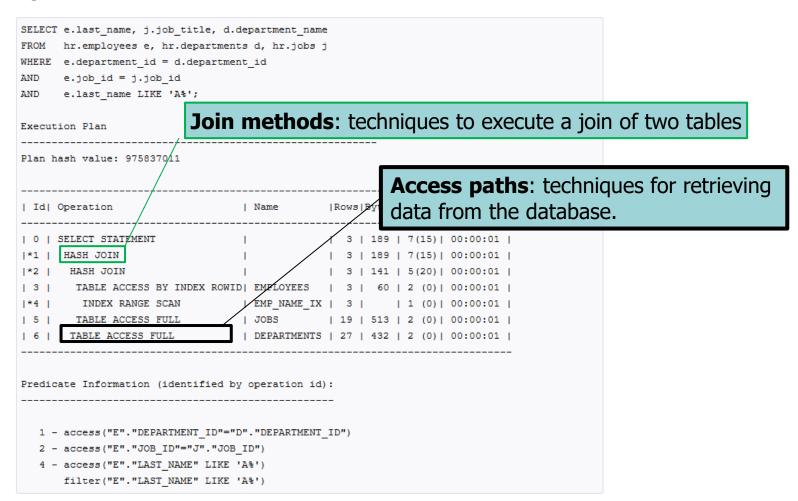


## More examples of execution plans

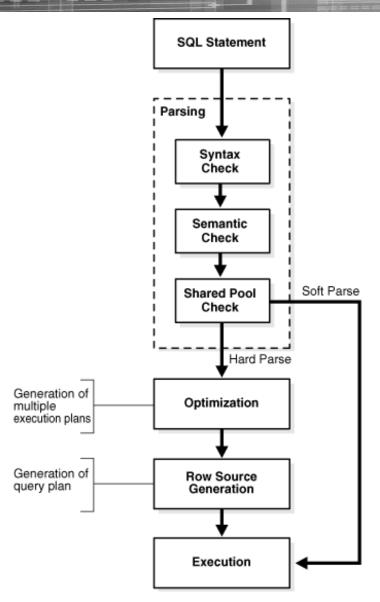
### **SQL Execution**



# Execution plans and optimizers

### **SQL Execution**

```
SELECT e.last_name, j.job_title, d.department_name
      hr.employees e, hr.departments d, hr.jobs j
      e.department id = d.department id
      e.job id = j.job id
      e.last name LIKE 'A%';
Execution Plan
Plan hash value: 975837011
| Id| Operation
                                   | Name
                                                 |Rows|Bvtes|Cost(%CPU)|Time
| 0 | SELECT STATEMENT
      HASH JOIN
                                                 | 3 | 189 | 7(15)| 00:00:01
       HASH JOIN
        TABLE ACCESS BY INDEX ROWID| EMPLOYEES | 3 | 60 | 2 (0) | 00:00:01
1 3 1
[ *4 |
         INDEX RANGE SCAN
                                   | EMP_NAME_IX | 3 |
                                                          | 1 (0)| 00:00:01
        TABLE ACCESS FULL
                                   JOBS
                                                 | 19 | 513 | 2 (0) | 00:00:01
       TABLE ACCESS FULL
                                   | DEPARTMENTS | 27 | 432 | 2 (0) | 00:00:01
Predicate Information (identified by operation id):
  1 - access("E"."DEPARTMENT ID"="D"."DEPARTMENT ID")
  2 - access("E"."JOB_ID"="J"."JOB_ID")
  4 - access("E"."LAST_NAME" LIKE 'A%')
      filter("E"."LAST NAME" LIKE 'A%')
```





```
MATCH (p:Person { name: 'Tom Hanks' })
```

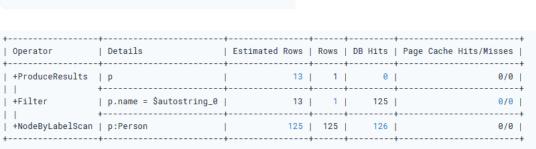
RETURN p

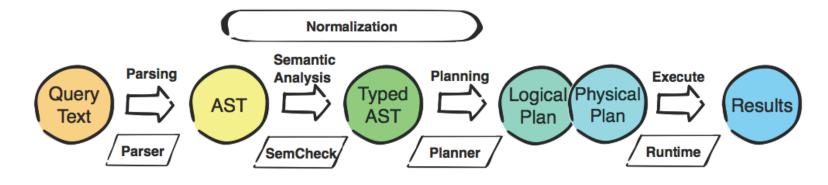
**Access path** 





Total database accesses: 251, total allocated memory: 0



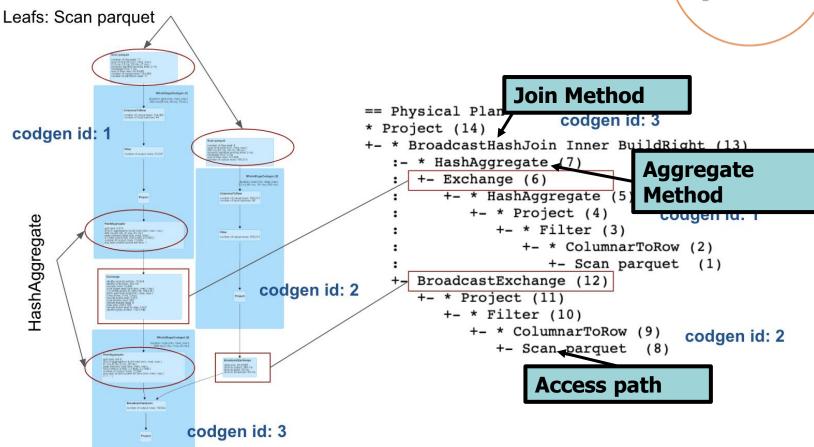


Cypher query execution occurs in the following steps:

- 1. Convert the input query string into an abstract syntax tree (AST)
- 2. Optimize and normalize the AST
- 3. Create a query graph from the normalized AST
- 4. Create a logical plan
- 5. Rewrite the logical plan
- 6. Create an execution plan from the logical plan
- 7. Execute the query using the execution plan

```
Spark Spark
```

```
query = (
  questionsDF
  .filter(col('year') == 2019)
  .groupBy('user_id')
  .agg(
      count('*').alias('cnt')
  )
  .join(usersDF, 'user_id')
)
```



```
EXPLAIN SELECT DISTINCT s.product key, p.product description
 FROM store.store sales fact s, public.product dimension p
 WHERE s.product key = p.product key
 AND s.product version = p.product version
 AND s.store key IN (
 SELECT store key
 FROM store.store dimension
 WHERE store state = 'MA')
 ORDER BY s.product key;
```

```
GROUPS) (LOCAL RESEGMENT GROUPS) [Cost: 3M, Rows: 15M] (PATH ID:
```

