Carnegie Mellon University Database Systems Query Planning & Optimization

15-445/645 SPRING 2025 **X** PROF. JIGNESH PATEL

ADMINISTRIVIA

Project #3 is due Sunday March 30th @ 11:59pm \rightarrow Recitation: <u>slides</u>, <u>recording</u>.

Mid-term exam:

- \rightarrow Exam viewing for the next 3 OH, including today.
- \rightarrow The last OH for exam viewing is on March 24.

UPCOMING DATABASE TALKS

Mar 17	Lloyd Tabb	Malloy: A Modern Open Source Language for Analyzing, Transforming, and Modeling Data
PRQL Mar 24	Tobias Brandt	PRQL: Pipelined Relational Query Language
StarRocks Mar 31	Kaisen Kang	StarRocks Query Optimizer
Oxide Apr 7	Ben Naecker	OxQL: Oximeter Query Language
MariaDB Apr 14	Michael Widenius	MariaDB's New Query Optimizer
Apr 21	Michael Sullivan	EdgeQL with Gel

LAST CLASS

We talked about how to design the DBMS's architecture to execute queries in parallel.

The query plan is comprised of physical operators that specify the algorithm to invoke at each step of the plan.

But how do we go from SQL to a query plan?

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ON E.did = D.did
WHERE D.dname = 'Toy'



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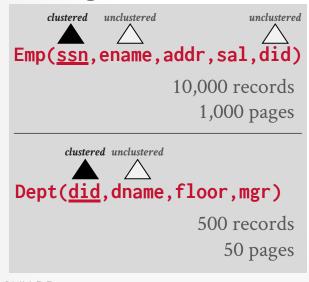
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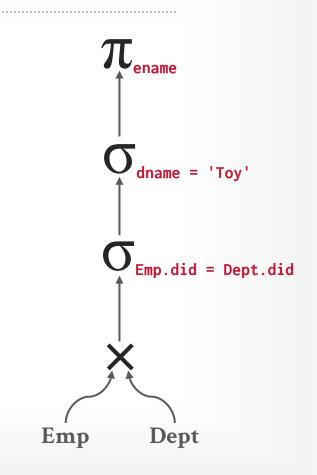
ECMU-DB 15-445/645 (Spring 2025)

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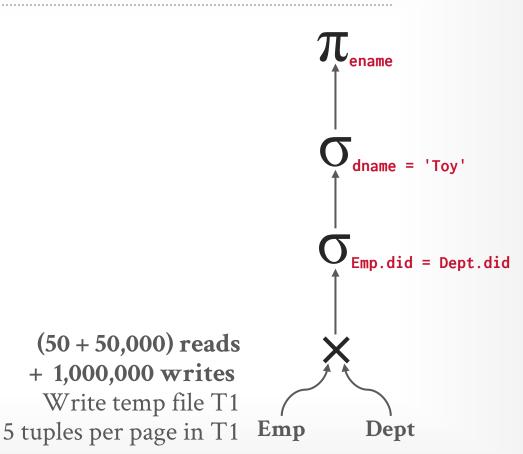


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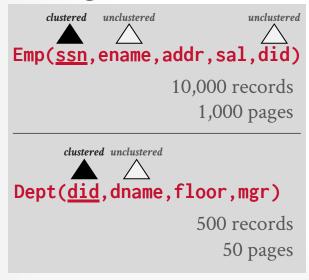
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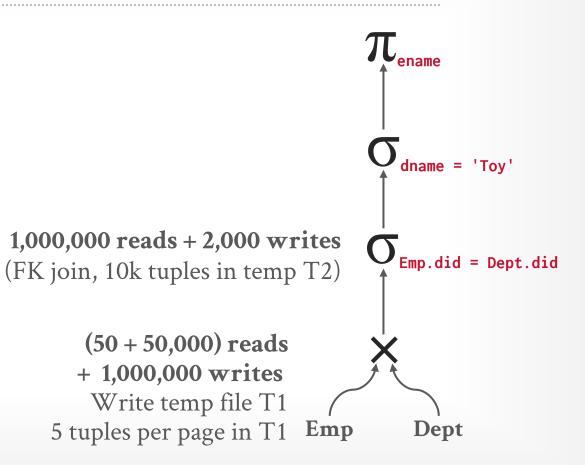
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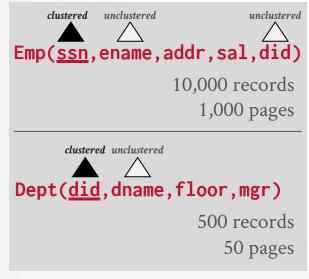


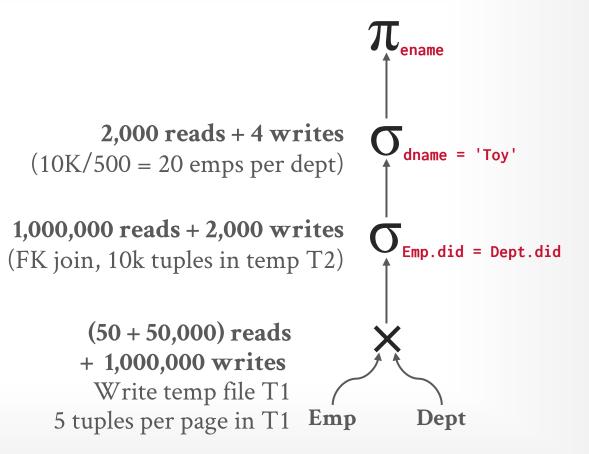


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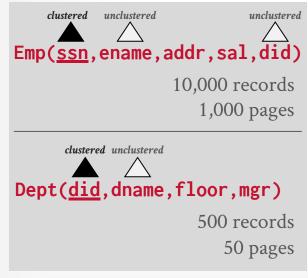


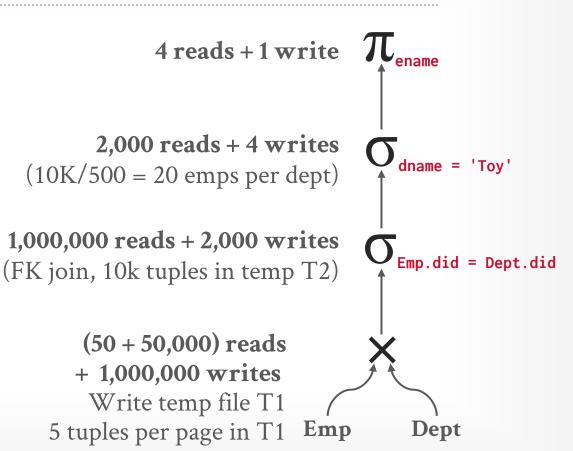




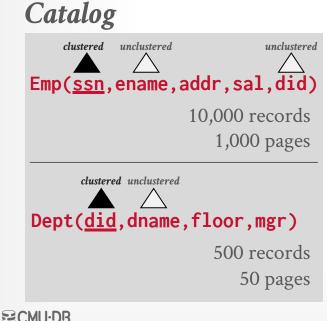
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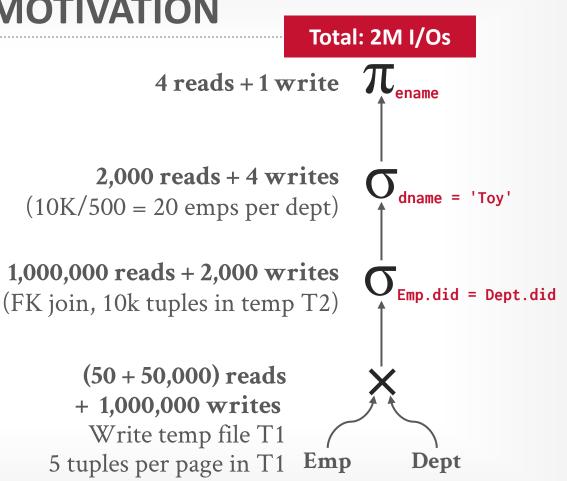






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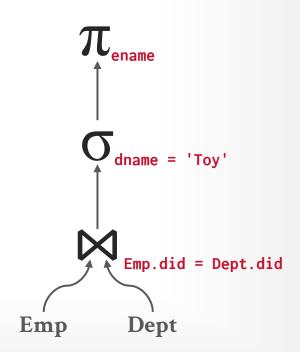


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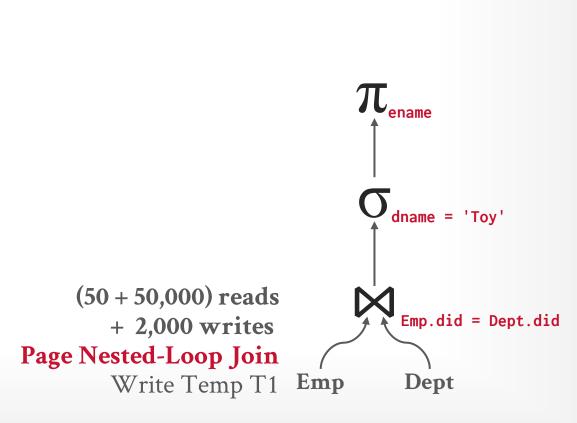


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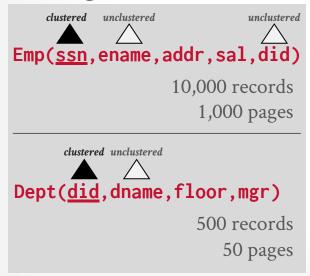
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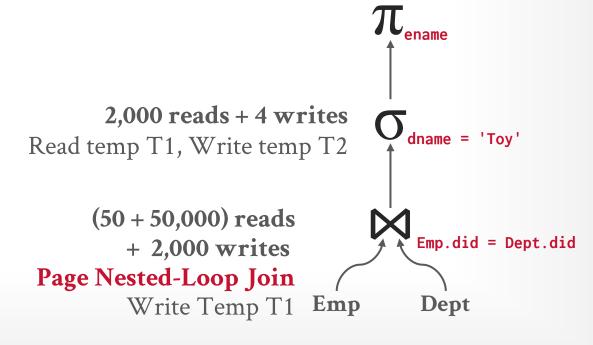
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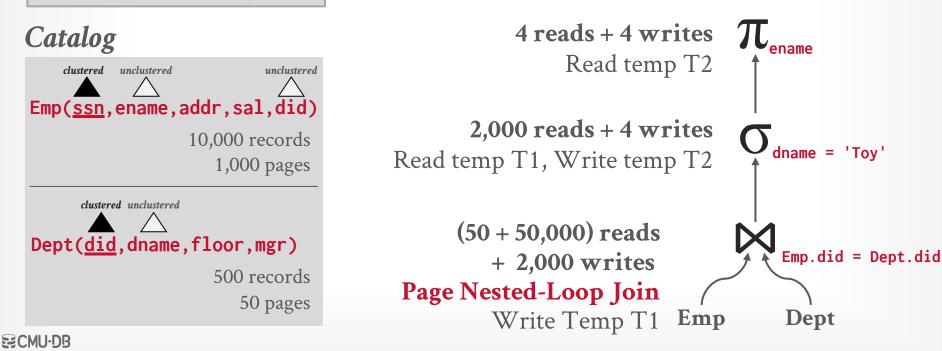
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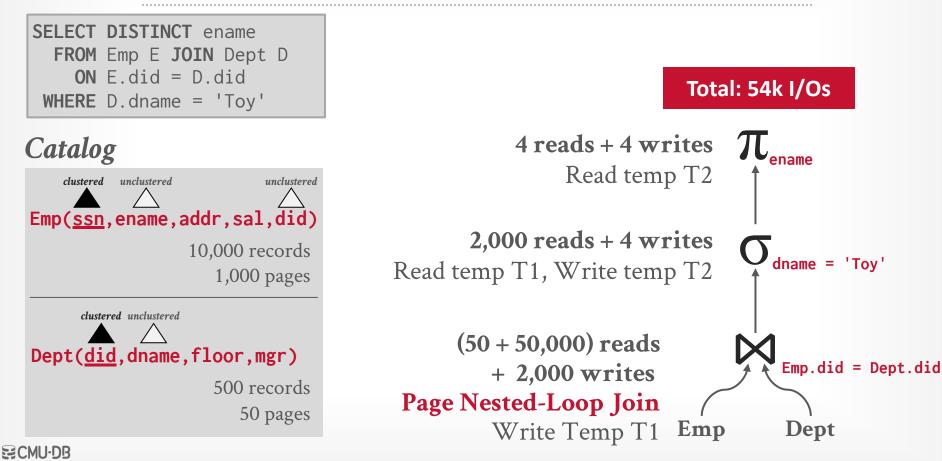


