelining (Cont.)

- In **demand driven** or **lazy** evaluation
  - system repeatedly requests next tuple from top level operation
  - Each operation requests next tuple from children operations as required, in order to output its next tuple
  - In between calls, operation has to maintain "**state**" so it knows what to return next
- In **producer-driven** or **eager** pipelining
  - Operators produce tuples eagerly and pass them up to their parents
    - Buffer maintained between operators, child puts tuples in buffer, parent removes tuples from buffer
    - if buffer is full, child waits till there is space in the buffer, and then generates more tuples
  - System schedules operations that have space in output buffer and can process more input tuples
- Alternative name: **pull** and **push** models of pipelining

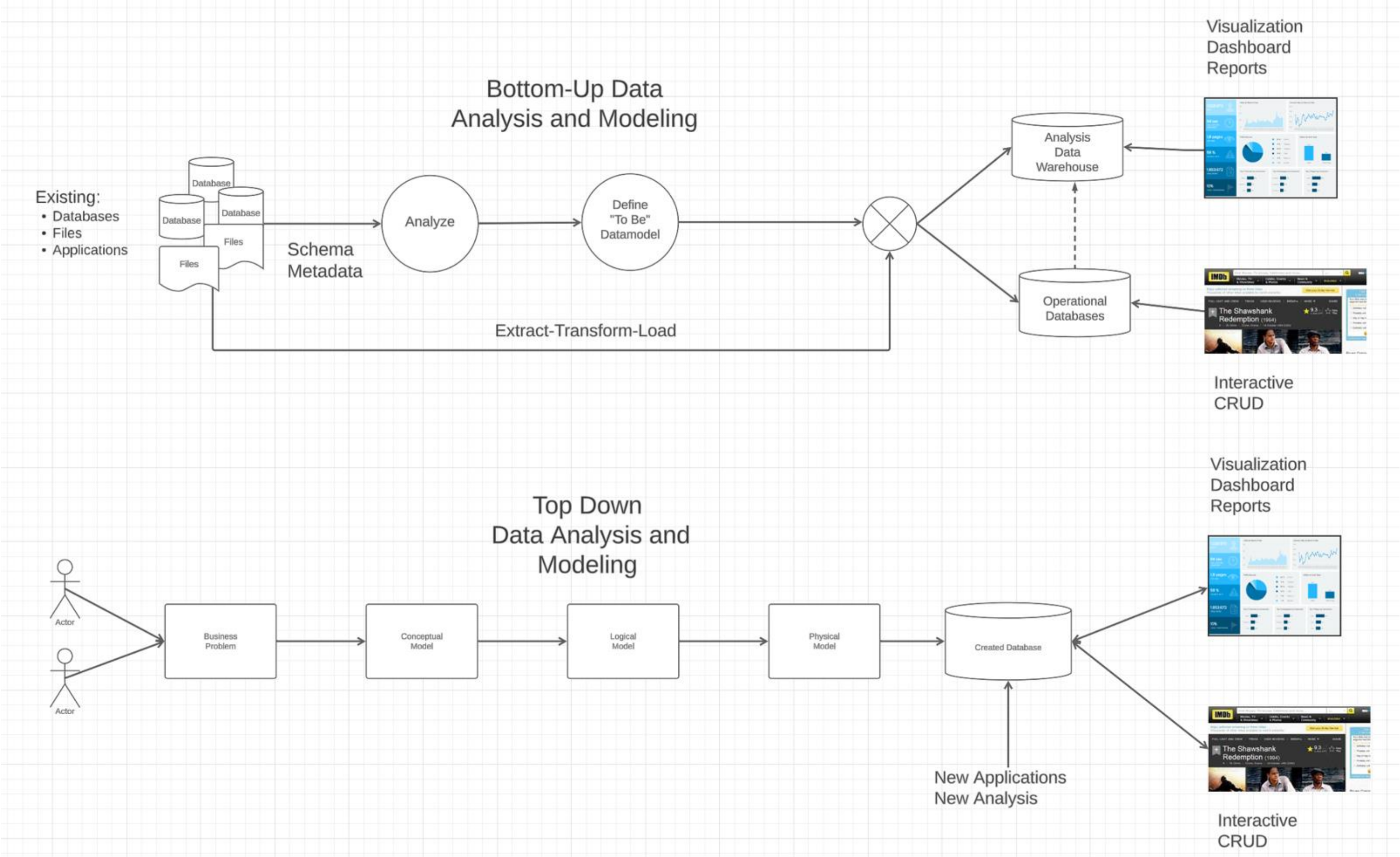
Pipelining (Cont.)

