

Optimizer Optimizer Implementation Part 2





Carnegie Mellon University

LAST CLASS

Choice #1: Heuristics

- \rightarrow INGRES, Oracle (until mid 1990s)
- Choice #2: Heuristics + Cost-based Join Search
- \rightarrow System R, early IBM DB2, most open-source DBMSs

Choice #3: Stratified Search

 \rightarrow IBM's STARBURST (late 1980s), now IBM DB2 + Oracle

Choice #4: Unified Search

 \rightarrow Volcano/Cascades in 1990s, now MSSQL + Greenplum

Choice #5: Randomized Search

 \rightarrow Academics in the 1980s, current Postgres

STRATIFIED SEARCH

First rewrite the logical query plan using transformation rules.

- \rightarrow The engine checks whether the transformation is allowed before it can be applied.
- \rightarrow Cost is never considered in this step.

Then perform a cost-based search to map the logical plan to a physical plan.

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UNIFIED SEARCH

Unify the notion of both logical \rightarrow logical and logical \rightarrow physical transformations. \rightarrow No need for separate stages because everything is

→ No need for separate stages because everything is transformations.

This approach generates many transformations, so it makes heavy use of memoization to reduce redundant work.



TOP-DOWN VS. BOTTOM-UP

Top-down Optimization

- → Start with the outcome that the query wants, and then work down the tree to find the optimal plan that gets you to that goal.
- \rightarrow **Examples**: Volcano, Cascades

Bottom-up Optimization

- \rightarrow Start with nothing and then build up the plan to get to the outcome that you want.
- \rightarrow **Examples**: System R, Starburst

TODAY'S AGENDA

Unified Search Randomized Search Real-World Implementations Unnesting Subqueries

CASCADES OPTIMIZER

Object-oriented implementation of the previous Volcano query optimizer.

→ **Top-down approach** (backward chaining) using branchand-bound search.

Supports expression re-writing through a direct mapping function rather than an exhaustive search.



Graefe



15-721 (Spring 2024)

CASCADES: KEY IDEAS

Optimization tasks as data structures. \rightarrow Patterns to match + Transformation Rule to apply

Rules to place property enforcers.

 \rightarrow Ensures the optimizer generates correct plans.

Ordering of moves by promise.

 \rightarrow Dynamic task priorities to find optimal plan more quickly.

Predicates as logical/physical operators.

 \rightarrow Use same pattern/rule engine for expressions.

EFFICIENCY IN THE COLUMBIA DATABASE OUERY OPTIMIZER PORTLAND STATE UNIVERSITY MS THESIS 1991

CASCADES: EXPRESSIONS

```
    An <u>expression</u> represents some operation in the query with zero or more input expressions.
    → Optimizer needs to quickly determine whether two expressions are equivalent.
```

```
SELECT * FROM A
JOIN B ON A.id = B.id
JOIN C ON C.id = A.id;
```

Logical Expression: (A ⋈ B) ⋈ C Physical Expression: (A_{Seq} ⋈_{HJ} B_{Seq}) ⋈_{NL} C_{Idx}

CASCADES: GROUPS

A **group** is a set of logically equivalent logical and physical expressions that produce the same output. \rightarrow All logical forms of an expression.

 \rightarrow All physical expressions that can be derived from selecting the allowable physical operators for the corresponding logical forms.

dno.	Output: [ABC]	2. (B⋈C)⋈A	Physical Exps1. $(A_{Seq} \bowtie_{NL} B_{Seq}) \bowtie_{NL} C_{Seq}$ 2. $(B_{Seq} \bowtie_{NL} C_{Seq}) \bowtie_{NL} A_{Seq}$
Gr	Properties: <i>None</i>	3. (A⋈C)⋈B 4. A⋈(B⋈C) ⋮	3. $(A_{Seq} \bowtie_{NL} C_{Seq}) \bowtie_{NL} B_{Seq}$ 4. $A_{Seq} \bowtie_{NL} (C_{Seq} \bowtie_{NL} B_{Seq})$:

CASCADES: GROUPS

A **group** is a set of logically equivalent logical and physical expressions that produce the same output. \rightarrow All logical forms of an expression.

 \rightarrow All physical expressions that can be derived from selecting the allowable physical operators for the corresponding logical forms.



Equivalent Expressions

CASCADES: MULTI-EXPRESSION

Instead of explicitly instantiating all possible expressions in a group, the optimizer implicitly represents redundant expressions in a group as a **multi-expression**.

 \rightarrow This reduces the number of transformations, storage overhead, and repeated cost estimations.

Output: [ABC]	Logical Multi-Exps 1. [AB]⋈[C] 2. [BC]⋈[A] 2. [AC]⋈[B]	Physical Multi-Exps 1. [AB]⋈ _{SM} [C] 2. [AB]⋈ _{HJ} [C] 3. [AB]⋈ [C]
Properties: <i>None</i>	3. [AC]⋈[B] 4. [A]⋈[BC] ⋮	3. [AB]⋈ _{NL} [C] 4. [BC]⋈ _{SM} [A] ⋮

CASCADES: RULES

- A <u>**rule</u>** is a transformation of an expression to a logically equivalent expression.</u>
- → **Transformation Rule:** Logical to Logical
- → **Implementation Rule:** Logical to Physical

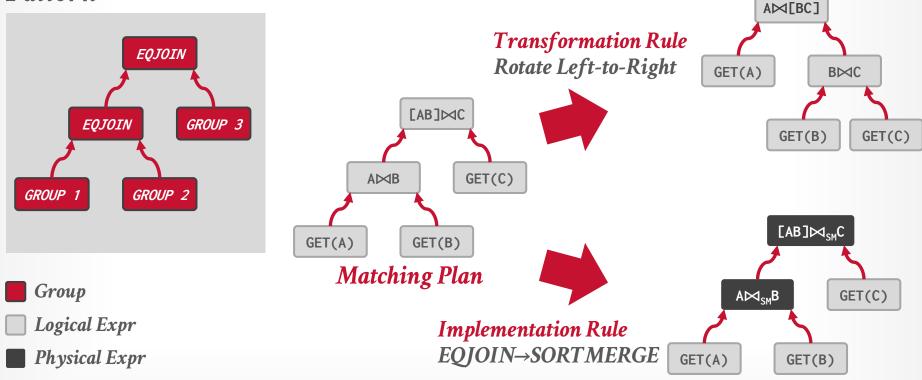
Each rule is represented as a pair of attributes:

- \rightarrow <u>**Pattern**</u>: Defines the structure of the logical expression that can be applied to the rule.
- \rightarrow **Substitute**: Defines the structure of the result after applying the rule.

CASCADES: RULES

Pattern

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Stores all previously explored alternatives in a compact graph structure / hash table.

Equivalent operator trees and their corresponding plans are stored together in groups.

Provides an overview of the optimizer's search progress that is used in multiple ways:

- \rightarrow Transformation Result Memorization
- \rightarrow Duplicate Group Detection
- \rightarrow Property + Cost Management.

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PRINCIPLE OF OPTIMALITY

Every sub-plan of an optimal plan is itself optimal.

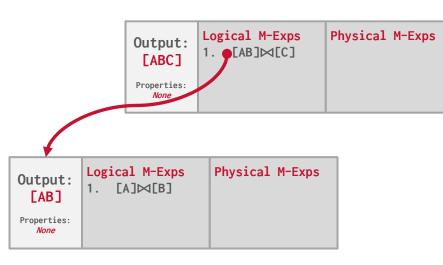
This allows the optimizer to restrict the search space to a smaller set of expressions.

→ The optimizer never has to consider a plan containing subplan P1 that has a greater cost than equivalent plan P2 with the same physical properties.

