Implementation of Relational Operations

CS 186, Spring 2006,
Lecture 14&15  R&G Chapters 12/14

First comes thought; then organization of that thought, into ideas and plans; then transformation of those plans into reality. The beginning, as you will observe, is in your imagination.

Napoleon Hill

Introduction

- We’ve covered the basic underlying storage, buffering, and indexing technology.
- We’ve also covered the basic SQL language.

Now we can move on to query processing.

- Some database operations are EXPENSIVE
- Can greatly improve performance by being “smart”
  - e.g., can speed up 1,000,000x over naïve approach
- Main weapons are:
  1. clever implementation techniques for operators
  2. exploiting “equivalencies” of relational operators
  3. using statistics and cost models to choose among these.

A Really Bad Query Optimizer

- For each Select-From-Where query block
  - Create a plan that:
    - Forms the cartesian product of the FROM clause
    - Applies the WHERE clause
    - Incredibly inefficient
      - Huge intermediate results!
  
  - Then, as needed:
    - Apply the GROUP BY clause
    - Apply the HAVING clause
    - Apply any projections and output expressions
    - Apply duplicate elimination and/or ORDER BY

Cost-based Query Sub-System

Queries

Usually there is a heuristics-based rewriting step before the cost-based steps.

The Query Optimization Game

- “Optimizer” is a bit of a misnomer...
- Goal is to pick a “good” (i.e., low expected cost) plan.
  - Involves choosing access methods, physical operators, operator orders, ...
  - Notion of cost is based on an abstract “cost model”
- Roadmap for this topic:
  - First: basic operators
  - Then: joins
  - After that: optimizing multiple operators

Relational Operations

- We will consider how to implement:
  - Selection (σ) Selects a subset of rows from relation.
  - Projection (π) Deletes unwanted columns from relation.
  - Join (⋈) Allows us to combine two relations.
  - Set-difference (−) Tuples in reln. 1, but not in reln. 2.
  - Union (∪) Tuples in reln. 1 and in reln. 2.
  - Aggregation (SUM, MIN, etc.) and GROUP BY
- Since each op returns a relation, ops can be composed!
  After we cover the operations, we will discuss how to optimize queries formed by composing them.
**Schema for Examples**

Sailors (sid: integer, sname: string, rating: integer, age: real)
Reserves (sid: integer, bid: integer, day: dates, rname: string)

- Similar to old schema; rname added for variations.
- **Reserves:**
  - Each tuple is 40 bytes long, 100 tuples per page, 1000 pages.
- **Sailors:**
  - Each tuple is 50 bytes long, 80 tuples per page, 500 pages.

**Simple Selections**

- **Question:** how best to perform?
- **Depends on:**
  - what indexes/access paths are available
  - what is the expected size of the result (in terms of number of tuples and/or number of pages)

- **Size of result approximated as**
  \[
  \text{size of } R \times \text{reduction factor}
  \]
  - “reduction factor” is usually called **selectivity**.
  - estimate of reduction factors is based on statistics - we will discuss shortly.

**Alternatives for Simple Selections**

- **With no index, unsorted:**
  - Must essentially scan the whole relation
  - cost is \(M\) (#pages in R). For “reserves” = 1000 I/Os.
- **With no index, sorted:**
  - cost of binary search + number of pages containing results.
  - For reserves = 10 I/Os + [selectivity \* #pages]
- **With an index on selection attribute (alt 2 or 3):**
  - Use index to find qualifying data entries,
  - then retrieve corresponding data records.
  - (Hash index useful only for equality selections.)

**Using an Index for Selections**

- **Cost depends on #qualifying tuples, and clustering.**
- **Cost:**
  - finding qualifying data entries (typically small)
  - plus cost of retrieving records (could be large w/o clustering).
- **In example “reserves” relation, if 10% of tuples qualify (100 pages, 10000 tuples).**
  - With a **clustered** index, cost is little more than 100 I/Os;
  - if **unclustered**, could be up to 10000 I/Os! unless...

**Selections using Index (cont)**

- **Important refinement for unclustered indexes:**
  1. Using index, find the qualifying data entries.
  2. Sort the rid’s of the data records to be retrieved.
  3. Fetch rid’s in order. This ensures that each data page is looked at just once (though # of such pages likely to be higher than with clustering).