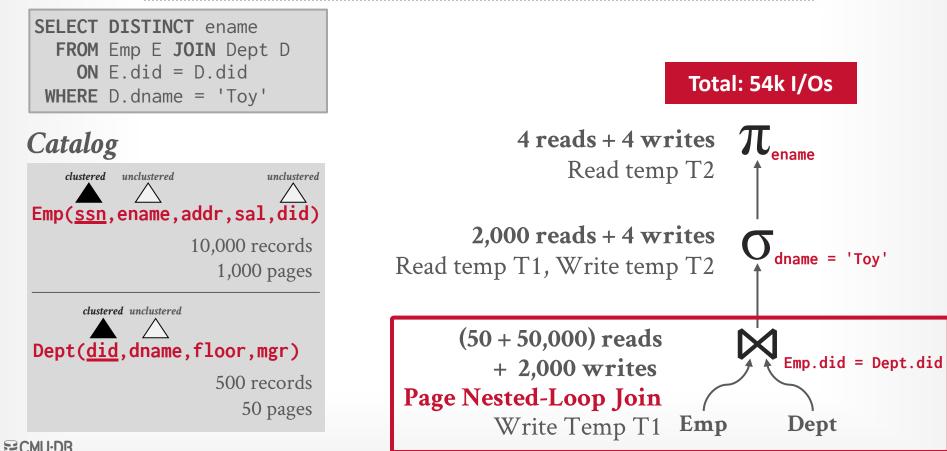


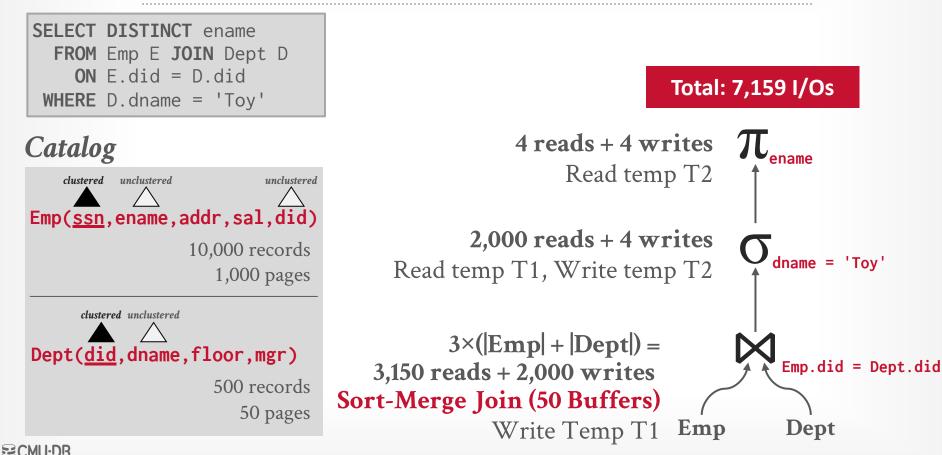
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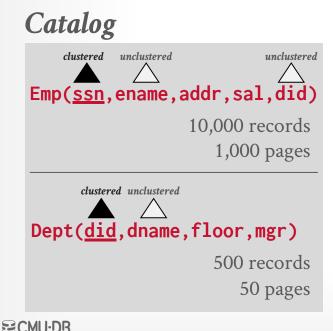


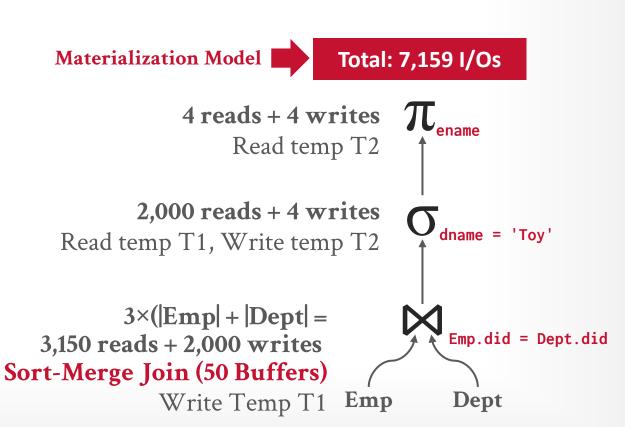




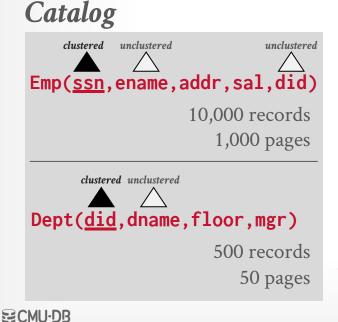


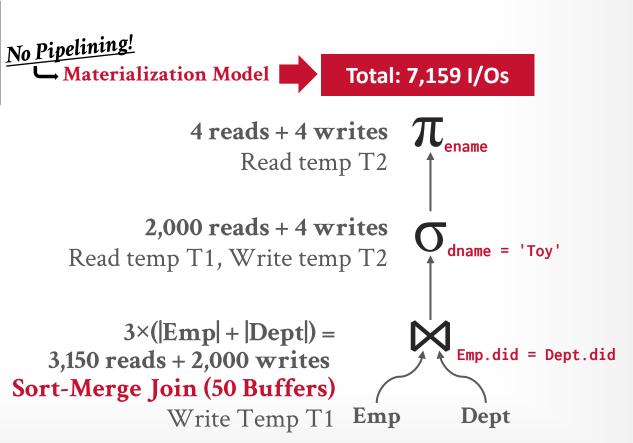
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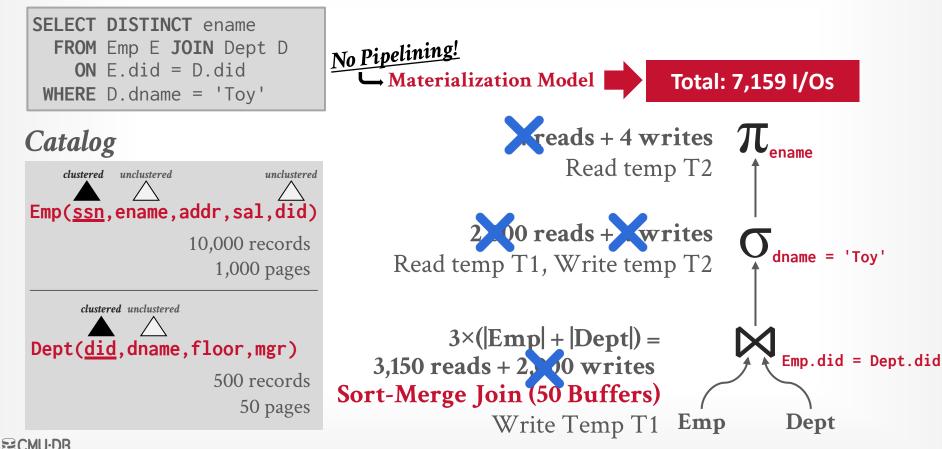


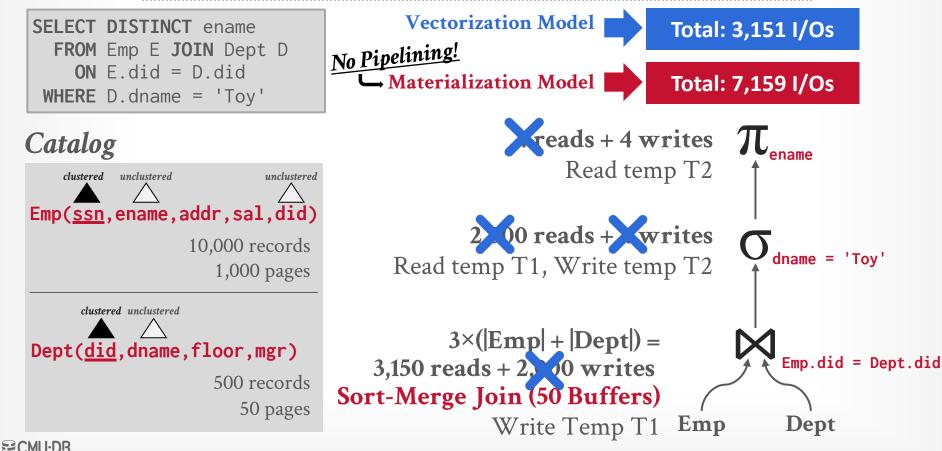


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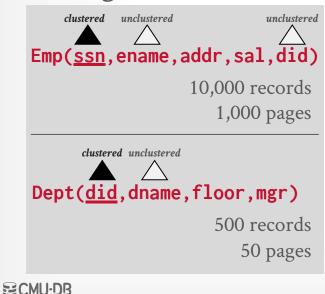


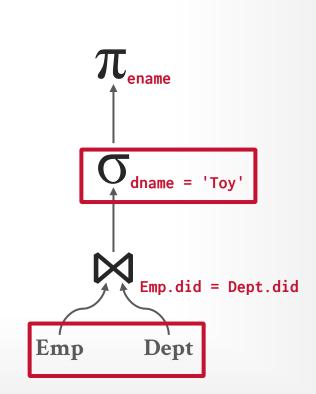




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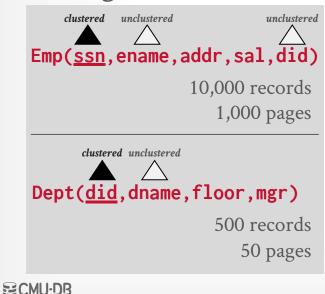
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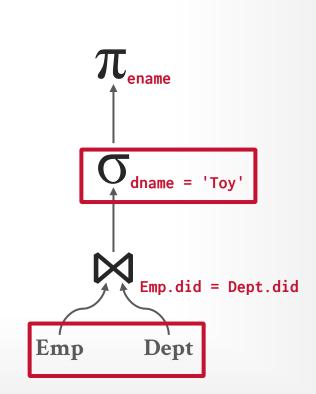
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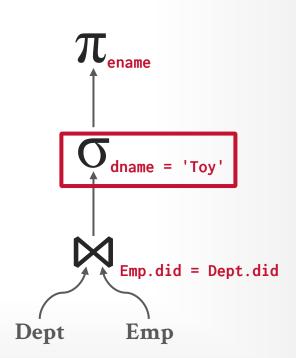


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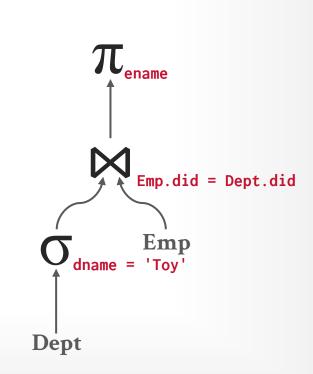


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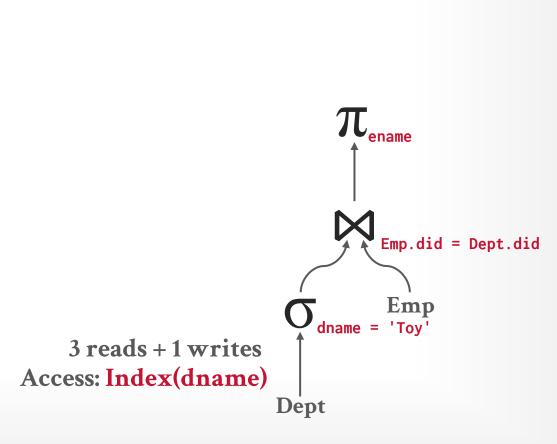