- Implementation of demand-driven pipelining
  - Each operation is implemented as an **iterator** implementing the following operations
    - **open()**
      - E.g., file scan: initialize file scan
        - state: pointer to beginning of file
      - E.g., merge join: sort relations;
        - state: pointers to beginning of sorted relations
    - **next()**
      - E.g., for file scan: Output next tuple, and advance and store file pointer
      - E.g., for merge join: continue with merge from earlier state till next output tuple is found. Save pointers as iterator state.
    - **close()**

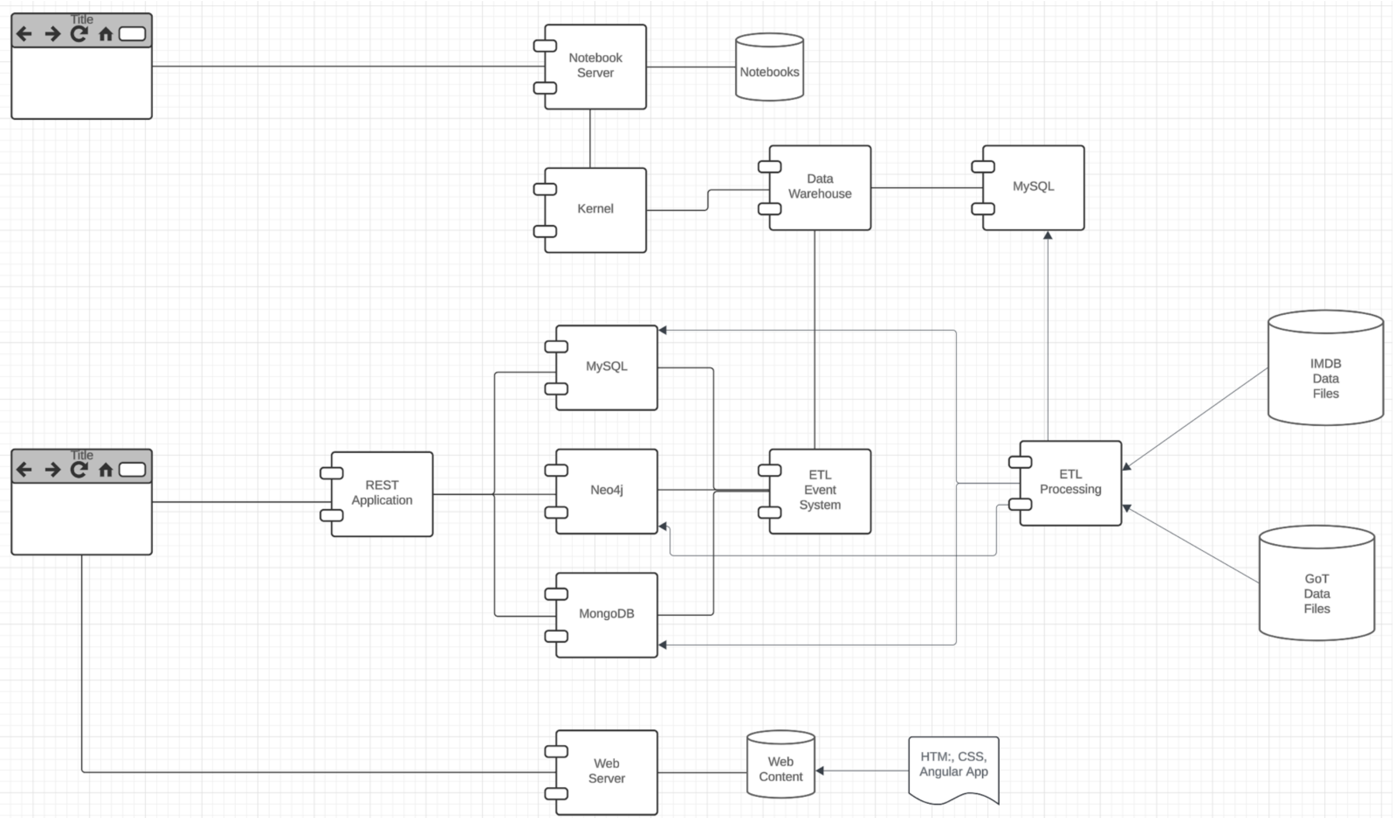
HW3 and HW4,
“The Project” Discussion

Overview

Vision


Bottom-Up Data
Analysis and Modeling
Existing:
- Databases
- Files
- Applications
Database
Database
Database
Files
Files
Schema
Metadata
Analyze
Define
"To Be"
Datamodel
Extract-Transform-Load
Analysis
Data
Warehouse
Operational
Databases
Visualization
Dashboard
Reports
Interactive
CRUD
Top Down
Data Analysis and
Modeling
Actor
Actor
Business
Problem
Conceptual
Model
Logical
Model
Physical
Model
Created Database
New Applications
New Analysis
Visualization
Dashboard
Reports
Interactive
CRUD