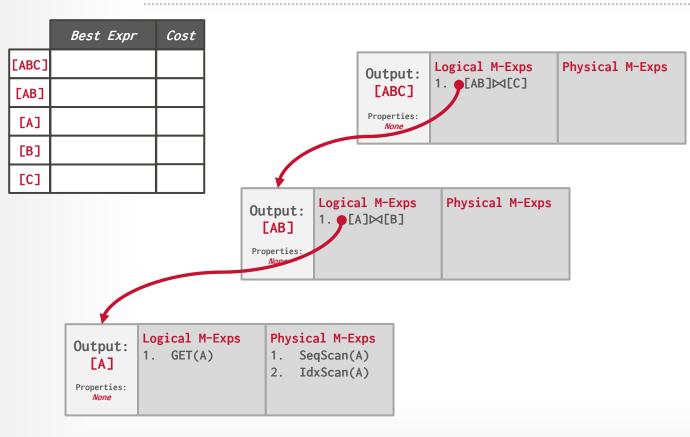


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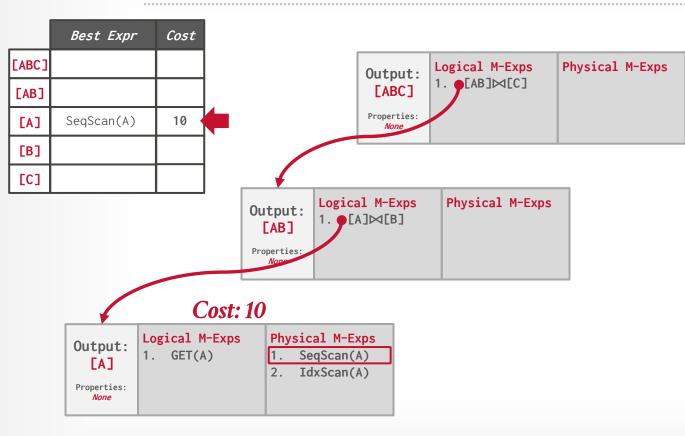




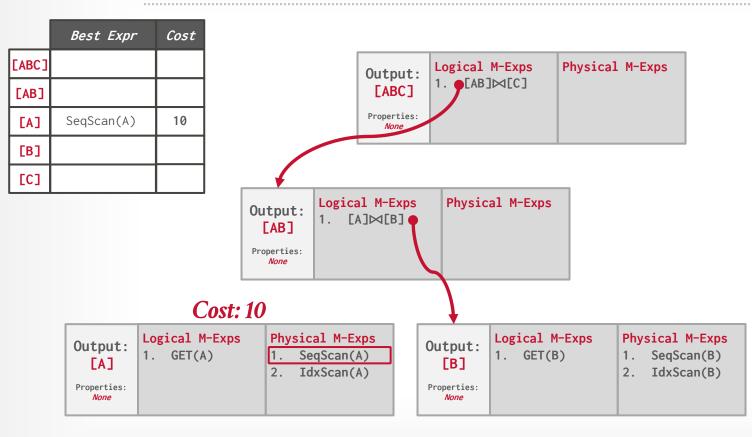




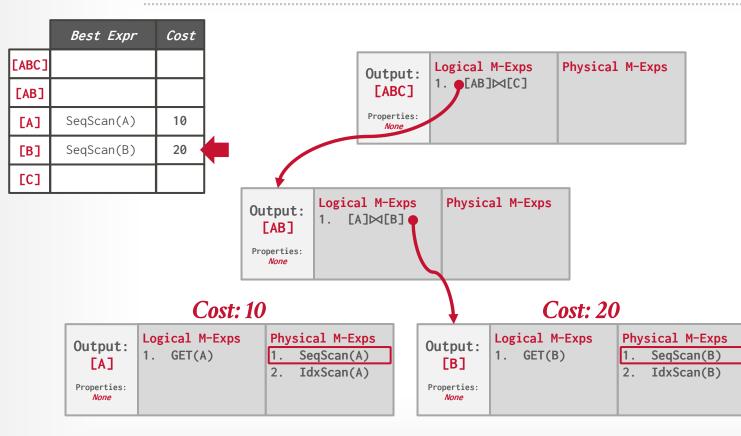




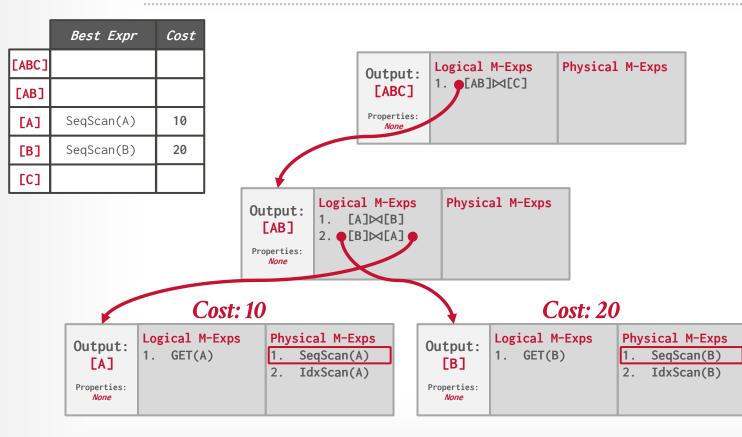
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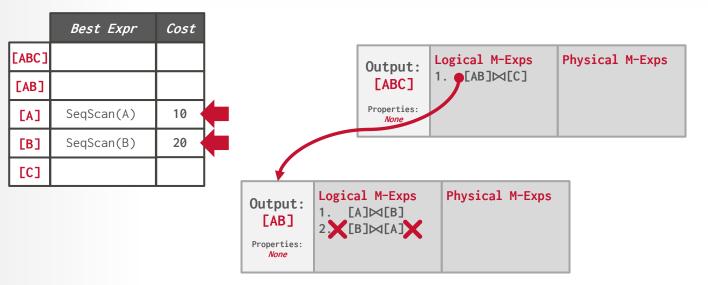
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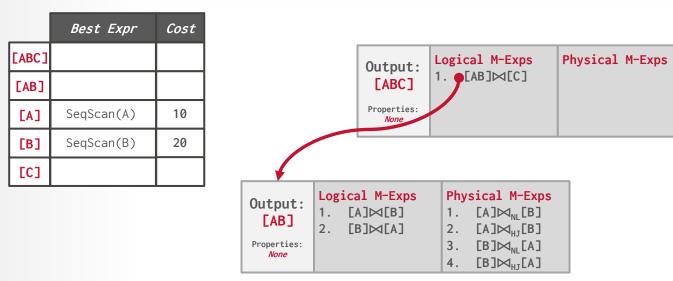


Cost: 10

Cost: 20

Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps		Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps
[A]	1. GET(A)	1. SeqScan(A)		[B]	1. GET(B)	1. SeqScan(B)
		2. IdxScan(A)			2. IdxScan(B)	
Properties: <i>None</i>				Properties: <i>None</i>		





Cost: 10

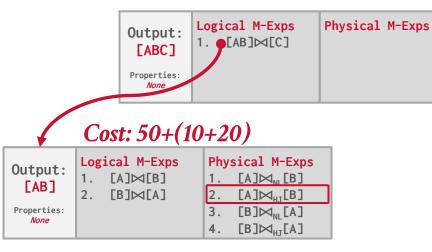
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Cost: 20

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Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps	Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps
[A]	1. GET(A)	1. SeqScan(A)	[B]	1. GET(B)	1. SeqScan(B)
		2. IdxScan(A)			2. IdxScan(B)
Properties: <i>None</i>			Properties: <i>None</i>		