**Using an Index for Selections**

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- **Cost:**
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  - plus cost of retrieving records (could be large w/o clustering).
- **In example “reserves” relation, if 10% of tuples qualify (100 pages, 10000 tuples).**
  - With a **clustered** index, cost is little more than 100 I/Os;
  - if **unclustered**, could be up to 10,000 I/Os! unless... if you sort the RIDs, then you likely end up reading every page once, so 1,000 I/Os.
General Selection Conditions

- \( (\text{day} < 8/9/04 \text{ OR } \text{rname} = \text{Paul}) \text{ OR } \text{bid} = 5 \text{ OR } \text{sid} = 3 \)
- Such selection conditions are first converted to conjunctive normal form (CNF):
  - \( (\text{day} < 8/9/04 \text{ OR } \text{bid} = 5 \text{ OR } \text{sid} = 3 ) \text{ AND } (\text{rname} = \text{Paul} \text{ OR } \text{bid} = 5 \text{ OR } \text{sid} = 3) \)
- We only discuss the case with no ORs (a conjunction of terms of the form attr op value).
- A B-tree index matches (a conjunction of) terms that involve only attributes in a prefix of the search key.
  - Index on \(<a, b, c\>\) matches \(a = 5\ AND \ b = 3\), but not \(b = 3\) by itself.
- A Hash index must be on all of the attributes in the search key to match.

Cost-based Query Sub-System

Two Approaches to General Selections

- First approach:
  1. Find the most selective access path,
  2. Retrieve tuples using it, and
  3. apply any remaining terms that don’t match the index.

  - Most selective access path: An index or file scan that we estimate will require the fewest page I/Os.
  - Terms that match this index reduce the number of tuples retrieved; other terms are used to discard some retrieved tuples, but do not affect number of tuples/pages fetched.

Most Selective Index - Example

- Consider \(\text{day} < 8/9/04 \text{ AND } \text{bid} = 5 \text{ AND } \text{sid} = 3\).
- A B+ tree index on \(\text{day}\) can be used;
  - then, \(\text{bid} = 5\) and \(\text{sid} = 3\) must be checked for each retrieved tuple.
- Similarly, a hash index on \(<\text{bid}, \text{sid}>\) could be used;
  - Then, \(\text{day} < 8/9/04\) must be checked.
- How about a B+tree on \(<\text{name}, \text{day}>>\)?
- How about a B+tree on \(<\text{day}, \text{name}>>\)?
- How about a Hash index on \(<\text{day}, \text{name}>>\)?

Intersection of Rids

- Second approach if we have 2 or more matching indexes (w/Alternatives (2) or (3) for data entries):
  1. Get sets of rids of data records using each matching index.
  2. Then intersect these sets of rids.
  3. Retrieve records ; apply any remaining terms.

Consider \(\text{day} < 8/9/04 \text{ AND bid} = 5 \text{ AND sid} = 3\). With an index on \(\text{day}\) and an index on \(\text{sid}\), we can retrieve rids of records satisfying \(\text{day} < 8/9/04\) using the first, rids of recs satisfying \(\text{sid} = 3\) using the second, intersect, retrieve records and check \(\text{bid} = 5\).

- Note: commercial systems use various tricks to do this:
  - bit maps, bloom filters, index joins

The Halloween Problem - An Aside.

- Story from the early days of System R.
- While testing the optimizer on 10/31/75(?), the following update was run:
  