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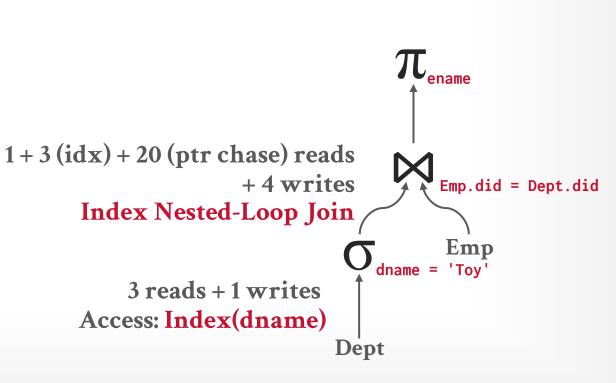
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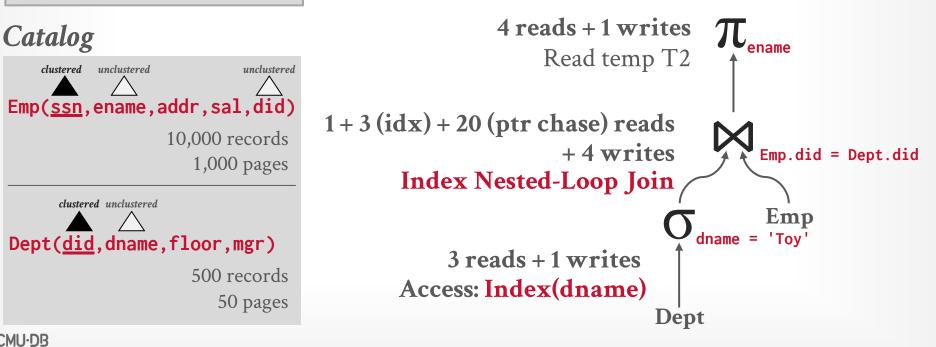


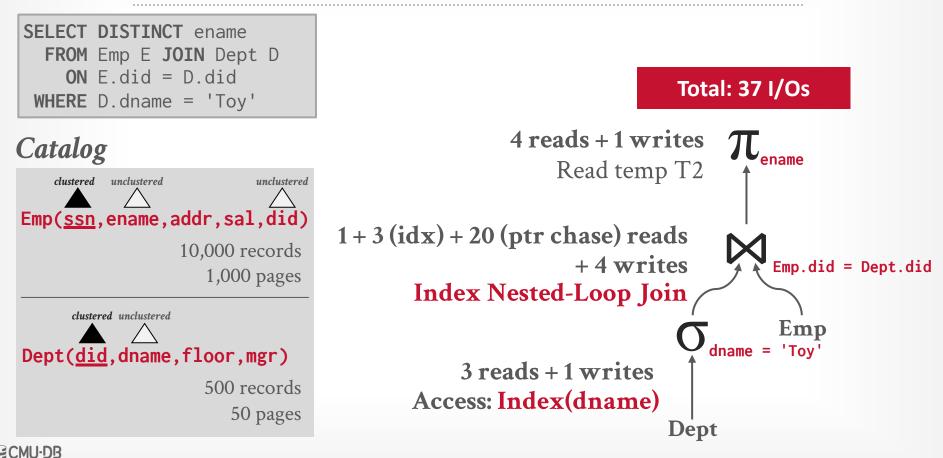
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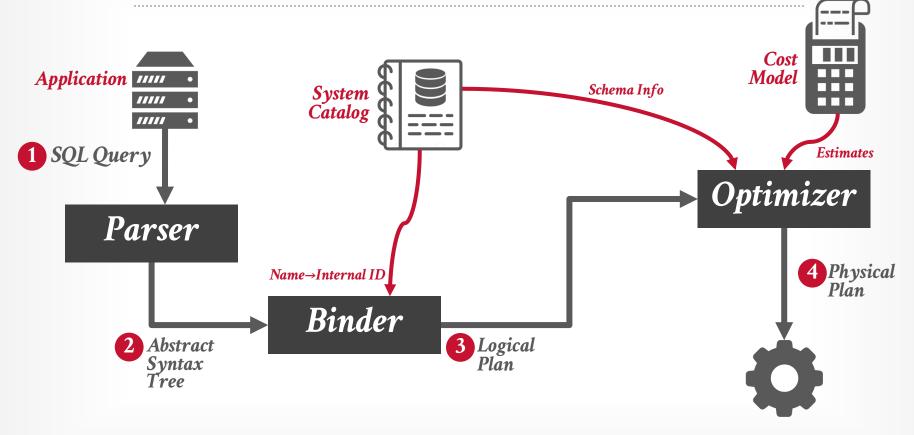




TODAY'S AGENDA

Background Heuristic / Ruled-based Optimization Cost-based Optimization Cost Model Estimation

ARCHITECTURE OVERVIEW



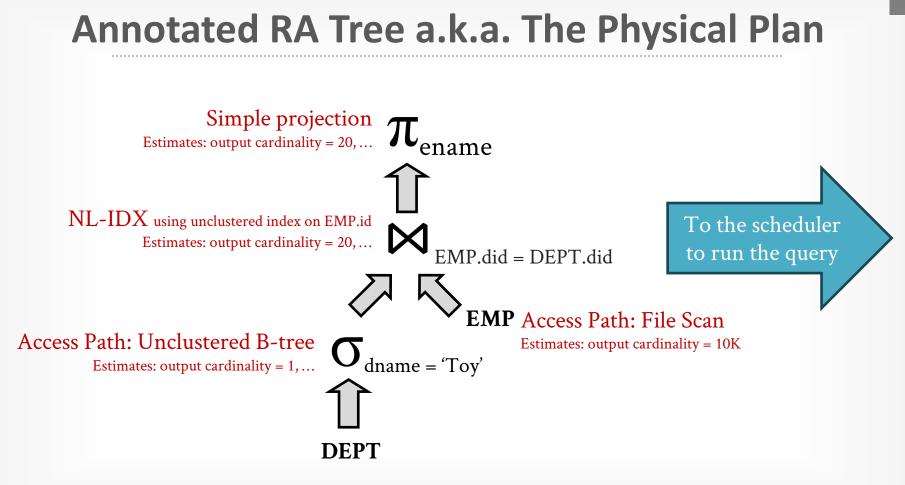
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LOGICAL VS. PHYSICAL PLANS

The optimizer generates a mapping of a <u>logical</u> algebra expression to the optimal equivalent physical algebra expression.

Physical operators define a specific execution strategy using an access path.

- → They can depend on the physical format of the data that they process (i.e., sorting, compression).
- \rightarrow Not always a 1:1 mapping from logical to physical.

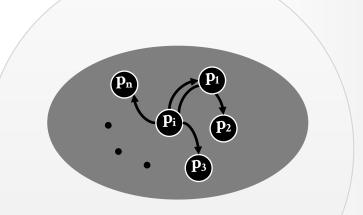


- Identify candidate equivalent trees (logical). It is an NP-hard problem, so the space is large.
- For each candidate, find the execution plan (physical).
 Estimate the cost of each plan.
- 3. Choose the best (physical) plan.

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Entire search space very large, as QO is NP-hard (w.r.t. # joins)

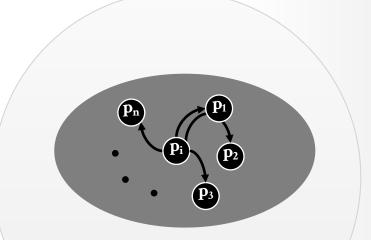
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Practically: Choose from a subset of all possible plans.



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QUERY OPTIMIZATION

Heuristics / Rules

- \rightarrow Rewrite the query to remove (guessed) inefficiencies.
- \rightarrow Examples: always do selections first or push down projections as early as possible.
- \rightarrow These techniques may need to examine catalog, but they do <u>not</u> need to examine data.

Cost-based Search

- \rightarrow Use a model to estimate the cost of executing a plan.
- \rightarrow Enumerate multiple equivalent plans for a query and pick the one with the lowest cost.

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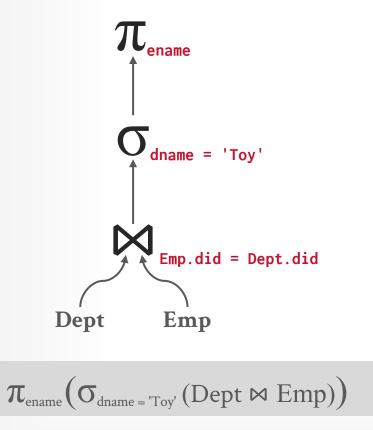


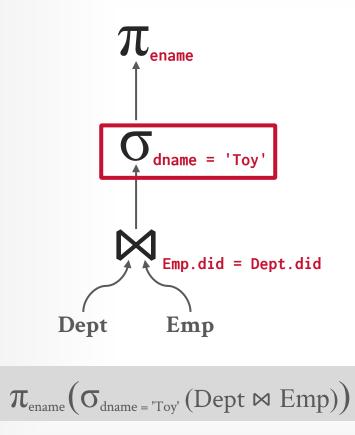
LOGICAL PLAN OPTIMIZATION

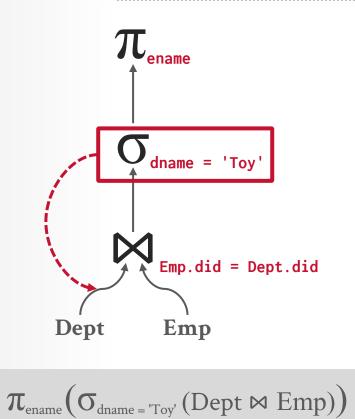
Transform a logical plan into an equivalent logical plan using pattern matching rules.

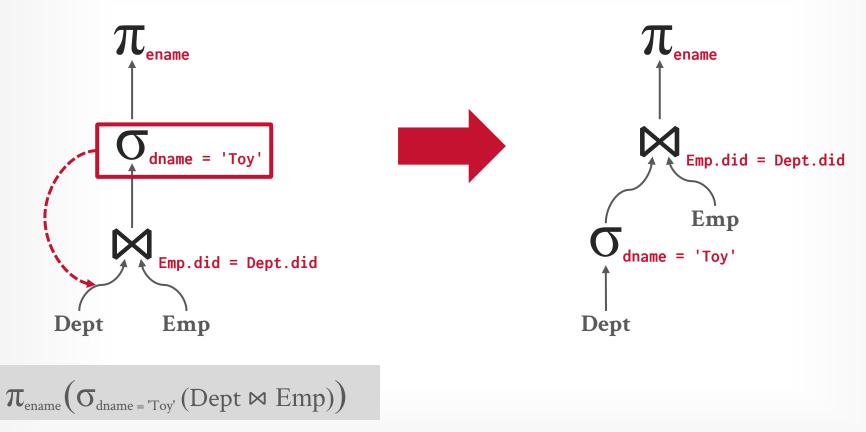
The goal is to increase the likelihood of enumerating the optimal plan in the search. \rightarrow Many equivalence rules for relational algebra!

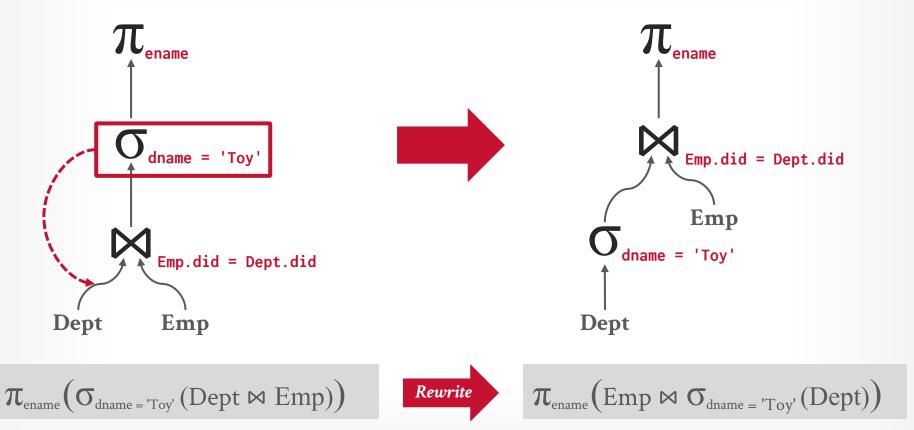
Cannot compare plans because there is no cost model but can "direct" a transformation to a preferred side.

