Query Processing, optimization, and indexing techniques

What's this tutorial about?

- From here:

  SELECT C.name **AS** Course, count(S.students) **AS** Cnt
  FROM courses C, subscription S
  WHERE
  C.lecturer = "Calders"
  AND C.courseID = S.courseID

- To there:

Course	Cnt
"Advanced Databases"	67
"Data mining en kennissystemen"	19

- What's in between?
- How does a *relational* DBMS get there *efficiently*.

Physical Reality

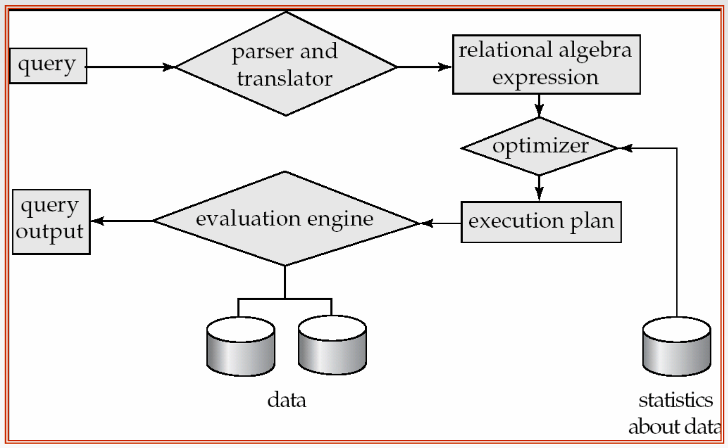
- Cost of query evaluation is generally measured as total elapsed time for answering query
  - Many factors contribute to time cost
    - *disk accesses, CPU*, or even network *communication*
- Typically disk access is the predominant cost, and is also relatively easy to estimate. Measured by taking into account
  - Number of seeks * average-seek-cost
  - Number of blocks read * average-block-read-cost
  - Number of blocks written * average-block-write-cost
    - Cost to write a block is greater than cost to read a block
      - data is read back after being written to ensure that the write was successful

What's this tutorial about?

- Factors that influence the efficiency:
  - How is the data stored?
    - Primary and secondary indices
    - B-trees
    - Composite search keys
    - Hashing
  - How is the query processed?
    - Relational algebra
    - Query evaluation plan
- We start with the second part …

Basic Steps in Query Processing

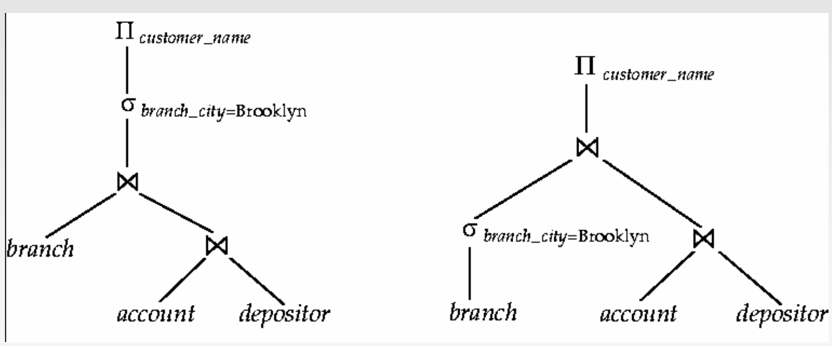
1. Parsing and translation
2. Optimization
3. Evaluation



Based upon slides for: Database System Concepts - 5th Edition, Aug 27, 2005.

Logical Query Plan

- SQL query is translated into a relational algebra expression
  - can be seen as a tree
  - different expressions are possible