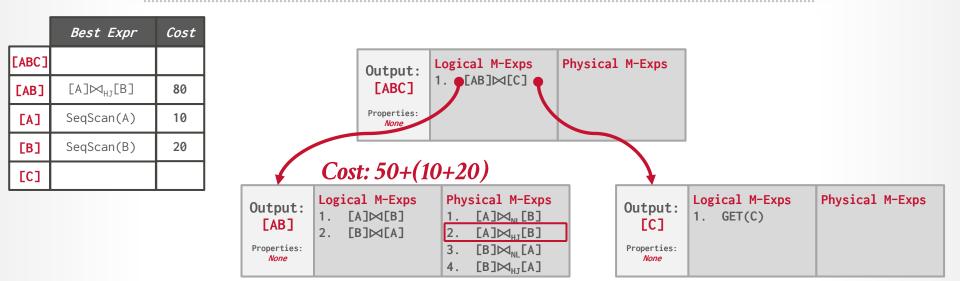


Cost: 10

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Output: [A]Logical M-Exps 1. GET(A)Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(A) 2. IdxScan(A)Properties: None	Output: [B] Properties: None Logical M-Exps 1. GET(B)	Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(B) 2. IdxScan(B)
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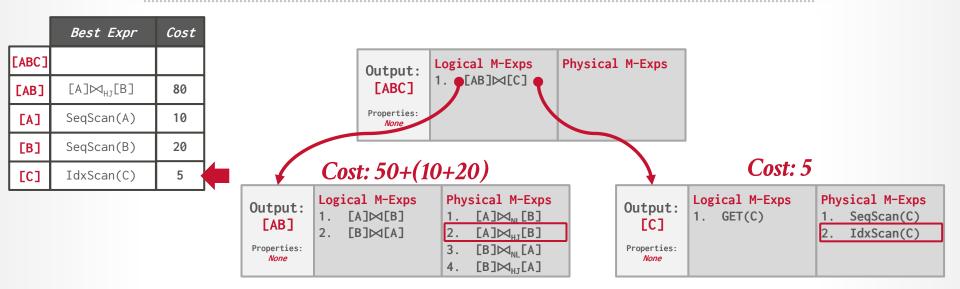
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Cost: 20

17

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[A]	1. GET(A)	1. SeqScan(A)	[B]	1. GET(B)	1. SeqScan(B)
		2. IdxScan(A)			2. IdxScan(B)
Properties: <i>None</i>			Properties: <i>None</i>		



Cost: 10

Cost: 20

Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps	Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps
[A]	1. GET(A)	1. SeqScan(A)	[B]	1. GET(B)	1. SeqScan(B)
LAJ		2. IdxScan(A)	LDJ		2. IdxScan(B)
Properties: <i>None</i>			Properties: <i>None</i>		

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	Best Expr	Cost
[ABC]		
[AB]	[A]⋈ _{hj} [B]	80
[A]	SeqScan(A)	10
[B]	SeqScan(B)	20
[C]	IdxScan(C)	5

Output: [ABC] Properties: None	Logical M-Exps 1. [AB]⋈[C] 2. [BC]⋈[A] 3. [AC]⋈[B] 4. [B]⋈[AC]	Physical M-Exps 1. [AB]⋈ _{NL} C 2. [BC]⋈ _{NL} A 3. [AC]⋈ _{NL} B ⋮
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Cost: 50+(10+20)



Output: [AB]	Logical M-Exps 1. [A]⋈[B] 2. [B]⋈[A]	Physical M-Exps 1. [A]⋈ _N [B] 2. [A]⋈ _{HJ} [B]	Output: [C]	Logical M-Exps 1. GET(C)	Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(C) 2. IdxScan(C)
Properties: <i>None</i>		3. [B]⋈ _{NL} [A] 4. [B]⋈ _{HJ} [A]	Properties: <i>None</i>		

Cost: 20

Cost: 10

Output: [A] Properties: None	Logical M-Exps 1. GET(A)	Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(A) 2. IdxScan(A)		Output: [B] Properties: None	Logical M-Exps 1. GET(B)	Phy 1. 2.	sical M-Exps SeqScan(B) IdxScan(B)
---------------------------------------	-----------------------------	---	--	---------------------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------	--



Best Expr		Cost	
[ABC]	$([A]\bowtie_{HJ}[B])\bowtie_{HJ}[C]$	125	
[AB]	[A]⋈ _{hj} [B]	80	
[A]	SeqScan(A)	10	
[B]	SeqScan(B)	20	
[C]	IdxScan(C)	5	

Cost: 40+(80+5)

Output:	Logical M-Exps	Physical M-Exps		
[ABC]	1. [AB]⋈[C]	1. [AB]⊠ _{NL} C		
	2. [BC]⋈[A]	2. [BC]⊠ _{NL} A		
Properties:	3. [AC]⋈[B]	3. [AC]⋈ _{NL} B		
None	4. [B]⋈[AC]	:		

Cost: 50+(10+20)

Cost: 5

Output: [AB] Properties: None	Logical M-Exps 1. [A]⋈[B] 2. [B]⋈[A]	Physical M-Exps1. $[A] \bowtie_{M} [B]$ 2. $[A] \bowtie_{HI} [B]$ 3. $[B] \bowtie_{NL} [A]$ 4. $[B] \bowtie_{HI} [A]$		Output: [C] Properties: None	Logical M-Exps 1. GET(C)	Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(C) 2. IdxScan(C)
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Cost: 20

Cost: 10

Output: [A]Logical M-Exps 1. GET(A)Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(A) 2. IdxScan(A)Properties: NoneIdxScan(A)	Output: [B] Properties: NoneLogical M-Exps 1. GET(B)Physical M-Exps 1. SeqScan(B) 2. IdxScan(B)
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CASCADES IMPLEMENTATIONS

Standalone:

- \rightarrow <u>Wisconsin OPT++</u> (1990s)
- \rightarrow <u>Portland State Columbia</u> (1990s)
- \rightarrow <u>Greenplum Orca</u> (2010s)
- \rightarrow <u>Apache Calcite</u> (2010s)

Integrated:

- \rightarrow Microsoft SQL Server (1990s)
- \rightarrow <u>Tandem NonStop SQL</u> (1990s)
- \rightarrow CockroachDB (2010s)



RANDOMIZED ALGORITHMS

Perform a random walk over a solution space of all possible (valid) plans for a query.

Continue searching until a cost threshold is reached or the optimizer runs for a length of time.

Examples: Postgres' genetic algorithm.

SIMULATED ANNEALING

Start with a query plan that is generated using the heuristic-only approach.

Compute random permutations of operators (e.g., swap the join order of two tables):

- \rightarrow Always accept a change that reduces cost.
- \rightarrow Only accept a change that increases cost with some probability.
- → Reject any change that violates correctness (e.g., sort ordering).

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More complicated queries use a **genetic algorithm** that selects join orderings (GEQO).

At the beginning of each round, generate different variants of the query plan.

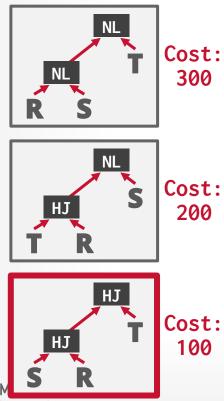
Select the plans that have the lowest cost and permute them with other plans. Repeat. \rightarrow The mutator function only generates valid plans.