  ```sql
  UPDATE payroll
  SET salary = salary*1.1
  WHERE salary > 20K;
  
  AND IT NEVER STOPPED!
  ``
- Can you guess why??? (hint: it was an optimizer bug...)
**Schema for Examples**

- **Sailors (sid: integer, sname: string, rating: integer, age: real)**
- **Reserves (sid: integer, bid: integer, day: dates, rname: string)**

- **Similar to old schema; rname added for variations.**
- **Reserves:**
  - Each tuple is 40 bytes long, 100 tuples per page, 1000 pages. So, \( M = 1000, p_R = 100 \).
- **Sailors:**
  - Each tuple is 50 bytes long, 80 tuples per page, 500 pages.
  - So, \( N = 500, p_S = 80 \).

**Projection (DupElim)**

- **Issue is removing duplicates.**
- **Basic approach is to use sorting**
  - 1. Scan \( R \), extract only the needed attrs (why do this 1st?)
  - 2. Sort the resulting set
  - 3. Remove adjacent duplicates
  - **Cost:** Reserves with size ratio 0.25 = 250 pages. With 20 buffer pages can sort in 2 passes, so
    \[
    1000 \times 250 + (2 \times 2) \times 250 + 250 = 2500 \text{ I/Os}
    \]
    (note: each sort pass costs 2x I/Os - one read and one write)
- **Can improve by modifying external sort algorithm:**
  - Modify Pass 0 of external sort to eliminate unwanted fields.
  - Modify merging passes to eliminate duplicates.
  - **Cost:** for above case: read 1000 pages, write out 250 in runs of 40 pages, merge runs = 1000 + 250 + 250 = 1500.

**DupElim Based on Hashing**

- Just like our discussion of GROUP BY and aggregation from before!
  - But the aggregation function is missing
  - **SELECT DISTINCT R.sid, R.bid FROM Reserves R**
  - **SELECT R.sid, R.bid FROM Reserves R GROUP BY R.sid, R.bid**
- **Cost for Hashing? Without “hybrid”**
  - assuming partitions fit in memory (i.e. \( \#\text{bufs} \geq \text{square root of the \#of pages of projected tuples} \))
  - read 1000 pages and write out partitions of projected tuples (250 pages)
  - Do dup elim on each partition (total 250 page reads)
  - Total : 1500 I/Os.
- With *“hybrid hash”: subtract the I/O costs of 1st partition*

**Discussion of Projection**

- **Sort-based approach is the standard; better handling of skew and result is sorted.**
  - If enough buffers, sorting and hashing have the same I/O cost: \( M + 2T \) where \( M \) is \#pgs in \( R \), \( T \) is \#pgs of \( R \) with unneeded attributes removed.
  - If an index on the relation has all wanted attributes in its search key, can use it instead of the data file.
    - Index *“data entries”* likely much smaller than *“data records”*
  - If an ordered (i.e., tree) index contains all wanted attributes as prefix of search key, can do even better:
    - Retrieve data entries in order (index-only scan), discard unwanted fields, compare adjacent tuples to check for duplicates.

**DupElim & Indexes**

- **If an index on the relation contains all wanted attributes in its search key, can do index-only scan.**
  - Apply projection techniques to data entries (much smaller!)
- **If an ordered (i.e., tree) index contains all wanted attributes as prefix of search key, can do even better:**
  - Retrieve data entries in order (index-only scan), discard unwanted fields, compare adjacent tuples to check for duplicates.
- **Same tricks apply to GROUP BY/Aggregation**

**Joins**

- **Joins are very common.**
- **Joins can be very expensive (cross product in worst case).**
- **Many approaches to reduce join cost.**
Equality Joins With One Join Column

In algebra: \( R \Join S \). Common! Must be carefully optimized. \( R \times S \) is large; so, \( R \times S \) followed by a selection is inefficient.

Assume:
- \( M \) pages in \( R \), \( p_R \) tuples per page.
- \( N \) pages in \( S \), \( p_S \) tuples per page.
- In our examples, \( R \) is Reserves and \( S \) is Sailors.

Cost metric: # of I/Os. We will ignore output costs.

We will consider more complex join conditions later.

SELECT *
FROM Reserves R1, Sailors S1
WHERE R1.sid=S1.sid

foreach tuple \( r \) in \( R \) do
foreach tuple \( s \) in \( S \) do
if \( r_i == s_j \) then add \( <r, s> \) to result

Simple Nested Loops Join

foreach tuple \( r \) in \( R \) do
foreach tuple \( s \) in \( S \) do
if \( r_i == s_j \) then add \( <r, s> \) to result