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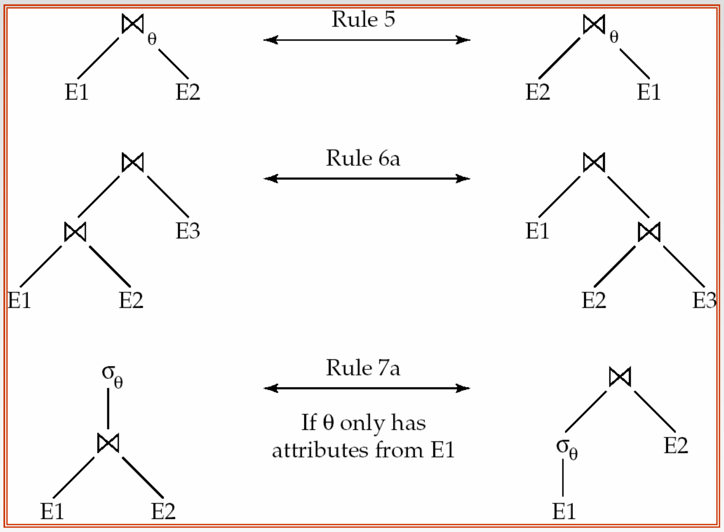
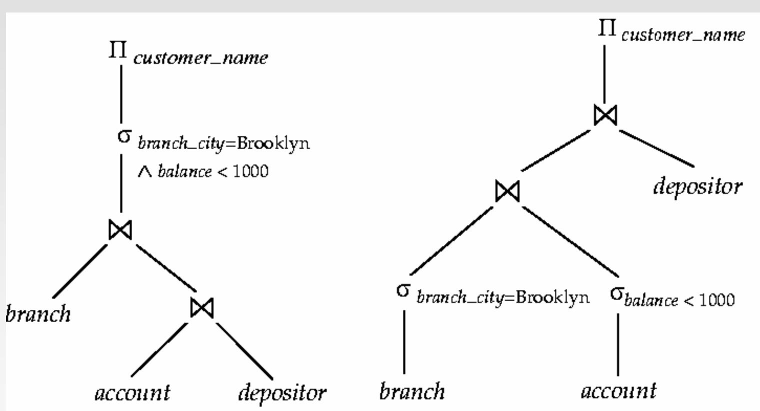
Pictorial Depiction of Equivalence Rules



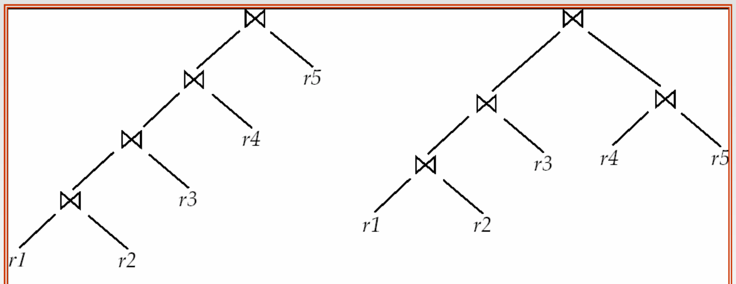
Multiple Transformations (Cont.)



(a) Initial expression tree (b) Tree after multiple transformations

Left Deep Join Trees

- In **left-deep join trees,** the right-hand-side input for each join is a relation, not the result of an intermediate join.



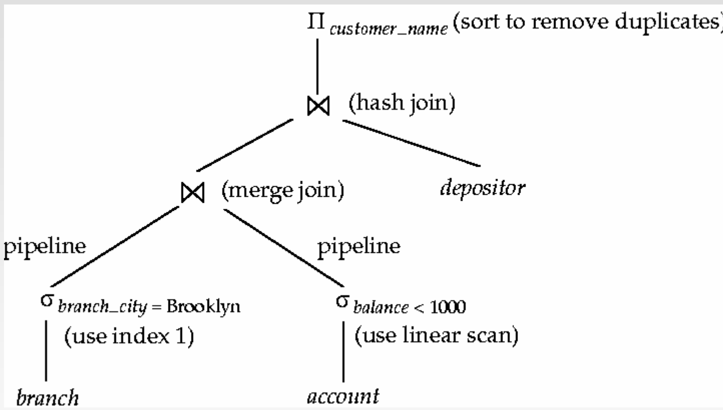
(a) Left-deep join tree

(b) Non-left-deep join tree

Physical Query Plan

- For all relational algebra expressions
  - Different implementations
- Best choice highly depends on
  - Number of tuples
  - Presence or absence of indices (way of storage)
  - Selectivity of predicates (statistics!)
  - Pipelined or materialized
  - Etc…
- Physical query plan = logical query plan + choice of implementation

Physical Query Plan



Optimization

- **Query Optimization**: Amongst all equivalent evaluation plans choose the one with lowest cost.
- Cost is estimated
  - using statistical information from the database catalog
    - number of tuples in each relation,
    - size of tuples,
  - based on the way the data is stored
    - ordered w.r.t. the primary key or not
    - secondary indices

Indexing Structures

Indexing and Hashing

- Basic Concepts
- Ordered Indices
- B+-Tree Index Files
- B-Tree Index Files
- Multiple-Key Access

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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".

