Using Segmented Right-Deep Trees for the Execution of Pipelined Hash Joins

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Abstract

In this paper, we explore the execution of pipelined hash joins in a multiprocessor-based database system. To improve the query execution, an innovative approach on query execution tree selection is proposed to exploit segmented right-deep trees, which are bushy trees of right-deep subtrees. We first derive an analytical model for the execution of a pipeline segment, and then, in light of the model, develop heuristic schemes to determine the query execution plan based on a segmented right-deep tree so that the query can be efficiently executed. As shown by our simulation, the proposed approach, without incurring additional overhead on plan execution, possesses more flexibility in query plan generation, and leads to query plans of significantly better performance than those achievable by the previous schemes using right-deep trees.

1 Introduction

In relational database systems, joins are the most expensive operations to execute, especially with the increases in database size and query complexity [13] [15] [26]. Several applications involving decision support and complex objects usually have to specify their desired results in terms of multi-join queries, and some complex queries for such applications may take hours or even days to complete, thus degrading the system performance. As a result, parallelism has been recognized as the solution for the efficient execution of multi-join queries for future database management [2] [6] [7] [13] [22].

Intra-operator parallelism, which occurs when several processors work in parallel on a single two-way join operation, was the focus of most prior studies on exploiting parallelism for database operations [1] [5] [10] [14] [16] [18] [20]. In addition, inter-operator parallelism allows that several joins within a query be executed in parallel. Despite its importance, inter-operator parallelism did not attract as much attention as intra-operator parallelism. This can be in part explained by the reasons that in the past the power/size of a multiprocessor system was limited, and the query structure used to be too simple to require further parallelizing in the inter-operator level. Notice, however, that those two limiting factors have been phased out by the rapid increase in the capacity of multiprocessors and the trend for queries to become more complicated nowadays, thus justifying the necessity of exploiting inter-operator parallelism [4] [9] [11] [17] [21].

Similarly to the study on intra-operator parallelism, to explore inter-operator parallelism, one has to consider the join methods employed. Among various join methods, the hash join has been elaborated upon by much research effort and reported to have superior performance to others [5] [14] [24]. Moreover, for exploiting inter-operator parallelism, hash joins provide the feasibility of pipelining. Using hash joins, multiple joins can be pipelined so that the early resulting tuples from a join, before the whole join is completed, can be sent to the next join for processing. A detailed description of pipelined hash joins and their advantages can be found in Section 2. Though pipelining has been shown to be very effective in reducing the query execution time, as will be described later, prior approaches on the implementation of pipelined hash joins are usually confined to a linear order of relations involved, thus not fully exploiting the flexibility on query plan generation. Consequently, in response to the increasing demand for a better performance of database operations, to study and improve the execution of pipelined hash joins for multi-join queries in a multiprocessor system is taken as the objective of this paper.
The execution of a query can be denoted by three forms of query execution trees: left-deep trees, right-deep trees, and bushy trees. In a query tree, a leaf node represents an input relation and an internal node represents the resulting relation from joining the two relations with its two child nodes, and the query tree is executed in a manner of bottom up. In the context of hash joins the left and right child nodes of an internal node denote, respectively, the inner and outer relations of a join [19], where, as explained in Section 2, the inner relation is the relation used to build the hash table and the outer relation is the one whose tuples are applied to probe the hash table. Examples of the three forms of query trees are shown in Figure 1, where the inner and outer relations are indicated for illustration. It can be seen that both right-deep and bushy trees allow the implementation of pipelining. Schneider and Dewitt are among the first to study the effect of pipelining [19] [21], where the focus was on the use of right-deep trees due mainly to the simplicity of right-deep trees and the uncertainty for the improvement achievable by using bushy trees. Clearly, for a given query, the number of right-deep trees to be considered is significantly less than that of bushy trees, and simple heuristics can be applied with little overhead to generate a right-deep query plan. For example, a right-deep tree can be obtained by first constructing a left-deep tree by some greedy methods and then taking a mirror image of the resulting left-deep tree [19]. However, right-deep trees might suffer from the drawback of less flexibility on structure, which in turn implies a limitation on performance. Moreover, since the amount of memory is usually not enough to accommodate hash tables of all inner relations, special provisions, such as static right-deep scheduling and dynamic bottom-up scheduling [21], are needed to deal with this problem. In both scheduling methods, a right-deep tree is decomposed into disjoint segments in such a way that for each segment the hash tables of its inner relations can be fitted into memory. For these methods, however, the execution of the whole query is implemented in one pipeline and thus restricted to the structure of a right-deep tree. An example right-deep tree which is decomposed into three segments is shown in Figure 2a, where one hash join is called a pipeline stage and several stages form a pipeline segment. The pipeline segments are executed one by one in a manner of bottom up with all resources in the system devoting to one segment at a time. Those joins whose resulting relations need to be written back to disks are marked black in Figure 2a for illustration. The bushy tree, on the other hand, offers more flexibility on query plan generation at the cost of searching a larger space. It has been shown that for sort-merge joins, the execution of bushy trees can outperform that of linear trees, especially when the number of relations in a query is large [4]. However, as far as the hash join is concerned, the scheduling for an execution plan of a bushy tree structure is much more complicated than that of a right-deep tree structure. Particularly, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to achieve the synchronization required for the execution of bushy trees such that the effect of pipelining can be fully utilized. This is the very reason that most prior studies on pipelined hash joins focused on the use of right-deep trees.