(PATH ID: 3) Inner (BROADCAST) key)

```
Operator
```



```
Materialize at Input: s.store key
        Materialize at Output: s.product key
                                                                                               Cost
        Execute on: All Nodes
| | +-- Outer -> JOIN HASH [Cost: 906K, Rows: 30M] (PATH ID: 4) Inner (BROADCAST)
          Join Cond: (s.product key = p.product key) AND (s.product version = p.product version)
          Execute on: All Nodes
| | +-- Outer -> STORAGE ACCESS for s [Cost: 893K, Rows: 30M] (PATH ID: 5)
             Projection: store.store sales fact b0
                                                                                            Projection
            Materialize: s.product key, s.product version
             Execute on: All Nodes
             Runtime Filters: (SIP2(HashJoin): s.product key), (SIP3(HashJoin): s.product version),
(SIP4 (HashJoin): s.product_key, s.product version), (SIP1 (HashJoin): s.store key)
| | | +-- Inner -> STORAGE ACCESS for p [Cost: 365, Rows: 60K] (PATH ID: 6)
            Projection: public.product dimension b0
I I I I I
                                                                                      Column Materialization
            Materialize: p.product key, p.product version, p.product description
I I I I I
            Execute on: All Nodes
| | +-- Inner -> SELECT [Cost: 68, Rows: 32] (PUSHED GROUPING) (PATH ID: 7)
          Execute on: All Nodes
| | | +---> STORAGE ACCESS for store dimension [Cost: 68, Rows: 32] (PATH ID: 8)
                                                                                              Path ID
```

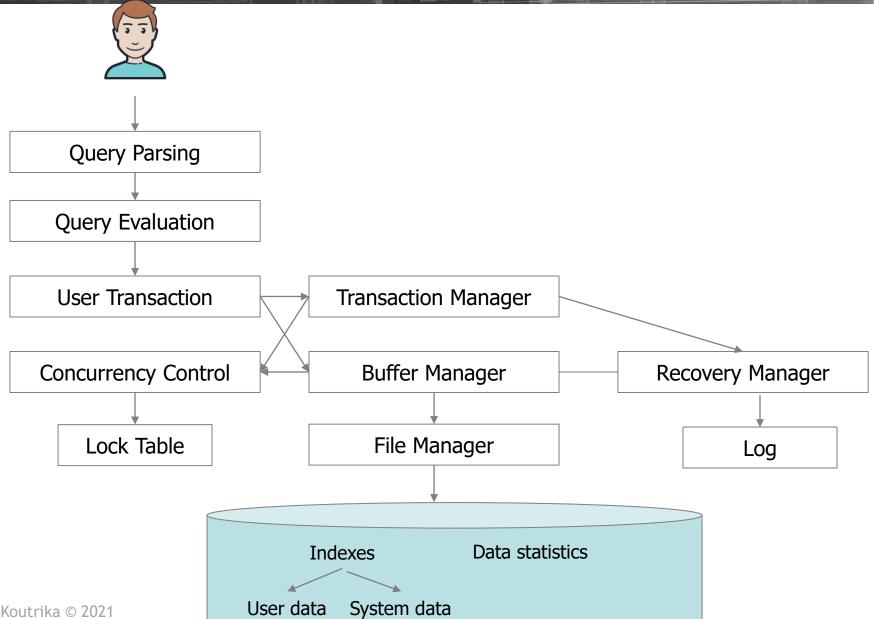
on

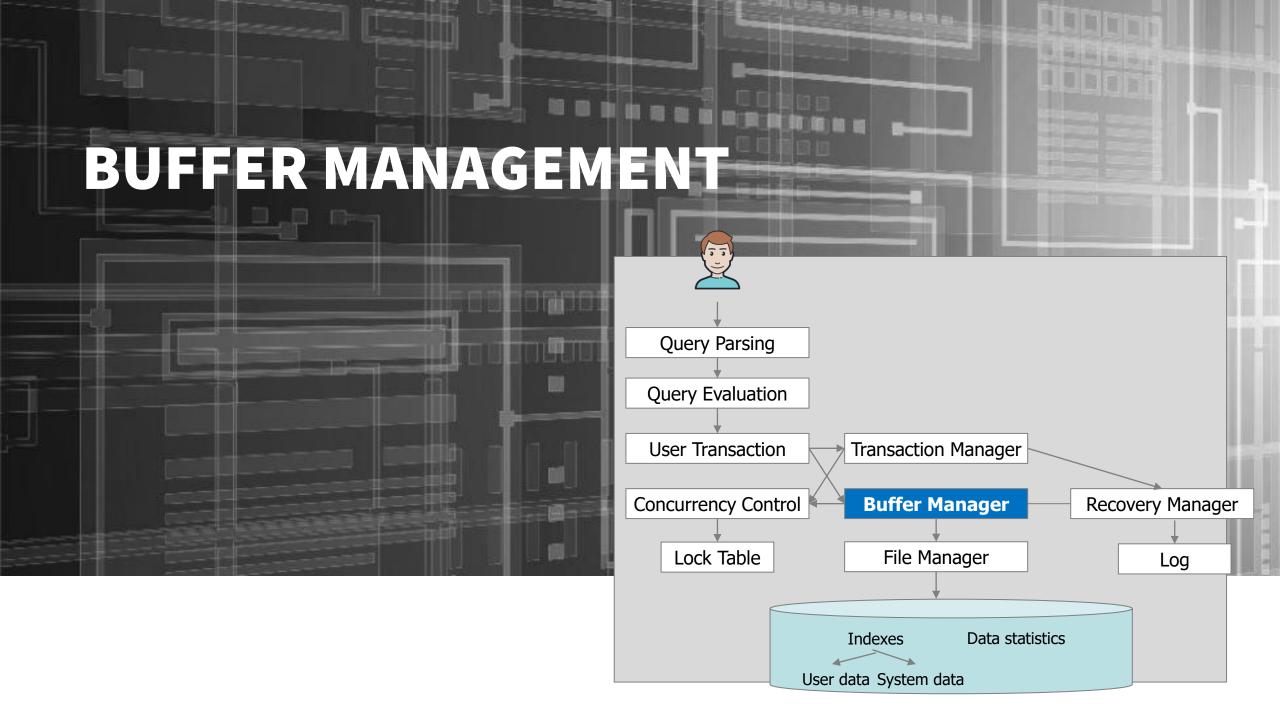
n.store state = 'MA')