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Best:100

1st Generation



2(



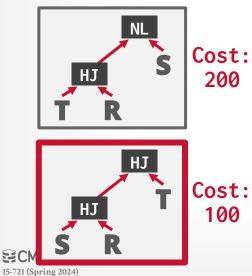
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Best:100

1st Generation



300





Best:100

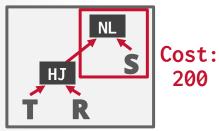
1st Generation

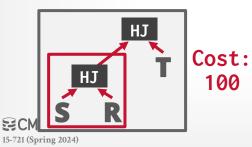


300

200

100

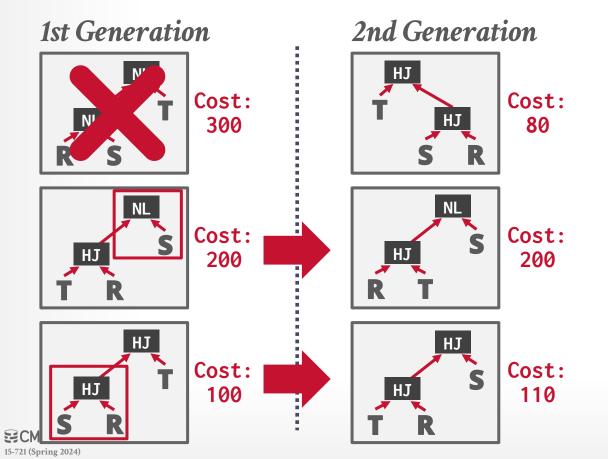






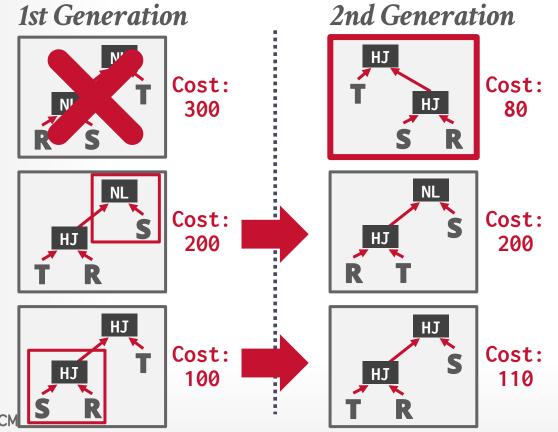
HJ

22





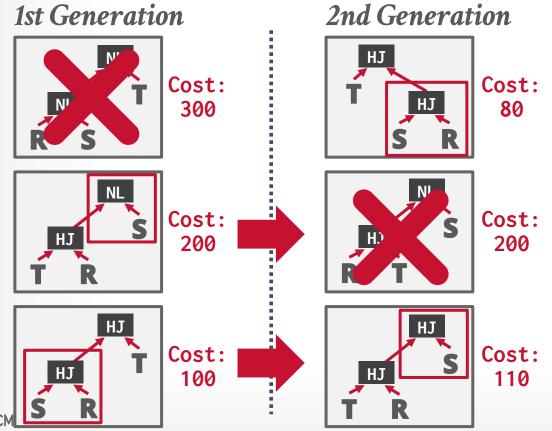
HJ



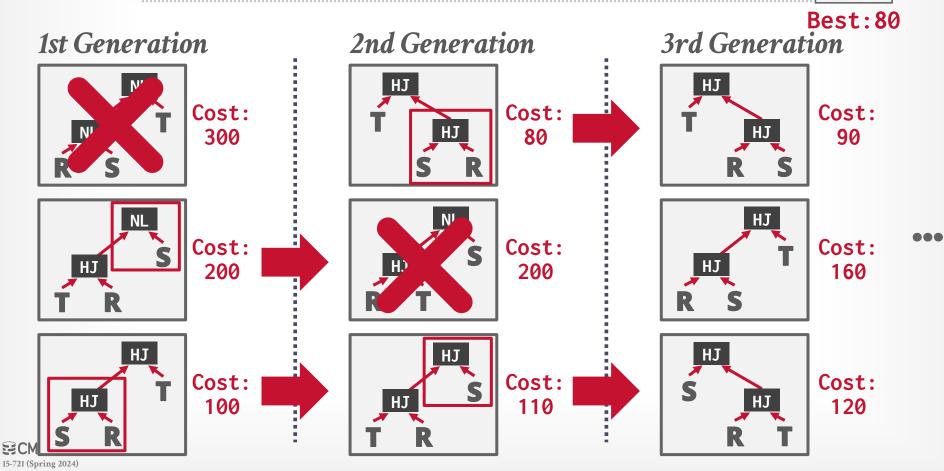
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HJ



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HJ

RANDOMIZED ALGORITHMS

Advantages:

- \rightarrow Jumping around the search space randomly allows the optimizer to get out of local minimums.
- \rightarrow Low memory overhead (if no history is kept).

Disadvantages:

- \rightarrow Difficult to determine why the DBMS may have chosen a plan.
- \rightarrow Must do extra work to ensure that query plans are deterministic.
- \rightarrow Still must implement correctness rules.

RANDOMIZED ALGORITHMS

Advantages:

 $\rightarrow \text{Jumping arour} \\ \text{optimizer to g} \\ \rightarrow \text{Low memory}$

Disadvantage

- \rightarrow Difficult to det plan.
- \rightarrow Must do extra deterministic.
- \rightarrow Still must imp

Still Not Efficient

- The work that we're performing per "relation" is not a constant! We consider many possibilities per "relation," throw away the ones that are clearly inferior, and keep the ones that look most promising.
- Still doesn't scale to large join problems. We're avoiding recomputation, but still searching a very large problem space.
- When the number of tables exceeds gego_threshold (by default, 12), we switch to GEQO, the "genetic query optimizer." It essentially tries a bunch of join orders at random and picks the best one. If you're lucky, it won't be too bad.

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DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING OPTIMIZER

Model the query as a hypergraph and then incrementally expand to enumerate new plans.

Algorithm Overview:

- \rightarrow Iterate connected sub-graphs and incrementally add new edges to other nodes to complete query plan.
- \rightarrow Use rules to determine which nodes the traversal is allowed to visit and expand.



REAL-WORLD IMPLEMENTATIONS

Microsoft SQL Server Apache Calcite Greenplum Orca CockroachDB SingleStore

MICROSOFT SQL SERVER

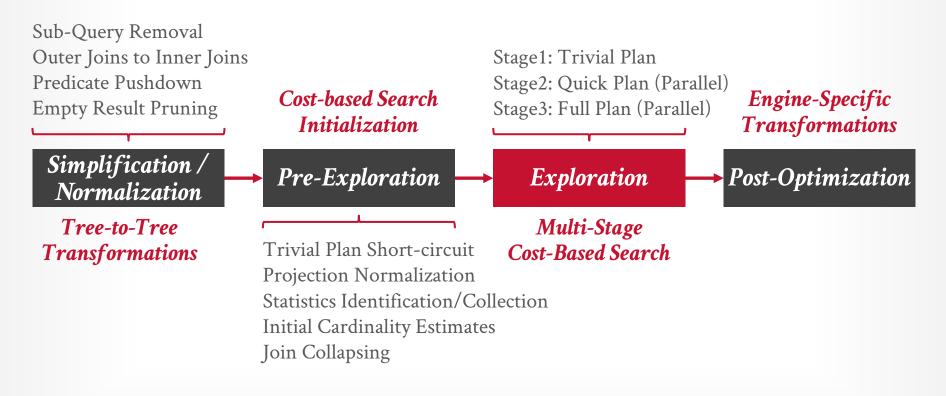
First Cascades implementation started in 1995.

- \rightarrow Derivatives are used in many MSFT database products.
- \rightarrow All transformations are written in C++. No DSL.
- \rightarrow Scalar / expression transformations are written in procedural code and not rules.

DBMS applies transformations in multiple stages with increasing scope and complexity.

→ The goal is to leverage domain knowledge to apply transformations that you always want to do first to reduce the search space.

MICROSOFT SQL SERVER



Source: <u>Nico Bruno + Cesar Galindo-Legaria</u>

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MICROSOFT SQL SERVER

Optimization #1: Timeouts are based on the number of transformations not wallclock time.
 → Ensures that overloaded systems do not generate different plans than under normal operations.

Optimization #2: Pre-populate the Memo Table with potentially useful join orderings.
→ Heuristics that consider relationships between tables.
→ Syntactic appearance in query.

APACHE CALCITE

Standalone extensible query optimization framework for data processing systems.

- → Support for pluggable query languages, cost models, and rules.
- → Does not distinguish between logical and physical operators. Physical properties are provided as annotations.

Originally part of <u>LucidDB</u>.



GREENPLUM ORCA

Standalone Cascades implementation in C++.