As an effort to improve the execution of pipelined hash joins, one would naturally like to develop efficient schemes to generate effective query plans that fully exploit the advantage of pipelining while avoiding the above mentioned deficiencies of the bushy and right-deep trees. Consequently, we propose in this paper the approach based on segmented right-deep trees for the execution of pipelined hash joins. A segmented right-deep tree is a bushy tree which is composed of a set of right-deep subtrees. An example of a segmented right-deep tree of 3 pipeline segments can be found in Figure 2b. A segmented right-deep tree is similar to a conventional right-deep tree in that all processing nodes execute one pipeline segment at a time, hence not incurring additional overhead on plan execution, but differs from the latter in that the resulting relation of a pipeline segment in the former can be either an inner relation or the outer relation of any of the subsequent segments, thus possessing the

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1While the static right-deep scheduling decomposes the right-deep tree into segments off-line and loads hash tables of a segment into memory in parallel, the dynamic bottom-up scheduling loads one hash table into memory at a time and determines the break points of segments dynamically according to the memory constraint.
Figure 2: (a) a conventional right-deep tree, and (b) a segmented right-deep tree.

flexibility of a bushy tree. Note that unlike the generation of right-deep trees that can resort to the similar heuristics for generating left-deep trees, to schedule a pipelined hash joins based on segmented right deep trees, we have to develop new heuristic schemes. Specifically, we shall first estimate the number of segments to be employed in a query plan, and then determine the relations that participate in each pipeline segment. Clearly, this problem is much more complicated than the one to select a pair of joining relations at a time in building a linear tree, since both a subset of relations and their join order have to be determined. To deal with this, we shall derive an analytical model for the execution of a segmented right-deep tree, and then, in light of the model, develop efficient heuristics for relation selection for each pipeline segment. It will be seen that under the execution of a segmented right-deep tree not only is the synchronization problem completely resolved, but also processor fragmentation [4] is avoided. As evaluated by our simulation that simulates the action of each individual tuple to go through the pipeline, the proposed approach on segmented right-deep trees, without incurring additional overhead on plan execution, possesses more flexibility in query plan generation, and is favorably compared with not only the right-deep trees generated by greedy methods but also the optimal right-deep tree that has the shortest execution time among all right-deep trees. This fact strongly suggests that to efficiently execute pipelined hash joins for years to come, instead of improving the heuristics on generating right-deep trees, one has to exploit the methods utilizing the bushy trees, such as the one proposed in this paper. The effect of processor allocation for the execution of each join is also investigated by simulation.

Preliminaries are given in Section 2. The execution model for a pipeline segment is derived in Section 3.1, and heuristics for relation selection are developed in Section 3.2. Performance of these heuristic schemes is evaluated by simulation in Section 4, followed by the conclusion in Section 5.

