Chapter 15: Query Processing

Sistemas de Bases de Dados 2019/20

Capítulo refere-se a: Database System Concepts, 7th Ed

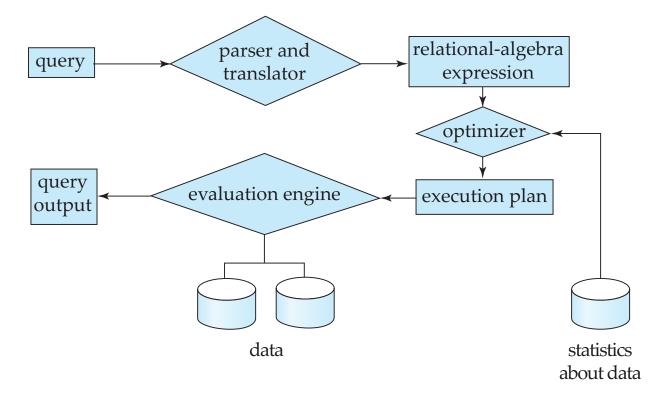
Chapter 15: Query Processing

- Overview
- Measures of Query Cost
- Selection Operation
- Sorting
- Join Operation
- Other Operations
- Evaluation of Expressions



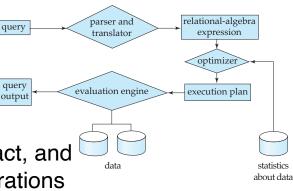
Basic Steps in Query Processing

- 1. Parsing and translation
- 2. Optimization
- 3. Evaluation



Basic Steps in Query Processing (Cont.)

- Parsing and translation
 - Translate the query into its internal form
 - This is then translated into relational algebra
 - (Extended) relational algebra is more compact, and differentiates clearly among the various operations
 - Parser checks syntax, verifies relations
 - This is a subject for *compilers*
- Evaluation
 - The query-execution engine takes a query-evaluation plan, executes that plan, and returns the answers to the query
 - The bulk of the problem lies in how to produce a good evaluation plan!
 - Query-execution is "simply" executing a predefined plan (or program)



Basic Steps in Query Processing: Optimization

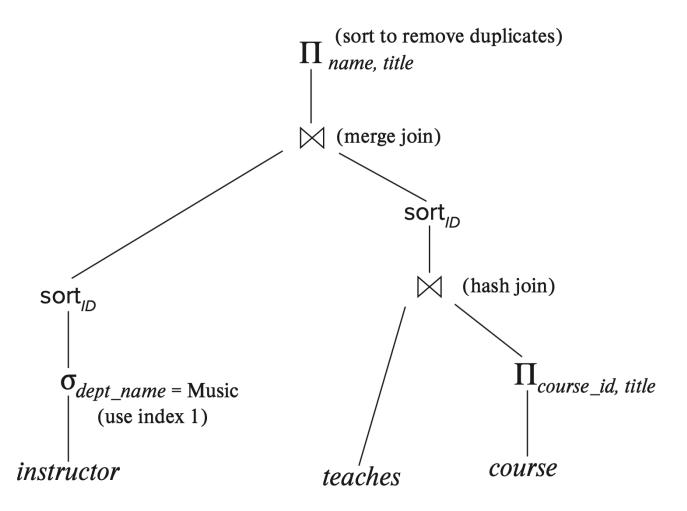
- A relational algebra expression may have many equivalent expressions, e.g.
 - $\sigma_{salary < 75000}(\prod_{salary}(instructor))$ is equivalent to

 $\prod_{salary}(\sigma_{salary < 75000}(instructor))$

- 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 \geq 75000

Evalution Plan Example

An evaluation plan is a (possibly annotated) relational algebra expression



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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 and the next lecture 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
- Immediately after that
 - We study how to optimize queries, that is, how to find an evaluation plan with lowest estimated 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, as they are usually much smaller
 - Real systems do take CPU cost into account
 - Network costs must be considered for distributed systems
- We describe how to estimate the cost of each operation

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
 - 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

Measures of Query Cost (Cont.)

- Required data may be buffer resident already, avoiding disk I/O
 - But hard to consider 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 Operation (recall)

- Notation: $\sigma_p(r)$
- *p* is the selection predicate
- Defined by:

$$\sigma_p(\mathbf{r}) = \{t \mid t \in r \text{ and } p(t)\}$$

in which *p* is a formula of propositional calculus of terms connected by: \land (and), \lor (**or**), \neg (**not**) Each term is of the form:

<attribute> op <attribute> or <constant>

where *op* can be one of: $=, \neq, >, \ge . < . \le$

- Selection example:

σ _{branch-name='Perryridge'} (account)

 For recalling other operators, see documentation of "Bases de Dados".