- For each tuple in the outer relation \( R \), we scan the entire inner relation \( S \).
- How much does this Cost?
- \( (p_R \times M) \times N + M = 100,000 \times 500 + 1000 \) I/Os.
- At 10ms/I/O, Total: ???
- What if smaller relation (S) was outer?
- \( (p_S \times N) \times M + N = 40,000 \times 1000 + 500 \) I/Os.
- What assumptions are being made here?

Q: What is cost if one relation can fit entirely in memory?

Page-Oriented Nested Loops Join

foreach page \( b_R \) in \( R \) do
foreach page \( b_S \) in \( S \) do
foreach tuple \( r \) in \( b_R \) do
foreach tuple \( s \) in \( b_S \) do
if \( r_i == s_j \) then add \( <r, s> \) to result

- For each page of \( R \), get each page of \( S \), and write out matching pairs of tuples \( <r, s> \), where \( r \) is in \( R \)-page and \( S \) is in \( S \)-page.

What is the cost of this approach?

\( M \times N + M = 1000 \times 500 + 1000 \)
- If smaller relation (S) is outer, cost = \( 500 \times 1000 + 500 \)

Index Nested Loops Join

foreach tuple \( r \) in \( R \) do
foreach tuple \( s \) in \( S \) where \( r_i == s_j \) do
add \( <r, s> \) to result

- If there is an index on the join column of one relation (say \( S \)), we can make it the inner and exploit the index.
- Cost: \( M + (M \times p_R) \times \text{cost of finding matching } S \) tuples
- For each \( R \) tuple, cost of probing \( S \) index is about 1.2 for hash index, 2-4 for \( B+ \) tree.
- Cost of then finding \( S \) tuples (assuming Alt. (2) or (3) for data entries) depends on clustering.
- Clustered index: 1 I/O per page of matching \( S \) tuples.
- Unclustered: up to 1 I/O per matching \( S \) tuple.

Examples of Index Nested Loops

- Hash-index (Alt. 2) on \( sid \) of Sailors (as inner):
  - Scan Reserves: 1000 page I/Os, 100\(^{*}\)1000 tuples.
  - For each Reserves tuple: 1.2 I/Os to get data entry in index, plus 1 I/O to get (the exactly one) matching Sailors tuple. Total:
- Hash-index (Alt. 2) on \( sid \) of Reserves (as inner):
  - Scan Sailors: 500 page I/Os, 80\(^{*}\)500 tuples.
  - For each Sailors tuple: 1.2 I/Os to find index page with data entries, plus cost of retrieving matching Reserves tuples. Assuming uniform distribution, 2.5 reservations per sailor (100,000 / 40,000). Cost of retrieving them is 1 or 2.5 I/Os depending on whether the index is clustered.
  - Totals:

Block Nested Loops Join

- Page-oriented NL doesn’t exploit extra buffers.
- Alternative approach: Use one page as an input buffer for scanning the inner \( S \), one page as the output buffer, and use all remaining pages to hold “block” of outer \( R \).
- For each matching tuple \( r \) in \( R \)-block, \( s \) in \( S \)-page, add \( <r, s> \) to result. Then read next \( R \)-block, scan \( S \), etc.
Examples of Block Nested Loops

- Cost:
  Scan of outer + #outer blocks * scan of inner
  - #outer blocks = ceiling(#pages of outer/blocksize)
- With Reserves (R) as outer, and 100 pages of R:
  - Cost of scanning R is 1000 I/Os; a total of 10 blocks.
  - Per block of R, we scan Sailors (S): 10*500 I/Os.
  - If space for just 90 pages of R, we would scan S 12 times.
- With 100-page block of Sailors as outer:
  - Cost of scanning S is 500 I/Os; a total of 5 blocks.
  - Per block of S, we scan Reserves; 5*1000 I/Os.
- With sequential reads considered, analysis changes: may be best to divide buffers evenly between R and S.

Example of Sort-Merge Join

- Cost: Sort R + Sort S + (M+N)
  - The cost of scanning, M+N, could be M*N (very unlikely!)
  - With 35, 100 or 300 buffer pages, both Reserves and Sailors can be sorted in 2 passes; total join cost: 7500.
  (BNL cost: 2500 to 15000 I/Os)

Refinement of Sort-Merge Join

- We can combine the merging phases in the sorting of R and S with the merging required for the join.
  - Allocate 1 page per run of each relation, and `merge' while checking the join condition
  - With \( B > \sqrt{L} \), where \( L \) is the size of the larger relation, using the sorting refinement that produces runs of length 28 in Pass 0, #runs of each relation is < B/2.
  - Cost: read+write each relation in Pass 0 + read each relation in (only) merging pass (+ writing of result tuples).
  - In example, cost goes down from 7500 to 4500 I/Os.