- \rightarrow Originally written for <u>Greenplum</u>.
- \rightarrow Extended to support <u>HAWQ</u>.

A DBMS integrates Orca by implementing API to send catalog + stats + logical plans and then retrieve physical plans.

Supports multi-threaded search.



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GREENPLUM ORCA: ENGINEERING

Issue #1: Remote Debugging

- → Automatically dump the state of the optimizer (with inputs) whenever an error occurs.
- \rightarrow The dump is enough to put the optimizer back in the exact same state later for further debugging.

Issue #2: Optimizer Accuracy

 \rightarrow Automatically check whether the ordering of the estimate cost of two plans matches their actual execution cost.

COCKROACHDB

Custom Cascades implementation written in 2018.
All transformation rules are written in a custom
DSL (<u>OptGen</u>) and then codegen into Go-lang.
→ Can embed Go logic in rule to perform more complex analysis and modifications.

Also considers scalar expression (predicates) transformations together with relational operators.

Source: <u>Rebecca Taft</u> **CMU-DB** 15-721 (Spring 2024)

COCKROACHDB

Custom Cascades im All transformation r DSL (<u>OptGen</u>) and t → Can embed Go logic i analysis and modifica

Also considers scalar transformations toge

DSL: Optgen

// ConstructNot constructs an expression for the Not operator.
func (_f *Factory) ConstructNot(kinput opt.ScalarExpr) opt.ScalarExpr {

```
// [EliminateNot]
{
    _not, _ := input.(*memo.NotExpr)
    if _not != nil {
        input := _not.Input
        if _f.matchedRule == nil || _f.matchedRule(opt.EliminateNot) {
            _expr := input
            return _expr
        }
    }
    // ... other rules ...
    e := _f.mem.MemoizeNot(input)
    return _f.onConstructScalar(e)
}
Cockroach LABS
```

Source: <u>Rebecca Taft</u> SCMU-DB 15-721 (Spring 2024)

SUBQUERIES

SQL allows a nested **SELECT** subquery to exist (almost?) anywhere in another query. \rightarrow Projection, **FROM**, **WHERE**, **LIMIT**, **HAVING**

 \rightarrow Results of the inner subquery are passed to the outer query.

Such nesting enables more expressive queries without having to use separate queries to prepare intermediate results.

SUBQUERIES

SQL allows a nested **SELECT** subquery to exist (almost?) anywhere in another query. \rightarrow Projection, **FROM**, **WHERE**, **LIMIT**, **HAVING**

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Such nesting enables more expressive queries without having to use separate queries to prepare intermediate results.

Key Distinction: Uncorrelated vs. Correlated



An uncorrelated subquery does reference any attributes from the (calling) outer query.

SELECT name
FROM students
WHERE score =
(SELECT MAX(score) FROM students);

The DBMS logically executes it once and reuse the result for all tuples in the outer query.



A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

SELECT	name, major
FROM	students AS s1
WHERE	score =
	(SELECT MAX(s2.score)
	FROM students AS s2
	WHERE s2.major = s1.major);

name	ma	jor	score
GZA	Com	pSci	90
RZA	Com	pSci	80
ODB	Str	reets	100

A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

The DBMS logically evaluates the subquery on each tuple in the outer query because the result can change per tuple.

SELECT	name, major
FROM	students AS s1
WHERE	score =
	(SELECT MAX(s2.score)
	FROM students AS s2
	WHERE s2.major = s1.major);

name	major	score
GZA	CompSci	90
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s1.major='CompSci'

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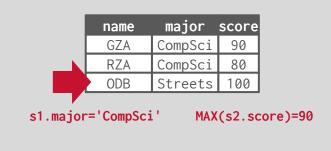
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s1.major='CompSci'

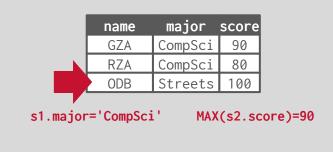
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SELECT	name, major	
FROM	students AS s1	
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	(SELECT MAX(s2	.score)
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	name, major students AS s1	name GZA	major CompSci
	score =]	
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	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
WHERE	score =		
(SELECT MAX(s2.score)			
FROM students AS s2			
	WHERE s2.maj	or = s1.	<pre>major);</pre>

name	major	score
GZA	CompSci	90
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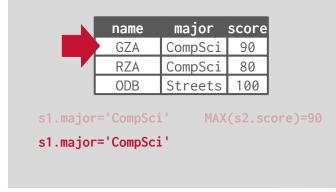
s1.major='CompS

AX(s2.score)=90

s1.major='CompSci'

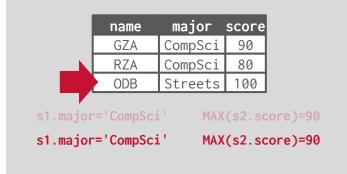
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SELECT	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
WHERE	score =	J	
(SELECT MAX(s2.score)			
FROM students AS s2			
	WHERE s2.maj	or = s1.	.major);



A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
WHERE	score =		
(SELECT MAX(s2.score)			
FROM students AS s2			
WHERE s2.major = s1.major);			<pre>major);</pre>



A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

SELECT	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
WHERE	score =		
	(SELECT MAX(s2	.score)	
	FROM studen	ts AS s2	
	WHERE s2.maj	or = s1.r	<pre>major);</pre>

	name	major	score	
	GZA	CompSci	90	
	RZA	CompSci	80	
	ODB	Streets	100	
s1.major='CompSci' MAX(s2.score)=90				
s1.major='CompSci' MAX(s2.score)=9				
s1.major='Streets'				

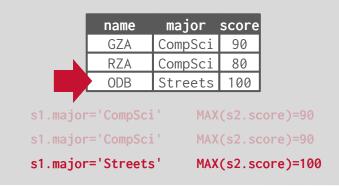
A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

SELECT	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
WHERE	score =	J	
	(SELECT MAX(s2	.score)	
	FROM studen	ts AS s2	2
	WHERE s2.maj	or = s1.	<pre>major);</pre>



A correlated subquery refers to one or more attributes from outside of the subquery (i.e., the outer query).

SELECT	name, major	name	major
FROM	students AS s1	GZA	CompSci
	score =	ODB	Streets
	(SELECT MAX(s2	.score)	
	FROM studen	ts <mark>AS</mark> s2	2
	WHERE s2.maj	or = s1.	<pre>major);</pre>



HEURISTIC REWRITING

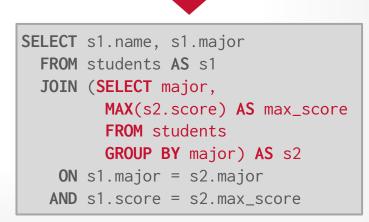
Almost every DBMS that supports uses heuristics that identify specific query plan patterns to decorrelate nested subqueries.

The goal is to move the subquery up a level so that the DBMS can execute it as a join.