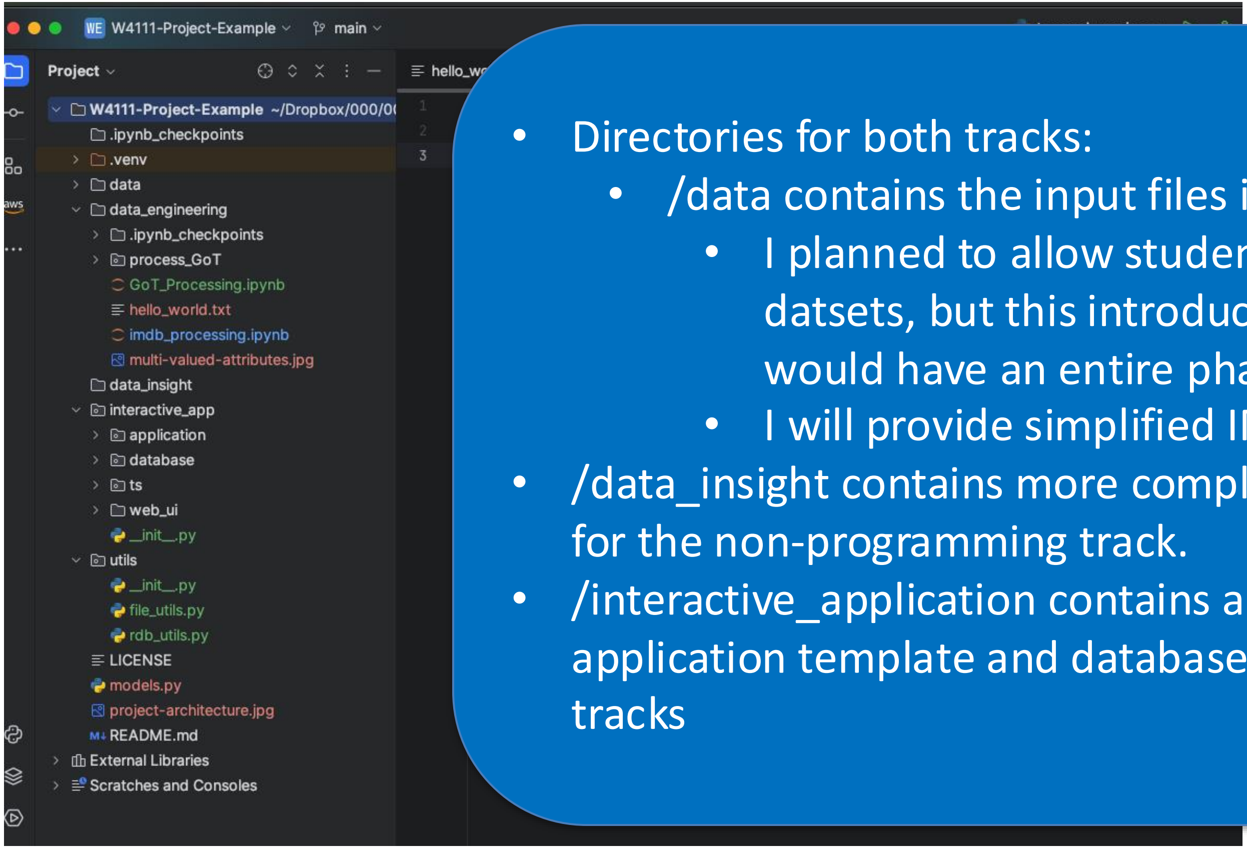
Vision


Title
Notebook Server
Notebooks
Kernel
Data Warehouse
MySQL
IMDB Data Files
MySQL
Title
REST Application
Neo4j
ETL Event System
ETL Processing
MongoDB
GoT Data Files
Web Server
Web Content
HTM:, CSS, Angular App

Vision

- Both programming and non-programming implement a data engineering Jupyter notebook.
- The programming track builds a simple REST application/microservice for transformed data.
- Non-programming implements more complex transformation, and queries for visualization.
- I will provide starter projects with examples.

Hw3, HW4 and Project



```
W4111-Project-Example ~/Dropbox/000/0
  .ipynb_checkpoints
  .venv
  data
  data_engineering
    .ipynb_checkpoints
    process_GoT
    GoT_Processing.ipynb
    hello_world.txt
    imdb_processing.ipynb
    multi-valued-attributes.jpg
  data_insight
  interactive_app
    application
    database
    ts
    web_ui
    __init__.py
  utils
    __init__.py
    file_utils.py
    rdb_utils.py
  LICENSE
  models.py
  project-architecture.jpg
  README.md
External Libraries
Scratches and Consoles
```

- Directories for both tracks:
  - /data contains the input files in CSV and JSON formats
    - I planned to allow students to choose their own datsets, but this introduces too much complexity. We would have an entire phase of "Is this a goo dataset?"
    - I will provide simplified IMDB and GoT data.
- /data_insight contains more complex queries and visualization for the non-programming track.
- /interactive_application contains a simple web UI, REST application template and database schema for the programming tracks