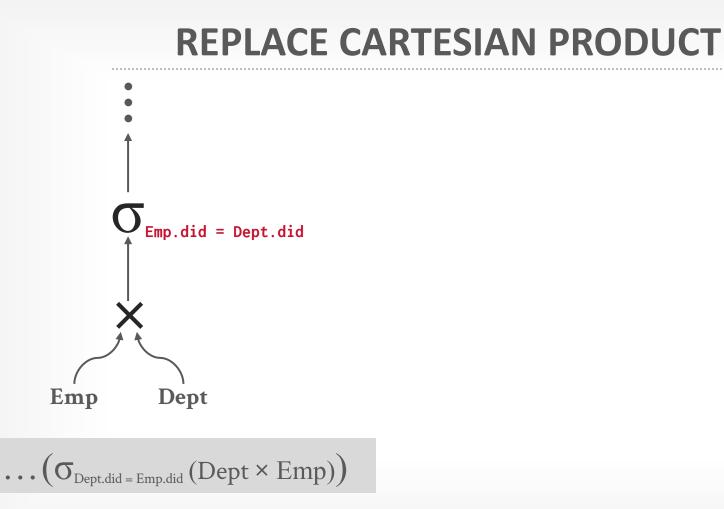


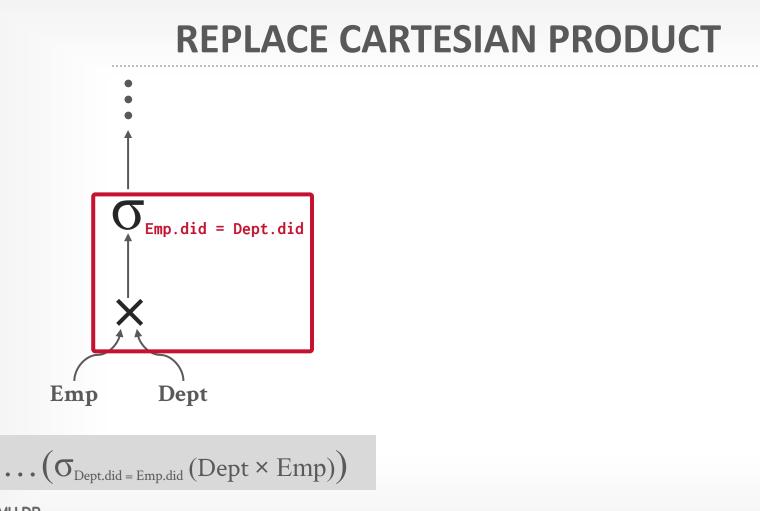


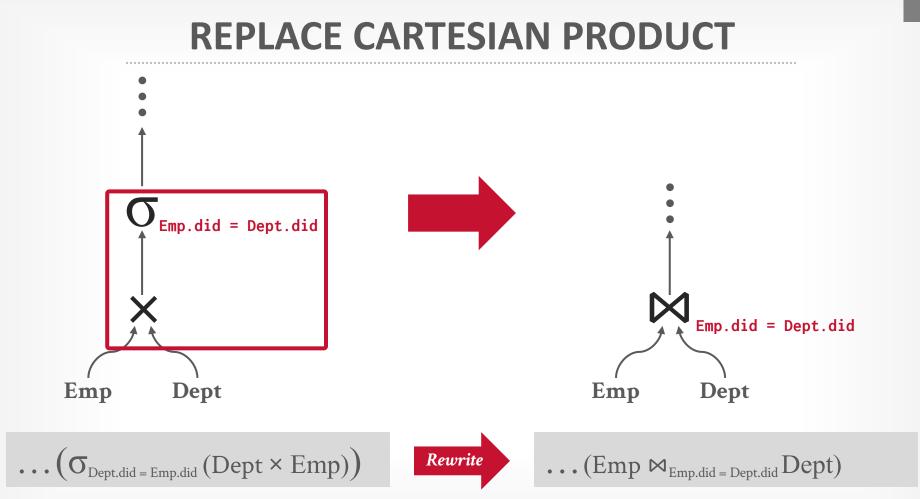




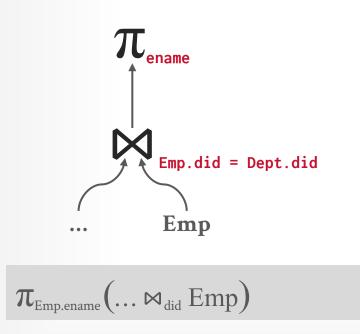




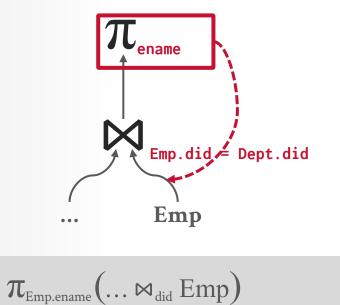




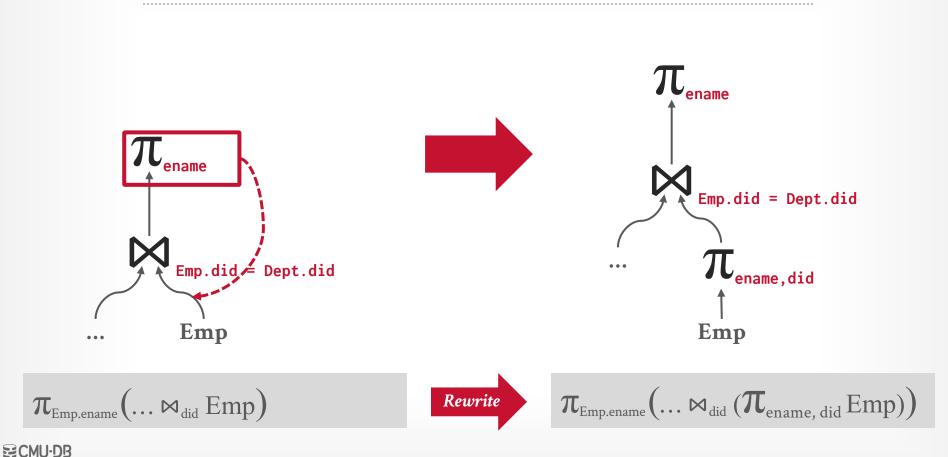
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COST-BASED QUERY OPTIMIZATION

We will start with cost-based, bottom-up QO \rightarrow a.k.a. the "classic" IBM System R optimizer

Approach: Enumerate different plans for the query and estimate their costs.

- \rightarrow Single relation.
- \rightarrow Multiple relations.
- \rightarrow Nested sub-queries.

It chooses the best plan it has seen for the query after exhausting all plans or some timeout.

SINGLE-RELATION QUERY PLANNING

Pick the best access method.

- \rightarrow Sequential Scan
- \rightarrow Binary Search (clustered indexes)
- \rightarrow Index Scan

Predicate evaluation ordering.

Simple heuristics are often good enough for this.

MULTI-RELATION QUERY PLANNING

Approach #1: Generative / Bottom-Up

- \rightarrow Start with nothing and then iteratively assemble and add building blocks to generate a query plan.
- \rightarrow **Examples:** System R, Starburst

Approach #2: Transformation / Top-Down

- → Start with the outcome that the query wants, and then transform it to equivalent alternative sub-plans to find the optimal plan that gets to that goal.
- \rightarrow **Examples**: Volcano, Cascades



BOTTOM-UP OPTIMIZATION

Use static rules to perform initial optimization. Then use dynamic programming to determine the best join order for tables using a divide-andconquer search method

Examples: IBM System R, DB2, MySQL, Postgres, most open-source DBMSs.

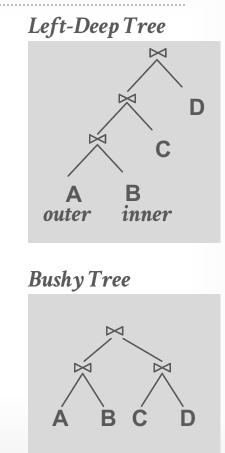
Break query into blocks and generate logical operators for each block.

For each logical operator, generate a set of physical operators that implement it.

→ All combinations of join algorithms and access paths

Then, iteratively construct a "left-deep" join tree that minimizes the estimated amount of work to execute the plan.

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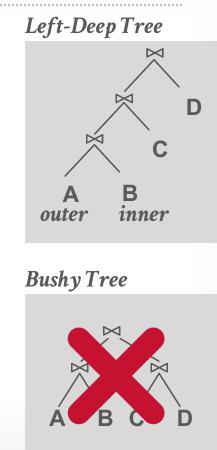
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SELECT ARTIST.NAME
FROM ARTIST, APPEARS, ALBUM
WHERE ARTIST.ID=APPEARS.ARTIST_ID
AND APPEARS.ALBUM_ID=ALBUM.ID
AND ALBUM.NAME="Andy's OG Remix"
ORDER BY ARTIST.ID

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ALBUM	\bowtie	APPEARS	\bowtie	ARTIST
APPEARS	\bowtie	ARTIST	\bowtie	ALBUM
ARTIST	×	ALBUM	\bowtie	APPEARS
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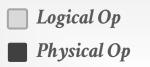
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Step #2: Enumerate all possible join orderings for tables

Step #3: Determine the join ordering with the lowest cost

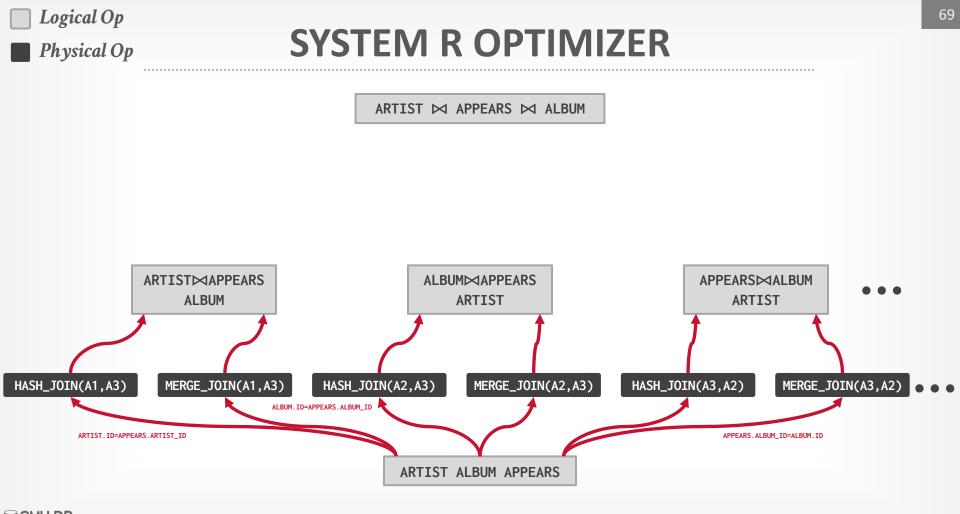
ARTIST: Sequential Scan
APPEARS: Sequential Scan
ALBUM: Index Look-up on NAME

