Improving Join Reorderability with Compensation Operators

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ABSTRACT

A critical task in query optimization is the join reordering problem which is to find an efficient evaluation order for the join operators in a query plan. While the join reordering problem is well studied for queries with only inner-joins, the problem becomes considerably harder when outerjoins/antijoins are involved as such operators are generally not associative. The existing solutions for this problem do not enumerate the complete space of join orderings due to various restrictions on the query rewriting rules considered. In this paper, we present a novel approach for this problem for the class of queries involving inner-joins, single-sided outerjoins, and/or antijoins. Our work is able to support complete join reorderability for this class of queries which supersedes the state-of-the-art approaches.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Information systems → Query optimization**;

KEYWORDS

Query optimization, join reordering

1 INTRODUCTION

An important task in the optimization of join queries is to decide on a *join order*, which determines a partial ordering in which the binary join operations are computed. As picking the right join order has a significant impact on the efficiency of query evaluation, the problem of finding optimal join orderings (known as the **join reordering problem**) is a well-studied problem for inner-join queries [15]. However, queries involving outerjoins and/or antijoins are considerably more difficult to optimize because these join operators do not possess the nice properties of being both commutative and associative.

Not surprisingly, the join reordering problem for complex join queries has been intensively researched by both the industry and academia (e.g., [1, 2, 4–14]). The early research focused on outer-join simplification and reordering [4–6, 13, 14]. These works do not consider antijoins and are restricted to *simple queries*[1]. [1] extended these approaches to support complex join predicates that could refer to more than two relations. Extensions to also handle antijoins are presented in [9–11], but reorderings supported are rather limited.

Another recent work [7] is an approach to convert outerjoin queries to inner-join queries. The idea is to first compute a derived relation from each join operand of an outerjoin, and then compute an inner join of the derived relations. A derived relation for a join operand R is a copy of R with additional columns and additional tuples. While this approach is theoretically interesting, it is limited to queries with binary join predicates and the cost for computing derived relations could be as high as that for computing the original outerjoin query. Moreover, it also does not handle antijoins and semijoins.

In this paper, we use $\uplus, \overset{p_{ij}}{\rightarrow}, \overset{p_{ij}}{\leftarrow}, \overset{p_{ij}}{\leftrightarrow}, \overset{p_{ij}}{\ltimes}, \overset{p_{ij}}{\rtimes}, \overset{p_{ij}}{\triangleright}$, and $\overset{p_{ij}}{\triangleleft}$ to denote, respectively, the outer-union, left outerjoin, right outerjoin, full outerjoin, left semijoin, right semijoin, left antijoin, and right antijoin operators with p_{ij} denoting the join predicate between relations R_i and R_j. We use C_J to denote the class of join queries with join operators from the set $J = \{\bowtie, \rightarrow, \leftarrow, \leftrightarrow, \ltimes, \rtimes, \triangleright, \triangleleft\}$ and with null-intolerant join predicates; $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$ to denote the subset of join queries in C_J that do not involve $\leftrightarrow$; and $C_J^{\leftrightarrow, \not\triangleright, \not\triangleleft}$ to denote the subset of join queries in C_J that do not involve $\leftrightarrow$, $\triangleright$, and $\triangleleft$. Finally, we use $\circ$ to denote some join operator from J.

There are currently two state-of-the-art approaches for reordering complex join queries. The first approach is a transformation-based approach (denoted by TBA) that enumerates all valid join reorderings using the associativity and commutativity properties of the join operators [8]. For example, left outerjoins are known to be non-associative and non-commutative, and for the query $Q = R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\rightarrow} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow} R_3)$, $Q' = (R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\rightarrow} R_3) \overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow} R_2$ is an invalid reordering of Q.