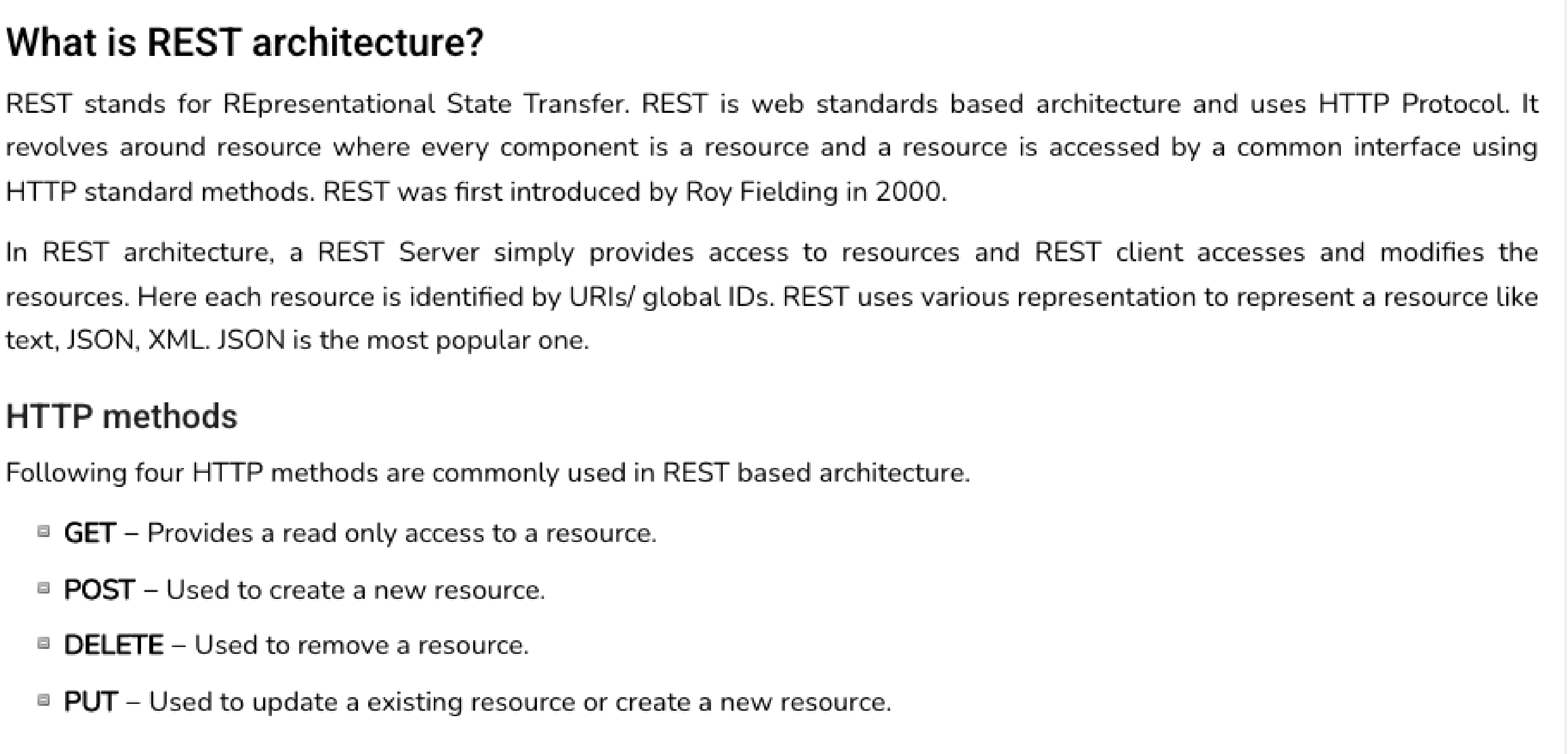
REST

Data Modeling Concepts and REST

Almost any data model has the same core concepts:

- Types and instances:
  - Entity Type: A definition of a type of thing with properties and relationships.
  - Entity Instance: A specific instantiation of the Entity Type
  - Entity Set Instance: An Entity Type that:
    - Has properties and relationships like any entity, but ...
    - Has at least one *special relationship* – ***contains.***
- Operations, minimally CRUD, that manipulate entity types and instances:
  - Create
  - Retrieve
  - Update
  - Delete
  - Reference/Identify/... ...
  - Host/database/table/pk

REST (https://www.tutorialspoint.com/restful/restful_introduction.htm)



What is REST architecture?

REST stands for REpresentational State Transfer. REST is web standards based architecture and uses HTTP Protocol. It revolves around resource where every component is a resource and a resource is accessed by a common interface using HTTP standard methods. REST was first introduced by Roy Fielding in 2000.