2 Preliminaries

We assume that a query is of the form of conjunctions of equi-join predicates. A join query graph can be denoted by a graph \( G = (V, E) \), where \( V \) is the set of nodes and \( E \) is the set of edges. Each node in a join query graph represents a relation. Two nodes are connected by an edge if there exists a join predicate on some attribute of the two corresponding relations. We use \( |R_i| \) to denote the cardinality of a relation \( R_i \) and \( |A_j| \) to denote the cardinality of the domain of an attribute \( A_j \). As in most prior work on the execution of database operations, we assume that the execution time incurred is the primary cost measure for the processing of database operations. Also, we focus on the execution of complex queries [23], i.e., queries involving many relations. Notice that such complex queries can become frequent in real applications due to the use of views [26]. The architecture assumed is a multiprocessor system with distributed memories and shared disks. Each processing node, or processor, in the system has its own memory and address space, and communication between nodes is done by message passing. The amount of memory available to execute a join is assumed to be in proportion to the number of processors involved. In addition, we assume for simplicity that the values of attributes are uniformly distributed over all tuples in a relation and that the values of one attribute are independent of those in another. Thus, when the heuristics derived in Section 3.2 are applied, the cardinalities of resulting relations of joins can be estimated according to the formula used in prior work [3] that is given in the Appendix for reference2. In the presence of data skew [25], we only have to modify the corresponding formula accordingly [8]. For ease of exposing the concept of segmented right-deep trees, we assume the aggregate memory in the system can accommodate a few entire relations for pipelining. Note that in the case that the aggregate memory is not

\[2^2\]This formula is employed to be consistent with the generation of each output tuple of a join under our simulation in Section 4. Note that this offers a more sophisticated model than the one based on the foreign key assumption.
large enough to load some entire relations, one can still utilize the structure of segmented right-deep trees for more flexibility on plan generation, and employ the techniques, such as right-deep hybrid scheduling [19], to resolve the memory constraint and implement one pipeline segment at a time to exploit pipelining.

The execution of a hash join consists of two phases: the table-building phase and the tuple-probing phase. In the table-building phase, the hash table of the inner relation is built according to the hash function of the join attribute, and in the tuple-probing phase each tuple of the outer relation is applied by the hash function and used to probe the hash table of the inner relation for matches. In the context of hash joins, the left and right child nodes of an internal node in a query execution tree denote, respectively, the inner and outer relations of a join. It can be seen that in a left-deep tree, the result of a join is used to build the hash table for the next join, and several hash joins thus need to be executed sequentially. In contrast, in a right deep tree all the hash tables are built from the original input relations, and the resulting relation of a join is input into the next join as an outer relation. The tuples of the outer relation can thus go through the whole right-deep tree in a manner of pipelining.

The execution of a hash join consists of two phases: the table-building phase and the tuple-probing phase. In this phase, the hash tables of all stages are built. If more than one node is allocated to a stage, the hash table for that stage is hashed into many partitions using a partition function in such a way that one processing node deals with one partition of the hash table. The tuples in each partition are then sent to their destination nodes in a hash subtable. This phase is composed of the following two steps.

1. All the nodes read inner relations $R_{hi}$, for $i = 1, \ldots, k$, from disks. When a node reads one block of relation $R_{hi}$ from a disk, that node uses the partition function of stage $i$ to hash the tuples in the block into a number of partitions. The partitioned tuples are then sent to their destination nodes in stage $i$.

2. Each node in stage $i$, for $i = 1, \ldots, k$, receives the tuples of its corresponding partition, hashes those tuples with the hash function of stage $i$ and inserts these tuples into the hash subtable.

Tuple-probing phase After the table-building phase, the pipeline segment starts tuple probing as described below.

1. The blocks of the outer relation $S$ are read from disks, partitioned with the partition function of stage 1 and routed to the corresponding nodes in stage 1. The tuples are sent to their destination nodes whenever there are enough tuples to form a communication packet.

2. For each node in stage $i$, where $i = 1, \ldots, k - 1$, whenever a packet of input tuples is received, those tuples are probed, one by one, against the subtable using the hash function of stage $i$. If there are matches, the intermediate resulting tuples are generated. These intermediate tuples are then partitioned with the partition function of the next stage, i.e. stage $i + 1$. When the number of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>notation</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$</td>
<td>R_i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
<td>outer relation of the segment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{hi}$</td>
<td>inner relation of stage $i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$I_i$</td>
<td>intermediate relation from stage $i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$q$</td>
<td>number of relations in a query</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$m$</td>
<td>number of segments in an SRD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$N$</td>
<td>total number of nodes in the system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$k$</td>
<td>number of stages of a segment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n_i$</td>
<td>number of nodes allocated to stage $i$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Notation for the execution of a pipeline segment.
tuples in the output queue to a certain node in the next stage is enough to form a packet, that packet is sent to its destination node.

3. The nodes in stage \( k \) receive their input tuples, probe them against the subtables and generate the resulting tuples when there are matches. Note that the resulting relation of this stage is the resulting relation of the whole segment. The resulting tuples are written back to disks block by block.

