CSE 544 Principles of Database Management Systems

Alvin Cheung Fall 2015 Lecture 7 - Query optimization

Announcements

- HW1 due tonight at 11:45pm
- HW2 will be due in two weeks
 - You get to implement your own DBMS!
- We will meet with each project teams next week
 - Will send out doodle

References

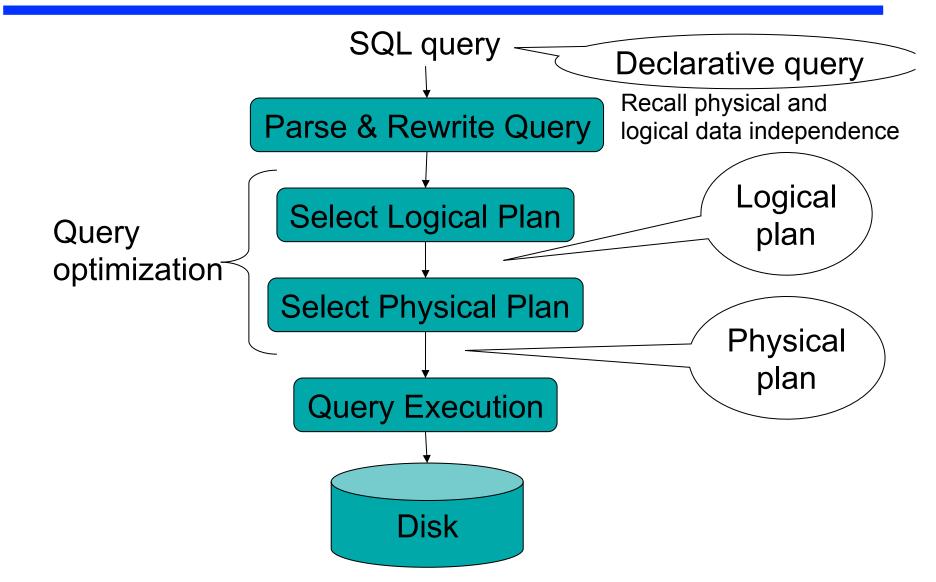
Access path selection in a relational database management system.

Selinger. et. al. SIGMOD 1979

Database management systems.

Ramakrishnan and Gehrke. Third Ed. **Chapter 15.**

Query Optimization Motivation

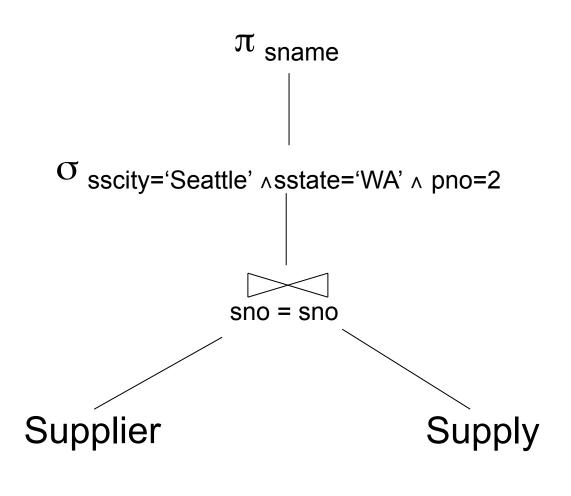


What We Already Know...

```
Supplier(sno,sname,scity,sstate)
Part(pno,pname,psize,pcolor)
Supply(sno,pno,price)
For each SQL query....
SELECT S.sname
FROM Supplier S, Supply U
WHERE S.scity='Seattle' AND S.sstate='WA'
AND S.sno = U.sno
AND U.pno = 2
```

