Query Planning and Optimization

Dr. Qichen Wang EPFL 2025.5 Download this slide



Self-introduction

- Dr. Qichen Wang
 - PhD from Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, 2022
 - Research Assistant Professor, Hong Kong Baptist University 2022-2024
 - Postdoc, EPFL, 2024-now
- Teaching experiences:
 - Lecturer: Cloud Computing, Hong Kong Baptist University
 - TA: Big Data Technology, Combinatorial Optimization, HKUST
- Teaching interests:
 - Databases, Cloud Computing, Big Data Technology, Algorithms, Data Structures
 - Other BS/MS level CS courses

Prerequisite

- Fundamental relational concepts: tables, tuples, columns, primary and foreign keys
- Relational algebra
- Basic concepts of writing SQL queries, SELECT, FROM, WHERE, different types of joins, and subqueries
- Big-O analysis for algorithmic cost

Demo Database

Student(sid, name, state), Course(cid, title), Enrolled(sid, cid, grade)

sid	name	state
1	Alice	CA
2	Bob	NY
3	Charlie	CA
4	Diana	TX
5	Eve	CA
6	Frank	TX
7	Grace	NY

cid	title	
101	Database Systems	
102	Operating Systems	
103	Algorithms	
104	Computer Networks	

sid	cid	grade	
1	101	Α	
1	103	В	
2	101	В	
2	102	Α	
3	101	Α	
3	102	В	
3	103	Α	
3	104	Α	
4	103	С	
5	101	В	
5	102	Α	
6	101	Α	
7	104	Α	
8	101	Α	

Download the demo database



https://qichen-wang.github.io/files/demo.sql

To load it:

For DuckDB:

.read /path/to/demo.sql

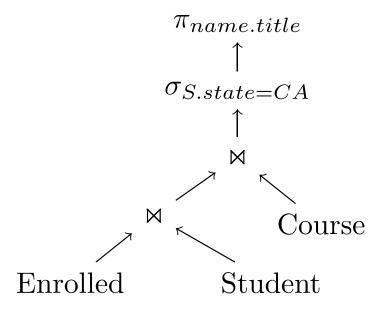
For PostgreSQL:

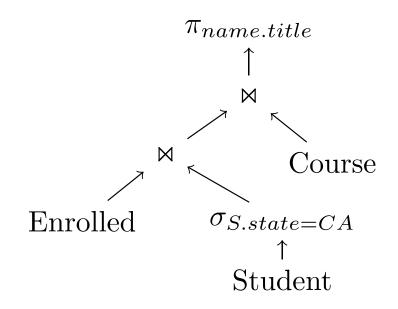
\i /path/to/demo.sql

SQL: A declarative language

- When writing SQL queries, we only express our high-level ideas.
- There can be different ways of evaluating the query.
 - "Listing all students from CA and the courses they have enrolled in."

SELECT name, title
FROM Student s, Course c, Enrolled e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
AND c.cid = e.cid
AND s.state = 'CA';

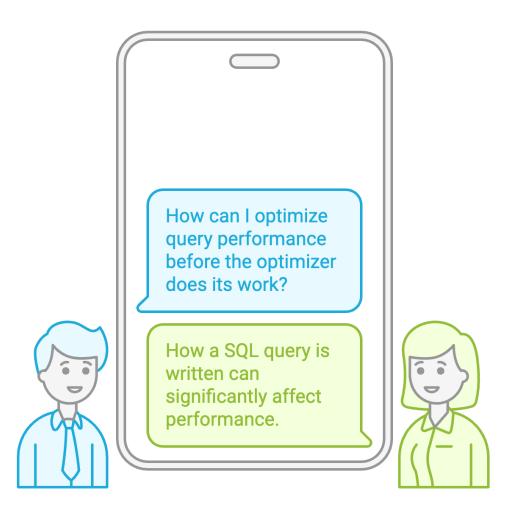




Before Optimization

The first step of optimization

- Ideally, the optimizer should do everything for you.
 - But that is not the case for current database systems.