Projection: store.store dimension b0

Materialize: store dimension.store key

## A high-level architecture of a DBMS

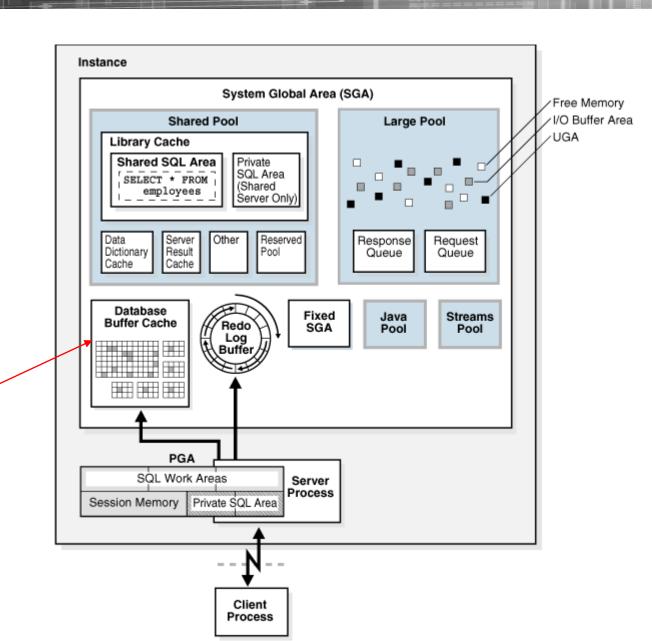




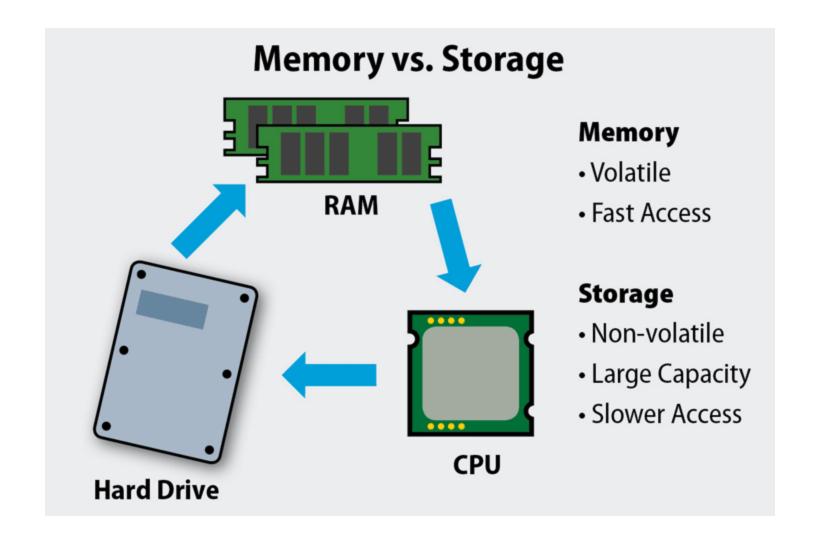
# **Buffer Basics**

**Buffer** 

Keeps data from the disk

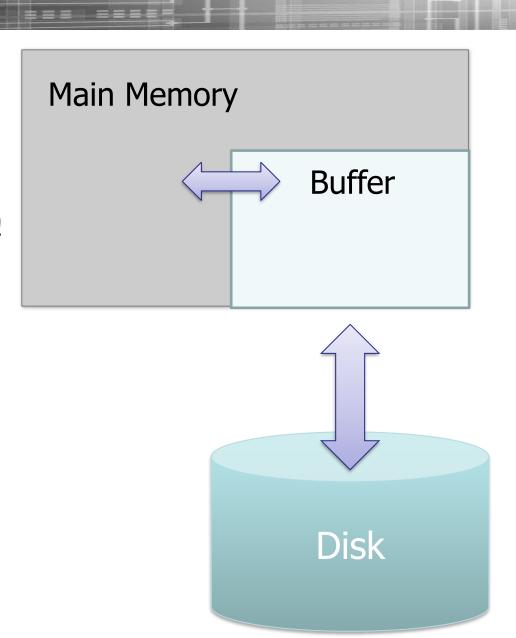


# High-level: Disk vs. Main Memory



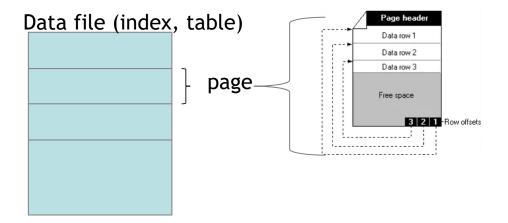
# The Buffer

- A <u>buffer</u> is a region of physical memory used to store intermediate data between disk and processes
- Key idea: Reading / writing to disk is slow- need to cache data!

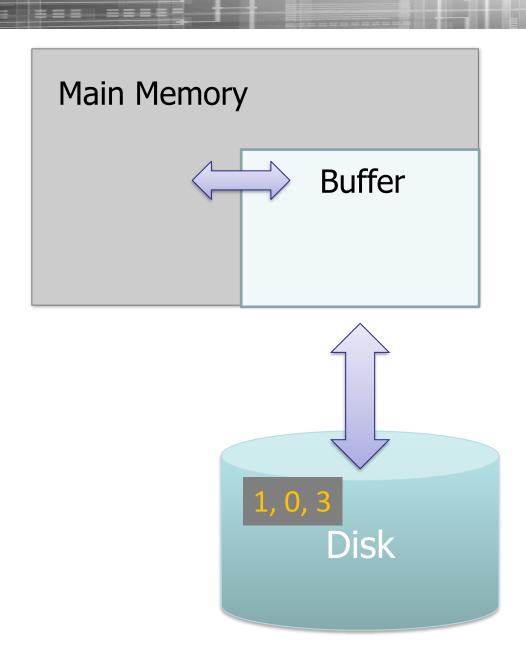


# The (Simplified) Buffer

We'll consider a buffer located in main memory that operates over pages and files

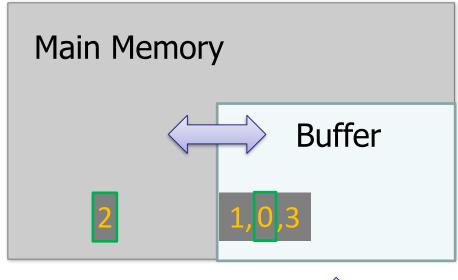


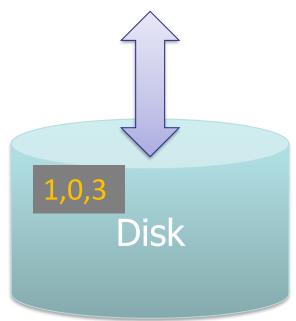
• Read(page): Read page from disk -> buffer if not already in buffer