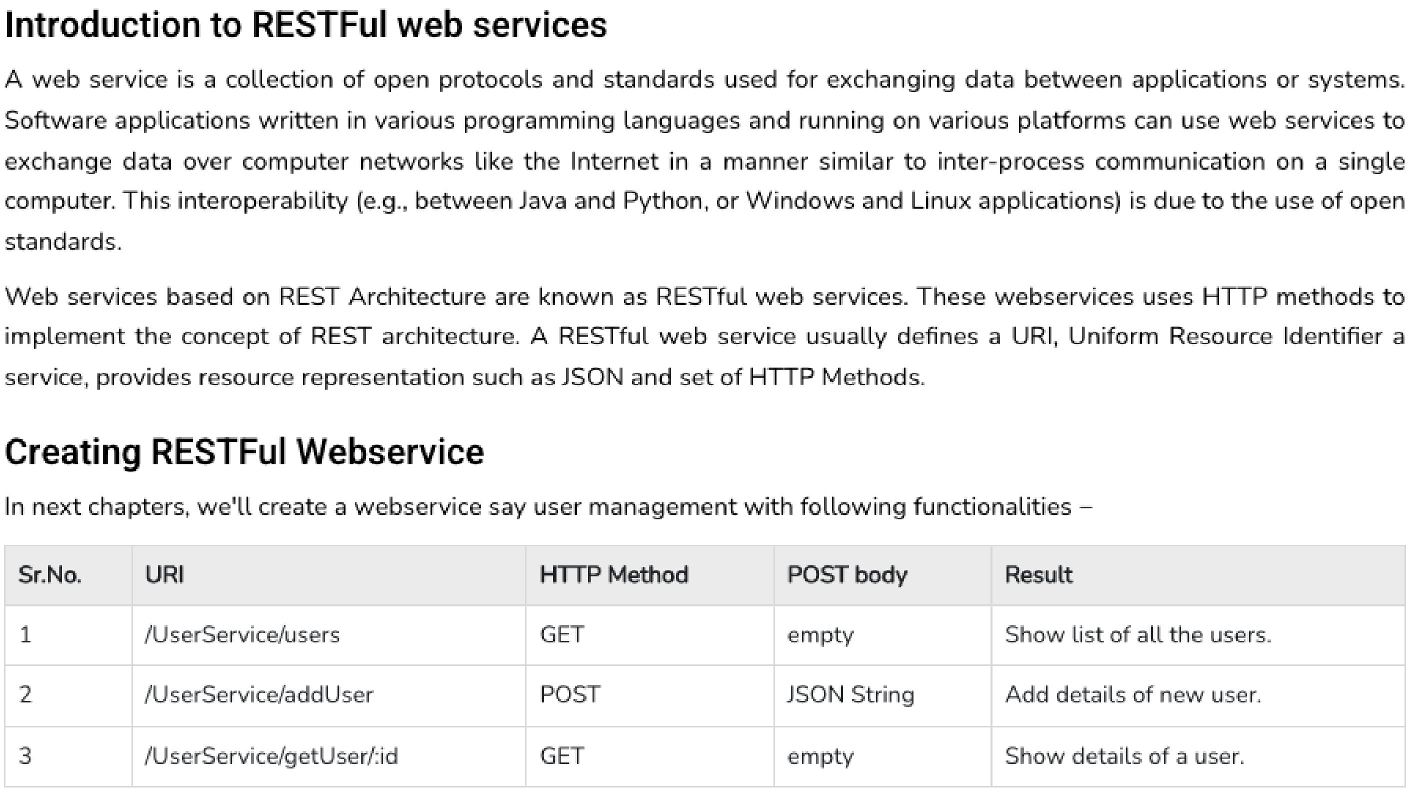
In REST architecture, a REST Server simply provides access to resources and REST client accesses and modifies the resources. Here each resource is identified by URIs/ global IDs. REST uses various representation to represent a resource like text, JSON, XML. JSON is the most popular one.

HTTP methods

Following four HTTP methods are commonly used in REST based architecture.

- **GET** – Provides a read only access to a resource.
- **POST** – Used to create a new resource.
- **DELETE** – Used to remove a resource.
- **PUT** – Used to update a existing resource or create a new resource.

REST (https://www.tutorialspoint.com/restful/restful_introduction.htm)



Introduction to RESTFul web services

A web service is a collection of open protocols and standards used for exchanging data between applications or systems. Software applications written in various programming languages and running on various platforms can use web services to exchange data over computer networks like the Internet in a manner similar to inter-process communication on a single computer. This interoperability (e.g., between Java and Python, or Windows and Linux applications) is due to the use of open standards.