The second approach is a compensation-based approach (denoted by CBA) that permits certain invalid join reorderings so long as they could be compensated to become valid [12]. Continuing with the earlier example, the invalid reordering Q' can be made valid by rewriting it to $\beta(\lambda_{p_{23}, R_3}(Q'))$ using the compensation operators β and λ. However, CBA has certain limitations in that certain

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[1]A *simple query* is a query that satisfies the following properties: all outerjoin predicates have only one conjunct and must be binary predicate referring to only two relations, there are no cartesian products in the query, and all predicates are null-intolerant. A predicate is classified as *null-intolerant* if it cannot evaluate to true when referencing a null value; otherwise, it is a *null-tolerant* predicate.

valid reorderings that are supported by TBA are not possible with CBA.

Thus, both the state-of-the-art approaches are incomparable in terms of the join reorderings that could be supported. In this paper, we present a novel approach to solve the join reordering problem and make four contributions. First, we introduce a precise formalization of complete join reorderability. Second, we develop a new approach for the join reordering problem that strictly subsumes the join reorderability of both the state-of-the-art solutions TBA and CBA. For the class of queries $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$, our approach provides complete join reorderability (in contrast to the partial join reorderability supported by both TBA and CBA). For the class of queries C_J, although all three approaches support only partial join reorderability, the set of join reorderings enabled by our approach strictly subsumes that supported by TBA and CBA. Third, we develop a novel top-down plan enumeration algorithm to compute optimal query plans with compensation operators. Fourth, we perform an experimental evaluation of our approach and our results show that our approach can improve query execution time by up to factors of 2.84 and 6.14 on PostgreSQL and a commercial database system, respectively.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the key ideas behind the two state-of-the-art approaches. In Section 3, we formalize the notion of complete join reorderability and compare the different approaches in terms of their completeness for join reorderability. We present our new rewriting approach for join reordering in Section 4. Section 5 presents a novel top-down query plan enumeration algorithm for query plans with compensation operators. We discuss implementation issues in Section 6. Section 7 presents an experimental evaluation of our approach. Finally, Section 8 concludes the paper.

We end this section by introducing some of the basic notations used in this paper.

Notations. Given a relation R_i, we use $attr(R_i)$ to denote the set of all attributes in the schema of R_i; and given a set of relations $\mathcal{R}$, we use $attr(\mathcal{R})$ to denote $\bigcup_{R_i \in \mathcal{R}} attr(R_i)$. For a predicate p, we use $attr(p)$ to denote the set of attributes referenced by p. For convenience, we write $\pi_{attr(R_i)}$ as π_{R_i} to denote the projection of all the attributes in the schema of R_i. Furthermore, we use $\pi_{\mathcal{R}}$ to denote π_S where $S = \bigcup_{R_i \in \mathcal{R}} attr(R_i)$.
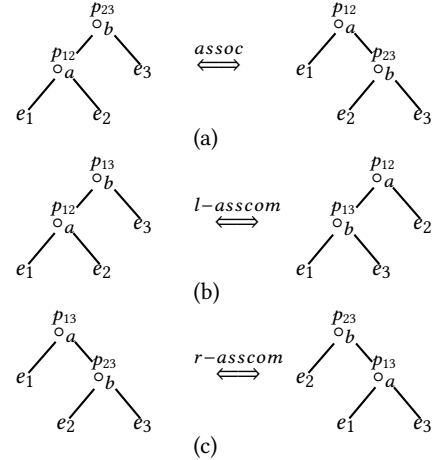
2 RELATED WORK

In this section, we describe the key ideas behind the two state-of-the-art approaches TBA[8] and CBA[12]. These two works are the most closely related to our work as our approach uses some of their ideas which are further discussed in Section 4.

2.1 Transformation-Based Approach (TBA)

TBA's approach for reordering joins is based on three basic transformations derived from the commutativity/associativity properties of join operators as illustrated in Figure 1. We use e_i to denote some relational expression; $\circ_x$ to denote some join operator; and $\overset{p_{ij}}{\circ_x}$ to denote a join operation $\circ_x$ between e_i and e_j with join predicate p_{ij}. The three basic properties are defined as follows:

(1) $\circ_a$ and $\circ_b$ satisfy the *associativity property* (denoted as assoc($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$)) if $(e_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ_a} e_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\circ_b} e_3 = e_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ_a} (e_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\circ_b} e_3)$.