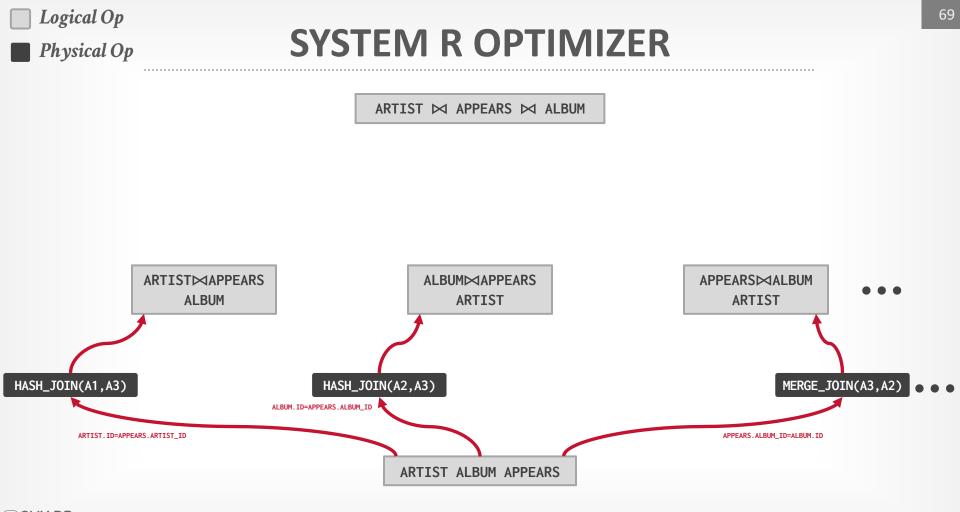
ARTIST	\bowtie	APPEARS	\bowtie	ALBUM
APPEARS	\bowtie	ALBUM	\bowtie	ARTIST
ALBUM	\bowtie	APPEARS	\bowtie	ARTIST
APPEARS	\bowtie	ARTIST	\bowtie	ALBUM
ARTIST	×	ALBUM	\bowtie	APPEARS
ALBUM	×	ARTIST	\bowtie	APPEARS
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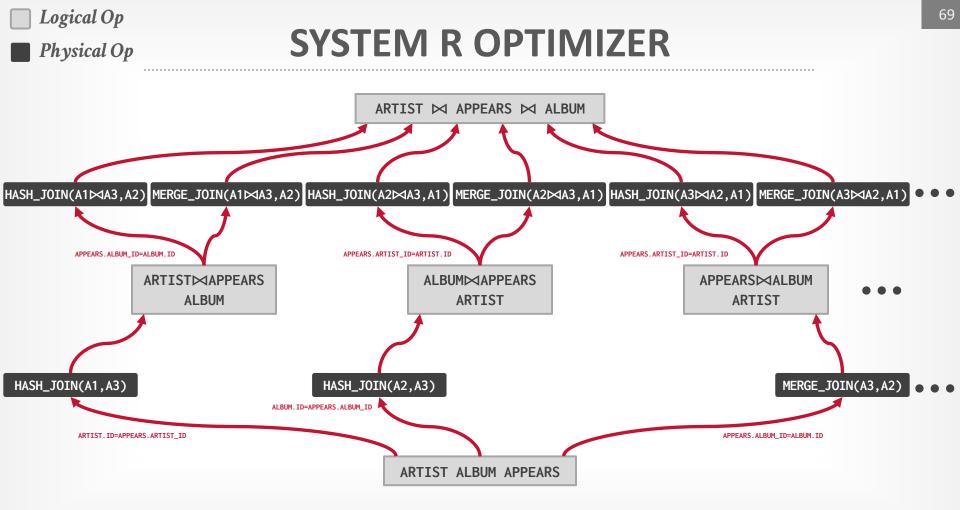


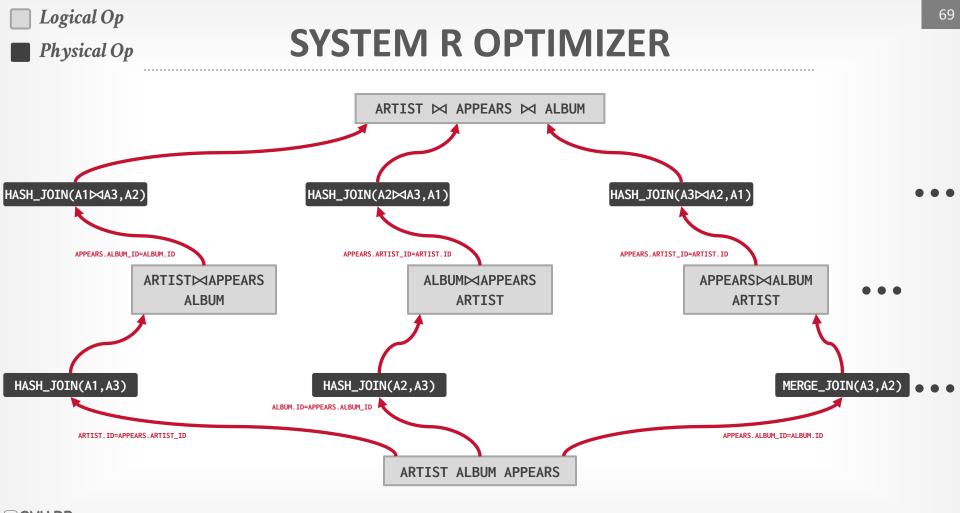
ARTIST 🖂 APPEARS 🖂 ALBUM

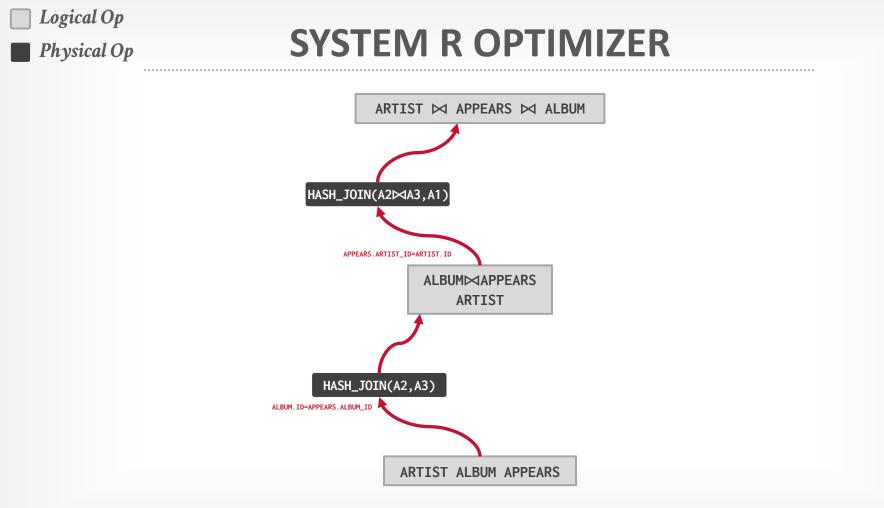
ARTIST ALBUM APPEARS

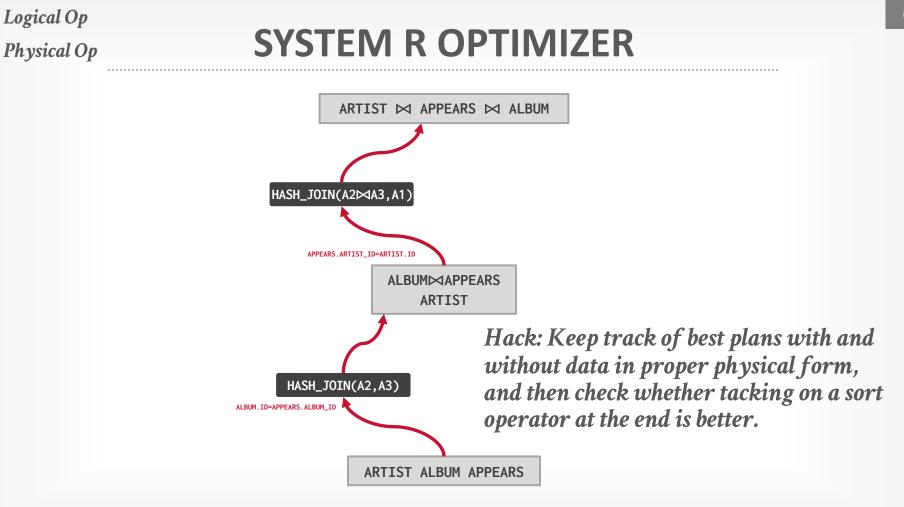


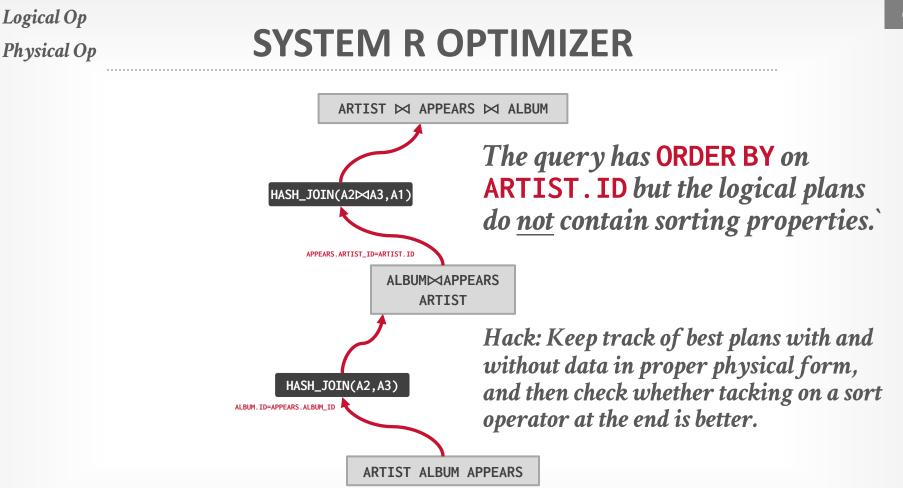












TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

Start with a logical plan of what we want the query to be. Perform a branch-and-bound search to traverse the plan tree by converting logical operators into physical operators.

- \rightarrow Keep track of global best plan during search.
- → Treat physical properties of data as first-class entities during planning.

Examples: MSSQL, Greenplum, CockroachDB

Example Logical Rules

 $\sigma_{P1} (\sigma_{P2}(R)) \equiv \sigma_{P2} (\sigma_{P1}(R))$ (σ commutativity)

 $\sigma_{P1 \land P2 \dots \land Pn} (R) \equiv \sigma_{P1} (\sigma_{P2} (\dots \sigma_{Pn} (R))) \text{ (cascading } \sigma)$

 $\prod_{a1}(R) \equiv \prod_{a1}(\prod_{a2}(\dots \prod_{ak}(R)\dots)), a_i \subseteq a_{i+1} \text{ (cascading } \prod)$

 $R \bowtie S \equiv S \bowtie R$ (join commutativity)

 $R \bowtie (S \bowtie T) \equiv (R \bowtie S) \bowtie T$ (join associativity)

 $\sigma_P(R X S) \equiv (R \bowtie_P S)$, if P is a join predicate

 $\sigma_P (R X S) \equiv \sigma_{P1} (\sigma_{P2}(R) \bowtie_{P4} \sigma_{P3}(S))$, where $P = p1 \land p2 \land p3 \land p4$

 $\prod_{A1,A2,\dots,An}(\sigma_P(R)) \equiv \prod_{A1,A2,\dots,An}(\sigma_P(\prod_{A1,\dots,An,B1,\dots,BM}R)), \text{ where } B1 \dots BM \text{ are columns in } P$

Logical Op

TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

Start with a logical plan of what we want the query to be.



Logical Op

TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

Start with a logical plan of what we want the query to be.

