



Lecture 18 - Algorithms for Query Processing and Optimisation

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Reading

• Chapter 19 from Fundamentals of Database Systems by Elmazri and Navathe

Summary

- Query Tree Notation
- Query Tree Optimisation
- Query Transformation Rules
- An Algebraic Query Optimisation Algorithm
- Selectivity and Cost Estimations

Query Tree Notation

- A Query Tree is a data structure that corresponds to a relational algebra expression.
 - The inputs to the relation are the leaf nodes.
 - The RA operations are represented by the internal nodes of the tree.
- Example:

 $\pi_{pnumber,dnum,lname,addres}$ ((aplocation=Staffor PROJECT))

 $\bowtie_{dnum=dnumb}(DEPARTMENT))$

```
\bowtie_{mgrssn=ss}(EMPLOYEE))
```

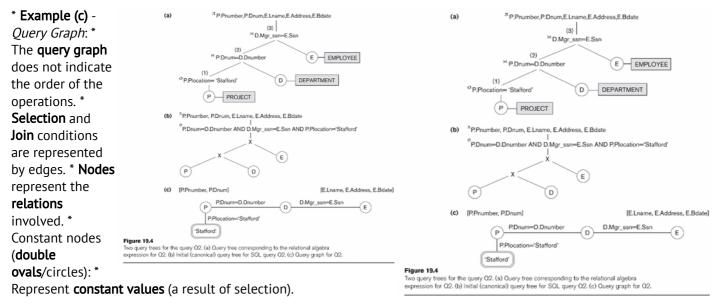
Query Tree Notation

* **Example (a)** - *Query Tree*: * The **leaves** represent the **relations**. * **Operations** are represented by **nodes**. * The **query tree** also represents an order of operations of the RA expression. * Bottom up, the order can be derived. * SQL:

Query Tree Notation

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COSC210 Lecture 18



• **Query trees** are the preferred representation as the optimiser needs to show the order of operations for query executions.

Query Tree Optimisation

- Multiple different RA expressions (and there query trees) can be equivalent.
 - Yielding the same results, but some will be more efficient than others.
- The query parser will generate an initial tree:
 - This is depicted in Figure 19.4 (b).
 - The 'X' symbols represent cartesian product.
 - This is very inefficient.
 - This is a standard form that can be generated from the SQL query.

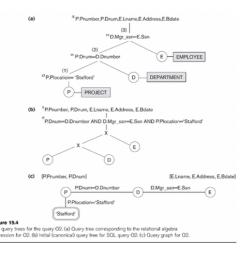
Query Tree Optimisation

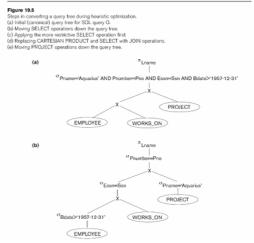
- Initial canonical query tree (a):
 - Optimisation process involves moving the operations down the query tree.
 - 1. Move the SELECT operations down the tree (b).
 - 2. Re-organise the tree: the most selective operations appear first (c).
 - 3. Cartesian product operations are replaced with joins (d).
 - 4. Then the **projections** are moved down the tree (e).
- A motivating Example:

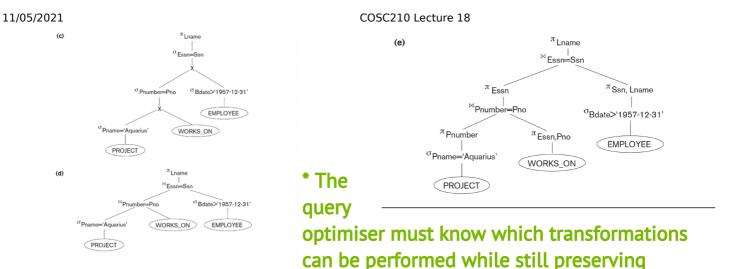
```
SELECT lname
FROM EMPLOYEE, WORKS_ON, PROJECT
WHERE pname = 'Aquarius' AND pnumber=pno AND
            essn=ssn AND bdate > '1957-12-31'
```

Query Tree Optimisation

• Steps 2, 3 and 4 of optimizing the query tree:







equivalence.

Query Tree Optimisation.