An example:

Student(sid, name, state), Course(cid, title), Enrolled(sid, cid, grade)

- Suppose you want to find the students who have enrolled in all courses
- What will you do?
- 'For all' is hard to represent in SQL
- A direct translation: Find the students for whom there are no course they have not enrolled in

```
SELECT sid
FROM Student s

WHERE NOT EXISTS (
    SELECT * FROM Course c

WHERE NOT EXISTS (
    SELECT * FROM Enrolled e
    WHERE s.sid = e.sid AND c.cid = e.cid
));
```

It takes $O(n^2)$ time Loop over all students and courses and check the Enrolled table for every possible combination.

How to do better?

Student(sid, name, state), Course(cid, title), Enrolled(sid, cid, grade)

- Suppose you want to find the students who have enrolled in all courses
- Another possible way: Find the students whose enrolled course count matches the total number of courses in the Course table.

```
SELECT sid
FROM Enrolled e
GROUP BY sid
HAVING count(*) = (SELECT count(*) FROM Course c);
```

Can be done in linear time O(n)

- The first SQL query is 2x slower than the second SQL query on the toy database. The gap can be more significant with more records in the database.
- Writing a good SQL can reduce the complexity at the beginning.

■ Rule 1: Select Only Necessary Columns

- To avoid select * queries.
- It is hard to find a query requiring every table column.
- For some databases, data is stored in columnar format.
- Selecting only required columns can significantly reduce the I/O cost.

- **Rule 2:** Remove redundant filter conditions and avoid functions in filter conditions
 - For example, having both "data >= 2025-01-01 and data <= 2025-12-31" and "YEAR(date) = 2025"
 - YEAR(date) = 2025 is redundant
 - Also, YEAR(date) = 2025 is not index-friendly; databases usually have indices on the range queries, but not for functions.

Rule 3: Replace IN with EXISTS

For some databases, the EXISTS clause often offers better performance.

```
SELECT name
FROM Student
WHERE state = 'CA'
AND sid IN ( SELECT E.sid
FROM Enrolled e, Course c
WHERE e.cid = c.cid
AND c.title = 'Database Systems'
AND e.grade = 'A');
```

```
SELECT name
FROM Student s
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM Enrolled e, Course c
WHERE e.cid = c.cid
AND s.sid = e.sid
AND c.title = 'Database Systems'
AND e.grade = 'A')
AND state = 'CA';
```

- Some databases can optimize that for you (e.g., DuckDB) while some cannot (e.g., PostgreSQL)
- Always use EXISTS if the right-hand side is a subquery.

Rule 4: Replace unnecessary joins with semi-joins (EXISTS)

- Some join queries can be replaced with a semi-join if the output attributes are only located in

one of the two relations.

```
SELECT DISTINCT S.name
FROM Student s, Enrolled e, Course c
WHERE S.state = 'CA'
AND C.title = 'Database Systems'
AND E.grade = 'A'
AND s.sid = e.sid AND c.cid = e.cid;
```

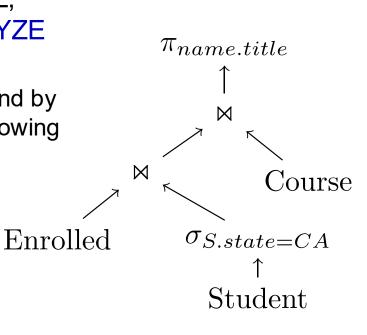
Avoid costly full join computation.

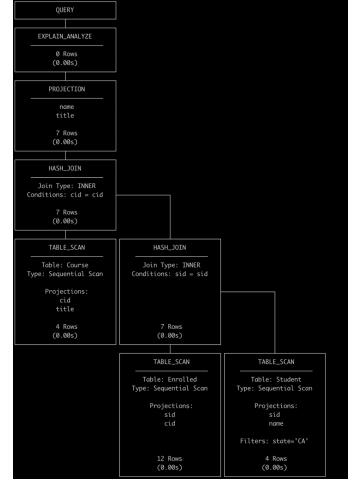
```
SELECT name
FROM Student s
WHERE EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM Enrolled e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
AND e.grade = 'A'
AND EXISTS (SELECT 1
FROM Course c
WHERE c.cid = e.cid
AND c.title = 'Database Systems'))
AND S.state = 'CA';
```