Index Evaluation Metrics

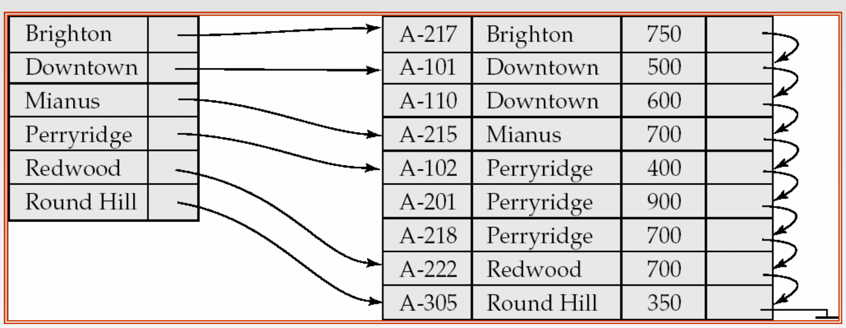
- Access types supported efficiently. E.g.,
  - records with a specified value in the attribute
  - or records with an attribute value falling in a specified range of values.
- Access time
- Insertion time
- Deletion time
- Space overhead

Ordered Indices

- In an **ordered index,** index entries are stored sorted on the search key value. E.g., author catalog in library.
- **Primary index:** in a sequentially ordered file, the index whose search key specifies the sequential order of the file.
  - Also called **clustering index**
  - The search key of a primary index is usually but not necessarily the primary key.
- **Secondary index**: an index whose search key specifies an order different from the sequential order of the file. Also called non-clustering index**.**
- Index-sequential file**:** ordered sequential file with a primary index.

Dense Index Files

- Dense index — Index record appears for every search-key value in the file.



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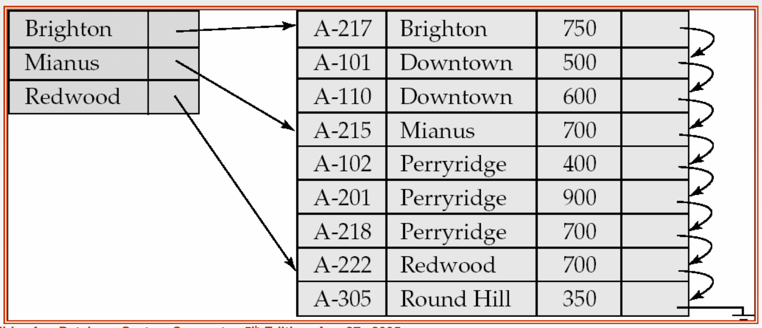
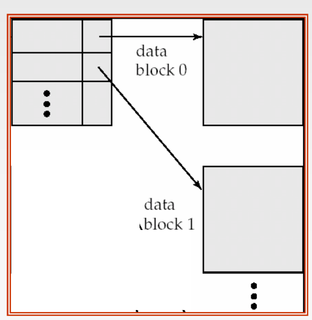
Sparse Index Files

- Sparse Index: contains index records for only some search-key values.
  - Applicable when records are sequentially ordered on search-key
- To locate a record with search-key value *K* we:
  - Find index record with largest search-key value < *K*
  - Search file sequentially starting at the record to which the index record points



Sparse Index Files (Cont.)

- Compared to dense indices:
  - Less space and less maintenance overhead for insertions and deletions.
  - Generally slower than dense index for locating records.
- **Good tradeoff**: sparse index with an index entry for every block in file, corresponding to least search-key value in the block.



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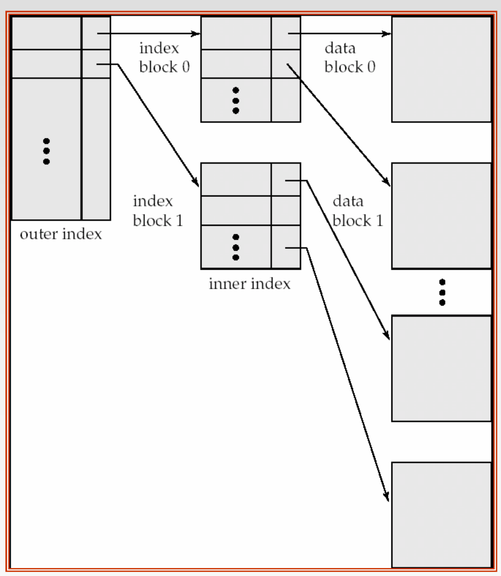
Multilevel Index

- If primary index does not fit in memory, access becomes expensive.
- Solution: treat primary index kept on disk as a sequential file and construct a sparse index on it.
  - outer index – a sparse index of primary index
  - inner index – the primary index file
- If even outer index is too large to fit in main memory, yet another level of index can be created, and so on.
- Indices at all levels must be updated on insertion or deletion from the file.