(2) $\circ_a$ and $\circ_b$ satisfy the *left asscom property* (denoted as l-asscom($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$)) if $(e_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ_a} e_2) \overset{p_{13}}{\circ_b} e_3 = (e_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\circ_b} e_3) \overset{p_{12}}{\circ_a} e_2$.

(3) $\circ_a$ and $\circ_b$ satisfy the *right asscom property* (denoted as r-asscom($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$)) if $e_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\circ_a} (e_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\circ_b} e_3) = e_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\circ_b} (e_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\circ_a} e_3)$.

Figure 1: Basic transformation rules in TBA: (a) assoc rule (b) l-asscom rule (c) r-asscom rule.

Corresponding to the above three basic properties, we have three basic types of transformations: assoc($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$), l-assoc($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$), and r-assoc($\circ_a$, $\circ_b$).

A specific type of transformation for a pair of join operators is said to be *valid* if the corresponding property holds; otherwise, it is said to be *invalid*. Examples of valid transformations include assoc($\bowtie$, $\rightarrow$) and l-assoc($\rightarrow$, $\triangleright$), while examples of invalid transformations include assoc($\rightarrow$, $\triangleright$) and r-assoc($\rightarrow$, $\rightarrow$). Table 1 (from [8]) summarizes all the valid (+) and invalid (-) assoc/l-asscom/r-asscom transformations introduced by TBA's approach. Note that because l/r-asscom are symmetric properties, Table 1(b) is symmetric across the diagonal.

$\circ_a$	$\circ_b$				
	$\bowtie$	$\ltimes$	$\triangleright$	$\rightarrow$	$\leftrightarrow$
$\bowtie$	+	+	+	+	-
$\ltimes$	-	-	-	-	-
$\triangleright$	-	-	-	-	-
$\rightarrow$	-	-	-	+	-
$\leftrightarrow$	-	-	-	+	+

$\circ$	$\bowtie$	$\ltimes$	$\triangleright$	$\rightarrow$	$\leftrightarrow$
$\bowtie$	+/+	+/-	+/-	+/-	-/-
$\ltimes$	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-	-/-
$\triangleright$	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-	-/-
$\rightarrow$	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-	+/-
$\leftrightarrow$	-/-	-/-	-/-	+/-	+/+

(a) assoc transformations   (b) l/r-asscom transformations

Table 1: (a) Valid and invalid assoc transformations. (b) Valid and invalid l/r-asscom transformations.

TBA is able to enumerate all reordered query plans by applying valid transformations for all conventional join types. However, TBA forbids join reorderings involving any invalid transformation.

2.2 Compensation-Based Approach (CBA)

Given a query Q on a set of relations $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \cdots, R_n\}$, CBA aims to rewrite Q into an equivalent canonical form:

$$\beta(\lambda_{p_1, A_1}(\cdots(\lambda_{p_k, A_k}(R_1 \times \cdots \times R_n))))$$

Here, $\times$ denotes the outer variant of the cartesian product operator that preserves all tuples from non-empty relations. The operators λ_{p_i, A_i} and β are the two new unary relational operators introduced by CBA. They are used as compensation operators to compensate for invalid join reordering. The first new operator, $\lambda_{p_i, A_i}(R_1 \times \cdots \times R_n)$, which is referred to as the nullification operator, is defined with respect to a predicate p_i and a set of attributes $A_i \subseteq attr(\mathcal{R})$ such that for each tuple $t \in R_1 \times \cdots \times R_n$, if p_i does not evaluate to true for t, then the values for all the attributes in A_i will be set to *null* for tuple t.

The second new operator, $\beta(R)$, which is referred to as the best-match operator, removes all the *dominated* or duplicated tuples in its relational operand R. Given two tuples $t, t' \in R$, t is dominated by t' if for every non-null attribute value in t, t' has the same value in the corresponding attribute, and t has more attributes with null values than t'. We refer to the tuples being eliminated in R by β as *spurious tuples*.

Example 2.1. This example illustrates the β operator on the relation $R(A, B, C)$ shown below. Observe that the last three tuples in R are all spurious tuples dominated or duplicated by the first tuple, while the second tuple is a non-spurious tuple.