Viewing Query Evaluation Plans

- Most databases support 'EXPLAIN <query>' to display the query execution plan.
 - Display plan chosen by query optimizer, along with cost estimation
- Some databases (e.g., PostgreSQL, DuckDB) support 'EXPLAIN ANALYZE <query>'
 - Shows actual runtime statistics found by running the query, in addition to showing the plan

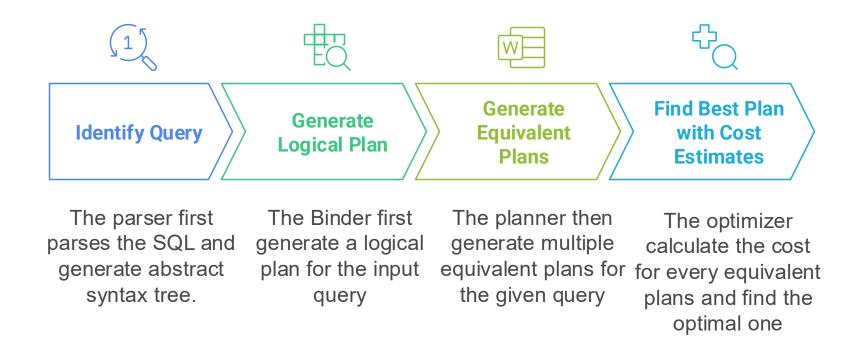
EXPLAIN ANALYZE SELECT name, title FROM Student s, Course c, Enrolled e WHERE s.sid = e.sid AND c.cid = e.cid AND s.state = 'CA';





Logical Plans and Rule-based Optimization

Logical Query Optimization



- The logical plan corresponds to a relational algebra expression.
- We need to find the equivalent relational algebra expressions to find equivalent plans.

Transformation of Relational Expressions

- Two relational algebra expressions are said to be equivalent if the two expressions generate the same set of tuples on every legal database instance.
 - Note: order of tuples is irrelevant
- An equivalence rule says that expressions of two forms are equivalent.
 - Can replace the expression of the first form by the second, or vice versa
- It is actually hard to find all possible equivalent expressions
 - NP-hard problem
- Practically: Choose from a subset of all possible plans

Equivalence Rules

1. Conjunctive selection operations can be deconstructed into a sequence of individual selections.

$$\sigma_{\theta_1 \wedge \theta_2}(E) \equiv \sigma_{\theta_1} \left(\sigma_{\theta_2}(E) \right)$$

$$\sigma_{s.sid < 10 \land s.state = 'CA'}(Student) \equiv \sigma_{s.sid < 10} \left(\sigma_{s.state = 'CA'}(Student)\right)$$

2. Selection operation is commutative.

$$\sigma_{\theta_1}\left(\sigma_{\theta_2}(E)\right) \equiv \sigma_{\theta_2}\left(\sigma_{\theta_1}(E)\right)$$

$$\sigma_{s.sid < 10} \Big(\sigma_{s.state = 'CA'}(Student) \Big) \equiv \sigma_{s.state = 'CA'} \Big(\sigma_{s.sid < 10}(Student) \Big)$$

Equivalence Rules

3. Join is commutative

$$E_1 \bowtie E_2 \equiv E_2 \bowtie E_1$$

 $Student \bowtie Enrolled \equiv Enrolled \bowtie Student$

4. Natural join are associative

$$(E_1 \bowtie E_2) \bowtie E_3 \equiv E_1 \bowtie (E_2 \bowtie E_3)$$

 $(Student \bowtie Enrolled) \bowtie Course \equiv Student \bowtie (Enrolled \bowtie Course)$

- The associative of natural join can create a lot of equivalence plans.
 - Will discuss later.