  - In practice, cost of sort-merge join, like the cost of external sorting, is \textit{linear}.

Hash-Join

- Partition both relations using hash fn \( h \): R tuples in partition \( i \) will only match S tuples in partition \( i \).
  - Read in a partition of R, hash it using \( h \), then scan matching partition of S, probe hash table for matches.

Observations on Hash-Join

- \#partitions \( k < B \), and \( B-1 > \) size of largest partition to be held in memory. Assuming uniformly sized partitions, and maximizing \( k \), we get:
  \[ k = B-1, \quad M/(B-1) < B-2 \]
  - Since we build an in-memory hash table to speed up the matching of tuples in the second phase, a little more memory is needed.
  - If the hash function does not partition uniformly, or more R partitions may not fit in memory. Can apply hash-join technique recursively to do the join of this R-partition with corresponding S-partition.
Cost of Hash-Join

- In partitioning phase, read+write both relations; \(2(M+N)\) I/Os.
- In matching phase, read both relations; \(M+N\) I/Os.
- In our running example, this is a total of 4500 I/Os.
- Sort-Merge Join vs. Hash Join:
  - Given a minimum amount of memory (what is this, for each?) both have a cost of \(3(M+N)\) I/Os. Hash Join superior on this count if relation sizes differ greatly. Also, Hash Join shown to be highly parallelizable.
  - Sort-Merge less sensitive to data skew; result is sorted.

General Join Conditions

- Equalities over several attributes (e.g., \(R.sid=S.sid\) AND \(R.rname=S.sname\)):
  - For Index NL, build index on \(<sid, sname>\) (if S is inner); or use existing indexes on \(sid\) or \(sname\).
  - For Sort-Merge and Hash Join, sort/partition on combination of the two join columns.
- Inequality conditions (e.g., \(R.rname < S.sname\)):
  - For Index NL, need (clustered!) B+ tree index.
  - Range probes on inner; # matches likely to be much higher than for equality joins.
  - Hash Join, Sort Merge Join not applicable!
  - Block NL quite likely to be the best join method here.

Set Operations

- Intersection and cross-product special cases of join.
- Union (Distinct) and Except similar; we'll do union.
- Sorting based approach to union:
  - Sort both relations (on combination of all attributes).
  - Scan sorted relations and merge them.
  - Alternative: Merge runs from Pass 0 for both relations.
- Hash based approach to union:
  - Partition R and S using hash function \(h\).
  - For each S-partition, build in-memory hash table (using \(h2\)), scan corr. R-partition and add tuples to table while discarding duplicates.

Aggregate Operations (AVG, MIN, etc.)

- Without grouping:
  - In general, requires scanning the relation.
  - Given index whose search key includes all attributes in the SELECT or WHERE clauses, can do index-only scan.
- With grouping:
  - Sort on group-by attributes, then scan relation and compute aggregate for each group. (Better: combine sorting and aggregate computation.)
  - Similar approach based on hashing on group-by attributes.
  - Given tree index whose search key includes all attributes in SELECT, WHERE and GROUP BY clauses, can do index-only scan; if group-by attributes form prefix of search key, can retrieve data entries/tuples in group-by order.

Impact of Buffering

- If several operations are executing concurrently, estimating the number of available buffer pages is guesswork.
- Repeated access patterns interact with buffer replacement policy.
  - e.g., Inner relation is scanned repeatedly in Simple Nested Loop Join. With enough buffer pages to hold inner, replacement policy does not matter. Otherwise, MRU is best, LRU is worst (sequential flooding).
  - Does replacement policy matter for Block Nested Loops?
  - What about Index Nested Loops? Sort-Merge Join?

Summary

- A virtue of relational DBMSs: queries are composed of a few basic operators; the implementation of these operators can be carefully tuned (and it is important to do this!).
- Many alternative implementation techniques for each operator; no universally superior technique for most operators.
- Must consider available alternatives for each operation in a query and choose best one based on system statistics, etc. This is part of the broader task of optimizing a query composed of several ops.