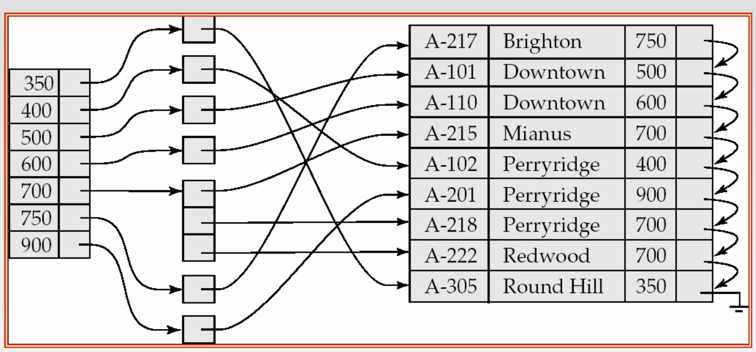
Multilevel Index (Cont.)



Secondary Indices

- Frequently, one wants to find all the records whose values in a certain field (which is not the search-key of the primary index) satisfy some condition.
  - Example 1: In the *account* relation stored sequentially by account number, we may want to find all accounts in a particular branch
  - Example 2: as above, but where we want to find all accounts with a specified balance or range of balances
- We can have a secondary index with an index record for each search-key value

Secondary Indices Example



Secondary index on *balance* field of *account*

- Index record points to a bucket that contains pointers to all the actual records with that particular search-key value.
- Secondary indices have to be dense

Primary and Secondary Indices

- Indices offer substantial benefits when searching for records.
- BUT: Updating indices imposes overhead on database modification -- when a file is modified, every index on the file must be updated,
- Sequential scan using primary index is efficient, but a sequential scan using a secondary index is expensive
  - Each record access may fetch a new block from disk
  - Block fetch requires about 5 to 10 milliseconds
    - versus about 100 nanoseconds for memory access

B+-Tree Index Files

B+-tree indices are an alternative to indexed-sequential files.

- Disadvantage of indexed-sequential files
  - performance degrades as file grows, since many overflow blocks get created.
  - Periodic reorganization of entire file is required.
- Advantage of B+-tree index files:
  - automatically reorganizes itself with small, local, changes, in the face of insertions and deletions.
  - Reorganization of entire file is not required to maintain performance.
- (Minor) disadvantage of B+-trees:
  - extra insertion and deletion overhead, space overhead.
- Advantages of B+-trees outweigh disadvantages
  - B+-trees are used extensively

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	$\ldots$	P_{n-1}	K_{n-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

$$K_1 < K_2 < K_3 < \ldots < K_{n-1}$$

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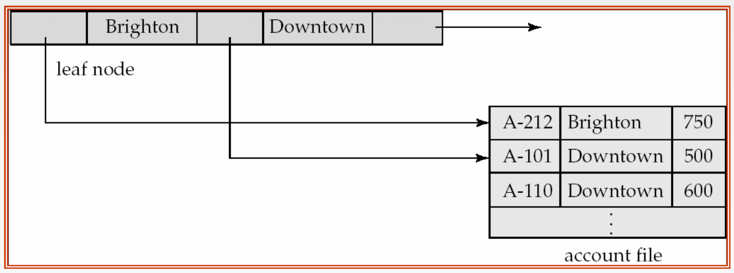
Leaf Nodes in B+-Trees

Properties of a leaf node:

- For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n–1$, pointer P_i either points to a file record with search-key value K_i, or to a bucket of pointers to file records, each record having search-key value K_i. Only need bucket structure if search-key does not form a primary key.
- If L_i, L_j are leaf nodes and $i < j$, L_i's search-key values are less than L_j's search-key values
- P_n points to next leaf node in search-key order

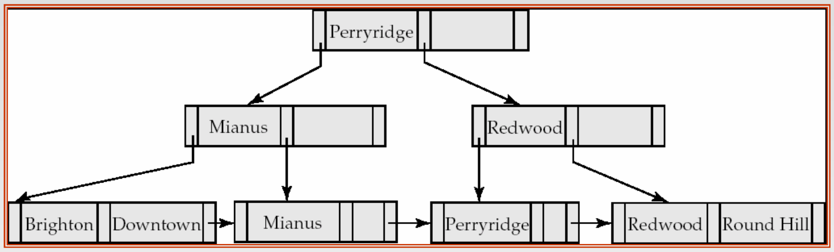


Non-Leaf Nodes in B+-Trees

- 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 $2 \le i \le n – 1$, 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 $K_{n–1}$