Pipelining has the following two advantages. First, the disk I/O cost is significantly reduced since the intermediate relations between stages in a segment need not be written back to disks. Second, the first tuples of the resulting relation of a pipeline segment can be produced earlier, not only reducing the perceived response time by an end user, but also enabling an application program to start processing the result earlier.

The execution of the first pipeline segment of the segmented right-deep tree in Figure 2b is shown in Figure 3.

3 Pipelined Hash Joins for SRD Trees

3.1 Model of a Pipeline Segment

We now analyze the cost and elapsed time in both the table-building phase and the tuple-probing phase for a pipeline segment. Various timing parameters referenced in this analysis are given in Table 2. Recall that the table-building phase consists of two steps. In the first step, all nodes read from the disks the inner relations, partition and send them to the destination nodes according to the partitioning functions of the corresponding join attributes. The total amount of work in this step is \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}| \cdot (t_{read} + t_{part} + t_{send}) \), and the amount of work by the \( n_j \) nodes of stage \( j \) is thus \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}| \cdot (t_{read} + t_{part} + t_{send}) \cdot \frac{n_j}{N} \). In the second step, the nodes in each stage receive the tuples of the corresponding inner relation, hash them, and build hash subtables for these tuples. The total amount of work in this step is \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}| \cdot (t_{rec} + t_{hash} + t_{insert}) \). Since the nodes of stage \( j \) are only associated with the work related to \( R_{h_j} \), the amount of work by the nodes of stages \( j \) can be expressed as \( |R_{h_j}| \cdot (t_{rec} + t_{hash} + t_{insert}) \). Denote the total work by all the nodes in the table-building phase as \( W_B \). Then,

\[
W_B = (C_1 + C_2) \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}|
\]

where \( C_1 \) and \( C_2 \) are system dependent parameters given in Table 2. The amount of work performed by the nodes of stage \( j \) in the table-building phase is

\[
W_{B_j} = C_1 \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{|R_{h_i}| \cdot n_j}{N} + C_2 \cdot |R_{h_j}|
\]

Denote the table-building time at stage \( j \) as \( T_{B_j} \). Then,

\[
T_{B_j} = \frac{C_1 \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}| \cdot \frac{n_j}{N} + C_2 |R_{h_j}|}{n_j}
\]
The elapsed time in the table-building phase $TB$ can then be approximated by the maximum of all $TB_j$. Thus, we have, $TB = \max_{i} TB_j$.

Next, the total amount of work in the tuple-probing phase, $WP$, can be derived similarly from the description in Section 2. We get,

$$WP = (C_1 + C_3)|S| + (C_3 + C_4) \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} |I_i| + C_5|I_k|,$$

where $C_3$, $C_4$ and $C_5$ are system dependent parameters given in Table 2. The amount of work by the nodes of stage $j$ in the tuple-probing phase can be expressed as:

$$WP_j = \left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{C_1 |S|}{N} + C_3|I_{j-1}| + C_4|I_j| & \text{if } j \neq k,
\frac{C_1 |S|}{N} + C_3|I_{j-1}| + C_5|I_j| & \text{if } j = k.
\end{array}\right.$$

Note that the processing time of the tuple-probing phase for each stage in the pipeline includes three parts. The first part is the time to set up the pipeline, the second part is the steady state processing time, and the third part is the pipeline depletion time. For large relations, it can be seen that all stages spend most of their time in steady state processing. Also, note that in the steady state, in addition to processing inputs and producing outputs, a node could be idling due to the following scenarios. First, since only a finite amount of communication buffer space is available in each node, if, at any instant, the input buffer of a certain node is full, any processing in the preceding stage to produce further input to that node needs to stall to avoid loss of information. On the other hand, when the input buffer of a node is empty, that node, since it has completed the processing for all prior tuples, will be starved and waiting for inputs from nodes in the preceding stage to proceed. It can be seen that these scenarios, resulting from the burst effects of hash joins, are very dependent on the characteristic of each individual query, and believed to be very difficult, if not impossible, to have a general model to capture. Therefore, we shall only model the non-idling steady state processing time below. The burst effects of hash joins will be captured via simulation in Section 4. Denote the non-idling steady state processing time of a stage $i$ as $TP_i$. Then, we have,

$$TP_i = \left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{C_1 |S|}{N} + C_3|I_{i-1}| + C_4|I_i| & \text{if } i \neq k,
\frac{C_1 |S|}{N} + C_3|I_{i-1}| + C_5|I_i| & \text{if } i = k.
\end{array}\right.$$

Denote the processing time of the tuple-probing phase as $TP$. Since the pipeline set-up and depletion times are negligible as compared to the steady state processing time, the processing time of the tuple-probing phase $TP$ can be approximated as: $TP = \max_{i} TP_i$. Consequently, the total processing time for a pipeline segment $TS$ can be expressed by the sum of the processing times in the table-building and the tuple-probing phases:

$$TS = TB + TP = \max_{i} TB_i + \max_{i} TP_i.$$ (1)

The total processing time for a query $TQ$ is the sum of the processing times of all its segments. Thus,

$$TQ = \sum_{i=1}^{m} TS_i,$$

where $m$ is the number of pipeline segments, and $TS_i$ is the processing time of the $i$th segment.