15-721 (Spring 2024)

SELECT name, major
FROM students AS s1
WHERE score =
 (SELECT MAX(s2.score)
 FROM students AS s2
 WHERE s2.major = s1.major);



HEURISTIC REWRITING

Almost every DBMS that (1) $R \mathcal{A}^{\otimes} E = R \otimes_{\text{true}} E,$ if no parameters in E resolved from RU (2) $R \mathcal{A}^{\otimes} (\sigma_p E) = R \otimes_p E,$ q if no parameters in E resolved from R $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\sigma_p E) = \sigma_p (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E)$ $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\pi_v E) = \pi_v \cup \operatorname{columns}_{(R)} (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E)$ n (3)(4) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 \cup E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) \cup (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2)$ $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 - E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) - (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2)$ (5)(6) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 \times E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) \bowtie_{R.key} (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2) (7)$ $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\mathcal{G}_{A,F}E) = \mathcal{G}_{A \cup \operatorname{columns}(R),F} (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E) (8)$ $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\mathcal{G}_F^1E) = \mathcal{G}_{\operatorname{columns}(R),F'} (R \mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{LOJ}}E) (9)$ lev as

ORTHOGONAL OPTIMIZATION OF SUBQUERIES AND AGGREGATION SIGMOD 2001

5-721 (Spring 2024)

FROM	<pre>name, major students AS s1 score = (SELECT MAX(s2.score) FROM students AS s2 WHERE s2.major = s1.major);</pre>	
SELECT	s1.name, s1.major	
FROM	students AS s1	
JOIN	(SELECT major,	
	MAX(s2.score) AS max_score	
	FROM students	
	GROUP BY major) AS s2	
ON	s1.major = s2.major	
	s1.score = s2.max_score	

HEURISTIC RESQLite

Almost every DBMS that our (1) $R \mathcal{A}^{\otimes} E = R \otimes_{\text{true}} E,$ if no parameters in E resolved from R(2) $R \mathcal{A}^{\otimes} (\sigma_p E) = R \otimes_p E,$ D if no parameters in E resolved from Rn (3) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\sigma_p E) = \sigma_p (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E)$ $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\pi_v E) = \pi_{v \cup \operatorname{columns}(R)} (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E)$ (4) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 \cup E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) \cup (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2)$ (5) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 - E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) - (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2)$ (6) $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (E_1 \times E_2) = (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_1) \bowtie_{R.key} (R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E_2) (7)$ lev $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\mathcal{G}_{A,F}E) = \mathcal{G}_{A \cup \operatorname{columns}(R),F}(R \mathcal{A}^{\times} E)$ as $R \mathcal{A}^{\times} (\mathcal{G}_F^1 E) = \mathcal{G}_{\operatorname{columns}(R),F'}(R \mathcal{A}^{\operatorname{LOJ}} E)$

ORTHOGONAL OPTIMIZATION OF SUBQUERIES SIGMOD 2001

SECMUOR 15-721 (Spring 2024)

11. Subguery Flattening

When a subquery occurs in the FROM clause of a SELECT, the simplest behavior is to evaluate the subquery into a transient table, then run the outer SELECT against the transient table. Such a plan can be suboptimal since the transient table will not have any indexes and the outer query (which is likely a join) will be forced to do a full table scan on the transient table.

To overcome this problem, SQLite attempts to flatten subqueries in the FROM clause of a SELECT. This involves inserting the FROM clause of the subquery into the FROM clause of the outer query and rewriting expressions in the outer query that refer to the result set of the subquery. For example:

SELECT t1.a, t2.b FROM t2, (SELECT x+y AS a FROM t1 WHERE z<100) WHERE a>5

Would be rewritten using guery flattening as:

SELECT t1.x+t1.y A5 a, t2.b FROM t2, t1 WHERE z<100 AND a>5

There is a long list of conditions that must all be met in order for query flattening to occur. Some of the constraints are marked as obsolete by italic text. These extra constraints are retained in the documentation to preserve the numbering of the other constraints.

Casual readers are not expected to understand all of these rules. A key take-away from this section is that the rules for determining if query flatting is safe or unsafe are subtle and complex. There have been multiple bugs over the years caused by over-aggressive query flattening. On the other hand, performance of complex queries and/or queries involving views tends to suffer if query flattening is more conservative.

1. (Obsolete. Query flattening is no longer attempted for aggregate subqueries.) 2. (Obsolete. Query flattening is no longer attempted for aggregate subqueries.) 3. If the subquery is the right operand of a LEFT JOIN then

> a. the subquery may not be a join, and b. the FROM clause of the subquery may not contain a virtual table, and c. the outer query may not be an aggregate.

4. The subquery is not DISTINCT.

5. (Subsumed into constraint 4)

6. (Obsolete. Query flattening is no longer attempted for aggregate subqueries.)

7. The subquery has a FROM clause.

8. The subquery does not use LIMIT or the outer query is not a join. 9. The subquery does not use LIMIT or the outer query does not use aggregates.

10. (Restriction relaxed in 2005)

11. The subquery and the outer query do not both have ORDER BY clauses.

12. (Subsumed into constraint 3)

13. The subquery and outer query do not both use LIMIT.

14. The subquery does not use OFFSET.

15. If the outer query is part of a compound select, then the subquery may not have a LIMIT clause. 16. If the outer query is an aggregate, then the subquery may not contain ORDER BY.

17. If the sub-query is a compound SELECT, then

a. all compound operators must be UNION ALL, and

b. no terms with the subquery compound may be aggregate or DISTINCT, and

c. every term within the subquery must have a FROM clause, and

d. the outer query may not be an aggregate, DISTINCT query, or join.

The parent and sub-query may contain WHERE clauses. Subject to rules (11), (12) and (13), they may also contain ORDER BY, LIMIT and OFFSET clauses. 18. If the sub-query is a compound select, then all terms of the ORDER by clause of the parent must be simple references to columns of the sub-query. 19. If the subquery uses LIMIT then the outer query may not have a WHERE clause.

20. If the sub-query is a compound select, then it must not use an ORDER BY clause.

21. If the subquery uses LIMIT, then the outer query may not be DISTINCT.

22. The subquery may not be a recursive CTE.

23. (Subsumed into constraint 17d.)

24. (Obsolete. Query flattening is no longer attempted for aggregate subqueries.)

Query flattening is an important optimization when views are used as each use of a view is translated into a subquery.

Small. Fast. Reliable. Choose any three.

HEURISTIC REWRITING

Advantages:

- \rightarrow Transformed queries are more efficient.
- \rightarrow Decision to decorrelate can be a cost-based decision.
- \rightarrow Easy to control decorrelation by enabling/disabling rules.

Disadvantages:

- \rightarrow Hard to write rules for all possible correlations scenarios.
- \rightarrow Changing a small part of a query can make rules ineffective
- \rightarrow Maintaining transformation rules is a difficult.
- \rightarrow Handling all edge cases is exceedingly difficult.

GERMAN-STYLE UNNESTING SUBQUERIES

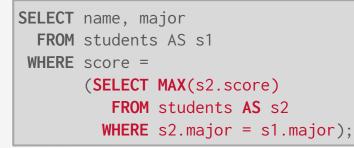
General-purpose method to eliminate all dependent joins by manipulating the query plan until the RHS no longer depends on the LHS.

The optimizer then converts dependent joins to regular joins.

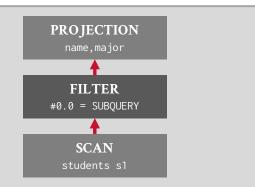
 \rightarrow Some queries switch from a $O(n^2)$ nested-loop join to a O(n) hash join.



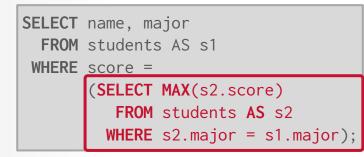
FLATTENING CORRELATED QUERIES



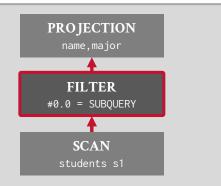
Introduce a <u>dependent join</u> operator to execute RHS once for every tuple in LHS.