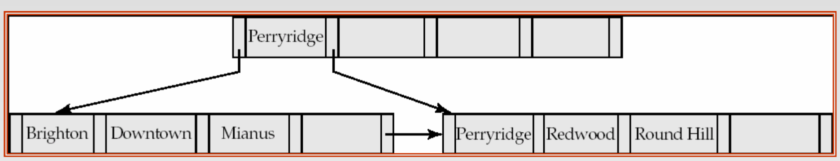
P_1	K_1	P_2	. . .	P_{n-1}	K_{n-1}	P_n

Example of a B+-tree



B+-tree for *account* file ($n = 3$)

Example of B+-tree



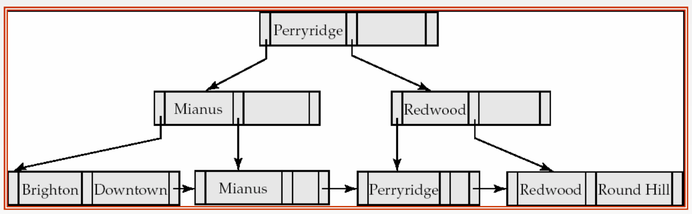
B+-tree for *account* file ($n = 5$)

- Leaf nodes must have between 2 and 4 values ($\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil$ and $n-1$, with $n = 5$).
- Non-leaf nodes other than root must have between 3 and 5 children ($\lceil (n/2 \rceil$ and n with $n = 5$).
- Root must have at least 2 children.

Queries on B+-Trees

- Find all records with a search-key value of *k*.
  1. *N=root*
  2. Repeat
     1. Examine *N* for the smallest search-key value > *k*.
     2. If such a value exists, assume it is K_i. Then set $N = P_i$
     3. Otherwise $k \geq K_{n-1}$. Set $N = P_n$

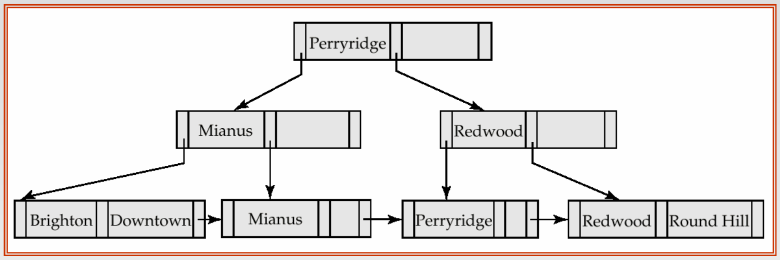
     Until *N* is a leaf node
  3. If for some *i*, key $K_i = k$ follow pointer P_i to the desired record or bucket.
  4. Else no record with search-key value *k* exists.

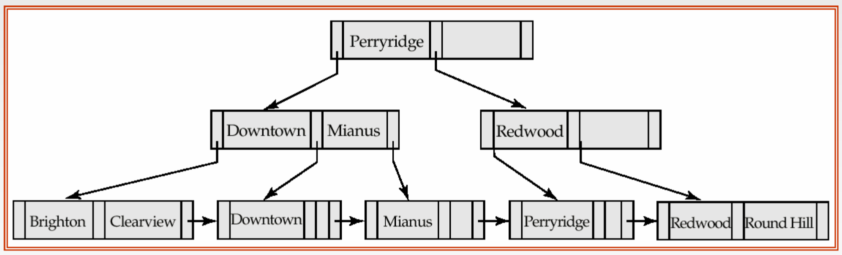


Queries on B+-Trees (Cont.)

- If there are *K* search-key values in the file, the height of the tree is no more than $\lceil \log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K) \rceil$.
- A node is generally the same size as a disk block, typically 4 kilobytes
  - and *n* is typically around 100 (40 bytes per index entry).
- With 1 million search key values and $n = 100$
  - at most $log_{50}(1{,}000{,}000) = 4$ nodes are accessed in a lookup.
- Contrast this with a balanced binary tree with 1 million search key values — around 20 nodes are accessed in a lookup
  - above difference is significant since every node access may need a disk I/O, costing around 20 milliseconds

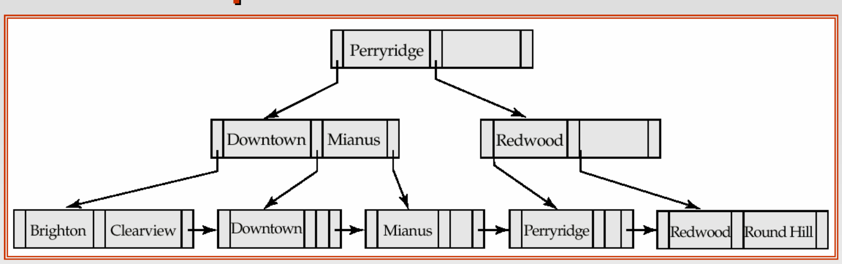
Updates on B+-Trees: Insertion (Cont.)

