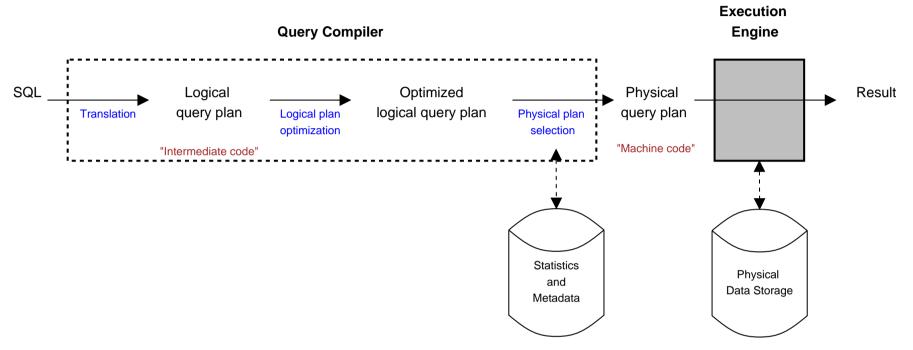
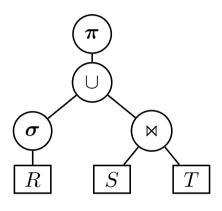
Cost-Based Plan Selection Enumerate, Estimate, Select



Components of the query compiler that we already know:

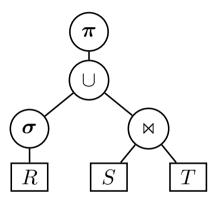
- ullet SQL o relational algebra (i.e., a logical query plan)
- ullet Logical query plan o optimized logical query plan

The next step: logical query plan \rightarrow physical query plan



- To obtain a physical query plan we need to assign to each node in the logical query plan a physical operator.
- We want to obtain the physical plan with the smallest total execution cost.
- Hence, we need to compare, for every node and every applicable physical operator, its cost.
- In order to estimate this cost we need (among others) the parameters B(R), T(R), and $V(R,A_1,\ldots,A_n)$
- These belong to the statistics that a DBMS typically stores in its system catalog
- But these statistics only exist for the relations stored in the database, not for subresults computed during query evaluation!

Result size estimation



- ullet For every internal node n we hence need to estimate the parameters B(n), T(n), and $V(n,A_1,\ldots,A_k)$
- Note that we can compute B(n) given (1) T(n);
 (2) the size of the tuples output by n; and (3) the size of a block
- Also note that T(n) and $V(n, A_1, \ldots, A_k)$ only depend on the logical query plan, not on the physical plan that we are computing!

Result size estimation: projection

- General formula: $T(\pi_L(R)) = T(R)$
- ullet Remember that our version of the projection operator is bag-based and does not remove duplicates; to remove duplicates we use the operator δ .
- While projection does not change the number of tuples, it does change the number of blocks needed to store the resulting relation, as illustrated by the following example.

Example

- R(A,B,C) is a relation with A and B integers of 4 bytes each; C a string of 100 bytes. Tuple headers are 12 bytes. Blocks are 1024 bytes and have headers of 24 bytes. T(R)=10000 and B(R)=1250.
- Question: how many blocks do we need to store $\pi_{A,B}(R)$?

Result size estimation: projection

- General formula: $T(\pi_L(R)) = T(R)$
- Remember that our version of the projection operator is bag-based and does not remove duplicates; to remove duplicates we use the operator δ .
- While projection does not change the number of tuples, it does change the number of blocks needed to store the resulting relation, as illustrated by the following example.

Example

- R(A,B,C) is a relation with A and B integers of 4 bytes each; C a string of 100 bytes. Tuple headers are 12 bytes. Blocks are 1024 bytes and have headers of 24 bytes. T(R)=10000 and B(R)=1250.
- **Answer:** resulting records need to record the header + A-field + B-field. The size of these records is hence 12+4+4=20 bytes. We can hence store (1024-24)/20=50 tuples in one block. Thus $B(\pi_{A,B}(R))=T(\pi_{A,B}(R))/50=10000/50=200$ blocks.

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_P(R)$ with P a filter predicate

• General formula:

$$T(\sigma_P(R)) = T(R) \times \mathit{sel}_P(R)$$

where $sel_P(R)$ is the estimated fraction of tuples in R that satisfy predicate P.

- In other words, $sel_P(R)$ is the estimated probability that a tuple in R satisfies P.
- $sel_P(R)$ is usually called the selectivity of filter predicate P.
- ullet How we calculate $sel_P(R)$ depends on what P is.