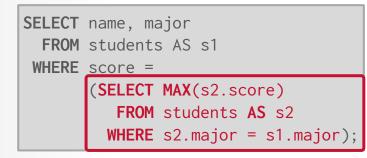


Source: Mark Raasveldt SCMU-DB 15-721 (Spring 2024)

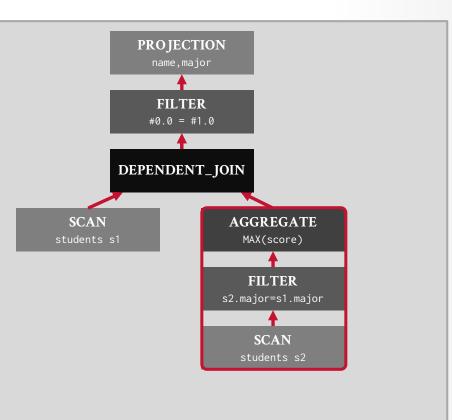


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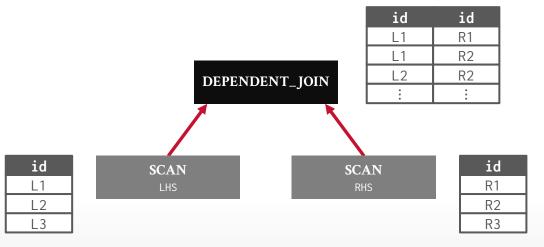
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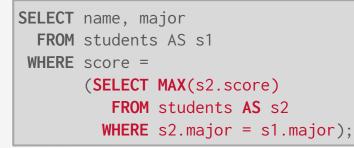
DEPENDENT JOIN

New **<u>dependent join</u>** relational algebra operator that denotes a correlated subquery.

- \rightarrow Evaluate RHS of the join for every tuple on the LHS.
- \rightarrow The operator combine results from every execution and return them as its output.



Source: <u>Mayank Baranwal</u> **CMU-DB** 15-721 (Spring 2024)

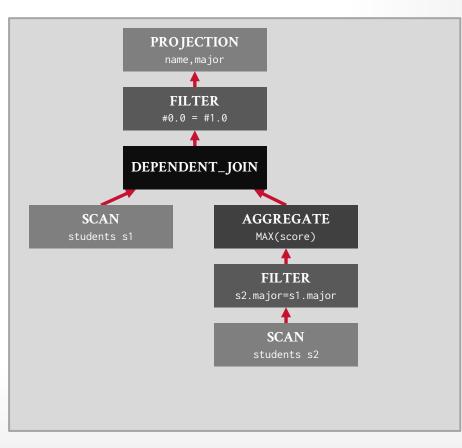


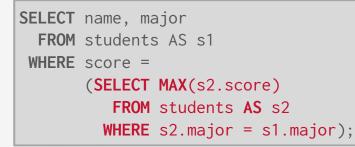
Push dependent join down into the RHS of the plan.

Only need to execute RHS once for every unique combination of correlated columns.

→ Duplicate Elimination Scan

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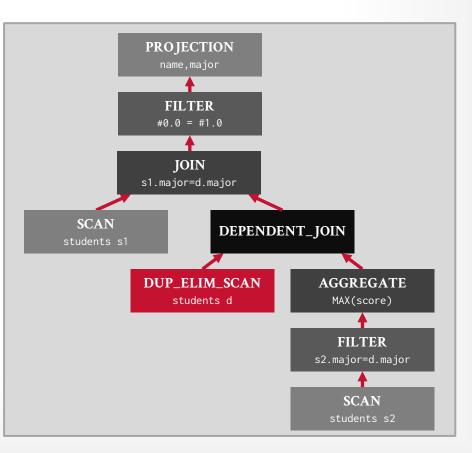


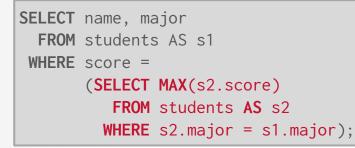
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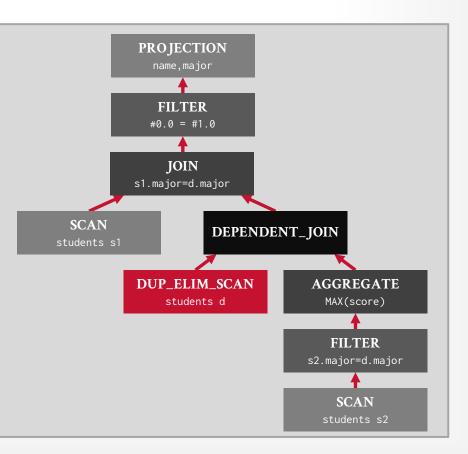
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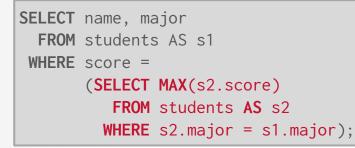
ECMU·DB 15-721 (Spring 2024)



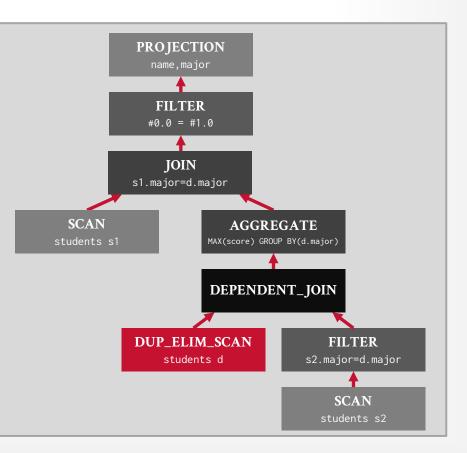


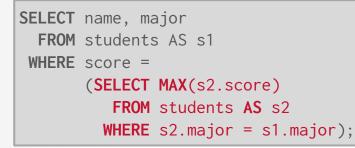
Keeping pushing dependent join as far down into the plan as is possible.



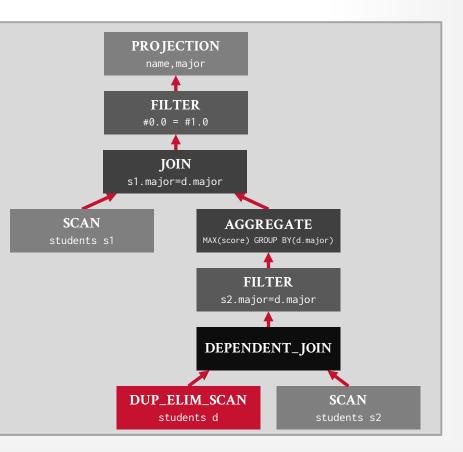


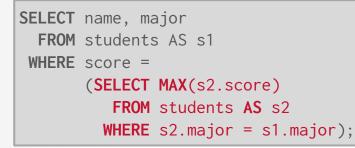
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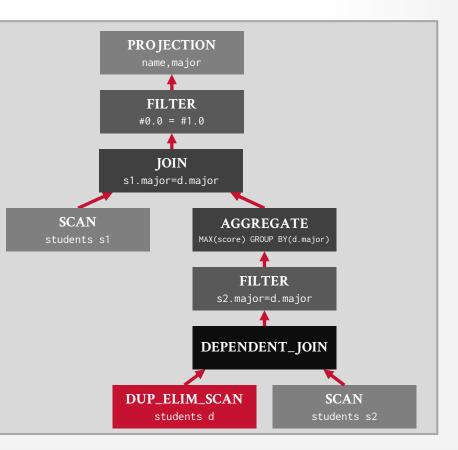


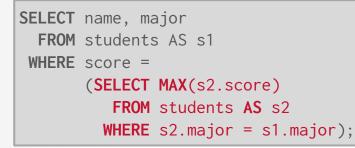
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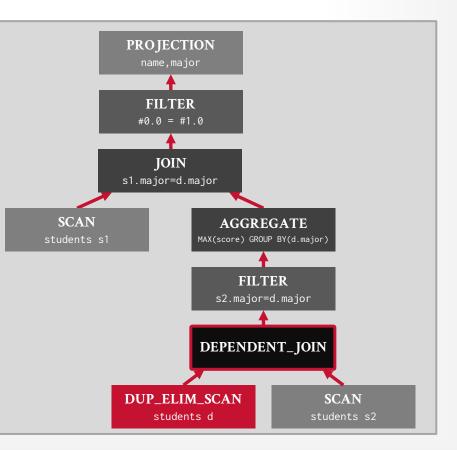


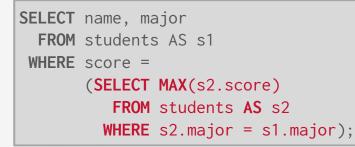
Convert the <u>dependent join</u> operator into a <u>cross product</u>.