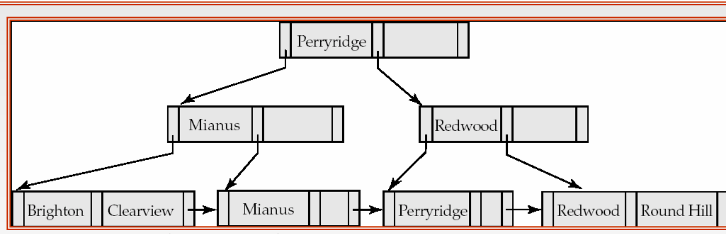




B+-Tree before and after insertion of "Clearview"

Examples of B+-Tree Deletion

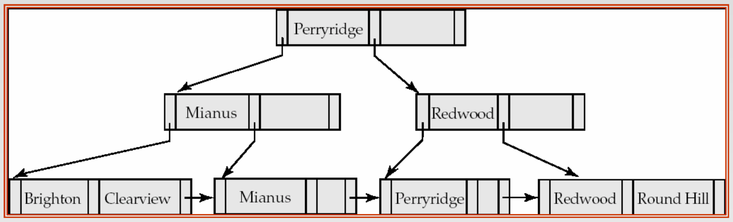


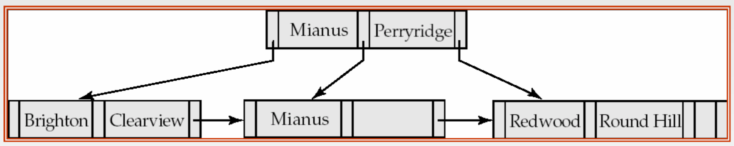


Before and after deleting "Downtown"

- Deleting "Downtown" causes merging of under-full leaves
  - leaf node can become empty only for n=3!

Examples of B+-Tree Deletion (Cont.)



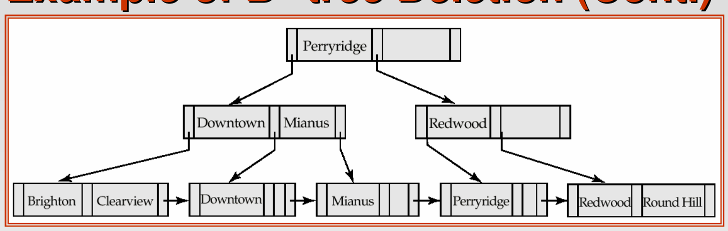


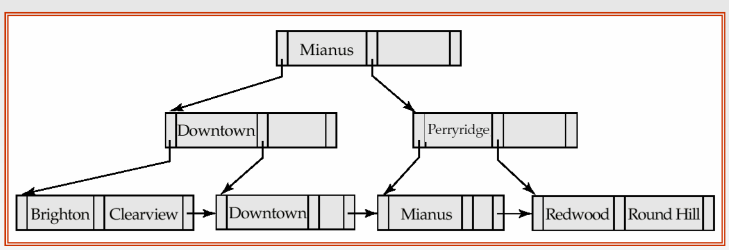
Deletion of "Perryridge" from result of previous example

- Leaf with "Perryridge" becomes underfull (actually empty, in this special case) and merged with its sibling.
- As a result "Perryridge" node's parent became underfull, and was merged with its sibling
  - Value separating two nodes (at parent) moves into merged node
  - Entry deleted from parent
- Root node then has only one child, and is deleted

Based upon slides for: Database System Concepts - 5th Edition, Aug 27, 2005.

Example of B+-tree Deletion (Cont.)





Before and after deletion of "Perryridge" from earlier example

- Parent of leaf containing Perryridge became underfull, and borrowed a pointer from its left sibling
- Search-key value in the parent's parent changes as a result

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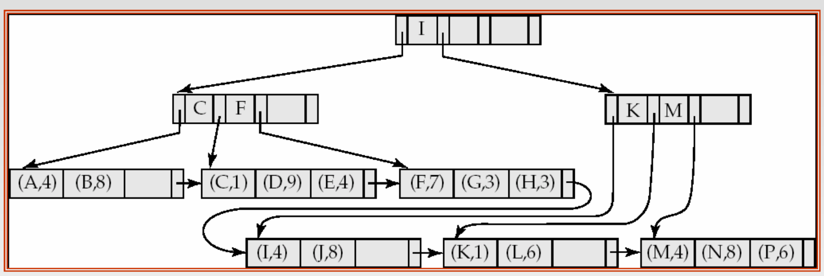
B^+-Tree File Organization

- Index file degradation problem is solved by using B^+-Tree indices.
- Data file degradation problem is solved by using B^+-Tree File Organization.
- The leaf nodes in a B^+-tree file organization store records, instead of pointers.
- Leaf nodes are still required to be half full
  - Since records are larger than pointers, the maximum number of records that can be stored in a leaf node is less than the number of pointers in a nonleaf node.
- Insertion and deletion are handled in the same way as insertion and deletion of entries in a B^+-tree index.