R

A	B	C
a_1	b_1	c_1
a_1	null	c_2
a_1	b_1	null
null	null	c_1
a_1	b_1	c_1

$\beta(\mathbf{R})$

A	B	C
a_1	b_1	c_1
a_1	null	c_2

□

For notational convenience, given relations R_1, R_2 and a predicate p, we use λ_{p, R_1} to denote $\lambda_{p, attr(R_1)}$, and use $\lambda_{p, R_1 \cup R_2}$ to denote $\lambda_{p, attr(R_1) \cup attr(R_2)}$. Given a set of relations $\mathcal{R}$, we use $\lambda_{p, \mathcal{R}}$ to denote $\lambda_{p, attr(\mathcal{R})}$.

Join queries are rewritten into the canonical form by applying the following rewriting rules, where p_1 is a predicate that references only R_1 and $A_1 \subseteq attr(R_1)$.

$$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p_{12}, R_1 \cup R_2}(R_1 \times R_2)) \quad (1)$$

$$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p_{12}, R_2}(R_1 \times R_2)) \quad (2)$$

$$\beta(\beta(R_1)) = \beta(R_1) \quad (3)$$

$$\beta(R_1) \times R_2 = \beta(R_1 \times R_2) \quad (4)$$

$$\lambda_{p_1, A_1}(R_1) \times R_2 = \lambda_{p_1, A_1}(R_1 \times R_2) \quad (5)$$

$$\beta(\lambda_{p_1, A_1}(\beta(R_1))) = \beta(\lambda_{p_1, A_1}(R_1))$$
$$\text{if } p_1 \text{ is a null-intolerant predicate} \quad (6)$$

The key idea is that with the rewritten query in the canonical form, different join reorderings could be derived with the following two-step approach. First, since the cartesian product operator is both commutative and associative, the cartesian product ordering is first reordered to a desired ordering and the reordered form is then converted back to a form with join operators by applying the rewriting in the reverse direction. As an example, CBA is able to reorder the joins in $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$ to the equivalent query $\beta(\lambda_{p_{23}, R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))$. Note that as $assoc(\to, \bowtie)$ is an invalid transformation, TBA is unable to reorder the joins. However, CBA is able to achieve the reordering by adding two compensation operators λ_{p_{23}, R_2} and β.

CBA's main focus is to maximize join reorderability for queries with join operators in $\{\bowtie, \to, \leftarrow\}$. CBA also briefly discussed a possible approach to handle antijoins and full-outerjoins by basically transforming the antijoins and full outerjoins in the query into single-sided outerjoins. However, the reorderability achieved by this approach using only the $\{\beta, \lambda\}$ compensation operators is rather limited in contrast to our approach.

3 JOIN REORDERABILITY

In this section, we formalize the notion of *complete join reorderability* and compare this completeness for the two state-of-the-art approaches and our approach.

Consider a query Q on the set relations $\{R_1, \cdots, R_{n+1}\}$ with n join operators $\{\circ_1, \cdots, \circ_n\}$ where each join operator $\circ_i$ is associated with a join predicate p_i. A *join ordering* for Q is an unordered binary tree T with internal nodes $\{p_1, \cdots, p_n\}$ and leaf nodes $\{R_1, \cdots, R_{n+1}\}$ such that for each internal node p_i in T, the relations referenced by p_i are all contained in the subtree rooted at p_i and p_i must reference some relation in each of its child subtrees. Given a join query Q, we use $JoinOrder(Q)$ to denote the set of all join orderings of Q.

It is important to emphasize that our definition of join ordering focuses on the order in which the join operands are combined but not on the specific join operators used.

Given a join ordering $\theta \in JoinOrder(Q)$ and a set of compensation operators O, we say that Q is θ^O-reorderable if Q can be rewritten into an equivalent query Q' (possibly using operators in O) where the join operands in Q' are joined following the order given by θ.