### 3.2 Plan Generation for SRD Trees

As pointed out earlier, unlike the generation of right-deep trees which can use the similar heuristics for generating left-deep trees, new heuristics need to be developed to build effective segmented right-deep trees. Specifically, we shall first estimate the number of pipeline segments, and then select the inner and outer relations for each pipeline segment so as to minimize the query execution time. The size of all relations and that of the total memory need to be considered in estimating the number of segments required. It is shown by our experiments that too many segments can result in worse performance. This can be explained by the reason that for each pipeline segment, there are overheads of setting up hash tables, filling and depleting the pipeline segment, and writing the resulting relation of the segment back to disks. These overheads usually outweigh the possible advantages we can gain from the flexibility of having more segments. Thus, the estimated number of segments, $m$, is chosen to be close to the number of segments enough to hold all the relations, i.e., $m = \lceil \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |R_i|}{N \cdot M} \rceil$, where $M$ is the memory size of each processing node. After the number of segments is estimated, we set an upper bound, $k$, for the projected number of relations in each segment by $k = \lceil \frac{1}{m} \rceil$. Note that $m$ and $k$ are projected numbers to be used in our heuristic schemes below, and might be different from those in the final plans generated. Such a projection avoids making the memory in the early stages always fully loaded, and usually leads to a better performance due to a better load balancing.
Selecting relations for a pipeline segment amounts to selecting a subset of relations, and is more complicated than selecting a pair of relations in building a right-deep tree. To cope with this, we propose greedy approaches to handle the problem of relation selection for each segment. The relations are selected one by one until either all the k relations in the segment are determined or the total size of inner relations becomes greater than that of the total memory available. In the segmented right-deep tree generated, the intermediate relation resulting from each segment can appear as either an inner or the outer relation of any of the subsequent segments, whereas in a conventional right-deep tree the resulting relation from a segment can only be used as the outer relation in the next segment. Based on the model derived in Section 3.1, we propose the following two heuristics, namely, the minimal work (MW) and the balanced consideration (BC), to determine the segmented right-deep tree.

### 3.2.1 Heuristic on minimal work

The objective of MW is to select relations in the segment so that the total amount of work involved in its stages is minimized. Specifically, given a set of relations and the number k, we determine a sequence of up to k inner relations and one outer relation so as to minimize the total work W. Note that,

\[
W = WB + WP = \sum_{i=1}^{k} |R_{h_i}| + (C_1 + C_3) |S| + (C_3 + C_4) |I_i| \]

is a linear combination of |S|, |R_{h_i}|, and |I_i|, for i = 1, ..., k. Therefore, we can decompose W into groups of terms related to relations S, R_{h_1}, R_{h_2}, ..., and R_{h_k}. When determining an inner or the outer relation, we select a relation that minimizes the sum of the terms related to itself and the intermediate relation resulted by this selection. For example, when selecting the relation for the second stage, R_{h_2}, we choose a relation to minimize the terms in W that are related to R_{h_2} and I_2, since I_2 is determined by the selection of R_{h_2}. Relations are selected in the order of R_{h_1} \rightarrow S \rightarrow R_{h_2} \rightarrow R_{h_3} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow R_{h_k}. The sum of those terms to be minimized when selecting a certain relation is called the greedy function of that relation. Under MW, a list of greedy functions of all relations is derived and given in Table 3. It can be seen that the greedy functions are determined according to the selection order of relations. Note that the criteria for selecting different relations are different, which agrees with our intuition since these relations play different roles in a pipeline segment and have different influences on performance. The complexity of heuristic MW can be shown to be O(q^2), where q is the number of relations in the query.