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A=c}(R)$ with c a constant

$$sel_{A=c}(R) = rac{1}{V(R,A)}$$

- Intuition: there are V(R,A) distinct A-values in R. Assuming that A-values are uniformly distributed, the probability that a tuple has A-value c is 1/V(R,A).
- ullet While this intuition assumes that values are uniformly distributed, it can be shown that this selectivity is a good estimate on average, provided that c is chosen randomly.

Example

- R(A, B, C) is a relation. T(R) = 10000. V(R, A) = 50.
- Then $T(\sigma_{A=10}(R))$ is estimated by:

$$T(\sigma_{A=10}(R)) = T(R) \times \frac{1}{V(R,A)} = \frac{10000}{50} = 200.$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A=c}(R)$ with c a constant

- Better selectivity estimates are possible if we have more detailed statistics
- A DBMS typically collects histograms that detail the distribution of values.
- Such histograms are only available for base relations, however, not for subresults!

Example

ullet R(A,B,C) is a relation. The DBMS has collected the following equal-width histogram on A:

• Then $sel_{A=10}(R)$ can be estimated by:

$$sel_{A=10}(R) = \frac{50}{10000} \times \frac{1}{10}$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A < c}(R)$

$$sel_{A < c}(R) = \frac{1}{2}$$
 or $sel_{A < c}(R) = \frac{1}{3}$

- This is just a heuristic, without any correctness guarantees.
- (The intuitive rationale is that queries involving an inequality tend to retrieve a small fraction of the possible tuples.)

Example

- R(A, B, C) is a relation. T(R) = 10000.
- Then $T(\sigma_{B<10}(R))$ is estimated by:

$$T(\sigma_{B<10}(R)) = T(R) \times \frac{1}{3} = 3334.$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A < c}(R)$

• Again, better estimates are possible if we have more detailed statistics

Example

- R(A,B,C) is a relation. T(R)=10000. The DBMS statistics show that the values of the B attribute lie within the range [8,57], uniformly distributed.
- Question: what would be a reasonable estimate of $sel_{B<10}(R)$?

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A < c}(R)$

Again, better estimates are possible if we have more detailed statistics

Example

- R(A,B,C) is a relation. T(R)=10000. The DBMS statistics show that the values of the B attribute lie within the range [8,57], uniformly distributed.
- Question: what would be a reasonable estimate of $sel_{B<10}(R)$?
- Answer: We see that 57 8 + 1 different values of B are possible; however only records with values B = 8 or B = 9 satisfy the filter B < 10. Therefore,

$$sel_{B<10}(R) = \frac{2}{(57-8+1)} = \frac{2}{50} = 4\%$$

and hence

$$T(\sigma_{B<10}(R)) = T(R) \times sel_{B<10}(R) = 400.$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A\neq c}(R)$

$$sel_{A
eq c}(R) = rac{V(R,A)-1}{V(R,A)}$$

• Question: Can you give intuitive meaning to this formula?

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{A\neq c}(R)$

$$sel_{A
eq c}(R) = rac{V(R,A)-1}{V(R,A)}$$

- Question: Can you give intuitive meaning to this formula?
- ullet Answer: 1/V(R,A) is the (estimated) probability that a tuple satisfies A=c. Therefore

$$1 - sel_{A=c}(R) = 1 - \frac{1}{V(R,A)} = \frac{V(R,A) - 1}{V(R,A)}$$

is the (estimated) probability that a tuple does not satisfy A=c.

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{\text{NOT }P_1}(R)$

$$\boxed{\textit{sel}_{\mathsf{NOT}\ P_1}(R) = 1 - \textit{sel}_{P_1}(R)}$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{P_1 \text{ AND } P_2}(R)$

$$|\mathit{sel}_{P_1}|_{\mathsf{AND}}|_{P_2}(R) = \mathit{sel}_{P_1}(R) \times \mathit{sel}_{P_2}(R)$$

- \bullet This implicitly assumes that filter predicates P_1 and P_2 are independent.
- ullet Hence, in essence we treat σ_{P_1} AND $P_2(R)$ as $\sigma_{P_1}(\sigma_{P_2}(R))$
- ullet The order does not matter, treating this as $\sigma_{P_2}(\sigma_{P_1}(R))$ gives the same results.