Example 3.1. Consider the query $Q = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$. We have $JoinOrder(Q) = \{R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\circ} R_3), (R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\circ} R_3\}$. Consider $\theta = (R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\circ} R_3$ and $O = \{\beta, \lambda\}$, which are the compensation operators used by CBA. It is well known that Q is not $\theta^\emptyset$-reorderable; however, Q is θ^O-reorderable. Specifically, CBA could reorder Q to $Q' = \beta(\lambda_{p_{23}, R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))$. □

As illustrated by Example 3.1, in the reordered query Q', the join ordering θ only determines the order in which the join operands in Q' are combined, but the join operators themselves could change in Q'. In Example 3.1, observe that R_2 and R_3 are combined using $\overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie}$ in Q but they are combined using $\overset{p_{23}}{\to}$ in Q'.

Given a query class C and a set of compensation operators O, we say that C is *completely reorderable with respect to O* if for every query Q that belongs to C and for every join ordering $\theta \in JoinOrder(Q)$, Q is θ^O-reorderable.

We conclude this section with a discussion on the reorderability completeness of CBA, TBA and our approach. For TBA, $O = \emptyset$ since it does not rely on any compensation operators. The join reorderability of TBA is rather limited as the approach imposes a strong requirement that the join operators in reordered queries remain unchanged. Thus, TBA is unable to reorder the query given in Example 3.1.

CBA uses two compensation operators given by $O = \{\beta, \lambda\}$, and it could produce join reorderings where the reordered join operators are different from the initial join operators. CBA can be easily extended to achieve complete join reorderability for the query class $C_J^{\leftrightarrow, \not\triangleright, \not\triangleleft}$. However, CBA has very limited reorderability for queries with join operators from $\{\triangleright, \triangleleft, \leftrightarrow\}$.

Our approach introduces new compensation operators to support all valid and invalid transformations. The approach subsumes both TBA and CBA in terms of join reorderability for the query classes C_J, $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$, and $C_J^{\leftrightarrow, \not\triangleright, \not\triangleleft}$. Specifically, we have the following results.

THEOREM 3.2. (a) *For $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$, our approach has complete join reorderability, but both* TBA *and* CBA *only have partial join reorderability.*

(b) *For C_J, all three approaches have only partial join reorderability but our approach strictly supersedes both* TBA *and* CBA.

□

The soundnesss of the above theorem is based on the following properties. First, in terms of the structural transformations to query plans for reordering adjacent join nodes in query plans, the assoc, l-asscom and r-asscom properties discussed in Section 2.1 are the only possible basic transformations as pointed out by TBA. Second, for $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$, our proposed approach has sound and complete rewriting rules for all three basic transformations w.r.t. all the join operators in $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$. Hence, we have Theorem 3.2(a). Third, for C_J, while our proposed approach does not support complete join reorderability for queries with full outerjoins, our approach is able to support all the valid transformations supported by TBA, and also all the reorderings supported by CBA; hence we have Theorem 3.2(b).

4 OUR APPROACH

In this section, we present a new approach for the join reordering problem that achieves complete join reorderability for the class of queries $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$.[2]

As discussed in Section 3, TBA supports only join reorderings that are based on valid transformations (see Table 1). In particular, among the nine transformations related to antijoins, only three of them are valid. On the other hand, CBA focuses mainly on reordering inner joins and single-sided outerjoins, and it does not handle antijoins well. Thus, both the state-of-the-art approaches have very limited join reorderability for queries with antijoins.

4.1 Overview

In order to enable join reorderings beyond the valid reorderings in TBA, a compensation-based approach (similar to CBA) is necessary.

Hence our proposed solution also adopts a compensation-based approach named *Enhanced Compensation-based Approach (ECA)*.

A crucial design decision for our solution is the design of the set of compensation operators which is guided by four desiderata. First, the operators should maximize the join reorderability possibilities to address the limitations of existing approaches. Second, the approach should be supported by an efficient query plan enumeration algorithm with both cost-based pruning as well as reuse of optimal subplans. Third, an elegant solution should have a small set of operators to minimize implementation complexity. Finally, each of the operators should be amenable to efficient implementation preferably at both the SQL language level as well as natively at the system level. The former enables a less intrusive and easier implementation, and the latter is crucial for performance reasons.