- Transformation rules can be used to perform optimisations of RA expressions, these include:
 - Commutativity:
 - Operations who's order can be changed, in and outside parathesis.
 - E.g. $\sigma_{c_1}(\sigma_{c_2}(R))\equiv\sigma_{c_2}(\sigma_{c_1}(R))$
 - Associativity:
 - Where the emphasis on individual operations in an expression can be changed.
 - E.g. $(R \ \theta \ S) \ \theta \ T \equiv R \ \theta \ (S \ \theta \ T)$
 - Cascades:
 - Conditions that can be broken up into individual operations.
 - E.g. $\sigma_{c_1 AND c_2 AND.. AND}(R) \equiv \sigma_{c_1}(\sigma_{c_2}(\dots(\sigma_{c_n}(R))\dots))$

Query Transformation Rules

- Cascade of σ A conjunctive selection conditions:
 - $\circ~$ Can be broken up into a cascade of individual σ operations:
 - $\sigma_{c_1 AND c_2 AND..AND}(R) \equiv \sigma_{c_1}(\sigma_{c_2}(\ldots(\sigma_{c_n}(R))\ldots))$
- **Commutativity** of σ . The σ operation is commutative:
 - Same result regardless of order:

$^*\sigma_{c_1}(\sigma_{c_2}(R))\equiv\sigma_{c_2}(\sigma_{c_1}(R))$

Query Transformation Rules

- Cascade of π:
 - $\circ~$ In a cascade (sequence) of π operations, all but the last one can be ignored:
 - $\pi_{List_1}(\pi_{List_2}(\dots(\pi_{List_n}(R))\dots)) \equiv \pi_{List_1}(R)$
- Commuting σ with $\pi:$
 - If the selection condition inolves Attributes A_1, \ldots, A_n in the projection list,
 - The two operations can be commuted:

 $\circ \pi_{A_1,A_2,...,A_n}(\sigma_c(R))\equiv\sigma_c(\pi_{A_1,A_2,...,A_n}(R))$

Query Transformation Rules

- Commutativity of \bowtie (and ×).
 - The **join** operation is commutative, as is the **×** operation:

 - $\circ \ R \times S \equiv S \times R$
- Note: the order of the attributes may be different in the result

Query Transformation Rules

- Commuting σ with \Join (or \times):
 - Conditions on the attributes of one relation can be commuted.
 - $\circ \ \sigma_c(R \Join S) \equiv (\sigma_c(R)) \Join S$
 - Conditions on individual relations can also be communted.
 - $\circ \ \, \sigma_{\!c}(R \Join S) \equiv (\sigma_{\!c_1}(R)) \Join (\sigma_{\!c_2}(S))$
- The same rules apply if the is replaced by a × operation.

Query Transformation Rules

- Commuting π with \bowtie (or \varkappa):
 - Projections on attributes of individual relations can be communited.
 - $\circ \ \pi_L(R \bowtie_e S) \equiv (\pi_{A_1, \ldots, A_n}(R)) \bowtie_e (\pi_{B_1}, \ldots, B_m(S))$
- If the join condition (c) includes additional attributes not in L:
 - These must be added to the projection list.

Query Transformation Rules

- Set operations (excluding MINUS) are commutative.
- JOIN, CARTESIAN PRODUCT, UNION and INTERSECTION are all individually associative:
 - $\circ \ (R \ \theta \ S) \ \theta \ T \equiv R \ \theta \ (S \ \theta \ T)$
- Theta represents any of these operations.

Query Transformation Rules

- Commuting σ with set operations.
- The σ operation commutes with U, \cap and –:
 - $\circ \ \sigma_c(R \ heta \ S) \equiv (\sigma_c(R)) \ heta \ (\sigma_c(S))$

Query Transformation Rules

- The π operation commutes with U:
 - $\circ \ \pi_L(R\cup S)\equiv (\pi_L(R))\cup (\pi_L(S))$
- Finally we can Convert a (σ, \star) sequence into \bowtie .
 - $\circ \ \ (\sigma_{\!c}(R \times S)) \equiv (R \Join_{\!c} S)$

An Algebraic Query Optimisation Algorithm

- We can now apply these transformations to our queries to optimise for execution.
- This **algorithm** outline 6 Broad Stages:
 - Step 1:
 - We use rule (1) to break up the **conjunctive** conditions within any select operations.
 - Step 2:
 - The next step is to apply the commutativity of the SELECT operation (rule 2).
 - The select operations can be moved down the query tree as far as possible.
 - SELECT operations with attributes from a single table can be moved to a leaf node.
 - SELECT operations that involve attributes from multiple tables represent a **join condition**.
 - These can only be placed after the tables have been combined.

An Algebraic Query Optimisation Algorithm

- Algorithm continued:
 - Step 3:
 - Next we use the rules for **commutativity** and **associativity** of the binary operations.
 - The SELECT operations with the lowest selectivity are moved so they executed first.
 - This should be done so that the select operation is only carried out on already joined relations.
 - If the SELECT involves attributes from multiple tables.
 - Step 4:

* CARTESIAN PRODUCT operations are combined SELECT operations to produce a JOIN (rule 12).