Example

- R(A, B, C) is a relation. T(R) = 10000. V(R, A) = 50.
- Then we estimate $T(\sigma_{A=10 \text{ AND } B<10}(R)$ to be:

$$T(R) \times sel_{A=10}(R) \times sel_{B<10}(R) = T(R) \times \frac{1}{V(R,A)} \times \frac{1}{3} = 67.$$

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{P_1 \text{ OR } P_2}(R)$

$$sel_{P_1 \text{ OR } P_2}(R) = \min(sel_{P_1}(R) + sel_{P_2}(R), 1)$$

- The term $sel_{P_1}(R) + sel_{P_2}(R)$ implicitly assumes that filter predicates P_1 and P_2 are independent, and select disjoint sets of tuples.
- Disjointness is often not satisfied and then we count some tuples twice.
- But of course, the selectivity can never be greater than 1.
- Hence, we take the minimum of these two terms.

Result size estimation: selection $\sigma_{P_1 \text{ OR } P_2}(R)$

More complicated: treat this as $\sigma_{\text{NOT(NOT }P_1 \text{ AND NOT }P_2)}(R)).$

$$sel_{P_1 \text{ OR } P_2}(R) = 1 - (1 - sel_{P_1}(R)) \times (1 - sel_{P_2}(R))$$

Result size estimation: cartesian product $R \times S$

• General formula:

$$\boxed{T(R \times S) = T(R) \times T(S)}$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Assume the relation schema R(X,Y) and S(Y,Z), i.e., we join on Y.
- Many cases are possible
 - \circ It is possible that R and S do not have any Y value in common. In that case, $T(R\bowtie S)=0.$
 - $\circ Y$ might be the key of S and a foreign key of R, so each tuple of R joins with exactly one tuple of S. Then $T(R \bowtie S) = T(R)$.
 - \circ Almost all of the tuples of R and S could have the same Y-value. Then $T(R \bowtie S)$ is approximately $T(R) \times T(S)$.

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Assume the relation schema R(X,Y) and S(Y,Z), i.e., we join on Y.
- To focus on the common cases, we make two simplifying assumptions.
 - 1. Containment of value sets If attribute Y appears in several relations, then each relation chooses its values from a fixed list of values y_1, y_2, y_3, \ldots As a consequence, if $V(R,Y) \leq V(S,Y)$ then every Y-value of R will have a joining tuple Y-value in S.
 - 2. Preservation of value sets When joining two relations, any attribute that is not a join attribute does not lose values from its set of possible values: for such attributes $V(R\bowtie S,A)=V(R,A)$, when A is in R and $V(R\bowtie S,A)=V(S,A)$ otherwise.

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Assume the relation schema R(X,Y) and S(Y,Z), i.e., we join on Y.
- Under these assumptions, we can estimate as follows.
 - 1. Case 1: $V(R,Y) \leq V(S,Y)$. Then every tuple of R has $\frac{1}{V(S,Y)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of S. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y)}\times T(S)$$

2. Case 2: $V(S,Y) \leq V(R,Y)$. Then every tuple of S has $\frac{1}{V(R,Y)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of R. Hence

$$T(R \bowtie S) = T(R) \times \frac{1}{V(R,Y)} \times T(S)$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Assume the relation schema R(X,Y) and S(Y,Z), i.e., we join on Y.
- Under these assumptions, we can estimate as follows.
 - 1. Case 1: $V(R,Y) \leq V(S,Y)$. Then every tuple of R has $\frac{1}{V(S,Y)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of S. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y)}\times T(S)$$

2. Case 2: $V(S,Y) \leq V(R,Y)$. Then every tuple of S has $\frac{1}{V(R,Y)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of R. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(R,Y)}\times T(S)$$

General formula:

$$T(R \bowtie S) = T(R) \times T(S) \times \frac{1}{\max(V(R,Y),V(S,Y))}$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Now assume the relation schema $R(X,Y_1,Y_2)$ and $S(Y_1,Y_2,Z)$, i.e., we join on Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Under the same assumptions as before, we can estimate as follows.

Case 1: $V(R, Y_1) \leq V(S, Y_1)$ and $V(R, Y_2) \leq V(S, Y_2)$.

Then a tuple of R has $\frac{1}{V(S,Y_1)} \times \frac{1}{V(S,Y_2)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of S. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y_1)}\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y_2)}\times T(S)$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- Now assume the relation schema $R(X,Y_1,Y_2)$ and $S(Y_1,Y_2,Z)$, i.e., we join on Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Under the same assumptions as before, we can estimate as follows.

Case 2: $V(S, Y_1) \leq V(R, Y_1)$ and $V(S, Y_2) \leq V(R, Y_2)$.

