MDA104 Introduction to Databases 5. Query Processing

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Query Processing

Overview

- Evaluation of Expressions
- Measures of Query Cost
- Evaluation algorithms
 - □ Sorting
 - Join Operation

Basic Steps in Query Processing

- 1. Parsing and translation
- 2. Optimization



Basic Steps in Query Processing (Cont.)

- Parsing and translation
 - □ Translate the SQL query into its internal form.
 - This is then translated into relational algebra.
 - Parser checks syntax, verifies relations
- Optimization
 - Generate a query-evaluation plan and choose algorithms for evaluating individual operations
- Evaluation
 - □ The query-execution engine takes a query-evaluation plan, executes that plan, and returns the answers to the query.

Basic Steps in Query Processing (Cont.)

- Example of query:
 - List salary of all instructors that earn less than \$75,000.
- □ SQL query
 - □ SELECT salary FROM instructor WHERE salary < 75000
- Conversion to rel. algebra
 - $\Box \prod_{salary}(\sigma_{salary<75000}(instructor))$

Basic Steps: Optimization

- A relational-algebra expression may have many equivalent expressions:
 - $\Box \prod_{salary}(\sigma_{salary<75000}(instructor))$
 - $\Box \sigma_{salary < 75000}(\prod_{salary}(instructor))$
- For a relational-algebra expression, an expression tree is created



Basic Steps: Optimization (Cont.)

- 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 execution-plan or evaluation-plan.
 - □ E.g., to find instructors with salary < 75000
 - <u>use an index on salary</u>, or
 - □ perform <u>complete relation scan</u> and discard instructors with salary \ge 75000

Basic Steps: Optimization (Cont.)

Example of an evaluation-plan



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.
- □ There is a huge number of possible evaluation plans
 - Optimization uses some heuristics
 - 1. Perform selection early
 - reduce the number of tuples (by using an index, e.g.)
 - 2. Perform projection early
 - reduce the number of attributes
 - 3. Perform most restrictive operations early
 - such as join and selection.

Evaluation of Expressions

□ Alternatives for evaluating an entire expression tree

Materialization

- Evaluate one operation at a time, starting at the lowest-level.
- Use intermediate results materialized into temporary relations to evaluate next-level operations.

Pipelining

 pass on tuples to parent operations even as an operation is being executed

Evaluation of Expressions (Cont.)

Materialized evaluation

- □ Compute $\sigma_{building=`Watson'}$ (*department*) and store it
- Then read from stored intermediate result and compute its join with *instructor*, store it
- Finally read it and compute the projection on *name* and output it.





Measures of Query Cost

- Cost 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

Measures of Query Cost (Cont.)

- For simplicity we just use the number of block transfers from disk and the number of seeks as the cost measures
 - \Box t_T time to transfer one block
 - \Box $t_{\rm S}$ time for one seek
 - □ Cost for *b* block transfers plus *S* seeks $b * t_T + S * t_S$
- □ We ignore CPU costs for simplicity
 - Real systems do take CPU cost into account
- We do not include cost to writing output to disk in our cost formulae

Measures of Query Cost (Cont.)

- Several algorithms can reduce disk I/O by using extra buffer space
 - Amount of real memory available to buffer depends on other concurrent queries and OS processes, known only during execution
 - We often use worst case estimates, assuming only the minimum amount of memory needed for the operation is available
- □ Required data may be buffer resident already, avoiding disk I/O
 - But hard to take into account for cost estimation

Selection Operation

- □ **File scan** (table / sequential scan) no index structure is necessary
 - Scan each file block and test all records to see whether they satisfy the selection condition.
 - □ Cost estimate = b_r block transfers + 1 seek

 \Box *b_r* denotes number of blocks containing records from relation *r*

- □ If selection is on a key attribute, can stop on finding matching 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

Selections Using Indices

- □ **Index scan** search algorithms that use an index
 - selection condition must be on search-key of index
- □ Now, assume the sequential file is ordered by this key:
- □ Algorithm for primary index & equality on primary key
 - Retrieve a single record that satisfies the corresponding equality condition
 - $\Box \quad Cost = (h_i + 1) * (t_S + t_T)$
 - □ h_i height of index *i* (for hashing h_i =1)
 - □ +1 for reading the actual record

□ Algorithm for primary index & equality on non-primary key

- Retrieve multiple records.
- Records will be on consecutive blocks

□ Let b = number of blocks containing all n matching records

$$\Box \quad Cost = h_i * (t_S + t_T) + t_S + t_T * b$$

Selections Using Indices

- □ Algorithm for secondary index & equality on non-primary key
 - Sequential file is not ordered by this search key!
 - Retrieve a single record if the search-key is a candidate key

 $\Box Cost = (h_i + 1) * (t_S + t_T)$

- Retrieve multiple records if search-key is not a candidate key
 - Each of *n* matching records may be on a different block.

$$\Box \ Cost = (h_i + n)^* (t_S + t_T)$$

Can be very expensive!

Sorting Relations

- We may build an index on the relation, and then use the index to read the relation in the sorted order.
 - □ May lead to one disk block access for each tuple.
- □ Use a sorting algorithm
 - For relations that fit in memory, techniques like quick-sort can be used.
 - For relations that don't fit in memory, external sort-merge is a good choice.