To illustrate heuristic MW, consider an example query of 7 relations whose profile is given in Figure 4 and Table 4. We assume a multiprocessor system of eight nodes is employed, where each node has 64K byte memory and the size of each tuple is assumed to be 100 bytes. The query plans generated by a right-deep tree approach and MW are shown in Figure 5a and Figure 5b, respectively. For this example query, the right-deep heuristic builds a six stage pipeline first, and then divides this pipeline into three segments according to the memory constraint as shown in Figure 5a. Heuristic MW, on the other hand, is able to use the resulting relations of earlier segments as hash tables for later segments. For instance, in the query plan in Figure 5b, the resulting relation of the first segment (of 397 tuples) is used as the inner relation of the first stage of the next segment due to its relatively small size, whereas that in Figure 5a is used as the outer relation of the next segment. It can be verified that the total size of hash tables for the segmented right-deep tree in Figure 5b is smaller than that of the right-deep tree in Figure 5a. Note that a smaller hash table size usually leads to a shorter query execution time for pipelined hash joins. Simulation, conducted in Section 4, shows that for the query in Figure 4, the processing cost reduction is significant.

### Table 3: The greedy function of each relation for heuristics MW and BC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>heur.</th>
<th>relation</th>
<th>greedy function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MW</td>
<td>R_{h_i}</td>
<td>(C_1 + C_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>(C_1 + C_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R_{h_k}</td>
<td>(C_1 + C_2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>R_{h_i}</td>
<td>(C_1 + C_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>(C_1 + C_3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R_{h_k}</td>
<td>(C_2 + C_3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reason to scale down the memory size is explained in Section 4. The assumption for the fixed tuple size is for ease of exposition, and not essential for the improvement achieved by the proposed schemes.
Figure 4: An example query with 7 relations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R_i</th>
<th>R_1</th>
<th>R_2</th>
<th>R_3</th>
<th>R_4</th>
<th>R_5</th>
<th>R_6</th>
<th>R_7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>card.</td>
<td>1137</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>1840</td>
<td>1633</td>
<td>884</td>
<td>1426</td>
<td>1251</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a). Cardinalities of relations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>attr.</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>card.</td>
<td>1494</td>
<td>1943</td>
<td>1646</td>
<td>1651</td>
<td>1478</td>
<td>1028</td>
<td>1325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b). Cardinalities of attributes.

Table 4: The profile of the example query in Figure 4.

As indicated by the simulation in Section 4, performance of MW is reasonably good but not always stable. This is due to the fact that MW tends to select smaller relations first for early segments. This may lead to two disadvantages. First, because those relations selected for later segments have larger sizes, it might happen that the total memory available is not enough to hold all inner relations, so that additional segments are required, leading to more segments than projected and a longer query execution time. Second, the first few segments have smaller relations, which might result in under-utilization of memory. Such scenarios are more likely to occur when the sizes of relations vary drastically.

3.2.2 Heuristic on balanced consideration

To eliminate this instability of MW, we propose heuristic BC which avoids the tendency of selecting small relations for the first few segments. In BC, a penalty \( P \) and a benefit \( B \) are defined for each segment. The penalty is defined as the work in the segment, i.e., \( WP + WB \), and the benefit is defined as the size reduction after the execution of this segment, i.e., \( (|S| + |R_{a_1}| + |R_{a_2}| + \cdots + |R_{a_k}|) - |I_k| \). The relations are selected in such a way that the objective function \( Y = P - w \cdot B \) is minimized, where \( w \) is a weighting factor. Since the relations that give larger reduction on relation size are not necessarily those smaller relations, balanced consideration on both benefit and penalty avoids the tendency of selecting all small relations for the first few segments. Determining the weight \( w \) in the objective function \( Y \) represents another degree of freedom for tuning the heuristic. In the simulation in Section 4, \( w = C_1 + C_3 \) is used for its reasonably good performance, and the coefficient for \( |S| \) in objective function \( Y \) is thus zero. The greedy functions for heuristic BC are derived and given in Table 3. Eliminating the terms involving \( |S| \) from the objective function means that “small relation size” itself will not be taken as the factor in selecting the outer relation \( S \). Note that in a hash join, using the smaller of the two joining relations as the inner relation usually results in better performance. For the example query in Figure 4, the resulting query tree by BC is given in Figure 5c. The query trees generated by MW and BC for this query have the same shape, but different join orders of relations. It is obtained by simulation that the processing time for this query under BC in Figure 5c is 47.06 msec. Performance of these heuristic schemes is assessed in Section 4.