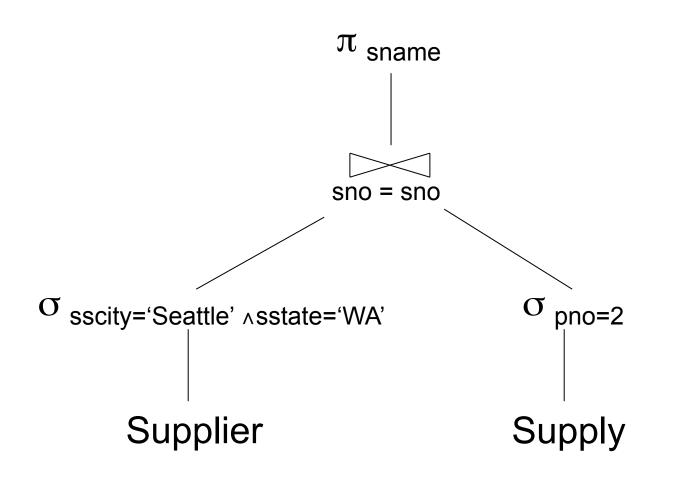
There exist many logical query plan...

Example Query: Logical Plan 1



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Example Query: Logical Plan 2

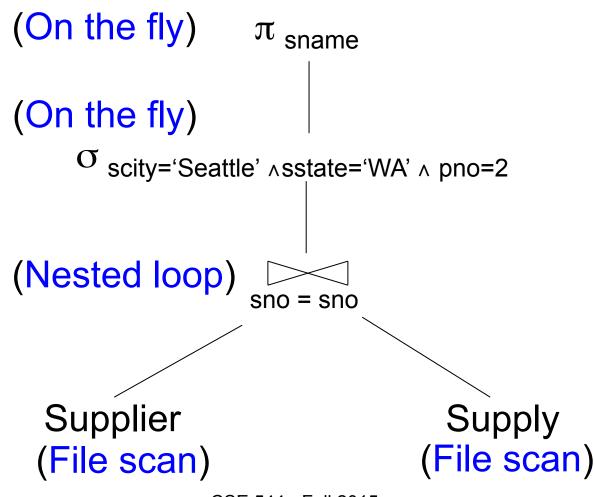


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What We Also Know

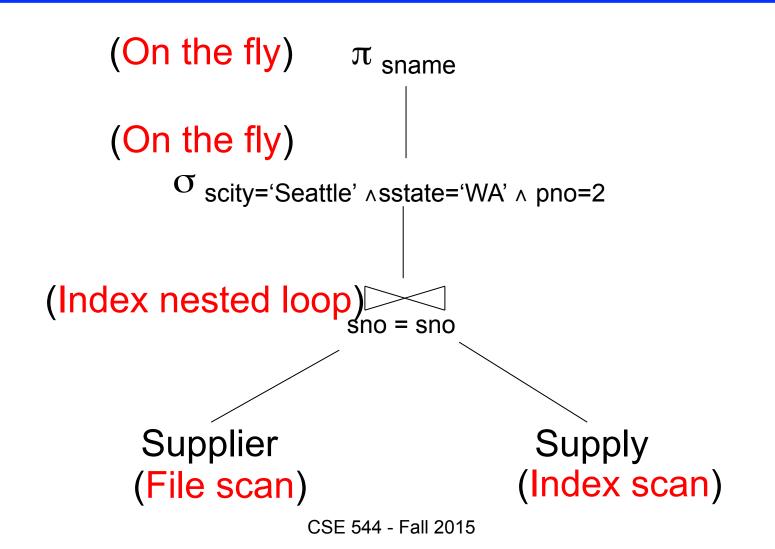
- For each logical plan...
- There exist many physical plans

Example Query: Physical Plan 1



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Example Query: Physical Plan 2



Query Optimization Algorithm

- For a query
 - There exists many physical query plans
 - Query optimizer needs to pick a good one
- Basic query optimization algorithm
 - Enumerate alternative plans
 - Compute estimated cost of each plan
 - Compute number of I/Os
 - Optionally take into account other resources
 - Choose plan with lowest cost
 - This is called cost-based optimization

Query Optimization

Three major components:

- 1. Cardinality and cost estimation
- 2. Search space
- 3. Plan enumeration algorithms

Estimating Cost of a Query Plan

- We already know how to
 - Compute the cost of different operations in terms of number IOs
- We still need to
 - Compute cost of retrieving tuples from disk with different access paths (for more sophisticated predicates than equality)
 - Compute cost of a complete plan

Access Path

- Access path: a way to retrieve tuples from a table
 - A file scan
 - An index *plus* a matching selection condition
- Index matches selection condition if it can be used to retrieve just tuples that satisfy the condition
 - Example: Supplier(sid,sname,scity,sstate)
 - B+-tree index on (scity,sstate)
 - matches scity='Seattle'
 - does not match sid=3, does not match sstate='WA'

Access Path Selection

- Supplier(sid,sname,scity,sstate)
- Selection condition: sid > 300 ^ scity='Seattle'
- Indexes: B+-tree on sid and B+-tree on scity
- Which access path should we use?
- We should pick the **most selective** access path

Access Path Selectivity

- Access path selectivity is the number of pages retrieved if we use this access path
 - Most selective retrieves fewest pages
- As we saw earlier, for equality predicates
 - Selection on equality: $\sigma_{a=v}(R)$
 - V(R, a) = # of distinct values of attribute a
 - 1/V(R,a) is thus the reduction factor
 - Clustered index on a: cost B(R)/V(R,a)
 - Unclustered index on a: cost T(R)/V(R,a)
 - (we are ignoring I/O cost of index pages for simplicity)

Selectivity for Range Predicates

Selection on range: $\sigma_{a>v}(R)$

- How to compute the selectivity?
- Assume values are uniformly distributed
- Reduction factor X
- X = (Max(R,a) v) / (Max(R,a) Min(R,a))
- Clustered index on a: cost B(R)*X
- Unclustered index on a: cost T(R)*X

Back to Our Example

- Selection condition: sid > 300 ^ scity='Seattle'
 - Index I1: B+-tree on sid clustered
 - Index I2: B+-tree on scity unclustered
- Let's assume
 - V(Supplier, scity) = 20
 - Max(Supplier, sid) = 1000, Min(Supplier, sid)=1
 - B(Supplier) = 100, T(Supplier) = 1000
- Cost I1: B(R) * (Max-v)/(Max-Min) = 100*700/999 ≈ 70
- Cost I2: T(R) * 1/V(Supplier, scity) = 1000/20 = 50

Selectivity with Multiple Conditions

What if we have an index on multiple attributes?

• Example selection $\sigma_{a=v1 \land b=v2}(R)$ and index on <a,b>

How to compute the selectivity?

- Assume attributes are independent
- X = 1 / (V(R,a) * V(R,b))
- Clustered index on <a,b>: cost B(R)*X
- Unclustered index on <a,b>: cost T(R)*X

Back to Estimating Cost of a Query Plan

- We already know how to
 - Compute the cost of different operations
 - Compute cost of retrieving tuples from disk with different access paths
- We still need to
 - Compute cost of a complete plan

Computing the Cost of a Plan

- Collect statistical summaries of stored data
- Compute cost in a bottom-up fashion
- For each operator compute
 - Estimate cost of executing the operation
 - Estimate statistical summary of the output data

Statistics on Base Data

- Collected information for each relation
 - Number of tuples (cardinality)
 - Indexes, number of keys in the index
 - Number of physical pages, clustering info
 - Statistical information on attributes
 - Min value, max value, number distinct values
 - Histograms
 - Correlations between columns (hard)
- Collection approach: periodic, using sampling

Computing Cost of an Operator

- The cost of executing an operator depends
 - On the operator implementation
 - On the input data
- We learned how to compute this in the previous lecture

Statistics on the Output Data

- Most important piece of information
 - Size of operator result
 - I.e., the number of output tuples