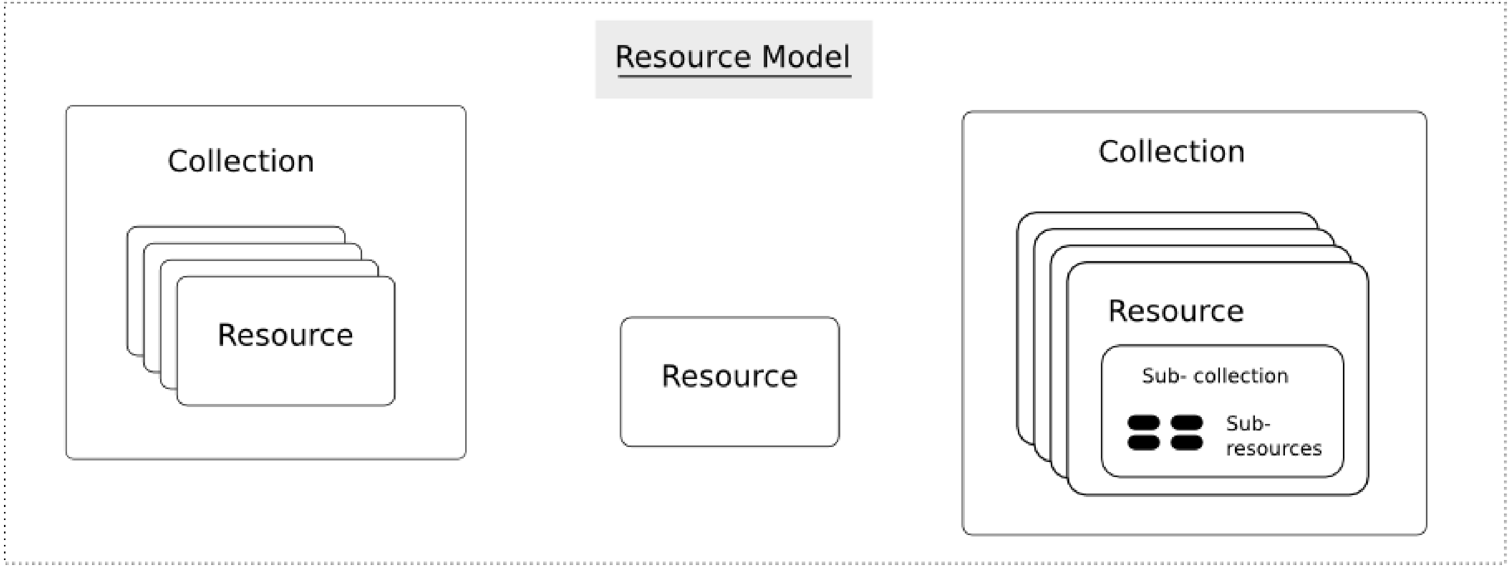
Web services based on REST Architecture are known as RESTful web services. These webservices uses HTTP methods to implement the concept of REST architecture. A RESTful web service usually defines a URI, Uniform Resource Identifier a service, provides resource representation such as JSON and set of HTTP Methods.

Creating RESTFul Webservice

In next chapters, we'll create a webservice say user management with following functionalities –

Sr.No.	URI	HTTP Method	POST body	Result
1	/UserService/users	GET	empty	Show list of all the users.
2	/UserService/addUser	POST	JSON String	Add details of new user.
3	/UserService/getUser/:id	GET	empty	Show details of a user.