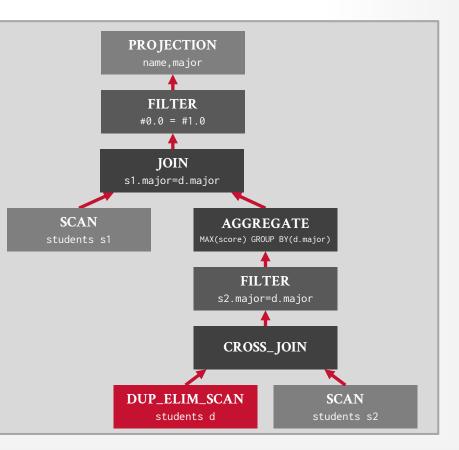


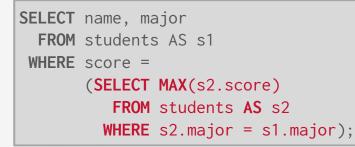
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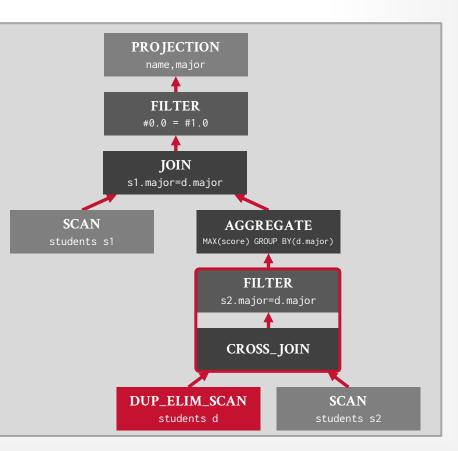
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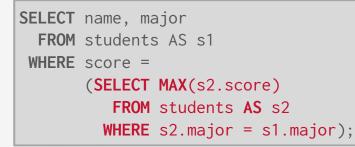




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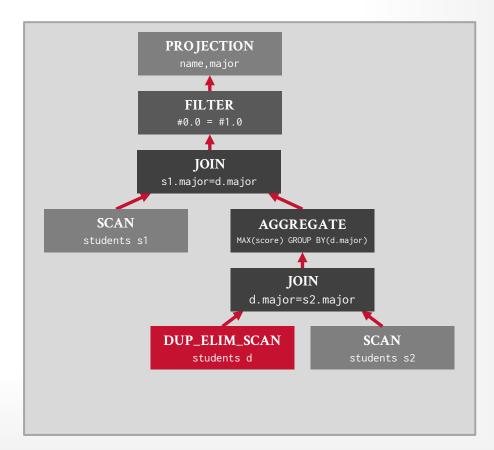
Then convert the <u>cross</u> product into an <u>inner join</u>.

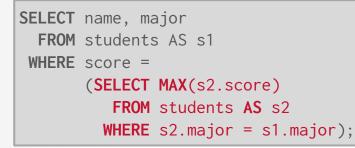




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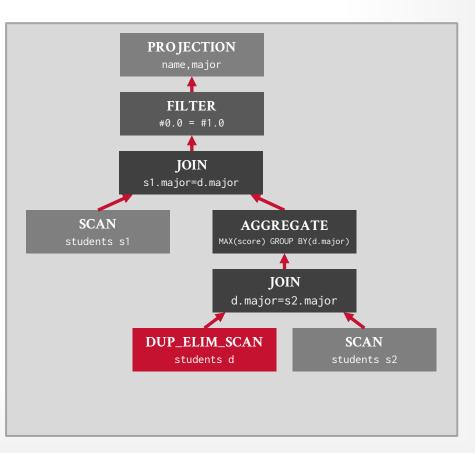
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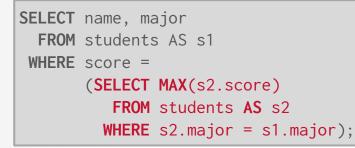




Remove duplicate elimination scan entirely.

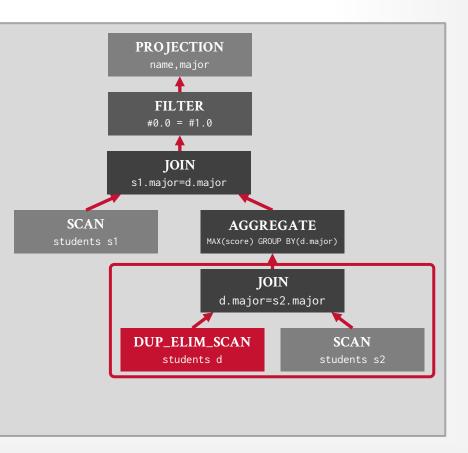
Remove the filter above the new join.

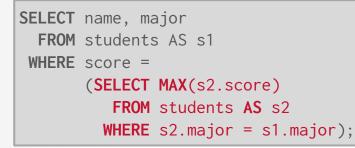




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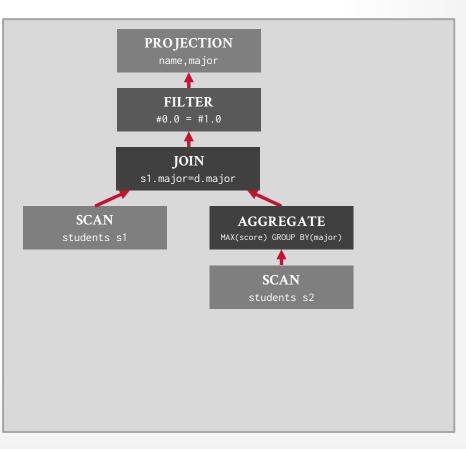
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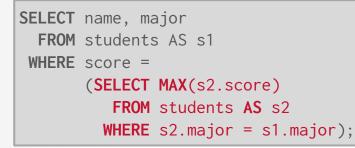




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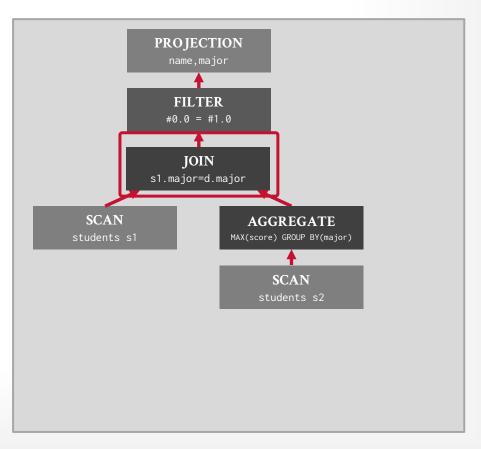
Remove the filter above the new join.

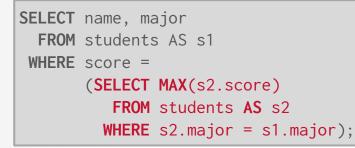




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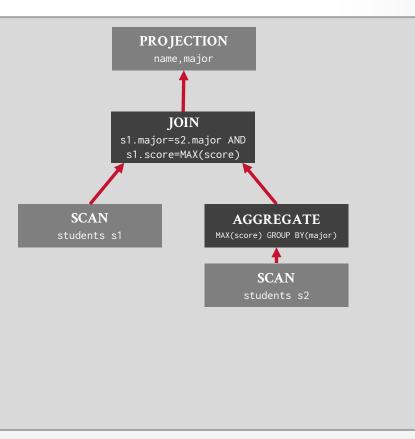
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PARTING THOUGHTS

Only HyPer, Umbra, and DuckDB correctly unnest correlated sub-queries.

All the optimizer strategies we discussed assume that the optimizer has one shot at choosing a plan. But what happens if the DBMS discovers that the cost estimates don't match reality when it starts processing data?

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NEXT CLASS

Adaptive Query Optimization