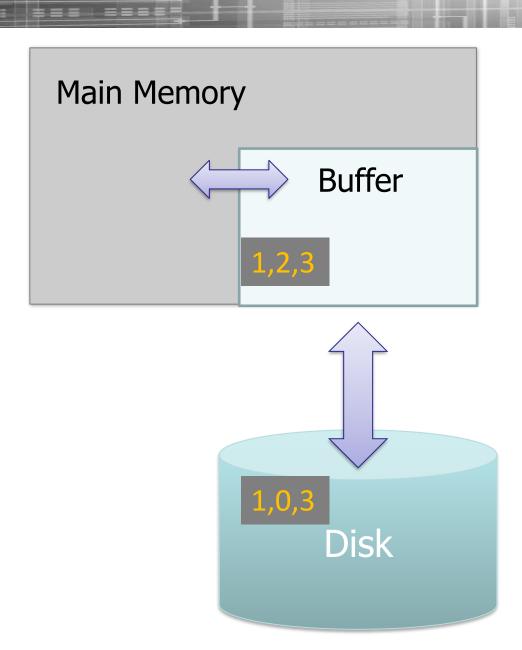
• Read(page): Read page from disk -> buffer if not already in buffer

Processes can then read from / write to the page in the buffer



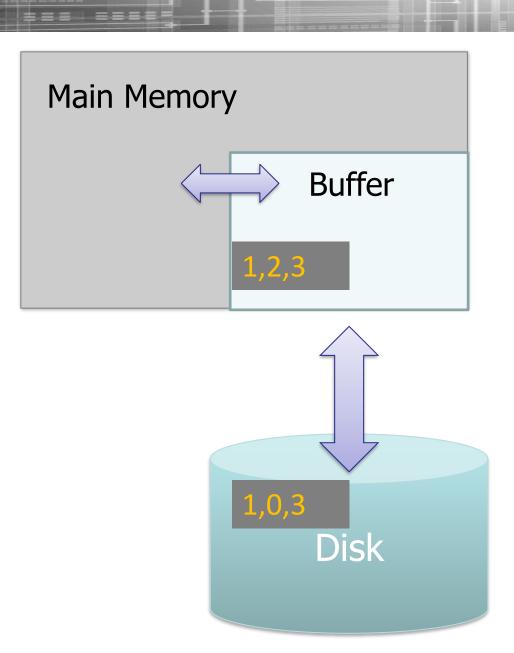


- Read(page): Read page from disk -> buffer if not already in buffer
- **Flush(page):** Evict page from buffer & write to disk



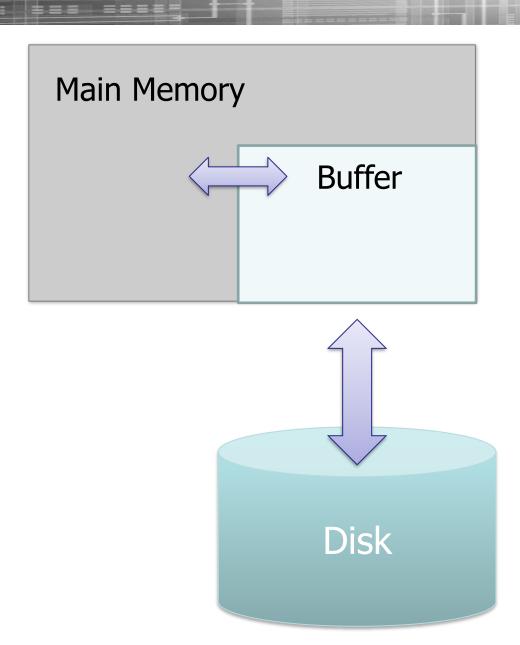
- Read(page): Read page from disk -> buffer if not already in buffer
- **Flush(page):** Evict page from buffer & write to disk

Release(page): Evict page from buffer without writing to disk



# Managing Disk: The DBMS Buffer

- Database maintains its own buffer
  - Why? The OS already does this...



## The Buffer Manager

- A **buffer manager** handles supporting operations for the buffer:
  - Primarily, handles & executes the "replacement policy"
    - i.e. finds a page in buffer to flush/release if buffer is full and a new page needs to be read in
  - DBMSs typically implement their own buffer management routines

# How to pick a page to release?

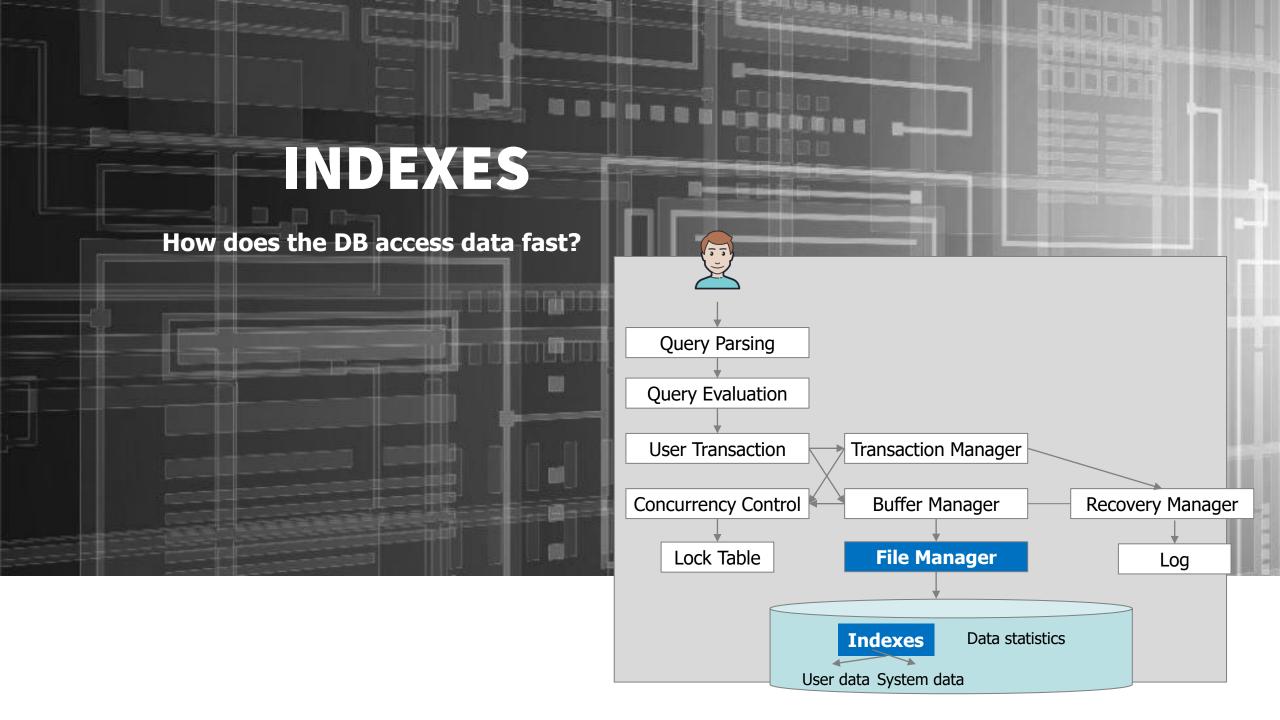
#### Examples:

- Least Recently Used (LRU)
  - Order pages by the time of last accessed
  - Always replace the least recently accessed

Most Recently Used (MRU)

MRU algorithms are most useful in situations where the older an item is, the more likely it is to be accessed.