Our approach uses four compensation operators: the β and λ operators from CBA, and two new operators γ and γ^*. For both the classes of join queries $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$ and C_J, our approach with γ and γ^* enables more join reorderings than both TBA and CBA. In particular, we achieve complete join reorderability for $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$. Our approach also supports an efficient query plan enumeration algorithm. As our new operators are only mild extensions of existing relational operators, they are amenable to efficient native implementations. Moreover, the new operators are also implementable at the SQL level as will be discussed in Section 6.

It is important to note that although our solution is inspired by the compensation-based approach of CBA, our approach for query plan enumeration is totally different from CBA's enumeration approach which is based on the concept of *nullification sets*.

4.2 Compensation Operators

In addition to the two operators (λ and β) introduced by CBA, our approach uses two new unary operators. The first operator, denoted by $\gamma_A(R_1)$, is a unary operator on R_1 with $A \subseteq attr(R_1)$ defined as follows:

$$\gamma_A(R_1) = \{r \in R_1 \mid \pi_A(r) \text{ is null}\} \quad (7)$$

The $\gamma_A(R_1)$ operator basically removes all tuples $r \in R_1$ where $\pi_A(r)$ is not null.

The second operator, denoted by $\gamma^*_{A,B}(R_1)$, is a unary operation on relation R_1 with $A, B \subseteq attr(R_1)$ defined as follows:

$$\gamma^*_{A,B}(R_1) = \beta(\gamma_A(R_1) \cup R') \quad (8)$$
$$\text{where } R' = \lambda_{false, attr(R_1) - B}(R_1 - \gamma_A(R_1)))$$

Unlike $\gamma_A(R_1)$ which simply removes all the tuples of $R_1 - \gamma_A(R_1)$ from R_1, $\gamma^*_{A,B}(R_1)$ instead modifies the tuples in $R_1 - \gamma_A(R_1)$ by setting all the values of attributes in R_1 (excluding the attributes in B) to null.

Example 4.1. This example illustrates the γ and γ^* operators on the relation $R(A, B, C)$ shown below. $\gamma_A(R)$ selects the second tuple in R with a null value for attribute A. For the remaining two tuples in R that are not selected by $\gamma_A(R)$, their values for attributes A and C are set to *null* and this resultant set is represented by R'. Finally, $\gamma^*_{A,B}(R)$ removes the spurious tuples in $\gamma_A(R) \cup R'$.

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[2] Note that as a semijoin can be rewritten as an inner join followed by a projection, the rewriting rules for inner joins could be used for semijoins. To avoid clutter, we do not discuss rewriting rules for semijoins in this paper.

R				$\gamma_A(\mathbf{R}) \cup \mathbf{R}'$			$\gamma_A(\mathbf{R})$		
A	**B**	**C**		**A**	**B**	**C**	**A**	**B**	**C**
a_1	b_1	c_1		$null$	b_1	$null$	$null$	b_1	c_2
$null$	b_1	c_2		$null$	b_1	c_2	$\gamma^*_{A,B}(\mathbf{R})$		
a_2	b_1	c_3		$null$	b_1	$null$	**A**	**B**	**C**
							$null$	b_1	c_2

□

For notational convenience, if R_1, R_2, R_3, and R_4 are relations where $attr(R_2), attr(R_3), attr(R_4) \subseteq attr(R_1)$, we use $\gamma^*_{R_2, R_3}(R_1)$ to denote $\gamma^*_{attr(R_2), attr(R_3)}(R_1)$ and use $\gamma^*_{R_2, R_3 \cup R_4}(R_1)$ to denote $\gamma^*_{attr(R_2), attr(R_3) \cup attr(R_4)}(R_1)$. Similarly, we use $\gamma_{R_2}(R_1)$ to denote $\gamma_{attr(R_2)}(R_1)$, and $\gamma_{R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1)$ to denote $\gamma_{attr(R_2) \cup attr(R_3)}(R_1)$.