Equivalence Rules

5. Only the last in a sequence of projection operations is needed, the others can be omitted.

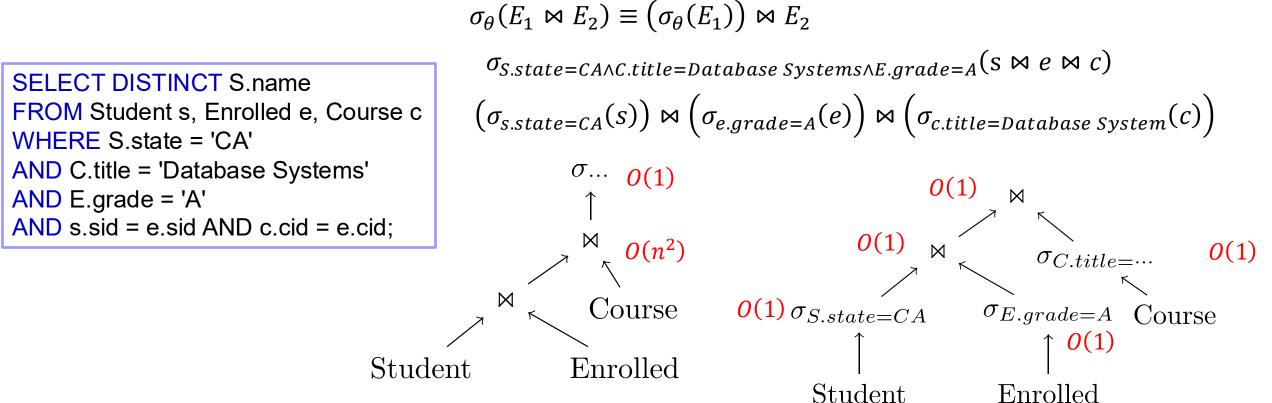
$$\pi_{L_1}\bigg(\pi_{L_2}\bigg(\cdots\Big(\pi_{L_n}(E)\Big)\bigg)\bigg)\equiv \pi_{L_1}(E)$$

where $L_1 \subseteq L_2 \subseteq \cdots \subseteq L_n$.

$$\pi_A\left(\pi_{A,B,C}(R)\right) \equiv \pi_A(R)$$

Predicate Pushdown

The selection operation can be distributed over the join operations if all the attributes in θ involve only those from one of the expressions (E_1) being joined.



Projection Pushdown

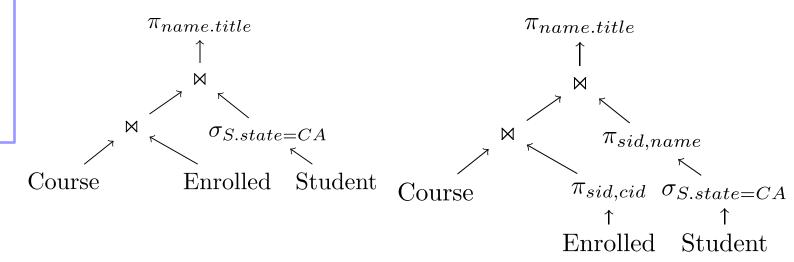
7. The projection operation distributes over the join operation as follows:

Assume L_1/L_2 only involves attributes from E_1/E_2 , L_3 are the set of join attributes:

$$\pi_{L_1 \cup L_2}(E_1 \bowtie E_2) \equiv \pi_{L_1 \cup L_2}(\pi_{L_1 \cup L_3}(E_1) \bowtie \pi_{L_2 \cup L_3}(E_2))$$

i.e., we first project all attributes in E_1/E_2 that are either not in the final output attributes, or the join attributes. After calculating the join, we remove all the non-output join attributes ($\pi_{L_1 \cup L_2}$)

SELECT name, title
FROM Student s, Course c, Enrolled e
WHERE s.sid = e.sid
AND c.cid = e.cid
AND s.state = 'CA';



Heuristic Optimizations

- There are more rules (even rules that have not been discovered yet).
- These techniques do not need to examine data.
 - Predicate pushdown
 - Projection pushdown
- Idea: drop unused data as much as possible and as early as possible without affecting the efficiency
- Provide a much better starting point for the next stage of optimization.