- Projection: output size same as input size
- Selection: multiply input size by reduction factor
 - Similar to what we did for estimating access path selectivity
 - Assume independence between conditions in the predicate
 - (use product of the reduction factors for the terms)

Estimating Result Sizes

- For joins $R \bowtie S$
 - Take product of cardinalities of relations R and S
 - Apply reduction factors for each term in join condition
 - Terms are of the form: column1 = column2
 - Reduction: 1/ (MAX(V(R,column1), V(S,column2))
 - Assumes each value in smaller set has a matching value in the larger set

Assumptions

- <u>Containment of values</u>: if V(R,A) <= V(S,B), then the set of A values of R is included in the set of B values of S
 - Note: this indeed holds when A is a foreign key in R, and B is a key in S
- <u>Preservation of values</u>: for any other attribute C,
 V(R ⋈_{A=B} S, C) = V(R, C) (or V(S, C))

Selectivity of R $\bowtie_{A=B} S$

Assume $V(R,A) \le V(S,B)$

- Each tuple t in R joins with T(S)/V(S,B) tuple(s) in S
- Hence $T(R \bowtie_{A=B} S) = T(R) T(S) / V(S,B)$

In general: $T(R \bowtie_{A=B} S) = T(R) T(S) / max(V(R,A),V(S,B))$

Complete Example

Supplier(<u>sid</u>, sname, scity, sstate) Supply(<u>sid</u>, pno, quantity)

- Some statistics
 - T(Supplier) = 1000 records
 - T(Supply) = 10,000 records
 - B(Supplier) = 100 pages
 - B(Supply) = 100 pages
 - V(Supplier,scity) = 20, V(Suppliers,state) = 10
 - V(Supply,pno) = 2,500
 - Both relations are clustered
- M = 11

SELECT sname FROM Supplier x, Supply y WHERE x.sid = y.sid and y.pno = 2 and x.scity = 'Seattle' and x.sstate = 'WA'

Computing the Cost of a Plan

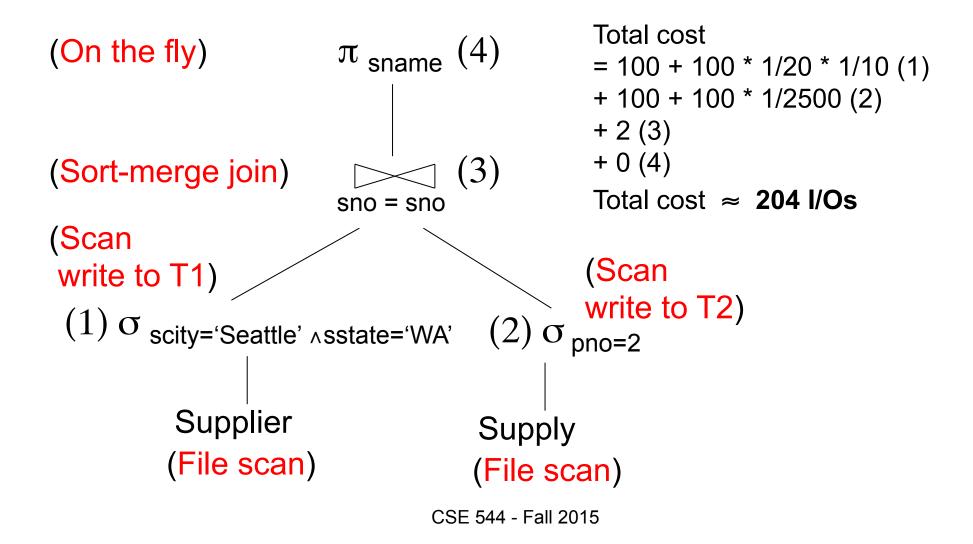
- Estimate <u>cardinality</u> in a bottom-up fashion
 - Cardinality is the <u>size</u> of a relation (nb of tuples)
 - Compute size of *all* intermediate relations in plan
- Estimate <u>cost</u> by using the estimated cardinalities