Then a tuple of S has $\frac{1}{V(R,Y_1)} \times \frac{1}{V(R,Y_2)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of R. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(R,Y_1)}\times\frac{1}{V(R,Y_2)}\times T(S)$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- Now assume the relation schema $R(X,Y_1,Y_2)$ and $S(Y_1,Y_2,Z)$, i.e., we join on Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Under the same assumptions as before, we can estimate as follows.

Case 3: $V(R, Y_1) \leq V(S, Y_1)$ and $V(S, Y_2) \leq V(R, Y_2)$.

Then a tuple of R has $\frac{1}{V(S,Y_1)} \times \frac{1}{V(R,Y_2)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of S. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y_1)}\times\frac{1}{V(R,Y_2)}\times T(S)$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Now assume the relation schema $R(X,Y_1,Y_2)$ and $S(Y_1,Y_2,Z)$, i.e., we join on Y_1 and Y_2 .
- Under the same assumptions as before, we can estimate as follows.

Case 4: $V(S, Y_1) \leq V(R, Y_1)$ and $V(R, Y_2) \leq V(S, Y_2)$.

Then a tuple of R has $\frac{1}{V(R,Y_1)} \times \frac{1}{V(S,Y_2)}$ chance of joining with a given tuple of S. Hence

$$T(R\bowtie S)=T(R)\times\frac{1}{V(R,Y_1)}\times\frac{1}{V(S,Y_2)}\times T(S)$$

Result size estimation: natural join $R \bowtie S$

- ullet Now assume the relation schema $R(X,Y_1,Y_2)$ and $S(Y_1,Y_2,Z)$, i.e., we join on Y_1 and Y_2 .
- General formula:

$$T(R \bowtie S) = \frac{T(R) \times T(S)}{\max(V(R, Y_1), V(S, Y_1)) \max(V(R, Y_2), V(S, Y_2))}$$

• This generalizes straightforwardly to the case where we are joining on more than 2 attributes.

Result size estimation

- Intersection $R \cap S$, Difference R S, duplicate elimination $\delta(R)$, Grouping and aggregation $\gamma(R)$
 - \rightarrow see section 16.4 in the book
- A DBMS often also collects more detailed statistics
 - \rightarrow see sections 16.5.1 and 16.5.2 in the book
- As should be clear by now, result size estimation is not an exact art
- For commercial DBMSs, the software component that estimates result sizes is intricate and advanced!

Join ordering

During the optimization of the logical query plan we:

- remove redundant joins;
- push selections and projections; recognize joins.

The order in which the joins are to be executed is not yet fixed, however!

Join ordering

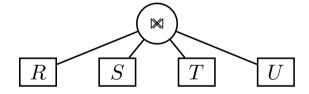
Example: relations R(A,B), S(B,C), T(C,D), U(D,A) and the query

SQL: SELECT * FROM R,S,T,U

WHERE R.B = S.B AND S.C = T.C AND T.D = U.D

Algebra: $R \bowtie S \bowtie T \bowtie U$

• So far, we have always considered the join as a polyadic operator:



After all, the join order is irrelevant for logical query plans.

- However, physical join operators are binary!
- When devising a physical query plan, the join order therefore becomes very important, as we illustrate next.

Join ordering

Example: relations R(A,B), S(B,C), T(C,D), U(D,A) and the query

SQL: SELECT * FROM R,S,T,U

WHERE R.B = S.B AND S.C = T.C AND T.D = U.D

Algebra: $R \bowtie S \bowtie T \bowtie U$

We can interpret this as:

$$((R \bowtie S) \bowtie T) \bowtie U$$
 or $(R \bowtie S) \bowtie (T \bowtie U)$ or ...

But also as:

$$((R \bowtie T) \bowtie U) \bowtie S$$
 or $((R \bowtie S) \bowtie U) \bowtie T$ of ...

Join ordering

The chosen order can influence the total cost of the physical query plan.

Consider, for example, R(A,B), S(B,C), T(A,E). Assume

$$B(R) = 50$$
 $B(S) = 50$ $B(T) = 50$ $B(R \bowtie S) = 150$ $B(S \bowtie T) = 2500$ $B(R \bowtie T) = 200$

Further assume that we execute all joins by means of the one-pass algorithm. What is the best order to compute $R \bowtie S \bowtie T$?