ARTIST ⋈ APPEARS ⋈ ALBUM ORDER-BY(ARTIST.ID)



TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

- Start with a logical plan of what we want the query to be.
- Invoke rules to create new nodes and traverse tree.
- \rightarrow Logical \rightarrow Logical:
 - JOIN(A,B) to JOIN(B,A)
- \rightarrow Logical \rightarrow Physical:

JOIN(A,B) to HASH_JOIN(A,B)

ARTIST 🖂 APPEARS 🖂 ALBUM ORDER-BY(ARTIST.ID)

Logical Op

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ARTIST 🖂 APPEARS 🖂 ALBUM ORDER-BY(ARTIST.ID)

ARTISTMALBUM





TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

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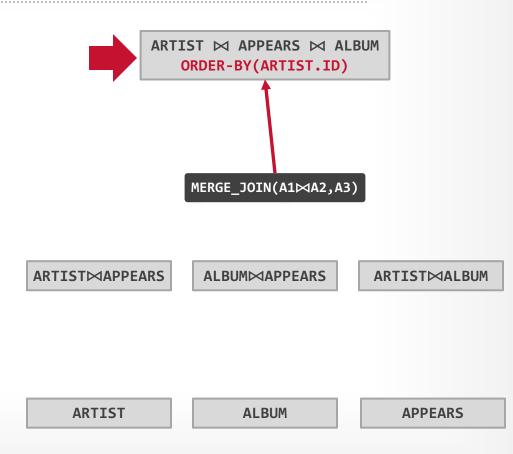
ARTISTMAPPEARS ALBUMMAPPEARS

ARTISTMALBUM



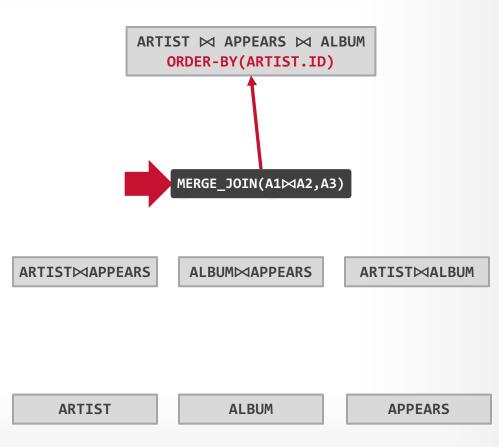


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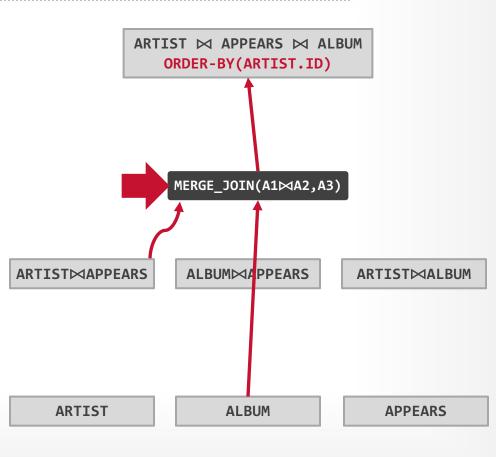






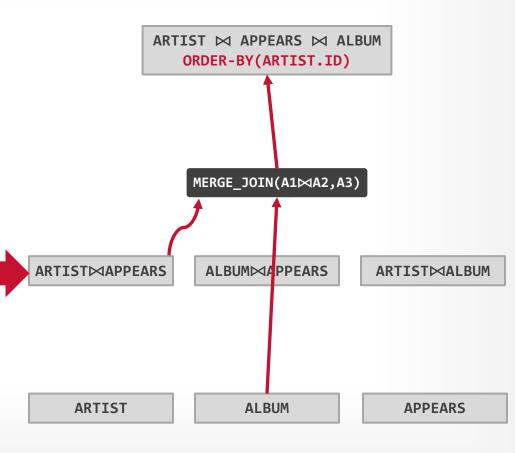
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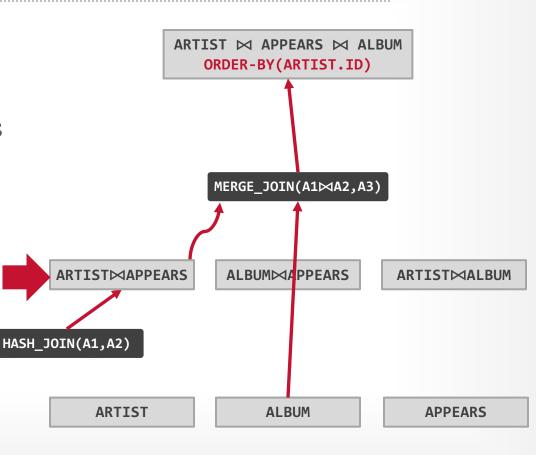


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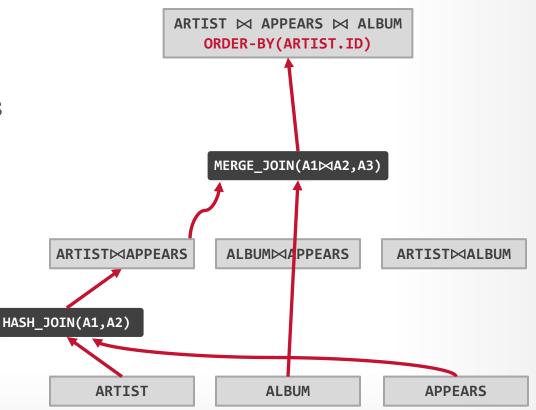


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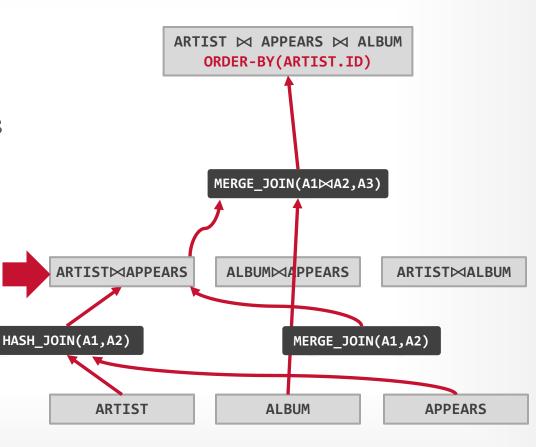


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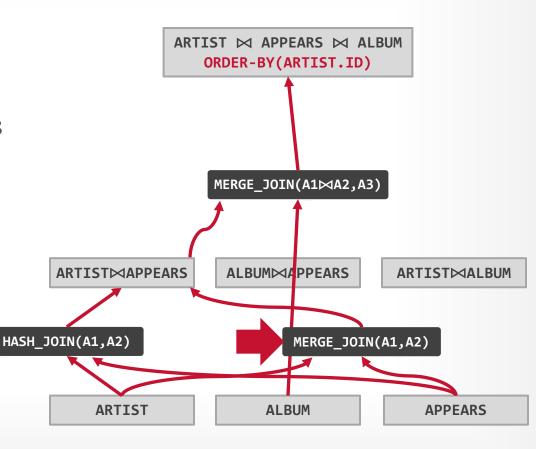


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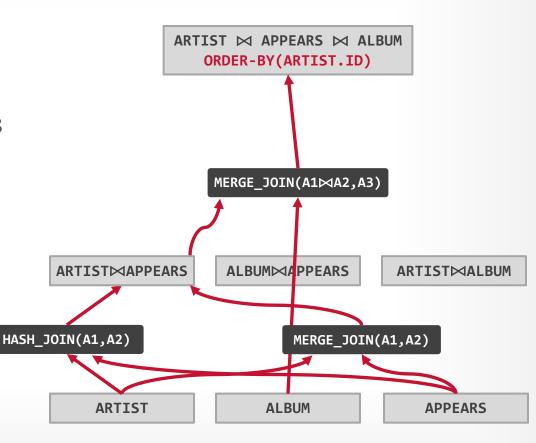




Physical Op

TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

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- $\rightarrow Logical \rightarrow Logical:$ JOIN(A,B) to JOIN(B,A)
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- Can create "enforcer" rules that require input to have certain properties.

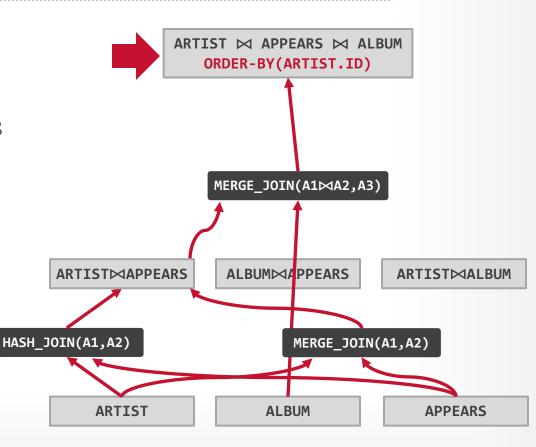




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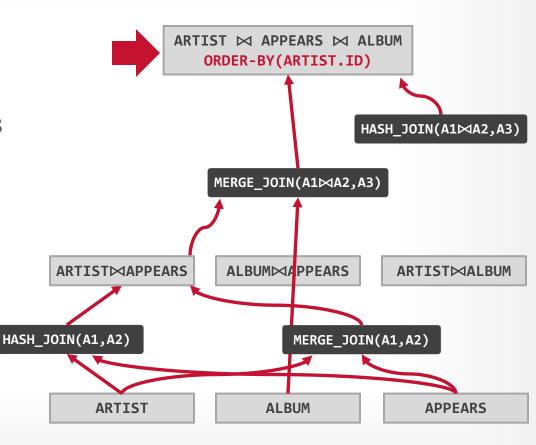




Physical Op

TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

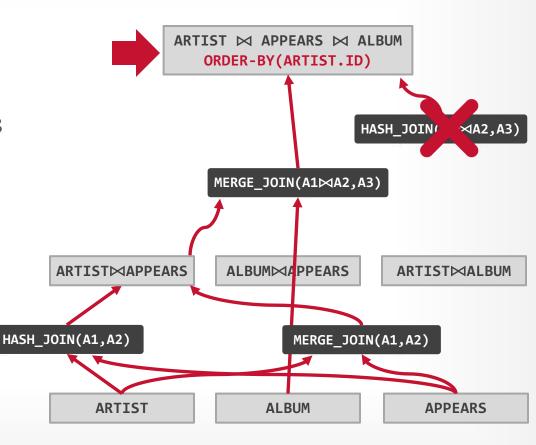
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TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION

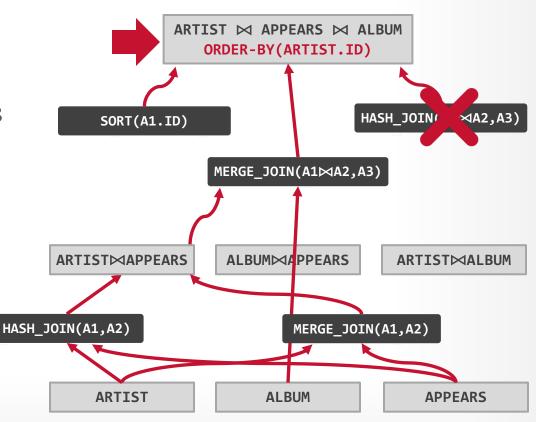
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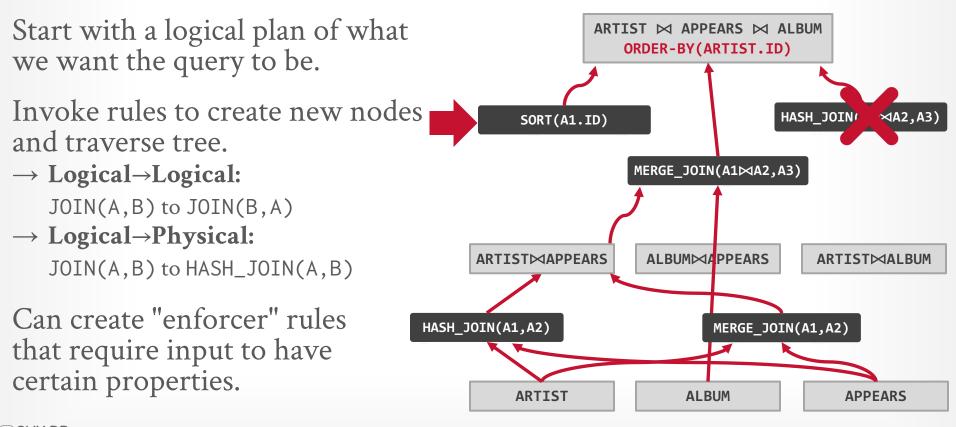
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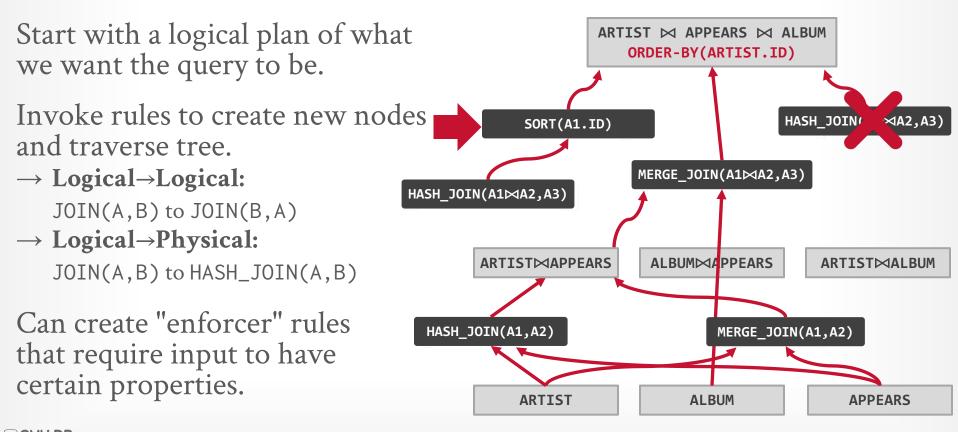
TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION



EXAMPLE DB 15-445/645 (Spring 2025)



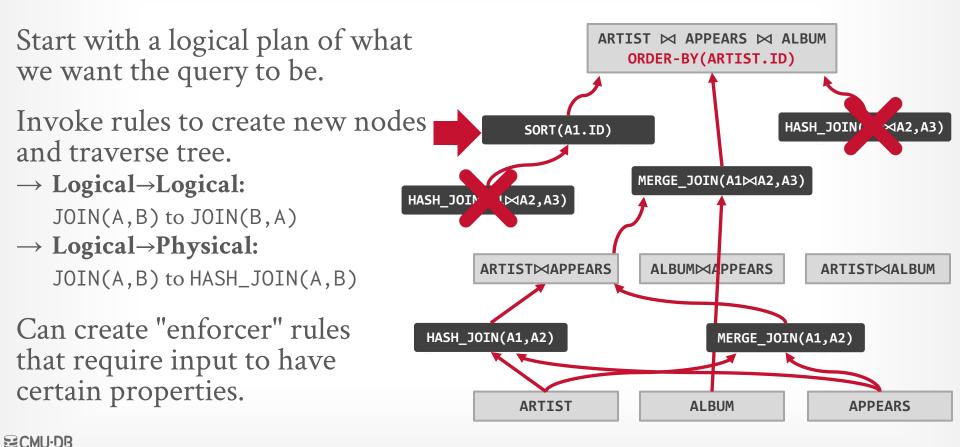
TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION



EXAMPLE DB 15-445/645 (Spring 2025)



TOP-DOWN OPTIMIZATION



15-445/645 (Spring 2025)

OBSERVATION

Applications often execute nested queries.

- \rightarrow We could optimize each block using the methods we have discussed.
- \rightarrow However, this may be inefficient since we optimize each block separately without a global approach.

What if we could flatten a nested query into a single block and optimize it?

- \rightarrow Then, apply single-block query optimization methods.
- \rightarrow Even if one cannot flatten to a single block, flattening to <u>fewer</u> blocks is still beneficial.

NESTED SUB-QUERIES

The DBMS treats nested sub-queries in the where clause as functions that take parameters and return a single value or set of values.

Approach #1: Rewrite to de-correlate and/or flatten them.

Approach #2: Decompose nested query and store results in a temporary table.

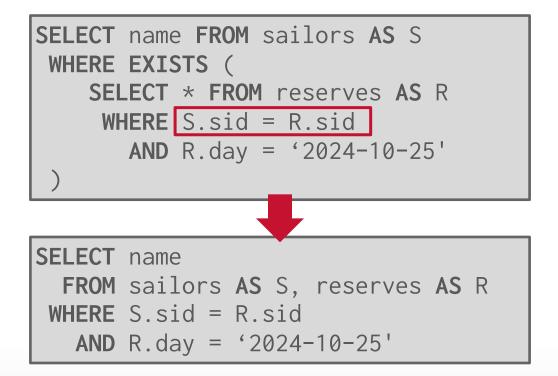
NESTED SUB-QUERIES: REWRITE

```
SELECT name FROM sailors AS S
WHERE EXISTS (
    SELECT * FROM reserves AS R
    WHERE S.sid = R.sid
    AND R.day = '2024-10-25'
)
```

NESTED SUB-QUERIES: REWRITE

```
SELECT name FROM sailors AS S
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    SELECT * FROM reserves AS R
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NESTED SUB-QUERIES: REWRITE

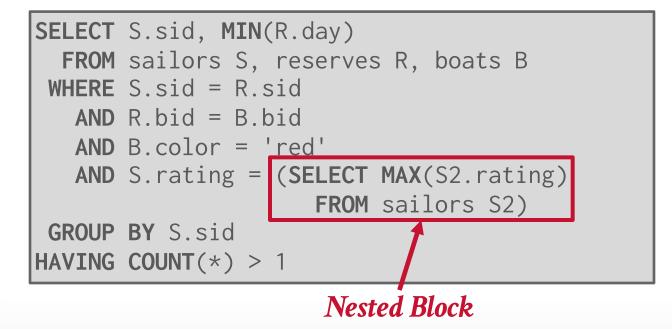


For harder queries, the optimizer breaks up queries into blocks and then concentrates on one block at a time.

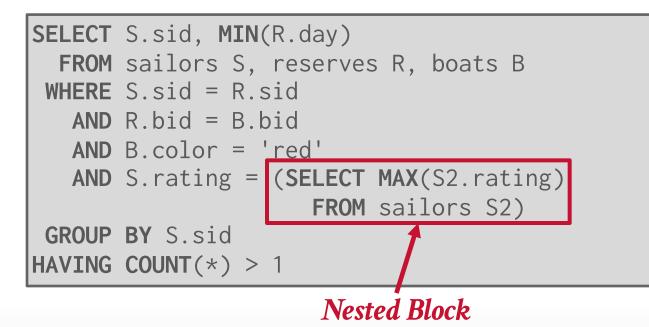
Sub-queries are written to temporary tables that are discarded after the query finishes.

```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
WHERE S.sid = R.sid
AND R.bid = B.bid
AND B.color = 'red'
AND S.rating = (SELECT MAX(S2.rating)
FROM sailors S2)
GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```



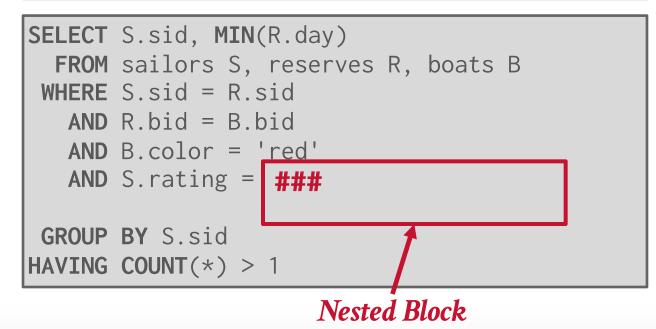


SELECT MAX(rating) **FROM** sailors



DECOMPOSING QUERIES

SELECT MAX(rating) **FROM** sailors



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DECOMPOSING QUERIES

SELECT MAX(rating) **FROM** sailors

```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
WHERE S.sid = R.sid
AND R.bid = B.bid
AND B.color = 'red'
AND S.rating = ### ←
GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

DECOMPOSING QUERIES

Inner Block SELECT MAX(rating) FROM sailors