T(Supplier) = 1000B(Supplier) = 100V(Supplier, scity) = 20M = 11T(Supply) = 10,000B(Supply) = 100V(Supplier, state) = 10 V(Supply,pno) = 2,500Physical Query Plan 1 (On the fly) π_{sname} Selection and project on-the-fly -> No additional cost. (On the fly) scity='Seattle' ^sstate='WA' ^ pno=2 O Total cost of plan is thus cost of join: = B(Supplier)+B(Supplier)*B(Supplies) (Nested loop) = 100 + 100 * 100 sno = sno= 10,100 I/Os Supplier Supply (File scan) (File scan) CSE 544 - Fall 2015

T(Supplier) = 1000T(Supply) = 10,000

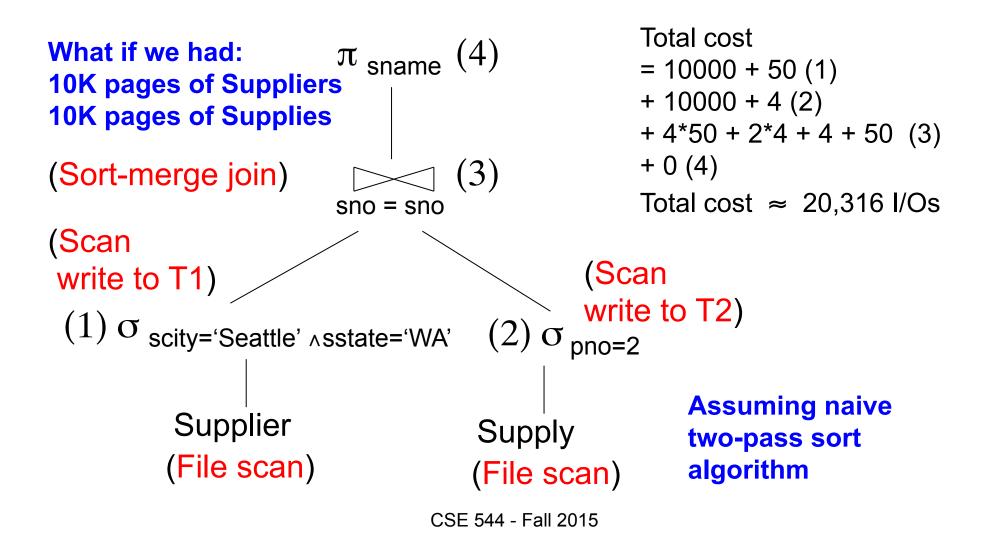
B(Supplier) = 100 B(Supply) = 100 V(Supplier,scity) = 20 V(Supplier,state) = 10 V(Supply,pno) = 2,500

Physical Query Plan 2



M = 11

Plan 2 with Different Numbers



T(Supplier) = 1000V(Supplier, scity) = 20M = 11B(Supplier) = 100T(Supply) = 10,000B(Supply) = 100V(Supplier, state) = 10 V(Supply,pno) = 2,500**Physical Query Plan 3** (On the fly) (4) $\pi_{
m sname}$ Total cost = 1 (1)(On the fly) +4(2)(3) $\sigma_{\text{scitv='Seattle'} \land \text{sstate='WA'}}$ +0(3)+0(3)Total cost ≈ 5 I/Os (2)(Index nested loop) șno = sno (Use hash index) 4 tuples (1) $\sigma_{\text{pno=2}}$ Supplier Supply (Hash index on pno) (Hash index on sno) Assume: clustered Clustering does not matter

Simplifications

- In the previous examples, we assumed that all index pages were in memory
- When this is not the case, we need to add the cost of fetching index pages from disk

Different Cost Models

- In previous examples, we considered IO costs
- Typically, want IO+CPU
- For parallel/distributed queries, add network bandwidth
- If need to compare *logical* plans
 - Compute the cardinality of each *intermediate* relation
 - Sum up all the cardinalities