1. Cost of $R \bowtie (S \bowtie T)$:

$$B(R) + B(S \bowtie T) + B(S) + B(T) = 2650$$

2. Cost of $S \bowtie (R \bowtie T)$:

$$B(S) + B(R \bowtie T) + B(R) + B(T) = 350$$

3. Cost of $T \bowtie (R \bowtie S)$:

$$B(T) + B(R \bowtie S) + B(R) + B(S) = 300$$

Join ordering

- To obtain the physical plan with the least cost we would hence have to enumerate and compare every possible join ordering.
- The number of possible orderings to join n relations is $n! \times T(n)$:
 - \circ There are n! ways to order the relations to join
 - \circ Given a fixed ordering, there are T(n) ways to create a binary tree over n leaf nodes, where

$$T(1) = 1$$
 $T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T(i) \times T(n-i)$

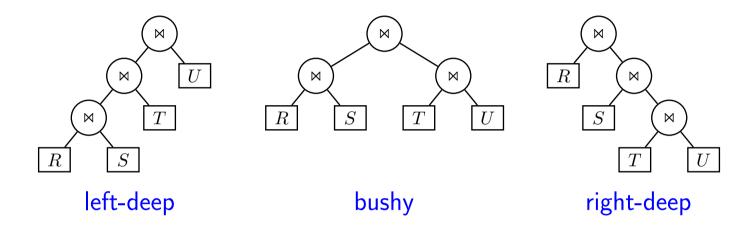
Join ordering

• The resulting search space is enormous.

Number of relations n	$n! \times T(n)$
2	2
3	12
4	120
5	1,680
6	30,240
7	665,580
8	17,297,280

- For each of these plans, we have to consider all possible assignments of physical join algorithms to logical join operators to get the plan with the least cost.
 - ightarrow Query optimization should in no case take more time than the actual execution of the query. We will therefore not consider all possible orders, but only a limited subclass.

Kinds of join orderings



In practice a query compiler usually only considers left-deep join orderings:

- \bullet There are still n! possible orderings of this form, but that is already a lot less.
- Left-deep orderings use, in general, less memory. Furthermore, in general they require fewer subresults to be stored.
- \rightarrow See section 16.6.3 in the book

Plan selection

To compute the best physical plan for a given logical query plan we should, in principle:

- 1. Calculate all possible (left-deep) join orderings of the logical plan
- 2. For each such plan calculate all possible assignments of physical operators to the nodes
- 3. From this enormous pile of candidate physical query plans choose the one with the least estimated cost.

There are exponentially many candidate physical query plans

- Query compilation should in no case take longer than the actual execution of the query!
- In general it is hence impossible to inspect all candidate physical plans.

Heuristics: Branch-and-Bound Plan Enumeration; Hill Climbing; Dynamic Programming; Selinger-Style; Greedy

 \rightarrow See section 16.5.4, 16.6.4 and 16.6.5 in the book

Greedy plan selection

In the exercises we will use the following greedy algorithm.

- Start with a logical query plan without join ordering.
- We work bottom-up: first we assign physical operators to the leaves, then to the parents of the leaves, then to their parents, and so on. At each point we choose the physical operator with the least cost.
- ullet When we reach a join operator (e.g., $R \bowtie S \bowtie T \bowtie U$) and need to determine an ordering of its various members then:
 - 1. We start by joining the two relations for which the best physical join algorithm yields the smallest cost
 - \rightarrow e.g., execute $R \bowtie T$ through a hash-join
 - 2. Add, from the remaining relations (S or U), those relations to the join for which the best physical join-algorithm yields the smallest cost.
 - ightarrow e.g., $(R \bowtie T) \bowtie U$ through a one-pass join
 - 3. Repeat the previous step until we have a complete join ordering.

Greedy plan selection

- This is a generalization of the greedy algorithm to compute a join ordering described in section 16.6.6 from the book. However, we use I/O operations as our cost metric instead of the size of the intermediate results as done in the book.
- Often, the leaves of the logical query plan are selections. We have seen two physical operators for selections: table-scan and index-scan. The book describes in section 16.7.1 how we can choose the best selection method when the selection condition is complex.