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

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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
 - $Cost = h_i * (t_T + t_S)$
- Recall that the height of a B+-tree index is log[n/2](K) , where n is the number of index entries per node and K is the number of search keys.
 - E.g. for a relation r with 1.000.000 different search key, and with 100 index entries per node, hi = 4
 - Unless the relation is really small, this algorithms (for equality condition) always "pays" when indexes are available



Selections Using Indices

• A3 (clustering index, equality on nonkey) Retrieve multiple records.

- Records will be on consecutive blocks
 - Let b = number of blocks containing matching records
- $Cost = h_i * (t_T + t_S) + t_S + t_T * b$
- 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 if n is big!
 - Note that n multiplies by the time for seeks

Selections Involving Comparisons

- One 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 σ_{A ≥ V}(r) use index to find first tuple ≥ v and scan relation sequentially from there
 - For σ_{A≤V}(r) just scan relation sequentially until first tuple > v; do not use index
- A6 (nonclustering index, comparison).
 - For $\sigma_{A \ge V}(r)$ use index to find first index entry $\ge v$ and scan index sequentially from there, to find pointers to records.
 - For σ_{A≤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:** $\sigma_{\theta 1} \wedge \sigma_{\theta 2} \wedge \dots \sigma_{\theta n}(r)$
- A7 (conjunctive selection using one index).
 - Select a combination of θ_i and algorithms A1 through A6 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 (or bitmaps)
 - Use corresponding index for each condition and take intersection of all the obtained sets of record pointers.
 - Then fetch records from file



Algorithms for Complex Selections

- **Disjunction**: $\sigma_{\theta 1} \vee_{\theta 2} \vee \ldots \otimes_{\theta n} (r)$.
- 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



Sorting

- Sorting algorithms are important in query processing at least for two reasons:
 - The query itself may require sorting (order by clause)
 - Some algorithms for other operations, like projection, join, set operations and aggregation, require that, or benefit from relations that are previously sorted
- To sort a relation:
 - We may build an index on the relation, and then use the index to read the relation in sorted order.
 - This only sorts the relation logically; not physically
 - Sorting physically may lead to one disk 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.

External Sort-Merge

 If the relation does not fit in memory, divide it into runs that fit, and start by sorting those runs

Let *M* denote memory size (in pages).

- 1. **Create sorted runs**. Let *i* be 0 initially. Repeatedly do the following until the end of the relation:
 - (a) Read *M* blocks of relation into memory
 - (b) Sort the in-memory blocks
 - (c) Write sorted data to run R_i ; increment *i*.

Let the final value of *i* be *N*

2. Merge the runs (next slide).....

External Sort-Merge (Cont.)

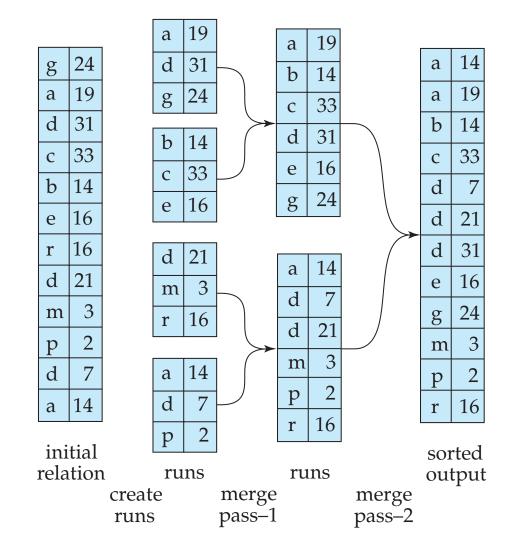
- Then merge the runs, two by two, in a sorted manner
- **2.** Merge the runs (N-way merge). We assume (for now) that N < M.
 - 1. Use *N* blocks of memory to buffer input runs, and 1 block to buffer output. Read the first block of each run into its buffer page
 - 2. repeat
 - 1. Select the first record (in sort order) among all buffer pages
 - 2. Write the record to the output buffer. If the output buffer is full write it to disk.
 - Delete the record from its input buffer page.
 If the buffer page becomes empty, then read the next block (if any) of the run into the buffer.
 - **3. until** all input buffer pages are empty:



External Sort-Merge (Cont.)