External Sort-Merge

Let *M* denote memory size (in pages/blocks):

1. Create sorted *runs*. Let *i* be 0 initially.

Repeatedly do the following till 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.)

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.
- 2. Read the first block of each run into its buffer page

3. 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.
- 3. 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.
- 4. **until** all input buffer pages are empty.

External Sort-Merge (Cont.)

- If $N \ge M$, several merge *passes* are required.
 - □ In each pass, continuous 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 till all runs have been merged into one.

Example: External Sorting Using Sort-Merge



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External Sort-Merge (Cont.)

- Cost analysis:
 - □ Total number of merge passes required: $\lceil \log_{M-1}(b_r/M) \rceil$.
 - 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
 - Thus total number of block transfers for external sorting: $b_r(2 \lceil \log_{M-1}(b_r/M) \rceil + 1)$
 - Seeks: next slide

Join Operation

- Several different algorithms to implement joins
 - Nested-loop join
 - Block nested-loop join
 - Improved nested-loop join by reading records in blocks
 - Indexed nested-loop join
 - Improved by using an index to look up equal records
 - Merge-join
 - Hash-join
- Choice based on cost estimate
 - □ For each of the variants a cost estimation can be stated.

Nested-Loop Join

- \Box To compute the join $r \bowtie s$
- □ 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 equality on shared attributes if they do, add $t_r \cdot t_s$ to the result. end end
- \Box *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.
 - $\Box \quad Cost = n_r * (t_S + t_T) * (n_s * (t_S + t_T))$

• where n_r = number of tuples in r

Nested-Loop Join (Cont.)

In the worst case, if there is enough memory only to hold <u>one block of each</u> relation, the estimated cost is

 $n_r * b_s + b_r$ block transfers, plus

 $n_r + b_r$ seeks

Example on student and takes

□ *student* (the smaller one) as the outer relation:

□ 5000 * 400 + 100 = 2,000,100 block transfers,

□ 5000 + 100 = 5,100 seeks

□ takes (the larger one) as the outer relation

□ 10000 * 100 + 400 = 1,000,400 block transfers and 10,400 seeks

□ If the smaller relation fits entirely in memory, use that as the inner relation.

- □ Reduces cost to $b_r + b_s$ block transfers and 2 seeks
- Example: *student* fits entirely in memory

□ the cost estimate is 500 block transfers.

□ Block nested-loops algorithm (next slide) is preferable.

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Block Nested-Loop Join
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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
```

```
Cost: b_r * (1+b_s) blocks; b_r * (1+1) seeks
```

□ For *student* (outer) and *takes* (inner):

□ 100 + 100 * 400 = 40,100 block transfers

□ 100 + 100 seeks

 $n_{student} = 5,000$ b_{student}=100 $n_{takes} = 10,000$ $b_{takes} = 400$

Merge-Join

- 1. Sort both relations on their join attributes
 - □ If not already sorted.
- 2. Merge the sorted relations to join them
 - Join step is similar to the merge stage of the sort-merge algorithm.
 - Main difference is handling of duplicate values in join attribute
 - Every pair with same value on join attribute must be matched



a1 a3



Merge-Join (Cont.)

- □ Can be used only for equi-joins and natural joins
- Each block needs to be read only once
 - assuming all tuples for any given value of the join attributes fit in memory
- Thus the cost of merge join is:

 \square $b_r + b_s$ block transfers, and

 \square max. 2* $\lceil b_r / b_b \rceil$ + 1 seeks

• Assuming we read r in runs of b_b blocks

□ + the cost of sorting if relations are unsorted.

Hash-Join

- □ A hash function *h* is used to partition tuples of both relations
 - □ JoinAttrs are the common attributes of r and s used in $r \bowtie s$
- $\square h maps JoinAttrs values to \{0, 1, ..., n\}$
 - r₀, r₁, ..., r_n denote buckets of r
 Each tuple t_r ∈ r is put in bucket r_i
 where i = h(t_r[JoinAttrs]).
 - *s*₀, *s*₁, ..., *s*_n denotes buckets of *s* Each tuple *t*_S ∈ *s* is put in bucket *s*_i,
 where *i* = *h*(*t*_S [JoinAttrs]).

Hash-Join (Cont.)



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Hash-Join (Cont.)

- \Box Tuples in r_i need only to be compared with tuples in s_i
 - □ Need not be compared with *s* tuples in any other bucket, since:
 - a tuple of r and a tuple of s that satisfy the join condition will have the same value for the join attributes.
 - If that value is hashed to some value *i*, the tuple of *r* has to be in r_i and the tuple of *s* in s_i .
- □ Cost of hash join is $3(b_r + b_s)$ block transfers
 - □ $3^*(100+400)$ for student \bowtie takes



Summary – Takeaways

- □ Steps in query processing
- □ Idea of query optimization
 - expression transformations (in parse tree)
 - □ selection of algorithm to evaluate an operator
 - index vs table scan
- □ Algorithms
 - Sorting large relations (exceeding RAM allocation)
 - Joining relations
 - nested loops, merge join, hash join