Greedy plan selection need not return the optimal plan

• It may return a more expensive join ordering. For example:

$$R(A,B)\bowtie S(B,C)\bowtie T(C,D)\bowtie U(A,D)$$

Assume: the greedy algorithm computes $((R \bowtie S) \bowtie T) \bowtie U)$ with

$$B(R\bowtie S)=100 \qquad \qquad B((R\bowtie S)\bowtie T)=2000$$

Assume: the alternative ordering $((R \bowtie U) \bowtie T) \bowtie S$ yields

$$B(R\bowtie U)=200 \hspace{1cm} B((R\bowtie U)\bowtie T)=1000$$

When we hence execute the joins using the one-pass algorithm we get the following costs, respectively:

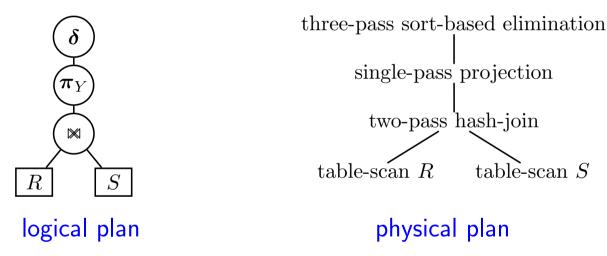
1.
$$B(R) + B(S) + B(R \bowtie S) + B(T) + B((R \bowtie S) \bowtie T) + B(U)$$

2.
$$B(R) + B(U) + B(R \bowtie U) + B(T) + B((R \bowtie U) \bowtie T) + B(S)$$

The second ordering yields a saving of 900 I/Os.

Greedy plan selection need not return the optimal plan

• It does not take into account the properties of the output of an operator. For example (R and S share only the Y attribute):

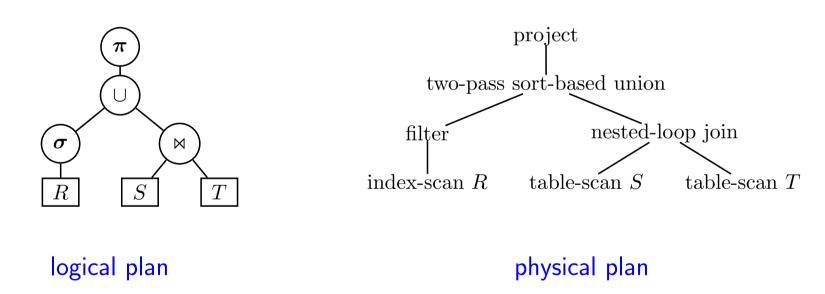


Consider the setting where there is limited memory available. The optimized sort-merge join is not applicable; only the non-optimized version. In this case the two-pass hash-join is cheaper, and is hence selected by the greedy algorithm. Because the output of $R \bowtie S$ is large, we will eventually have to remove duplicates by means of a three-pass algorithm.

If, however, we had executed the join by means of a two-pass sort-merge join, then its result would have been sorted on Y and we would have been able to compute the duplicate removal by means of the one-pass algorithm instead of the three-pass one. In that case, the total costs would have been smaller (check this!)

Finally

The result of the greedy algorithm is an execution tree in which every node is a physical operator.

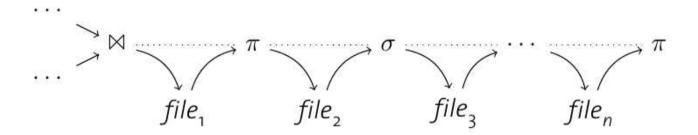


We remain to decide, for every internal node, whether we will materialize or pipeline the subresults.

 \rightarrow See sections 16.7.3, 16.7.4, and 16.7.5

Pipelining versus materialization

So far, we have assumed that all database operators consume items on disk, and produce their result on disk.



- This causes a lot of I/O.
- In addition, we suffer from long response times since an operator cannot start computing its result before **all** of its inputs are fully generated ("materialized")

Pipelining versus materialization

Alternatively, each operator could pass its result directly to the next operator. This is called pipelining.

When executed in a pipelined manner, an operator

- Starts computing results as early as possible, i.e., as soon as enough input data is available to start producing output.
- Doesn't wait until the entire output is computed, but propagates its output immediately.

The granularity in which data is passed may influence performance:

- Small chunks yield better system response time.
- Large chunks may improve the effectiveness of caches.
- Most often, data is passed a tuple at a time.

Examples of operators that can be pipelined

- projection
- selection
- renaming
- bag-based union
- merge-joins for which the input are already known to be sorted

Pipelining versus materialization

Pipelining reduces memory requirements and response times since each chunk of its input is propagated to the output immediately.

Some operators cannot be implemented in such a way:

- operators based on (external) sorting (i.e. sort-merge join)
- operators based on external hashing (i.e., hash join)
- grouping and duplicate elimination over unsorted input

Operators that cannot be pipelined are said to be blocking

- Blocking operators consume their entire input before they can produce any output.
- Their data is typically materialized on disk.