Clearly, it is possible to further improve the above query processing during actual implementation. For instance, during the first step of the table-building phase, we can assign those nodes at stage \( i \) to read the blocks of relation \( R_{a_i} \), so as to reduce the number of tuples to be transferred over the network. In addition, the work in the first step of the tuple-probing phase could be dynamically assigned to the nodes that have the lowest load at that instant. Optimization on
these issues is rather system dependent, and thus not addressed in this paper.

4 Simulation

4.1 Description of Simulation Model

Extensive simulations were performed to evaluate the heuristic schemes for query plan generation. In the simulation program, which was coded in C, the action for each individual tuple to go through all stages in a pipeline was simulated. Input queries were generated as follows. The number of relations in a query was predetermined. The occurrence of an edge between two relations in the query graph was determined according to a given probability, denoted by prob. Without loss of generality, only queries with connected query graphs were deemed valid and used for our study. To determine the cardinalities of relations and attributes, we referenced a workload recently generated from the work at a Canadian insurance company. To make the simulation able to be feasibly conducted in a tuple-by-tuple manner, we scaled the average number of tuples in a relation down from one million to two thousand. The cardinalities of attributes and the memory size of each processing node were also scaled down accordingly so that the ratio of the relation size to the memory size could still reflect the reality. Based on the above, the cardinalities of relations and attributes were randomly generated from a uniform distribution within some reasonable ranges. In the simulation program, for each query we generated query trees of two styles, i.e., static right-deep trees and segmented right-deep trees. For the static right-deep tree, both the greedy right-deep tree that is constructed by a greedy method and the optimal right-deep tree were evaluated. The greedy method used is to first construct a left-deep tree by the heuristic on minimal resulting relation [3] and then take the mirror image of the left-deep tree to form a right-deep tree. Both right-deep trees were decomposed according to the static right-deep scheduling described in Section 1. Recall that the optimal right-deep tree is the right-deep tree that has the shortest processing time among all right-deep trees, whose identification is of exponential time complexity. For the segmented right-deep tree, both heuristics MW and BC were employed. To allocate processors to the execution of both right-deep and segmented right-deep trees, we consider two alternatives. The first approach is to allocate to each stage the number of nodes enough to hold the hash table, and then distribute the remaining nodes uniformly to each stage. The second approach is to minimize the formula $TS = TB + TP$ in Eq.(1) for each pipeline segment, which can be done by using a typical dynamic programming technique. It can be seen that fragmentation of processors is avoided since all nodes in the system are employed to implement one pipeline segment at a time. A query and an execution strategy are the inputs to the simulator. An execution strategy employed determines the number of segments, the inner and outer relations for each segment, and the number of nodes allocated to perform the hash join in each stage. In the table-building phase, the hash table for each stage was built in such a way that the corresponding inner relation was partitioned into subtables for those processing nodes in that stage. When the probing phase started, a random number generator was used to determine which subtable (processing node) the probing tuple should be routed to. A zero/one random number generator, which was coded based on the join selectivity, was then employed to determine the generation of resulting tuples, which were in turn, according to the next join attribute, sent to the subsequent stages for processing. To conduct the simulation, [14] and [19] were referenced to determine the values of the system parameters which are given in Table 5, and the network delay in sending a 2K byte packet, $D_{net}$, is assumed to be 1 msec. The behavior of pipelines can thus be predicted by the analytical model derived in Section 3.1. As pointed out in Section 3.1, due to tuning the number of processors allocated to each stage has an impact on overall performance, whose discussion is beyond the scope of this paper. Interested readers are referred to [12].

<table>
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<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t_{write}$</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: CPU costs used in simulation.
the nature of pipelining, there can be, resulting from the burst effects of hash joins, various scenarios where processing nodes are starved for inputs or forced to stall because of the congestion in subsequent stages. These scenarios have an impact on the processing time and can only be observed by using the model which simulates the action of each tuple. This is the very reason that we, instead of relying upon the analytical model derived in Section 3.1, conducted the tuple-by-tuple simulation to reflect the complicated nature of pipelined hash joins and obtain more realistic results. Nevertheless, the analytical model derived was found to be useful in deriving heuristics for query plan generation and also able to provide a reasonable prediction for the performance of a query plan.

4.2 Simulation Results

From our simulation, we first observed the execution time for queries of four sizes, i.e., queries with 8, 12, 16 and 20 relations, in a multiprocessor system of eight nodes. For each query size, 100 query graphs were generated and each query was simulated twice. Simulation results for the average execution times of plans generated by the greedy right-deep tree (RD), the optimal right-deep tree (opt. RD), heuristics MW and BC are shown in Figure 6 where the system has 8 nodes and each node has 64K byte memory. It can be seen that MW and BC for segmented right-deep trees outperform both the greedy and the optimal right-deep trees. The improvement of MW and BC over both right-deep tree becomes even more significant as the number of relations in a query increases. As shown in Figure 6, the execution time of BC ranges from 56% (when q=20) to 66% (when q=8) of that of RD.