Summary

- What we know
 - Different types of physical query plans
 - How to compute the cost of a query plan
 - Although it is hard to compute the cost accurately
- We can now compare query plans
- Let's now consider how the query optimizer searches through the space of possible plans

Query Optimization

Three major components:

- 1. Cardinality and cost estimation
- 2. Search space
- 3. Plan enumeration algorithms

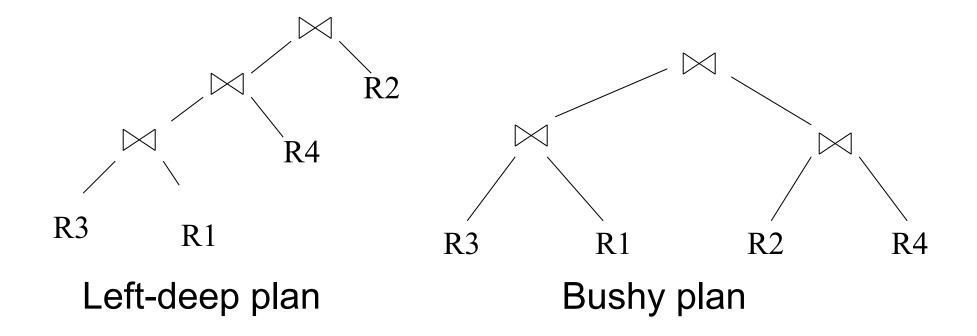
Relational Algebra Laws

• Selections

- Commutative: $\sigma_{c1}(\sigma_{c2}(R))$ same as $\sigma_{c2}(\sigma_{c1}(R))$
- Cascading: $\sigma_{c1 \land c2}(R)$ same as $\sigma_{c2}(\sigma_{c1}(R))$
- Projections
 - Cascading
- Joins
 - Commutative : $R \bowtie S$ same as $S \bowtie R$
 - Associative: $R \bowtie (S \bowtie T)$ same as $(R \bowtie S) \bowtie T$

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Left-Deep Plans and Bushy Plans



Relational Algebra Laws

- Selects, projects, and joins
 - We can commute and combine all three types of operators
 - We just have to be careful that the fields we need are available when we apply the operator
 - Relatively straightforward. See book 15.3.
- More info in optional paper (by Chaudhuri), Section 4.

Group-by and Join

R(A, B), S(C,D)

 $\gamma_{A, sum(D)}(R(A,B) \bowtie_{B=C} S(C,D)) =$

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Group-by and Join

R(A, B), S(C,D)

 $\begin{array}{l} \gamma_{A, \text{ sum}(D)}(\mathsf{R}(A,B) \bowtie_{\mathsf{B}=\mathsf{C}} \mathsf{S}(\mathsf{C},\mathsf{D})) = \\ \gamma_{A, \text{ sum}(D)}(\mathsf{R}(A,B) \bowtie_{\mathsf{B}=\mathsf{C}} (\gamma_{\mathsf{C}, \text{ sum}(D)} \mathsf{S}(\mathsf{C},\mathsf{D}))) \end{array}$

These are very powerful laws. They were introduced only in the 90's.

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Search Space Challenges

- Search space is huge!
 - Many possible equivalent trees (logical)
 - Many implementations for each operator (physical)
 - Many access paths for each relation (physical)
- Cannot consider ALL plans
- Want a search space that includes low-cost plans

Query Optimization

Three major components:

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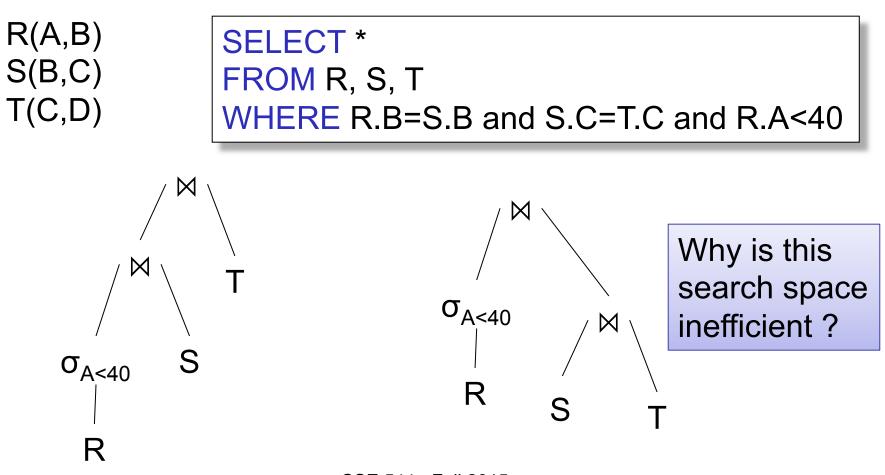
Two Types of Optimizers

- Heuristic-based optimizers:
 - Apply greedily rules that always improve plan
 - Typically: push selections down
 - Very limited: no longer used today
- Cost-based optimizers:
 - Use a cost model to estimate the cost of each plan
 - Select the "cheapest" plan
 - We focus on cost-based optimizers

Three Approaches to Search Space Enumeration

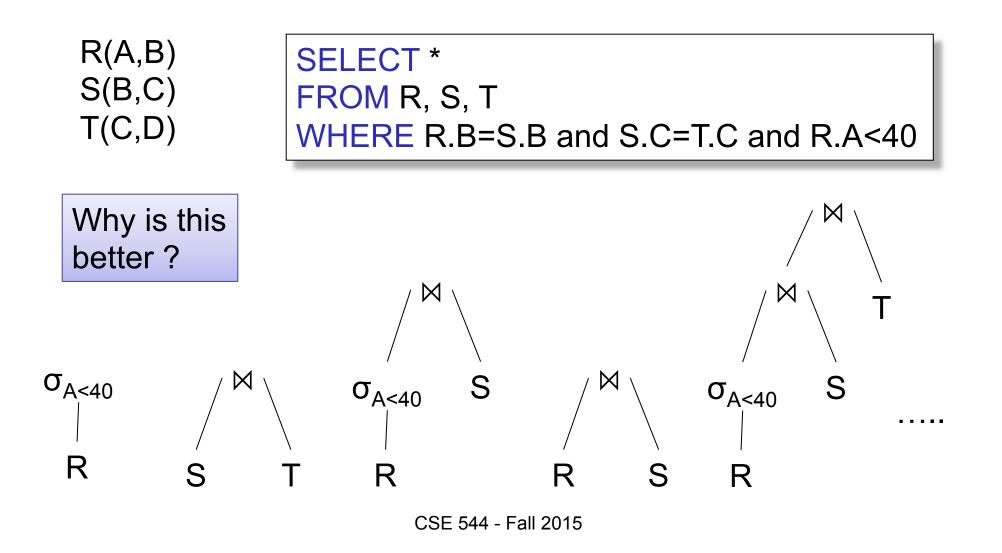
- Complete plans
- Bottom-up plans
- Top-down plans