REST and Resources

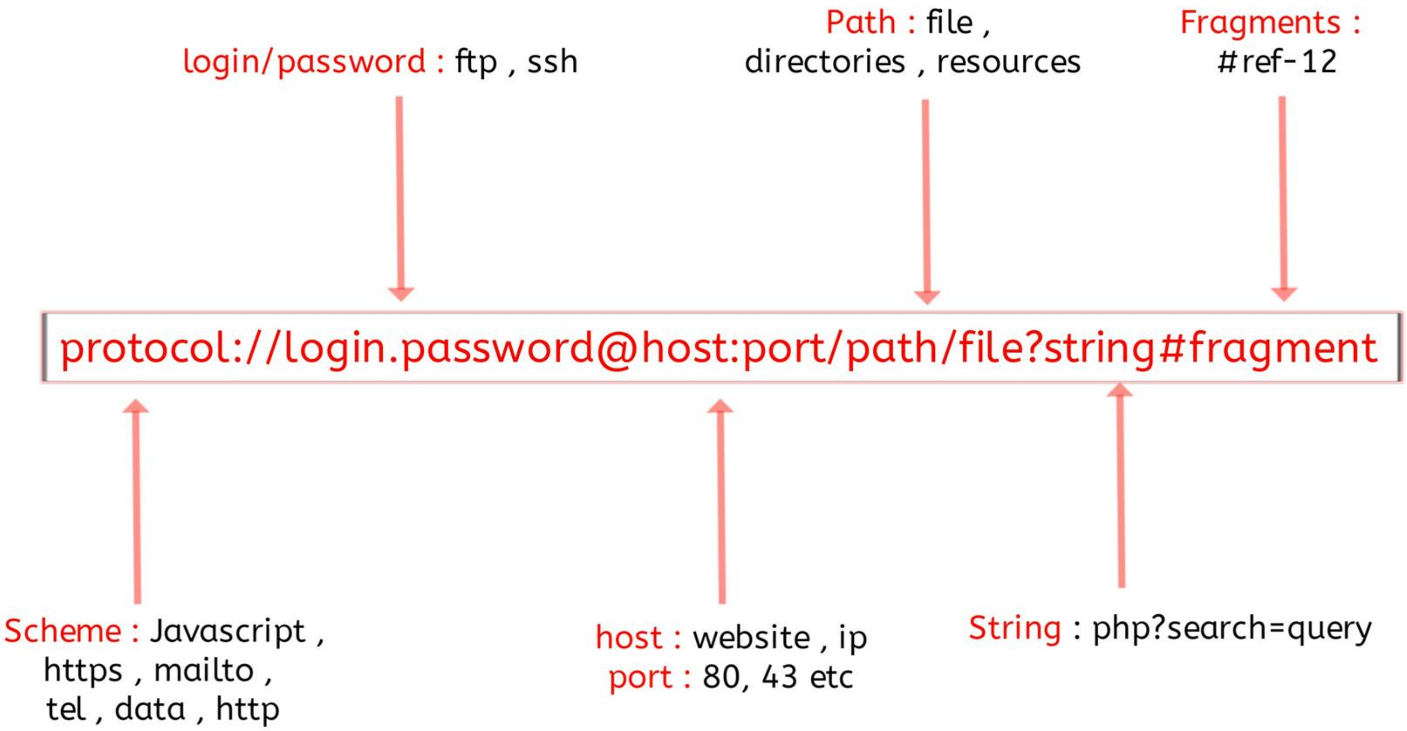


A Collection with Resources

A Singleton Resource

Sub-collections and Sub-resources

URLs



login/password : ftp , ssh

Path : file , directories , resources

Fragments : #ref-12

protocol://login.password@host:port/path/file?string#fragment

Scheme : Javascript , https , mailto , tel , data , http

host : website , ip
port : 80, 43 etc

String : php?search=query

jdbc:mysql://columbia-examples.ckkqqktwkcji.us-east-1.rds.amazonaws.com:3306

GET http://localhost:5001/f23_imdb_clean/name_basics/nm0000158

GET http://localhost:5001/f23_imdb_clean/name_basics?deathYear=2023&birthyear=1960

```
    select * from f23_imdb_clean.name_basics where
        deathYear=2023 AND birthyear=1960
```

PUT http://localhost:5001/f23_imdb_clean/name_basics ?deathYear=2023&birthyear=1960

```
    Body {‘primaryName’: ‘Does not matter cause is dead.’}
    update f23_imdb_clean.name_basics
        set
        where deathYear=2023 AND birthyear=1960
```