Cost-based Optimization

Cost-based Query Optimization

- The efficiency of a query plan depends on multiple factors:
 - CPU time
 - I/O operations
 - Memory usage
 - Cache misses
- Cost Model: a weighted formula that combines all these factors:

$$c_1(CPU\ Ops) + c_2(I/O\ Ops) + \cdots$$

- The constants c_1, c_2, \cdots depend heavily on hardware
- They are determined by the database system.
- The formula can be simpler or more complicated.
- Also, heavily depends on the output size of each operator, which determine the number of CPU and I/O operations

Cost Estimation

- Need statistics of input relations.
 - E.g., number of tuples, sizes of tuples
- Need to estimate the statistics of expression results
 - Can work as the input of another expression
 - To do so, we require additional statistics
 - E.g., the number of distinct values for an attribute
 - Selectivity of a predicate conditions

How to Get Estimated Statistics

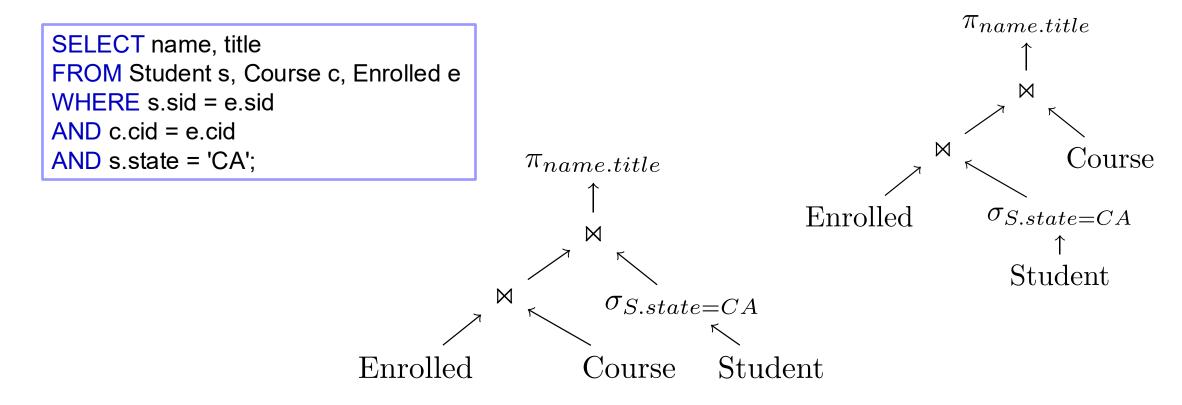
- Choice #1: Histograms
 - Maintain an occurrence count per value (or range of values) in a column
- Choice #2: Sketches
 - A probabilistic data structure that gives an approximate count for a given value
- Choice #3: Sampling
 - DMBS maintains a small subset of each table that it then uses to evaluate expressions to compute selectivity.
- Not covered in this lecture.
 - Let's assume we have a perfect estimator that can always return the actual number.

Single-Relation Query Planning

- Pick the best access method.
 - Sequential Scan
 - e.g., Select * From R, which requires accessing all records
 - Binary Search (clustered indexes)
 - e.g., Range filter conditions like Select ... From R Where R.x <= 10;
 - Index Scan
 - e.g., Point filter conditions like Select ... From R Where R.x = 'A';
- Predicate evaluation ordering
 - Apply the predicates with indexes first to avoid a sequential scan
 - Apply the most restricted predicate first
- Simple heuristics are often good enough for this

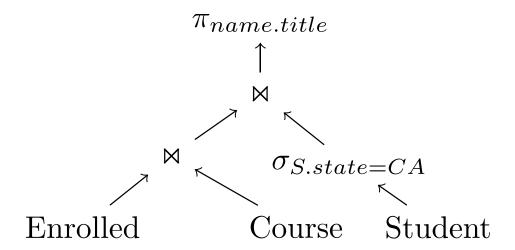
How to choose a better plan: Join Reordering

 Unlike predicate pushdown and projection pushdown, we cannot determine which relational expression is better after applying associative rules for multiple joins.