Other more sophisticated strategies exist



# SQL Processing

### **Access paths/Indexes:**

Recall that we see indexes used in the query plan for the execution of a query



### Index Motivation

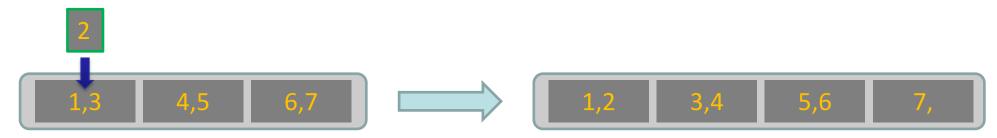
Person(firstname, lastname, age)

- Suppose we want to search for people with a specific lastname
- First idea: Sort the records by lastname
- How many IO operations to search over N sorted records?
  - Simple scan: O(N)
  - Binary search: O(log<sub>2</sub> N)

Could we get cheaper search?

### Index Motivation

What about if we want to insert a new record, but keep the list sorted?



- We would have to potentially shift N records, requiring up to ~ 2\*N/P IO operations (where P = # of records per page)!
  - We could leave some "slack" in the pages...

Could we get faster insertions?

### Index Motivation

- What about if we want to be able to **search along multiple attributes** (e.g. not just age)?
  - We could keep multiple copies of the records, each sorted by one attribute set
  - ... this would take a lot of space

Can we get fast search over multiple attributes without taking too much space?

Create separate data structures called *indexes* to address all these points

### What is an index

- An <u>index</u> is a **data structure** that maps: a tuple of <u>search keys</u> to <u>sets of rows in a database table</u>
  - Provides efficient lookup & retrieval by search key value
  - Usually much faster than searching through all the rows of the database table
- The index is called an access path on the field

# Indexes: High-level

• Example:

Product(name, maker, price)

On which attributes would you build indexes?

## Operations on an Index

- <u>Search</u>: Quickly find all records which meet some *condition on the search key attributes* 
  - More sophisticated variants as well.
- <u>Insert / Remove</u> entries
  - Bulk Load / Delete.

Indexing is one the most important features provided by a database for performance

## Conceptual Example

What if we want to return all books published after 1867?

SELECT \*
FROM Books
WHERE Published > 1867

#### **Books**

BID	Title	Author	Publishe d	Full_text
001	<i>War and Peace</i>	Tolstoy	1869	
002	Crime and Punishment	Dostoyevsky	1866	
003	Anna Karenina	Tolstoy	1877	

This table might be very expensive to search over row-by-row...

## Conceptual Example

By\_Yr\_Index

Published	BID
1866	002
1869	001
1877	003

#### **Books**

BID	Title	Author	Publishe d	Full_text
001	<i>War and Peace</i>	Tolstoy	1869	
002	Crime and Punishment	Dostoyevsky	1866	•••
003	Anna Karenina	Tolstoy	1877	•••

Maintain an index for this, and search over that!

Why might just keeping the table sorted by year not be good enough?

## Conceptual Example

### By\_Yr\_Index

Published	BID
1866	002
1869	001
1877	003

### By\_Author\_Title\_Index

Author	Title	BID
Dostoyevsky	Crime and Punishment	002
Tolstoy	Anna Karenina	003
Tolstoy eorgia Koutrika © 2021	War and Peace	001

#### **Books**

BID	Title	Author	Publishe d	Full_text
001	<i>War and Peace</i>	Tolstoy	1869	
002	Crime and Punishment	Dostoyevsky	1866	
003	Anna Karenina	Tolstoy	1877	

Can have multiple indexes to support multiple search keys

Indexes shown here as tables, but in reality we will use more efficient data structures...

# Composite Keys

- Pros:
  - When they work, they work well
- Cons:
  - Guesses?

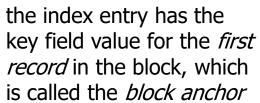
# Primary Index

```
CREATE TABLE employees

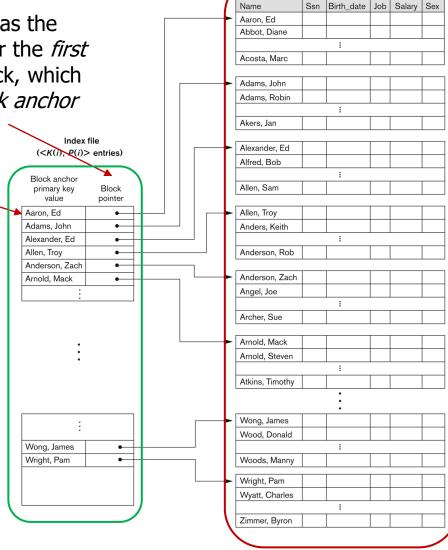
( name VARCHAR(50) PRIMARY KEY,
 ssn VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
 birth_date VARCHAR(50),
 salary INT);
```

## Primary Index

an ordered data file on the primary key



one index entry for each block in the data file

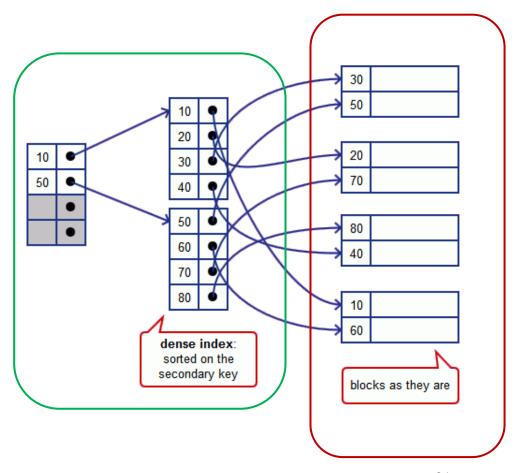


key field)

A primary index is a **nondense (sparse) index** since it includes an entry for each disk block of the data file rather than for every search value

## Secondary Index

- It provides a secondary means of accessing a file for which some primary access already exists.
- It may be on a candidate key with unique values in every record, or a non-key with duplicate values.
- The index is an ordered file with two fields.
  - The first field is the key.
  - The second field is either a block pointer or a record pointer.
  - There can be *many* secondary indexes (and hence, indexing fields) for the same file.
- Includes one entry for each record in the data file; hence, it is a dense index



## Secondary Index

```
CREATE TABLE employees

( name VARCHAR(50) PRIMARY KEY,
 ssn VARCHAR(50) NOT NULL,
 birth_date VARCHAR(50),
 salary INT);
```

CREATE INDEX idx\_ssn
ON employees (ssn);

# Covering Indexes

#### By\_Yr\_Index

Published	BID
1866	002
1869	001
1877	003

We say that an index is **covering** for a specific query if the index contains all the needed attributes- **meaning the query can be answered using the index alone!** 

The "needed" attributes are the union of those in the SELECT and WHERE clauses...