- If $N \ge M$, several merge *passes* are required.
 - In each pass, contiguous groups of *M* 1 runs are merged.
 - A pass reduces the number of runs by a factor of *M*-1 and creates runs longer by the same factor.
 - E.g. If M=11, and there are 90 runs, one pass reduces the number of runs to 9, each 10 times the size of the initial runs
 - Repeated passes are performed until all runs have been merged into one.
- Note that, in practice, this is only needed for really huge relations:
 - Consider a 4GB memory and 4KB blocks (i.e. 1M blocks fit in memory)
 - For a 2nd pass to be needed, there should be over 1M runs, i.e. 4000TB (since each run can be circa 4GB)
 - A 4000TB relation is a really big relation (not found usually)!!!

Example: External Sorting Using Sort-Merge



External Merge Sort (transfer cost)

- Cost analysis:
 - Total number of merge passes required: [log [M/bb]-1(br/M)]
 - This part >1 only for very very big relations
 - Block transfers for initial run creation as well as in each pass is 2b_r
 - for final pass, we don't count write cost
 - we ignore final write cost for all operations since the output of an operation may be sent to the parent operation without being written to disk (to be studied later)
 - Thus, total number of block transfers for external sorting: $b_r (2 \lceil \log_{|M/bb|-1} (b_r / M) \rceil + 1)$
 - (usually this boils down to $3b_r$)
- Legend:
 - M size of the memory
 - *b_b* number of blocks per run
 - b_r number of blocks of relation r

External Merge Sort (seek cost)

- Cost of seeks
 - During run generation: one seek to read each run and one seek to write each run
 - $2[b_r/M]$
 - During the merge phase ٠
 - Need $2 \lceil b_r / b_b \rceil$ seeks for each merge pass
 - except the final one which does not require a write •
 - Total number of seeks:
 - $2 \left[b_r / M \right] + \left[b_r / b_b \right] (2 \left[\log_{M/bb} 1(b_r / M) \right] 1)$
 - (Usually, this boils down to $2 \lceil b_r / M \rceil + \lceil b_r / b_h \rceil$



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 ⋈ θ 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 • 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.

Nested-Loop Join Costs

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

- In general, it is much better to have the smaller relation as the outer relation
 - The number of block transfers is multiplied by the number of blocks of the inner relation
 - The number of seeks only depends on the outer relation
- However, if the smaller relation fits entirely in memory, one should use it as the inner relation!
 - Reduces cost to $b_r + b_s$ block transfers and 2 seeks
- The choice of the inner and outer relation strongly depends on the estimate of the size of each relation
 - Statistics on the size of the relations, in run time, can be a great help!

Nested-Loop Join Costs

- For joining *student* and *takes*, 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 and 2 seeks
- Instead of iterating over records, one could iterate over blocks. This way, instead of $n_r * b_s + b_r$ we would have $b_r * b_s + b_r$ block transfers
- This is the basis of the block nested-loops algorithm (next slide).

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 \cdot t_s to the result.
end
end
end
```

Block Nested-Loop Join (Cont.)

- Worst case estimate: $b_r * b_s + b_r$ block transfers + 2 * b_r seeks
 - Each block in the inner relation *s* is read once for each *block* in the outer relation
- Best case(when smaller relation fits into memory): $b_r + b_s$ block transfers plus 2 seeks.
- In the running example the cost of *student* \bowtie *takes* is:
 - If *student* is outer: 100*400+100 = 40,100 transfer + 200 seeks
 - If *takes* is outer: 400*100+400 = 40,400 transfers + 400 seeks
- Improvements to nested loop and block nested loop algorithms:
 - If equijoin attribute forms a key or inner relation, stop inner loop on first match
 - Scan inner loop forward and backward alternately, to make use of the blocks remaining in buffer (with LRU replacement)
 - Use index on inner relation if available (next slide)

Indexed Nested-Loop Join

- Index lookups can replace file scans if
 - join is an equijoin or natural join and
 - an index is available on the inner relation's join attribute
 - In some cases, it pays to 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 (usually quite small compared to the joincost)
- If indices are available on join attributes of both r and s, use the relation with fewer tuples as the outer relation.

Example of Nested-Loop Join Costs

- Compute *student* \bowtie *takes,* with *student* as the outer relation.
- Let *takes* have a primary B⁺-tree index on the attribute *ID*, which contains 20 entries in each index node.
- Since takes has 10,000 tuples, the height of the tree is 4, and one more access is needed to find the actual data
- student has 5000 tuples
- As we've seen, the best cost of block nested loops join
 - 400*100 + 100 = 40,100 block transfers + 2 * 100 = 200 seeks
 - assuming worst case memory
 - may be significantly less with more memory
- Cost of indexed nested loops join
 - 100 + 5000 * 5 = 25,100 block transfers and seeks.
 - CPU cost likely to be less than that for block nested loops join
 - However, in terms of time for transfers and seeks, in this case using the index doesn't pay (this is so because the relations are small)