```
SELECT S.sid, MIN(R.day)
FROM sailors S, reserves R, boats B
WHERE S.sid = R.sid
AND R.bid = B.bid
AND B.color = 'red'
AND S.rating = ###
GROUP BY S.sid
HAVING COUNT(*) > 1
```

Outer Block

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An optimizer transforms a query's expressions (e.g., **WHERE/ON** clause predicates) into the minimal set of expressions.

Implemented using if/then/else clauses or a pattern-matching rule engine.

- \rightarrow Search for expressions that match a pattern.
- \rightarrow When a match is found, rewrite the expression.
- \rightarrow Halt if there are no more rules that match.

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 0;



Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * FROM A WHERE 1 = 0

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;



Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE** false;

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE NOW() IS NULL**;

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;

SELECT * FROM A WHERE NOW() IS NULL;



Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE** false;

Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE** false;

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;

Merging Predicates

SELECT * FROM A
WHERE val BETWEEN 1 AND 100
OR val BETWEEN 50 AND 150;



Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE** false;

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;

Merging Predicates

SELECT * FROM A
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OR val BETWEEN 50 AND 150;



Impossible / Unnecessary Predicates

SELECT * **FROM** A **WHERE** false;

SELECT * FROM A WHERE false;

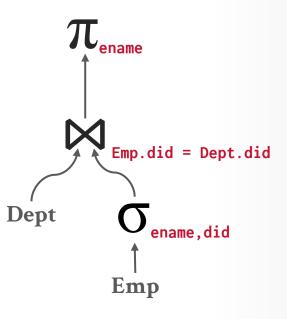
Merging Predicates

SELECT * FROM A
WHERE val BETWEEN 1 AND 150;



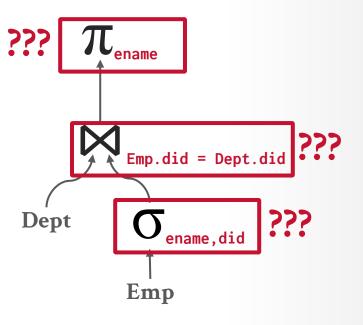
OBSERVATION

We have formulas for the operator algorithms (e.g. the cost formulas for hash join, sort merge join, ...), but we also need to estimate the size of the output that an operator produces.



OBSERVATION

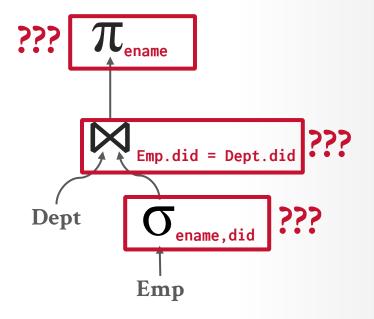
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OBSERVATION

We have formulas for the operator algorithms (e.g. the cost formulas for hash join, sort merge join, ...), but we also need to estimate the size of the output that an operator produces.

This is hard because the output of each operators depends on its input.





COST ESTIMATION

The DBMS uses a cost model to predict the behavior of a query plan given a database state.
→ This is an <u>internal</u> cost that allows the DBMS to compare one plan with another.

It is too expensive to run every possible plan to determine this information, so the DBMS need a way to derive this information.

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COST MODEL COMPONENTS

Choice #1: Physical Costs

- → Predict CPU cycles, I/O, cache misses, RAM consumption, network messages...
- \rightarrow Depends heavily on hardware.

Choice #2: Logical Costs

- \rightarrow Estimate output size per operator.
- \rightarrow Independent of the operator algorithm.
- \rightarrow Need estimations for operator result sizes.

POSTGRES COST MODEL

Uses a combination of CPU and I/O costs that are weighted by "magic" constant factors.

Default settings are obviously for a disk-resident database without a lot of memory:

- \rightarrow Processing a tuple in memory is **400x** faster than reading a tuple from disk.
- \rightarrow Sequential I/O is **4x** faster than random I/O.

19.7.2. Planner Cost Constants

The *cost* variables described in this section are measured on an arbitrary scale. Only their relative values matter, hence scaling them all up or down by the same factor will result in no change in the planner's choices. By default, these cost variables are based on the cost of sequential page fetches; that is, seq_page_cost is conventionally set to 1.0 and the other cost variables are set with reference to that. But you can use a different scale if you prefer, such as actual execution times in milliseconds on a particular machine.

Note: Unfortunately, there is no well-defined method for determining ideal values for the cost variables. They are best treated as averages over the entire mix of queries that a particular installation will receive. This means that changing them on the basis of just a few experiments is very risky.

seq_page_cost (floating point)

Sets the planner's estimate of the cost of a disk page fetch that is part of a series of sequential fetches. The default is 1.0. This value can be overridden for tables and indexes in a particular tablespace by setting the tablespace parameter of the same name (see <u>ALTER</u> <u>TABLESPACE</u>).

random_page_cost (floating point)

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STATISTICS

The DBMS stores internal statistics about tables, attributes, and indexes in its internal catalog. Different systems update them at different times.

Manual invocations:

- \rightarrow Postgres/SQLite: **ANALYZE**
- \rightarrow Oracle/MySQL: **ANALYZE TABLE**
- \rightarrow SQL Server: **UPDATE STATISTICS**
- \rightarrow DB2: **RUNSTATS**

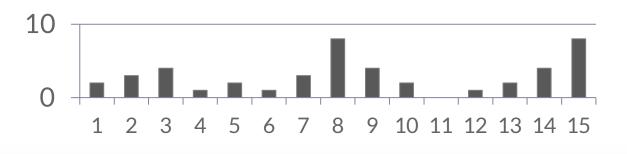
The <u>selectivity</u> (sel) of a predicate P is the fraction of tuples that qualify. Equality Predicate: A=constant \rightarrow sel(A=constant) = #occurences/[R]

SELECT * **FROM** people WHERE age = 9

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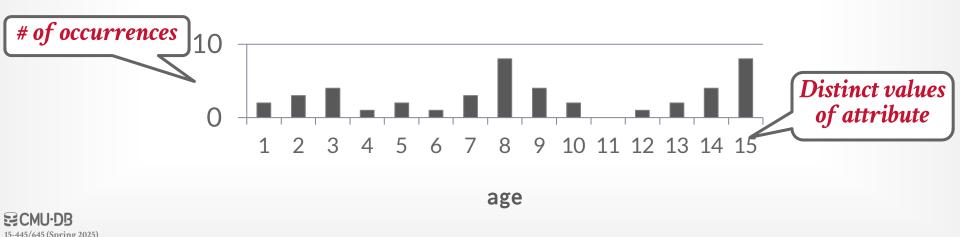
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SELECT * **FROM** people WHERE age = 9 130



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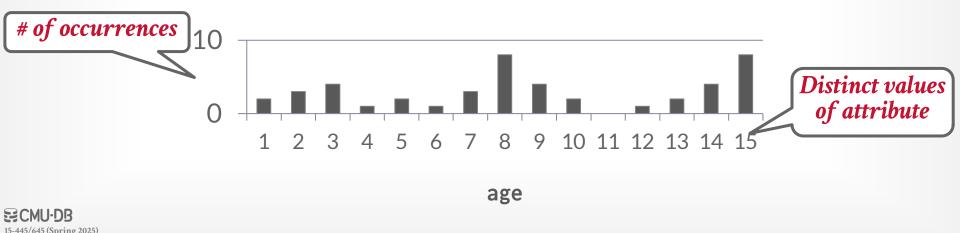
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SELECT * FROM people
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```



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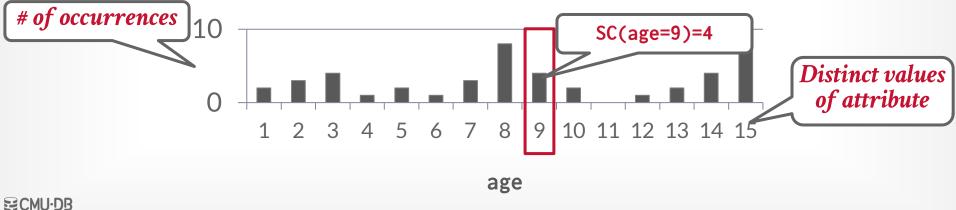
SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age = 9

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The <u>selectivity</u> (sel) of a predicate P is the fraction of tuples that qualify. Equality Predicate: A=constant \rightarrow sel(A=constant) = #occurences/|R| \rightarrow Example: sel(age=9) =

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The <u>selectivity</u> (sel) of a predicate P is the fraction of tuples that qualify. Equality Predicate: A=constant \rightarrow sel(A=constant) = #occurences/|R| \rightarrow Example: sel(age=9) = 4/45

SELECT * FROM people
WHERE age = 9



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Assumption #1: Uniform Data

 \rightarrow The distribution of values (except for the heavy hitters) is the same.

Assumption #2: Independent Predicates

 \rightarrow The predicates on attributes are independent

Assumption #3: Inclusion Principle

 \rightarrow The domain of join keys overlap such that each key in the inner relation will also exist in the outer table.

CORRELATED ATTRIBUTES

Consider a database of automobiles: \rightarrow # of Makes = 10, # of Models = 100 And the following query: \rightarrow (make="Honda" AND model="Accord") With the independence and uniformity assumptions, the selectivity is: \rightarrow 1/10 × 1/100 = 0.001 But since only Honda makes Accords the

But since only Honda makes Accords the real selectivity is 1/100 = 0.01

Source: Guy Lohman SCMU·DB 15-445/645 (Spring 2025)

STATISTICS

Choice #1: Histograms

→ Maintain an occurrence count per value (or range of values) in a column.

Choice #2: Sketches

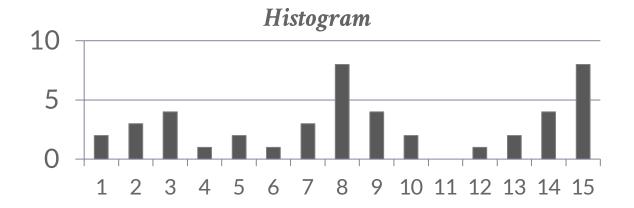
→ Probabilistic data structure that gives an approximate count for a given value.

Choice #3: Sampling

 \rightarrow DBMS maintains a small subset of each table that it then uses to evaluate expressions to compute selectivity.

HISTOGRAMS

Our formulas are nice, but we assume that data values are uniformly distributed.

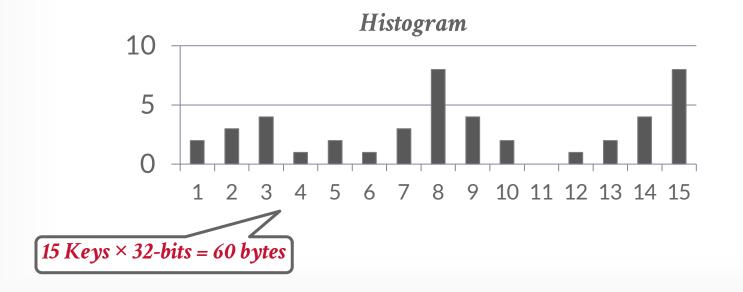




HISTOGRAMS

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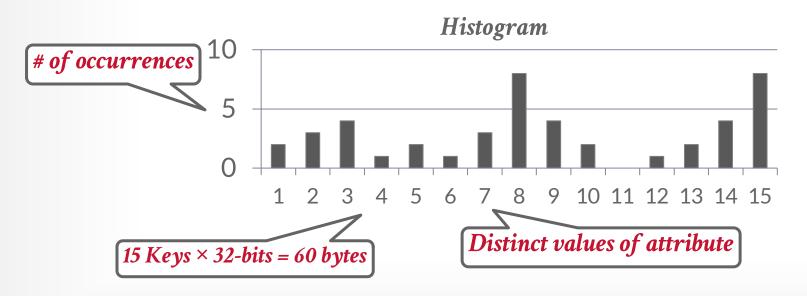
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HISTOGRAMS

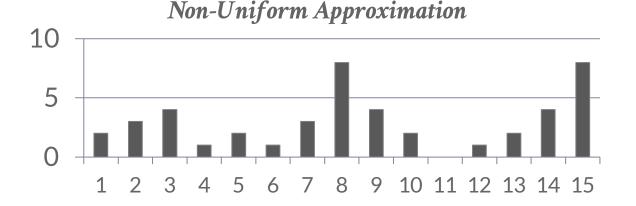
Our formulas are nice, but we assume that data values are uniformly distributed.





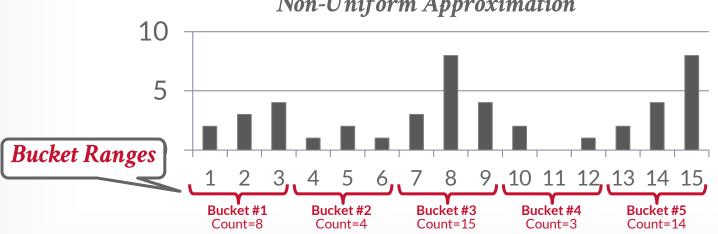
EQUI-WIDTH HISTOGRAM

Maintain counts for a group of values instead of each unique key. All buckets have the same width (i.e., same # of value).



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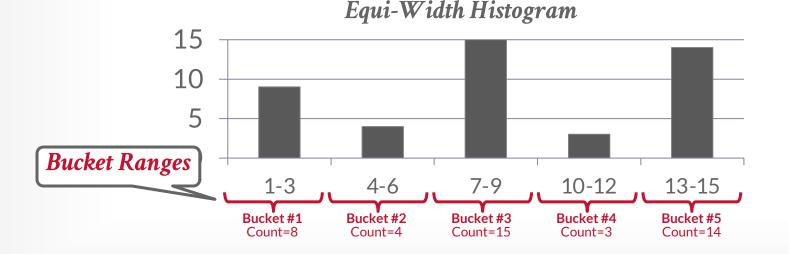


15-445/645 (Spring 2025)

EQUI-WIDTH HISTOGRAM

142

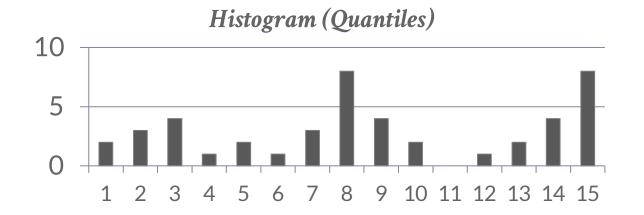
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15-445/645 (Spring 2025)

EQUI-DEPTH HISTOGRAMS

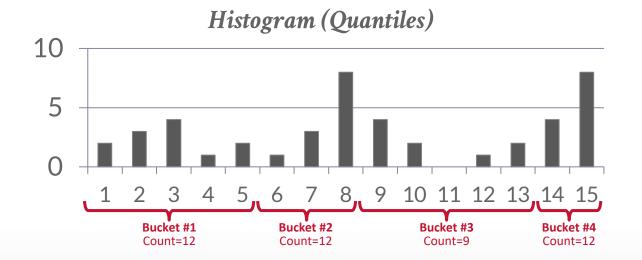
Vary the width of buckets so that the total number of occurrences for each bucket is roughly the same.





EQUI-DEPTH HISTOGRAMS

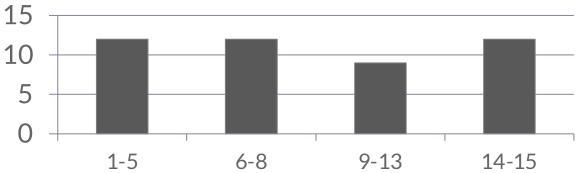
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EQUI-DEPTH HISTOGRAMS

Vary the width of buckets so that the total number of occurrences for each bucket is roughly the same.

Histogram (Quantiles)



SKETCHES

Probabilistic data structures that generate approximate statistics about a data set.

Cost-model can replace histograms with sketches to improve its selectivity estimate accuracy.

Most common examples:

- \rightarrow <u>Count-Min Sketch</u> (1988): Approximate frequency count of elements in a set.
- \rightarrow <u>HyperLogLog</u> (2007): Approximate the number of distinct elements in a set.

Modern DBMSs also collect samples from tables to estimate selectivities.

Update samples when the underlying tables changes significantly.

SELECT AVG(age)
 FROM people
 WHERE age > 50

id	name	age	status
1001	Obama	63	Rested
1002	Swift	34	Paid
1003	Тирас	25	Dead
1004	Bieber	30	Crunk
1005	Andy	43	Illin
1006	TigerKing	61	Jailed

: 1 billion tuples

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sel(age>50) = 1/3

CONCLUSION

Query optimization is critical for a database system.

- \rightarrow SQL \rightarrow Logical Plan \rightarrow Physical Plan
- \rightarrow Flatten queries before going to the optimization part. Expression handling is also important.
- \rightarrow Estimate costs using models based on summarizations.

QO enumeration can be bottom-up or top-down.

NEXT CLASS

Transactions! \rightarrow aka the second hardest part about database systems