Example:

SELECT Published, BID FROM Russian\_Novels WHERE Published > 1867

# High-level Categories of Index Types

- B-Trees (covered next)
  - Very good for range queries, sorted data
  - Some old databases only implemented B-Trees
  - We will look at a variant called B+ Trees
- Hash Tables (not covered)
  - There are variants of this basic structure to deal with IO
  - Called *linear* or *extendible hashing* IO aware!

**Real difference between structures**: costs of ops determines which index you pick and why



# What you will learn about in this section

1. B+ Trees: Basics

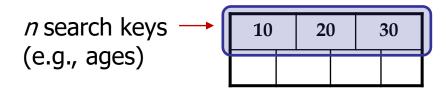
2. B+ Trees: Design & Cost

3. Clustered Indexes

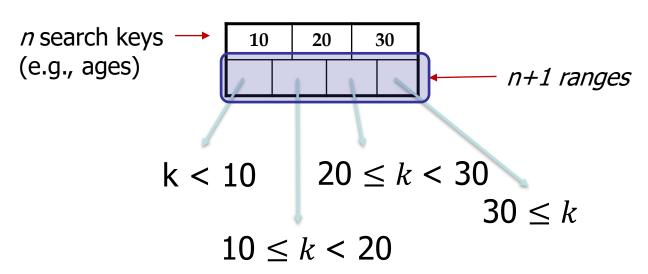
#### B+ Trees

- Search trees
  - B does not mean binary!
- Idea in B Trees:
  - make 1 node = 1 physical page
  - Balanced, height adjusted tree (not the B either)
- Idea in B+ Trees:
  - Make leaves into a linked list (for range queries)

A node in the tree

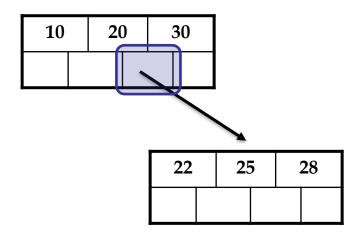






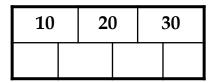
The *n* keys in a node define *n*+1 ranges

#### Non-leaf or *internal* node



For each range, in a *non-leaf* node, there is a **pointer** to another node with keys in that range

A node in the tree

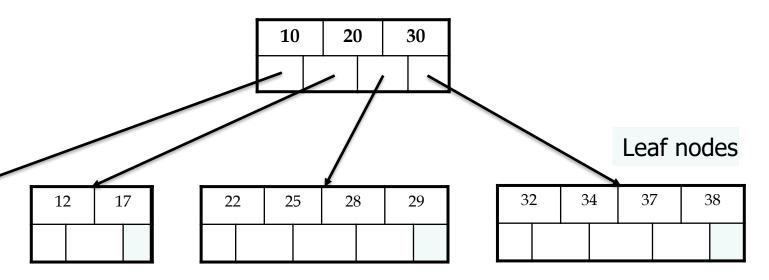


Parameter **d** = the degree

Each non-leaf ("interior") node has  $\geq$  d and  $\leq$  2d keys\*

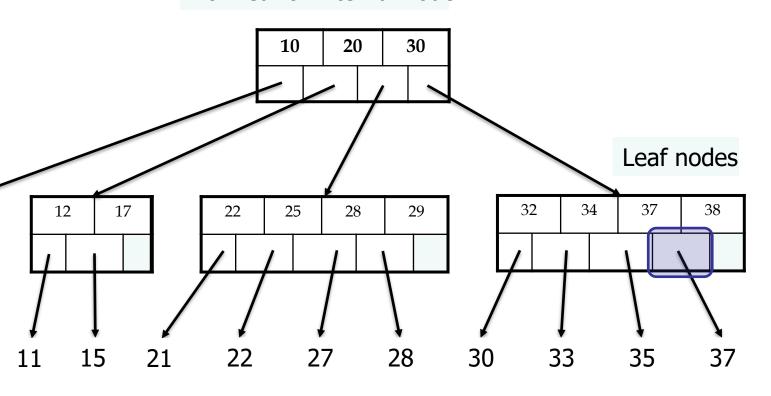
\*except for root node, which can have between **1** and 2d keys

#### Non-leaf or *internal* node



Leaf nodes also have between *d* and *2d* keys, and are different in that:

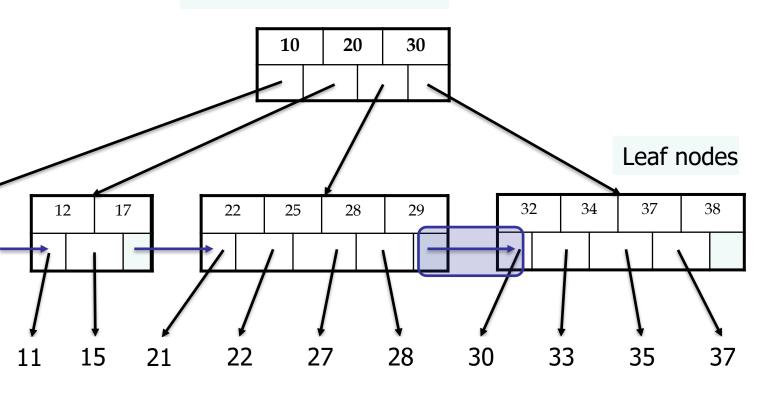
#### Non-leaf or *internal* node



Leaf nodes also have between *d* and *2d* keys, and are different in that:

Their key slots contain pointers to data records

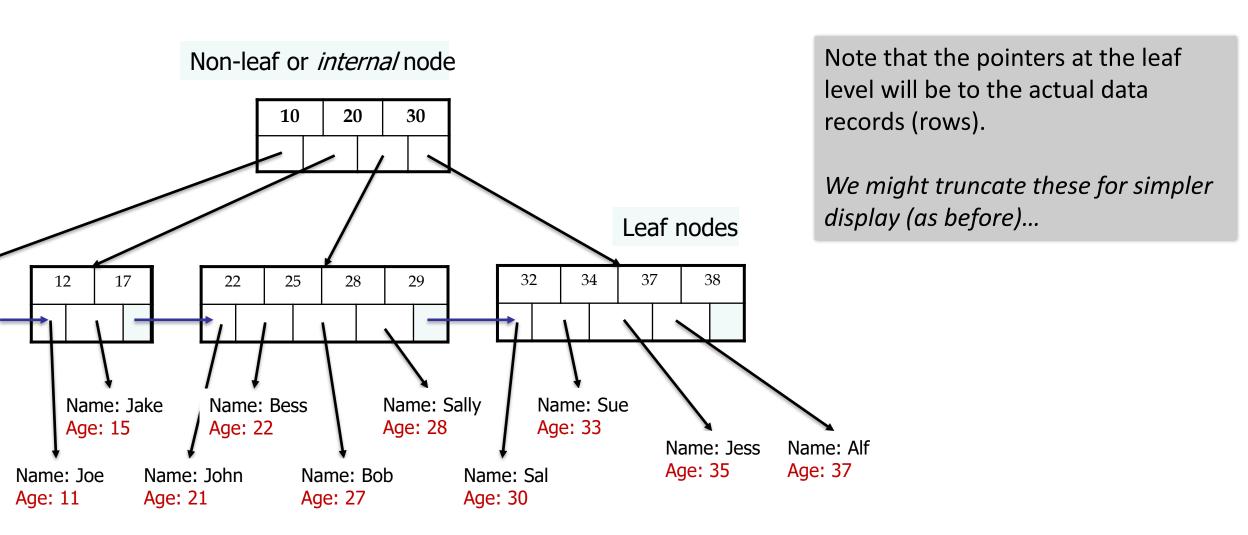
#### Non-leaf or *internal* node



Leaf nodes also have between *d* and *2d* keys, and are different in that:

Their key slots contain pointers to data records

They contain a pointer to the next leaf node as well, *for faster* sequential traversal



# Searching a B+ Tree

- For exact key values:
  - Start at the root
  - Proceed down, to the leaf

- For range queries:
  - As above
  - Then sequential traversal

SELECT name FROM people WHERE age = 25

SELECT name
FROM people
WHERE 20 <= age
AND age <= 30

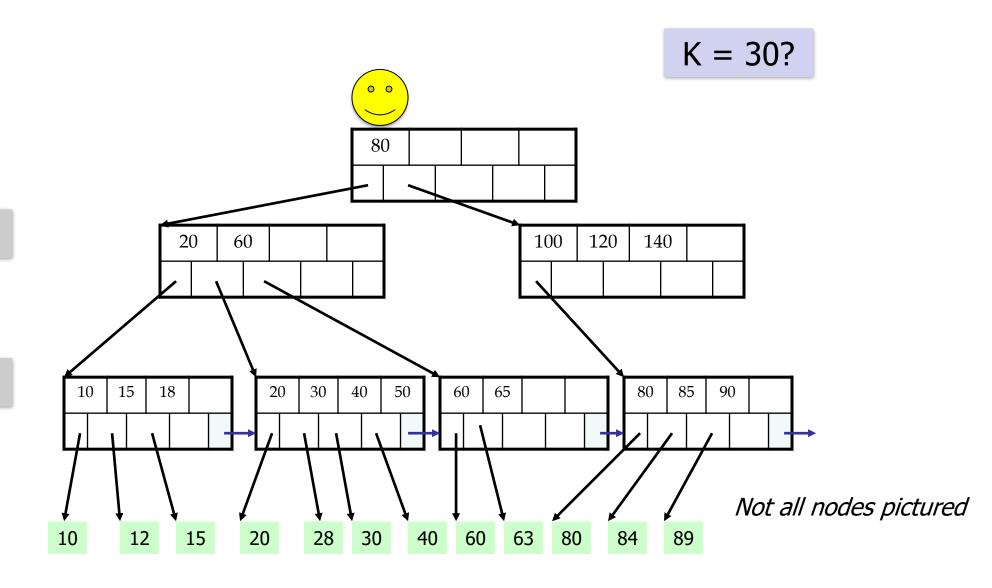
# B+ Tree Exact Search Animation



30 in [20,60)

30 in [30,40)

To the data!



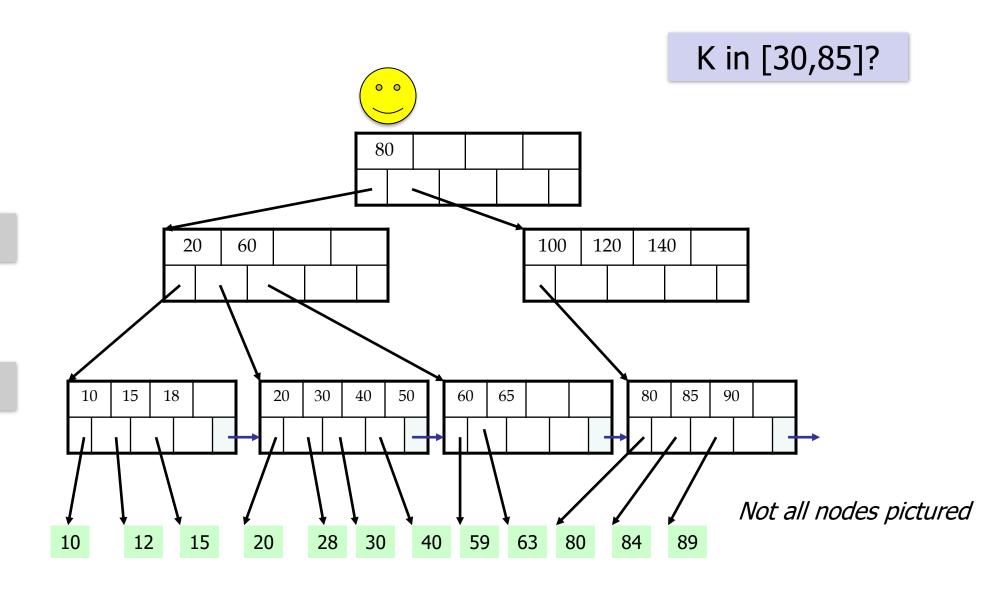
## B+ Tree Range Search Animation

30 < 80

30 in [20,60)

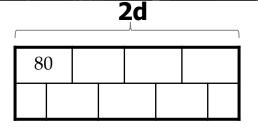
30 in [30,40)

To the data!



#### B+ Tree Design

**Degree** d



Each *non-leaf* ("interior") **node** has  $\geq$  d and  $\leq$  2d **keys** The root node can have between **1** and 2d keys

- How large is d?
- Example:
  - Key size = 4 bytes
  - Pointer size = 8 bytes
  - Block size = 4096 bytes
- We want each node to fit on a single block/page

- 
$$2d \times 4 + (2d+1) \times 8 <= 4096 \rightarrow d <= 170$$

E.g.: Oracle allows  $64K = 2^16$  byte blocks  $\rightarrow d \le 2730$ 

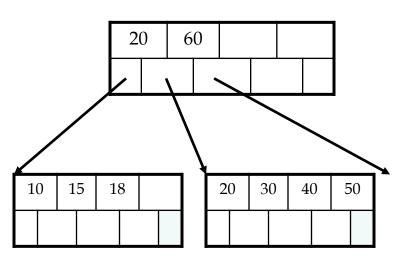
# B+ Tree: High Fanout = Smaller & Lower IO

#### **Fanout** f

the number of pointers to child nodes coming out of a node

- As compared to e.g. binary search trees, B+ Trees have high fanout (between d+1 and 2d+1)
- This means that the depth of the tree is small
  - getting to any element requires very few IO operations!
  - Most or all of the B+ Tree in main memory!