The rewriting rules for the new operators γ and γ^* are given in Table 2, and we have the following result.

Theorem 4.2. *The 13 rewriting rules in Table 2 are sound.* □

A partial proof of Theorem 4.2 is given in Appendix A.

The rules in Table 2 are mainly for interchanging γ/γ^* with conventional join operators which are essential for achieving join reorderability using γ/γ^*, as will be illustrated in Examples 4.5, 4.6 and 4.8.

We conclude this section with a brief discussion on the completeness of the rewriting rules in Table 2. Table 2 contains all the rules needed for interchanging γ/γ^* with conventional join operators. The rules that appear to have been omitted in Table 2 are actually not required for join reordering. For instance, Rule 2 requires that p_{12} does not reference R_3. It is actually impossible for p_{12} to reference attributes of R_3 in $R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1)$ because γ_{R_3} must come from an antijoin operation with R_3 as the right operand of the antijoin (this will become clear when we present Equation (9) in Section 4.3 for rewriting antijoins). Hence, the attributes of R_3 do not appear in the join operands of $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ and will never be referenced by p_{12}.

4.3 Rules for Join Reordering

Having introduced our proposed compensation operators and their properties, we now elaborate on how they are used in our approach. We propose to use the following rewriting rule for antijoins:

$$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2)) \qquad (9)$$

Semantically, the left antijoin of R_1 and R_2 can be computed by the following two steps: (1) compute the left-outerjoin between R_1 and R_2; and (2) prune the join results by removing those tuples in R_1 that can join with some tuple in R_2 and project out the attributes of R_1. Our proposed rewriting in Equation 9 is based on this idea and it is the crux behind our approach for reordering join queries involving antijoins. The reason why this two-step approach is effective is because it enables the pruning step to be postponed , which is often necessary when performing join reorderings. We illustrate this need for postponed pruning with the following example.
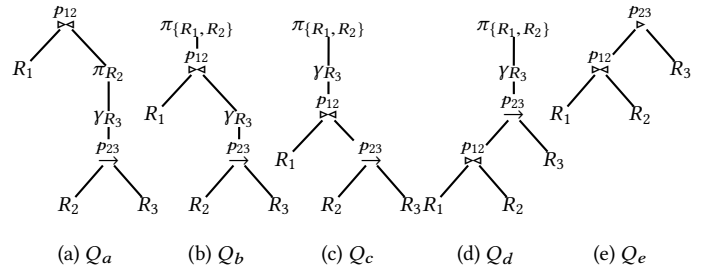
Example 4.3. Consider the query $Q = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$. Suppose that we want to reorder the joins in Q so that the join between R_1 and R_2 is computed first. For the reordered join expression to be equivalent to Q, the pruning step for the left-antijoin operation

must be postponed after the completion of the second join with R_3. Thus, by expressing the antijoin $\overset{p_{12}}{\rhd}$ in terms of $\overset{p_{12}}{\to}$ and γ_{R_2}, it becomes possible to reorder the joins $\overset{p_{12}}{\to}$ and $\overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie}$, and to postpone γ_{R_2} till all the joins have been computed. In this example, Q can be rewritten into the equivalent query $Q' = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p_{23}, R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))))$, as will become clear after we give the complete list of join reordering rules in Table 3. Observe that if $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2$ has a lower evaluation cost than that of $R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3$, then Q' is likely to have a lower evaluation cost than Q. □

Based on the rewriting rules in Table 2, Table 3 shows the new join reorderings, given by Rules 14 to 20, that are enabled by our approach. None of these seven join reorderings are possible with the existing approaches [8, 12]. Since our approach also uses the compensation operators β and λ, the join reorderings given by Rules 21 to 25 (from [12]) are also supported by our approach. We have the following new result.

Theorem 4.4. *Rules 14 to 20 in Table 3 are sound.* □
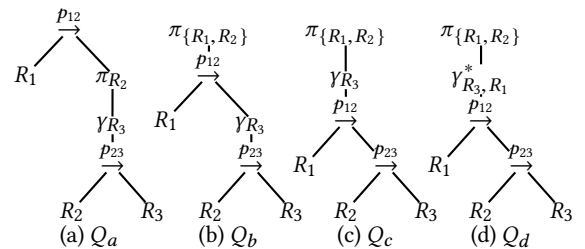
A partial proof of Theorem 4.4 is given in Appendix A.