An Algebraic Query Optimisation Algorithm

- Algorithm continued:
 - Step 5:
 - Using the rules regarding the PROJECT operation can be applied.
 - The **projection** operations should be pushed down the tree as far possible.
 - Only the attributes required in the final result or subsequent operations should be retained after each project.
 - This may require the creation of new project operations

An Algebraic Query Optimisation Algorithm

- Algorithm continued:
 - Step 6:

- Identify subtrees that represent groups that can be executed by a single algorithm.
- Figure 19.5 uses this approach to optimise the example shown.
- The main idea behind this algorithm is reduce the size of the intermediate results as early as possible.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- The query optimiser:
 - Does not solely rely on the heuristic rules for improving performance.
 - The query optimiser compares different strategies and chooses the strategy with the *lowest* cost.
- The optimiser must also limit the number of possibilities tested.
 - This process is best suited to compiled queries.
 - Optimisation is not carried out at runtime.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- The cost components that contribute to the total cost of query execution include:
 - Access to secondary storage: Hard drive speed.
 - Intermediate disk usage: Cache.
 - Computation Costs: Sorting/searching/merging.
 - Memory Usage Cost: Block reads.
 - Communication: Between the database and application.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- In order to calculate the costs the execution strategies:
 - The DBMS must maintain a catalogue of information.
 - Some if the information stored includes:
 - File information such as:
 - Tuple counts.
 - Record size.
 - Number of blocks.
 - Blocking factor.
 - Index levels and number of first level indexes.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- Other information stored includes:
 - The number of distinct values.
 - The **selectivity** for each attribute.
- Some of this information is relatively static, other items change constantly.
- The optimiser needs reasonably up-to-date information for optimisation.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- Some examples of Cost estimations on the SELECT operation:
 - Linear search:
 - Complexity: linear: O(N) worst case.
 - Binary Search:
 - Complexity: logarithmic: $O(log_2b)$ file blocks accessed.
 - Primary key index:
 - Complexity: constant: O(1) one access for each level of the index.
 - Plus one access for the actual record.
 - B-Tree Index:
 - Complexity: O(log(nodes)) one block access for each level of the B-Tree.
 - Plus one access for the data.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- Some examples of the cost estimations on the Join operation:
 - Where relation R has b_r blocks and S has b_s blocks:
 - Nested-Loop Join: If R is in the outer loop:
 - $C_{J1} = b_R + (b_R * b_S) + ((j_s * |R| * |S|)/bfr_{RS})$

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

CARTESIAN PRODUCT:

• First we examine the possible join ordering.

• The potential join orders without considering the

* Example query: * Suppose it has the following meta data in the catalogue.

```
SELECT P.pnumber, P.dnum, E.lname, E.address, E.bdat
FROM PROJECT as P, DEPARTMENT as D, EMPLOYEE as E
WHERE P.dnum = D.dnum AND D.mgrssn = E.ssn AND
     P.plocation = 'Stafford
```



Sample statistical information for relations in O2. (a) Column information. (b) Table information. (c) Index information.

(a)

a

(c)

Table_name	Column_name	Num_distinct	Low_value	High_value
PROJECT	Plocation	200	1	200
PROJECT	Pnumber	2000	1	2000
PROJECT	Dnum	50	1	50
DEPARTMENT	Dnumber	50	1	50
DEPARTMENT	Mgr_ssn	50	1	50
EMPLOYEE	Ssn	10000	1	10000
EMPLOYEE	Dno	50	1	50
EMPLOYEE	Salary	500	1	500

Table_name	Num_rows	Blocks
PROJECT	2000	100
DEPARTMENT	50	5
EMPLOYEE	10000	2000

Index_name	Uniqueness	Blevel*	Leaf_blocks	Distinct_keys
PROJ_PLOC	NONUNIQUE	1	4	200
EMP_SSN	UNIQUE	1	50	10000
EMP_SAL	NONUNIQUE	1	50	500

 $PROJECT \bowtie DEPARTMENT \bowtie EMPLOYEE$ $DEPARTMENT \bowtie PROJECT \bowtie EMPLOYEE$ $DEPARTMENT \bowtie EMPLOYEE \bowtie PROJECT$ $EMPLOYEE \bowtie DEPARTMENT \bowtie PROJECT$

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- Starting with the join between PR0JECT and DEPARTMENT:
 - DEPARTMENT doesn't have any indexing structures (based upon the info in table 19.8).
 - As a result, a linear search is the only option.

- The PROJECT table has the PROJ_PLOC index on the project name attribute.
 - This index is non-unique, so the optimiser will assume a uniform distribution.
 - From this the number of corresponding rows for each key value can be estimated.
- Using this information, the optimiser can estimate the total **block accesses** for the operation.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- We then calculate the cost of the second join:
 - This operation can make use of the single-loop join.
 - As there is an index on the EMPLOYEE relation.
 - The block accesses for each item is given by (x+1) where x is the level.
 - For PROJECT x=2, therefore 10 lookups will result in 30 block accesses.
 - $Selectivity \times Num_rows = 10$
 - Where, $selectivity = 1/Num_distinct$
- The optimiser can than add the total cost of the operation up.

Selectivity and Cost Estimations

- The optimiser can then perform similar calculations on the other potential join combinations.
- The cheapest approach can then be selected.

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