Fanout depends on the data (assume it's constant for simplicity in calculations)



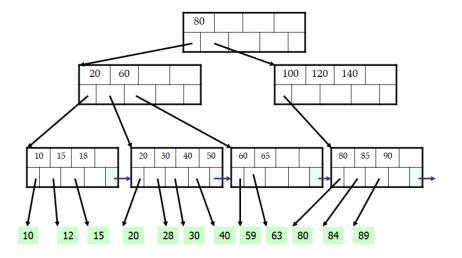
#### B+ Trees in Practice

<u>Fill-factor</u> F: the percentage of available slots in the B+ Tree that are filled; is usually < 1 to leave slack for (quicker) insertions

- Typical order: d=100. Typical fill-factor: 67%.
  - average fanout = 134
- Typical capacities:
  - Height 1: 134 = 134 records

What is the relationship between fill factor F and fanout f?

$$(2d+1)*F = f$$



Typically, only pay for one IO!

## Simple Cost Model for Search

- Let:
  - f = fanout, which is in [d+1, 2d+1] (we'll assume it's constant for our cost model...)
  - **N** = the total number of *pages* we need to index
  - F = fill-factor (usually  $\sim$ = 2/3)
- Our B+ Tree needs to have room to index N/F pages!
  - We have the fill factor in order to leave some open slots for faster insertions
- What height (h) does our B+ Tree need to be?
  - h=1 → Just the root node- room to index f pages
  - h=2 → f leaf nodes- room to index  $f^2$  pages
  - h=3 →  $f^2$  leaf nodes- room to index  $f^3$  pages
  - ...
  - $h \rightarrow f^{h-1}$  leaf nodes- room to index  $f^h$  pages!

$$\rightarrow f^h = N/F$$

→ We need a B+ Tree of height  $h = \left[\log_f \frac{N}{F}\right]!$ 

### Simple Cost Model for Search

- Note that if we have B available buffer pages, by the same logic:
  - We can store  $L_B$  levels of the B+ Tree in memory
  - where  $L_B$  is the number of levels such that the sum of all the levels' nodes fit in the buffer:
    - $B \ge 1 + f + \dots + f^{L_B 1} = \sum_{l=0}^{L_B 1} f^l$
- In summary: to do exact search:
  - We read in one page per level of the tree
  - However, levels that we can fit in buffer are free!
  - Finally we read in the actual record

IO Cost: 
$$\left[\log_f \frac{N}{F}\right] - L_B + 1$$

where 
$$B \geq \sum_{l=0}^{L_B} 1^{-1} f^l$$

## Simple Cost Model for Search

- To do range search, we just follow the horizontal pointers
- The IO cost is that of loading additional leaf nodes we need to access + the IO cost of loading each *page* of the results- we phrase this as "Cost(OUT)".

IO Cost: 
$$\left[\log_f \frac{N}{F}\right] - L_B + Cost(OUT)$$

where 
$$B \geq \sum_{l=0}^{L_B-1} f^l$$

Cost(OUT) has one subtle but important twist... let's watch again

### B+ Tree Range Search Animation

How many IOs did our friend do?

Depends on how the data are arranged

30 < 80

30 in [20,60)

30 in [30,40)

20 60 100 120 140 10 15 18 20 30 40 50 60 65 80 85 90 Not all nodes pictured 10 12 15 20 28 30 40 59 63 80 84 89

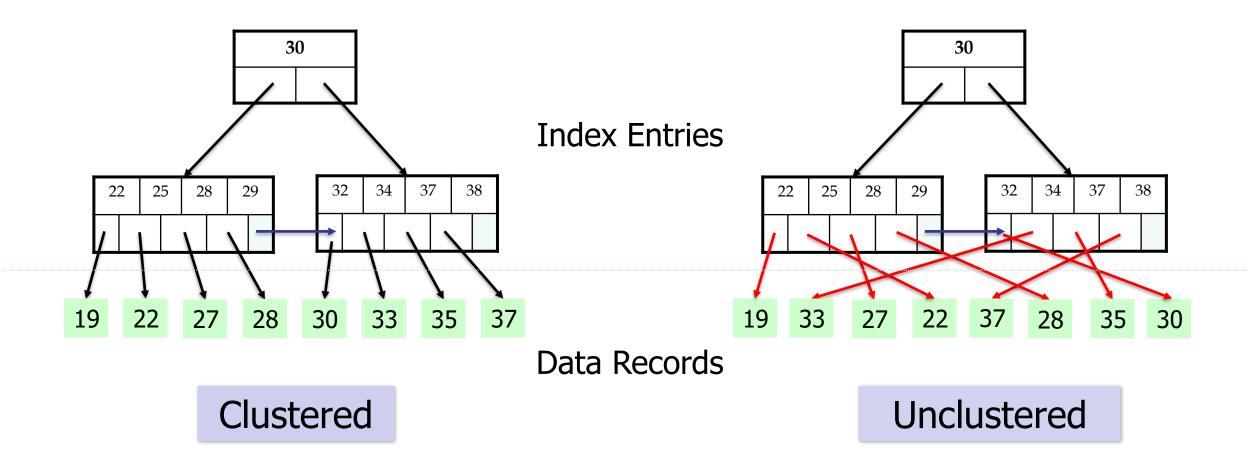
80

To the data!

#### Clustered Indexes

An index is <u>clustered</u> if the underlying data is ordered in the same way as the index's data entries.

## Clustered vs. Unclustered Index



#### Clustered vs. Unclustered Index

- Recall that for a disk with block access, sequential IO is much faster than random IO
- For exact search, no difference between clustered / unclustered

- For range search over R values: difference between 1 random
   IO + R sequential IO, and R random IO:
  - A random IO costs ~ 10ms (sequential much much faster)
  - For R = 100,000 records- difference between ~10ms and ~17min!

## Fast Insertions & Self-Balancing

- We won't go into specifics of B+ Tree insertion algorithm, but has several attractive qualities:
  - ~ Same cost as exact search
  - Self-balancing: B+ Tree remains balanced (with respect to height)
     even after insert

B+ Trees also (relatively) fast for single insertions!

However, can become bottleneck if many insertions (if fill-factor slack is used up...)

# Summary

- We create indexes over tables in order to support fast (exact and range) search and insertion over multiple search keys
- B+ Trees are one index data structure which supports very fast exact and range search & insertion via high fanout
  - Clustered vs. unclustered makes a big difference for range queries too