Note that some join plans might result in extraordinary long execution time, thus affecting the fairness of using the average execution time as a measure for performance. To remedy this, we compared, for each query, the execution times resulted from the four schemes, and sorted them in an ascending order. Then, we assigned 0 to 3 points to each scheme in such a way that the number of points assigned to a scheme is the number of other schemes outperforming this scheme. Clearly, a scheme with fewer points performs better. Corresponding to Figure 6, the points assigned to each scheme are shown in Table 6. From Table 6, it can be observed that MW performs rather close to BC while the latter is more stable in performance due to the balanced consideration on benefit and penalty, as described in Section 3.2.2. In the case that n=20, it is noted that opt. RD, for the 200 instances examined, is only better than either MW or BC for about 10 instances. (Note that the points which opt. RD received would be 400, if it was always ranked in the third place.) The fact that MW and BC outperform the approach using optimal right-deep trees indicates that to efficiently execute pipelined hash joins, instead of focusing on improving the heuristics on generating right-deep trees, one should utilize the bushy tree structure. In fact, for the sizes of queries investigated here, the simulation times (including plan generation and execution) for the schemes on RD, MW and BC were very close to each other whereas that of opt. RD was larger than others by orders of magnitude. It is noted that these results were obtained by assigning prob, i.e., the probability of the occurrence of each edge in a query graph, to be 0.26. The cases when prob=0.24 and prob=0.28 were also simulated. It was shown that the relative performance of these schemes was not sensitive to the value of prob. Performance charts for different values of prob are thus not shown in the paper.

As mentioned earlier, in light of the derivation in Section 3.1, the query execution time can be further improved by adjusting the number of processors allocated to each stage. This effect is shown in Figure 7, where a "n" is appended to the symbol of a scheme to mean the processor allocation was tuned to min-

![Figure 6. Average execution time of plans generated by different schemes.](image-url)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
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<th>opt. RD</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>BC</th>
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<td>389</td>
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<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The points assigned to each scheme.
imize the $TS$ in Eq.(1) according to a dynamic programming technique. It is indicated in Figure 7 that while processor allocation is important, the structure of query trees is still the major factor to minimize the query execution time. In addition, to realize the effect of variance on the input relation size, we compared performance of BC* and RD under different variances on the cardinalities of relations, and showed the results in Figure 8, where the execution time of BC* was divided by that of RD for clarity. In Figure 8, the cardinalities of relations varied from 1800 to 2200 in the stable case, from 1400 to 2600 in the small variance case, and from 800 to 3200 in the large variance case. They represent 10%, 30% and 60% variations, respectively, from a mean of 2000. Different query sizes with $q=8, 12, 16$ and 20 are considered. As can be seen in Figure 8, when the variance on relation cardinality increases, the improvement of BC* over RD becomes more prominent.

For the input queries simulated here, we had one to five relations in a segment and one to four segments for the execution of a query, and did not observe the necessity for executing more than one pipeline segment at a time. Clearly, when the number of processors is large, we might have to divide the multiprocessor system into several partitions, and use each partition to implement one pipeline segment to exploit multi-segment parallelism for a better performance.

5 Conclusions

We first derived an analytical model for the execution of a pipeline segment, and then, developed heuristic schemes to build the segmented right-deep trees for efficient query execution. As shown by our simulation, the proposed approach, without incurring additional overhead on plan execution, possesses more flexibility in query plan generation, and leads to query plans of significantly better performance than those achievable by the previous schemes using right-deep trees.

Acknowledgement

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References


**Appendix**

**Proposition:** $G_B=(V_B, E_B)$ is a connected subgraph of a join query graph $G$. Let $R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_q$ be the relations corresponding to nodes in $V_B$, $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_q$ be the distinct attributes associated with edges in $E_B$, and $n$ be the number of different relations that edges with attribute $A_i$ are incident to. Suppose $R_M$ is the relation resulting from joining all relations in $G_B$, and $N_T(G_B)$ is the expected number of tuples in $R_M$. Then,

$$N_T(G_B) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{q} |R_i|}{\prod_{i=1}^{q} |A_i|^{m,-1}}.$$