Join Reordering

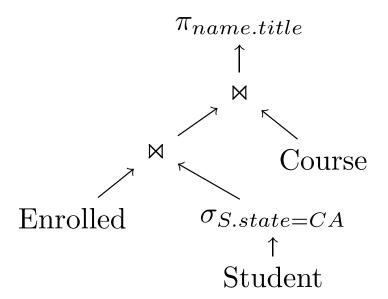
- Let's assume there are
 - 10000 records in the Enrolled relation
 - 50 records in the Course relation
 - 2000 records in the Student relation
 - Only 100 students are from CA
 - Every student enrolls in at most 10 courses



- Cost of the plan (The output size of each operation)
 - Course ⋈ Enrolled: returns 10000 records.
 - The filter predicate returns 100 records.
 - The final join returns at most 1000 records.

Join Reordering

- Let's assume there are
 - 10000 records in the Enrolled relation
 - 50 records in the Course relation
 - 2000 records in the Student relation
 - Only 100 students are from CA
 - Every student enrolls in at most 10 courses



- Cost of the plan (The output size of each operation)
 - The selective predicate returns 100 records.
 - The first join returns at most 1000 records.
 - The final join returns at most 1000 records.
- Assuming that generating one record requires a unit of time:
 - The first plan takes 11100 units
 - The second plan takes 2100 units

Join Reordering

Consider a chain join query:

$$R_1(x_1, x_2) \bowtie R_2(x_2, x_3) \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_n(x_n, x_{n+1})$$

- There can be $O(4^n)$ different join orders (Catalan number)
 - With 10 relations, total 4862 plans
 - With 20 relations, more than 1.7 billion plans

Join Reordering (cont.)

But there are a lot of duplicates for plans:

$$\left(\left(R_1(x_1, x_2) \bowtie R_2(x_2, x_3) \right) \bowtie R_3(x_3, x_4) \right) \bowtie \left(\left(R_4(x_4, x_5) \bowtie R_5(x_5, x_6) \right) \bowtie R_6(x_6, x_7) \right)$$

and

$$\left(\left(R_{1}(x_{1},x_{2})\bowtie R_{2}(x_{2},x_{3})\right)\bowtie R_{3}(x_{3},x_{4})\right)\bowtie\left(R_{4}(x_{4},x_{5})\bowtie\left(R_{5}(x_{5},x_{6})\bowtie R_{6}(x_{6},x_{7})\right)\right)$$

shares the same plan for evaluating the joins between R_1 , R_2 , R_3

■ The problem has overlapping sub-problems and show optimal sub-structure.

Dynamic Programming!

Dynamic Programming for Join Ordering

- Let cost[i,j] store the minimal cost for calculating chain query $R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j$, with plan[i,j] store the corresponding query plan. Assume the cost of calculating a join query is the size of the result.
 - When i > j, the problem is invalid
 - When i = j, return the relation R_i directly with the cost of $|R_i|$
- When calculating the optimal plan for chain query $R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j$, we determine the position k for performing the last join
 - i.e., we calculate $R_i\bowtie\cdots\bowtie R_k$ and $R_{k+1}\bowtie\cdots\bowtie R_j$ first, and then calculate the join query $(R_i\bowtie\cdots\bowtie R_k)\bowtie \left(R_{k+1}\bowtie\cdots\bowtie R_j\right)$
 - There are totally j i different choices
- The cost of choosing k will be

$$cost[i,k] + cost[k+1,j] + |R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j|$$

Bottom-up Procedure

- To calculate the optimal cost for [i, j], we first calculate all cost[l, m] with $i \le l \le m \le j$ and m l < j i
- Then we try all possible *k* and keep only the optimal one.

```
Input: R_1, \ldots, R_n in chain order;
for i \leftarrow 1 to n do
cost[i,i] \leftarrow |R_i|
                                                    // single relation cost
end
// Outer loop, set segment length
for L \leftarrow 2 to n do
    // Middle loop, set the start index i
    for i \leftarrow 1 to n - L + 1 do
       i \leftarrow i + L - 1
        cost[i,j] \leftarrow \infty
       // Inner loop, set the split point
       for k \leftarrow i to j-1 do
            c \leftarrow cost[i, k] + cost[k+1, j] + |R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j|
           if c < cost[i, j] then
               cost[i,j] \leftarrow c;
        end
```