B^+-Tree File Organization (Cont.)



Example of B^+-tree File Organization

- Good space utilization important since records use more space than pointers.
- To improve space utilization, involve more sibling nodes in redistribution during splits and merges
  - Involving 2 siblings in redistribution (to avoid split / merge where possible) results in each node having at least $\lfloor 2n/3 \rfloor$ entries

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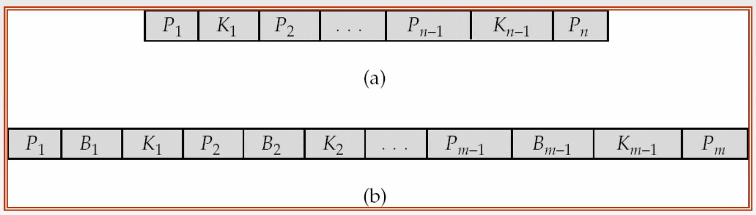
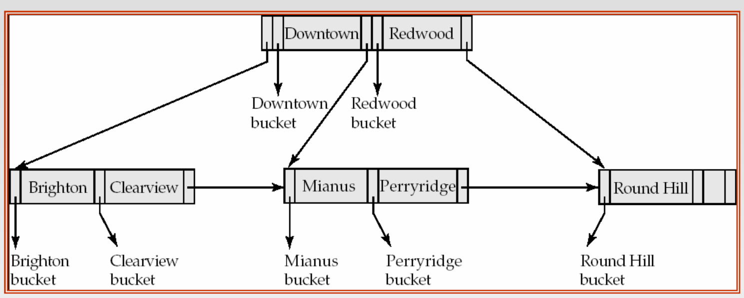
B-Tree Index Files

- Similar to B+-tree, but B-tree allows search-key values to appear only once; eliminates redundant storage of search keys.
- Search keys in nonleaf nodes appear nowhere else in the B-tree; an additional pointer field for each search key in a nonleaf node must be included.
- Generalized B-tree leaf node

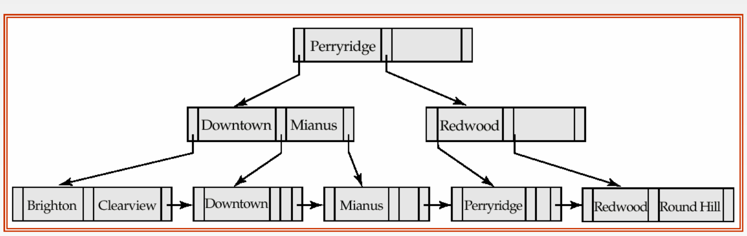


- Nonleaf node – pointers Bi are the bucket or file record pointers.

B-Tree Index File Example



B-tree (above) and B+-tree (below) on same data



Multiple-Key Access

- Use multiple indices for certain types of queries.
- Example:

  select *account_number*

  from *account*

  where *branch_name* = "Perryridge" **and** *balance* = 1000
- Possible strategies for processing query using indices on single attributes:
  1. Use index on *branch_name* to find accounts with branch name Perryridge; test *balance = 1000*
  2. Use index on *balance* to find accounts with balances of $1000; test *branch_name* = "Perryridge".
  3. Use *branch_name* index to find pointers to all records pertaining to the Perryridge branch. Similarly use index on *balance*. Take intersection of both sets of pointers obtained.

Indices on Multiple Keys

- **Composite search keys** are search keys containing more than one attribute
  - E.g. (*branch_name, balance*)
- Lexicographic ordering: $(a_1, a_2) < (b_1, b_2)$ if either
  - $a_1 < b_1$, or
  - $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 < b_2$

Implementations of Relational Algebra Expressions

Selection Operation

- **File scan** – search algorithms that locate and retrieve records that fulfill a selection condition.
  - Algorithm **A1** (*linear search*). Scan each file block and test all records to see whether they satisfy the selection condition.
  - **A2** *(binary search).* Applicable if selection is an equality comparison on the attribute on which file is ordered.
  - **A3** (*primary index on candidate key, equality*). Retrieve a single record that satisfies the corresponding equality condition
  - **A4** (*primary index on nonkey, equality)* Retrieve multiple records.
  - **A5** (*equality on search-key of secondary index).*
  - **A6** (*primary index, comparison).* (Relation is sorted on A)
  - **A7** (*secondary index, comparison*)
  - …