Complete Plans

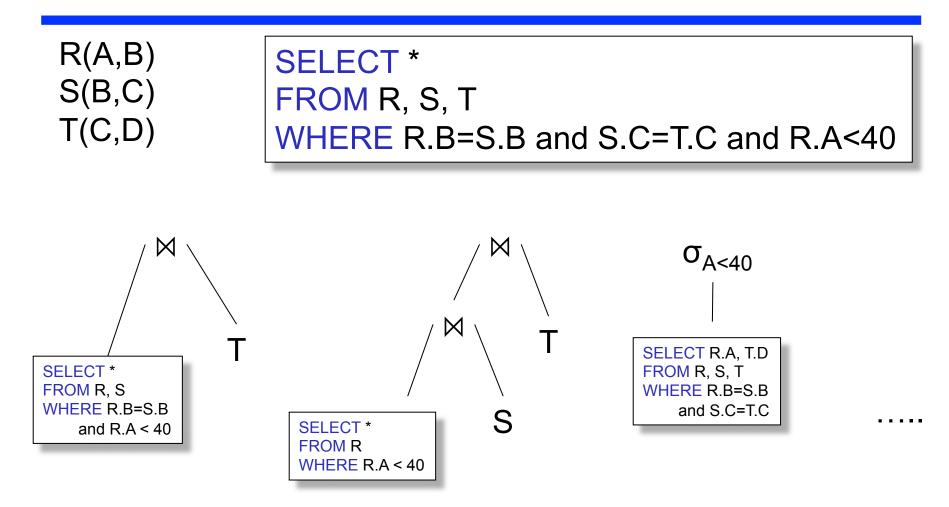


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Bottom-up Partial Plans



Top-down Partial Plans



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Two Types of Plan Enumeration Algorithms

- Dynamic programming (in class)
 - Based on System R (aka Selinger) style optimizer[1979]
 - Limited to joins: *join reordering algorithm*
 - Bottom-up
- Rule-based algorithm (will not discuss)
 - Database of rules (=algebraic laws)
 - Usually: dynamic programming
 - Usually: top-down

System R Search Space

- Only left-deep plans
 - Enable dynamic programming for enumeration
 - Facilitate tuple pipelining from outer relation
- Consider plans with all "interesting orders"
- Perform cross-products after all other joins (heuristic)
- Only consider nested loop & sort-merge joins
- Consider both file scan and indexes
- Try to evaluate predicates early

Plan Enumeration Algorithm

- Idea: use dynamic programming
- For each subset of {R1, ..., Rn}, compute the best plan for that subset
- In increasing order of set cardinality:
 - Step 1: for {R1}, {R2}, …, {Rn}
 - $Step 2: for {R1,R2}, {R1,R3}, ..., {Rn-1, Rn}$
 - ...
 - Step n: for {R1, ..., Rn}
- It is a bottom-up strategy
- A subset of {R1, ..., Rn} is also called a *subquery*

- For each subquery Q ⊆{R1, ..., Rn} compute the following:
 - Size(Q)
 - A best plan for Q: Plan(Q)
 - The cost of that plan: Cost(Q)

- **Step 1**: Enumerate all single-relation plans
 - Consider selections on attributes of relation
 - Consider all possible access paths
 - Consider attributes that are not needed
 - Compute cost for each plan
 - Keep cheapest plan per "interesting" output order

- **Step 2**: Generate all two-relation plans
 - For each each single-relation plan from step 1
 - Consider that plan as outer relation
 - Consider every other relation as inner relation
 - Compute cost for each plan
 - Keep cheapest plan per "interesting" output order

- **Step 3**: Generate all three-relation plans
 - For each each two-relation plan from step 2
 - Consider that plan as outer relation
 - Consider every other relation as inner relation
 - Compute cost for each plan
 - Keep cheapest plan per "interesting" output order
- Steps 4 through n: repeat until plan contains all the relations in the query

Commercial Query Optimizers

DB2, Informix, Microsoft SQL Server, Oracle 8

- Inspired by System R
 - Left-deep plans and dynamic programming
 - Cost-based optimization (CPU and IO)
- Go beyond System R style of optimization
 - Also consider right-deep and bushy plans (e.g., Oracle and DB2)
 - Variety of additional strategies for generating plans (e.g., DB2 and SQL Server)

Other Query Optimizers

• Randomized plan generation

- Genetic algorithm
- PostgreSQL uses it for queries with many joins

• Rule-based

- *Extensible* collection of rules
- Rule = Algebraic law with a direction
- Algorithm for firing these rules
 - Generate many alternative plans, in some order
 - Prune by cost
- Startburst (later DB2) and Volcano (later SQL Server)