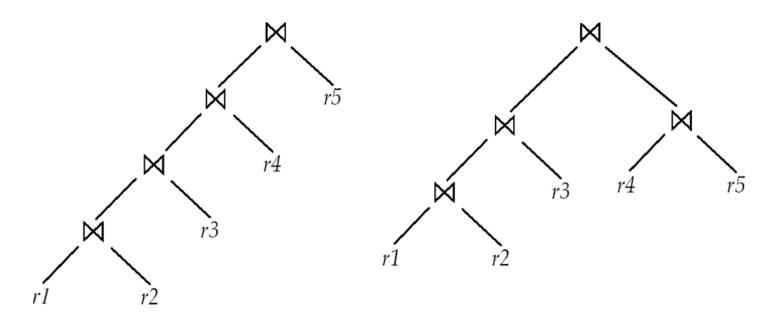
Output: cost[1, n] and query plan via plan

Complexity Analysis

- $O(n^2)$ memory cost
- $O(n^3)$ time complexity
 - When n = 20, the cost is 8000 instead of 1.7 billion.
- It is still costly if *n* is large.

Left-Deep Query Plans

- In left-deep query plans, the right-hand side for each join is a relation, not the result of an intermediate join.
- Left-deep plan allows pipelining and avoids materialization of intermediate results.
 - If the join is not a sort-merge join.

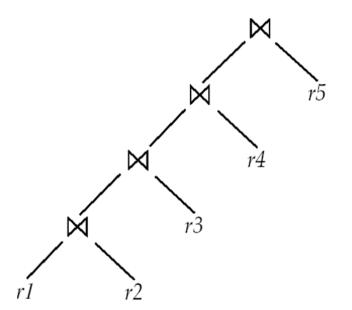


(a) Left-deep join tree

(b) Non-left-deep join tree

Left-Deep Query Plans (cont.)

- If only the left deep query plans are considered, the number of query plans is significantly reduced.
 - Partition n relations into n-1 and 1 relation
 - For the chain query, only R_1 and R_n can be the right-most relation



Left-Deep Query Plans (cont.)

- For calculating cost[i, j], we only need to consider the right-most relation to be R_i or R_i
 - No need to choose split point k anymore.
 - Reduce a factor of n for time complexity.

```
Input: R_1, \ldots, R_n in chain order;
for i \leftarrow 1 to n do
    cost[i,i] \leftarrow |R_i|
                                                      // single relation cost
end
// Outer loop, set segment length
for L \leftarrow 2 to n do
    // Middle loop, set the start index i
    for i \leftarrow 1 to n - L + 1 do
        j \leftarrow i + L - 1
        // Choose R_i or R_j to be the right-most relation
        c_1 \leftarrow cost[i, j-1] + cost[j, j] + |R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j|
        c_2 \leftarrow cost[i, i] + cost[i + 1, j] + |R_i \bowtie \cdots \bowtie R_j|
        if c_1 < c_2 then
            cost[i,j] \leftarrow c_1
           plan[i,j] \leftarrow i
        else
```

Output: cost[1, n] and query plan via plan

Conclusion

- Query optimization is critical for a database system.
 - SQL -> Logical Plan -> Physical Plan
- The optimization step:
 - Write good SQL if possible.
 - Rule-based optimization for filtering logical plans.
 - Finding equivalent relational expressions
 - Cost-based optimization is used to select the best logical and physical plan.
 - A dynamic programming-based algorithm to avoid plan recomputation
- What is missing:
 - Some equivalent rules (read Database System Concepts, Section 13.2.1, and finish the practice exercises)
 - The cost estimation methods (Section 13.3)
- If you like this and want to make cash money in the database industry, consider earning a PhD in the database team at NTU.

Reference

- Lecture Note 14: Query Planning and Optimization, 15-445/645 Database Systems (Fall 2023), Andy Pavlo, Jignesh Patel
- "The Alice book", S. Abiteboul, R. Hull and V. Vianu, "Foundations of Databases."
- "Database System Concepts", Avi Silberschatz, Henry F. Korth, S. Sudarshan, 6th edition

Some figures in this slide are from the textbook "Database System Concepts".