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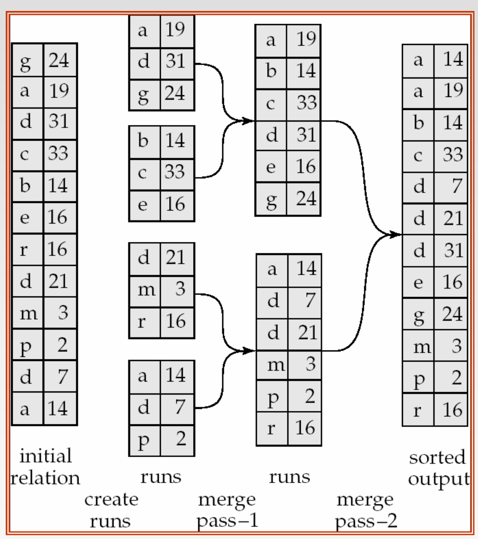
Sorting

- 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.

Example: External Sorting Using Sort-Merge



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 *customer*: 10,000 *depositor*: 5000
  - Number of blocks of *customer*: 400 *depositor*: 100

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 θ
  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.

Block Nested-Loop Join

- Variant of nested-loop join in which every block of inner relation is paired with every block of outer relation.

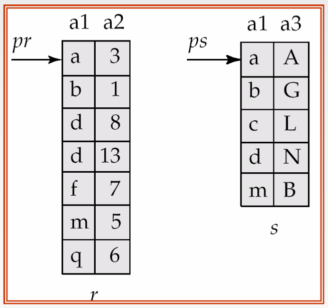
for each block B_r **of** *r* **do begin**
    for each block B_s **of** ***s*** **do begin**
        for each tuple t_r **in** B_r **do begin**
            for each tuple t_s **in** B_s **do begin**
                Check if (t_r,t_s) satisfy the join condition
                if they do, add $t_r \bullet t_s$ to the result.
            end
        end
    end
end

Indexed Nested-Loop Join

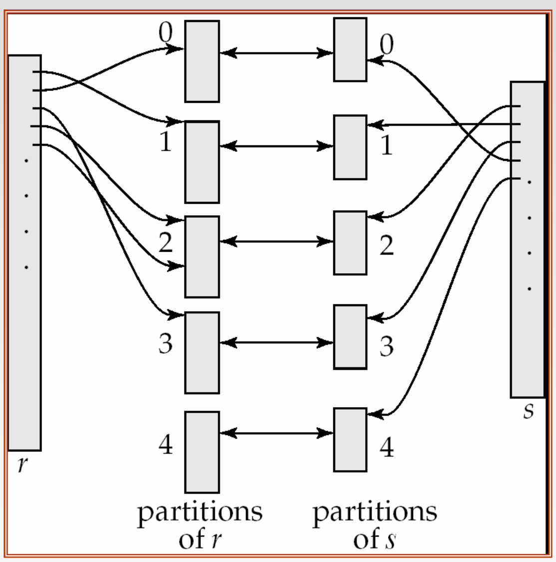
- Index lookups can replace file scans if
  - join is an equi-join or natural join and
  - an index is available on the inner relation's join attribute
    - Can construct an index just to compute a join.
- For each tuple t_r in the outer relation *r,* use the index to look up tuples in *s* that satisfy 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.*

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



Hash-Join (Cont.)



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.**

Evaluation of Expressions

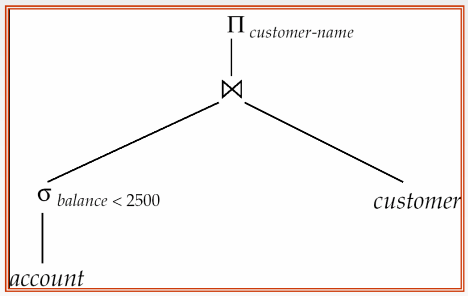
- So far: we have seen algorithms for individual operations
- Alternatives for evaluating an entire expression tree
  - **Materialization**: generate results of an expression whose inputs are relations or are already computed, **materialize** (store) it on disk. Repeat.
  - **Pipelining**: pass on tuples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

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

$$\sigma_{balance<2500}(account)$$

then compute the store its join with *customer,* and finally compute the projections on *customer-name.*



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

$$\sigma_{balance<2500}(account)$$

  - 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**