Figure 2: Query Rewriting for Example 4.5

The following two examples serve to illustrate how we derive rules for join reordering using γ/γ^*. Example 4.5 shows how γ helps to derive a valid join reordering. The second example gives the derivation for Rule 18 in Table 3 with the help of γ and γ^*. A formal proof of Rule 18 can be found in Appendix. Other rules in Table 3 can be proved similarly.

Example 4.5. Consider the reordering of the joins in the query $Q = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3)$ such that the join between R_1 and R_2 is computed first. By applying Equation 9, Q is rewritten to Q_a as

Figure 3: Query Rewriting for Example 4.6

Rule 1		$\gamma_{R_3}(\gamma_{R_4}(R_1)) = \gamma_{R_4}(\gamma_{R_3}(R_1))$
Rule 2		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1) = \gamma_{R_3}(R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_1)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 3		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1) = \gamma^*_{R_3,R_2}(R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_1)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 4		$\gamma_{R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2 = \gamma_{R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 5		$\gamma_{R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \gamma_{R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 6		$\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2 = \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 7		$\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2 = \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 8		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) = \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4 \cup R_2}(R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_1)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 9		$\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3 and p_{12} references R_4
Rule 10		$\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2)))$, where p_{12} references neither R_3 nor R_4
Rule 11		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) = R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_1$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3 and p_{12} references R_4
Rule 12		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} \gamma^*_{R_3,R_4}(R_1) = \pi_{R_2}(\gamma_{R_1}(\gamma^*_{R_3,R_4 \cup R_2}(R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_1)))$, where p_{12} references neither R_3 nor R_4
Rule 13		$R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1) = \pi_{R_2}(\gamma_{R_1}(\gamma^*_{R_3,R_2}(R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_1)))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3

Table 2: Rewriting rules for γ and γ^*. Note that attr(R_3), attr(R_4) $\subseteq$ attr(R_1).

Rule 14	assoc(▷, ⋈)	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p_{23},R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))))$
Rule 15	assoc(▷, ▷)	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\gamma^*_{R_3,R_1}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3)))$
Rule 16	assoc(▷, →)	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))$
Rule 17	assoc(→, ▷)	$(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3 = \pi_{\{R_1,R_2\}}(\gamma_{R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3)))$
Rule 18	assoc(→, ▷)	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3) = \pi_{\{R_1,R_2\}}(\gamma^*_{R_3,R_1}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3))$
Rule 19	r-asscom(▷, ⋈)	$R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} (R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\bowtie} R_3) = \pi_{R_2}(\gamma_{R_3}(\beta(\lambda_{p_{13},R_3}((R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) \overset{p_{13}}{\to} R_1))))$
Rule 20	r-asscom(▷, →)	$R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\rhd} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_3}(\beta(\lambda_{p_{23},R_3}((R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\to} R_3) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_2))))$
Rule 21	assoc(→, ⋈)	$(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3 = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$
Rule 22	assoc(→, ⋈)	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3) = \beta(\lambda_{p_{23},R_2}((R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3))$
Rule 23	r-asscom(⋈, →)	$R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\bowtie} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) = R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} (R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\bowtie} R_3)$
Rule 24	r-asscom(⋈, →)	$R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} (R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\bowtie} R_3) = \beta(\lambda_{p_{13},R_3}((R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) \overset{p_{13}}{\to} R_1))$
Rule 25	r-asscom(→, →)	$R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3) = \beta(\lambda_{p_{23},R_3}((R_1 \overset{p_{13}}{\to} R_3) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_2))$

Table 3: Join reorderings enabled by compensation operators λ, β, γ, and γ^*. Rules 14 to 20 are new results, while Rules 21 to 25 (which are also supported by our approach) are from CBA[12].

shown in Figure 2(a). To perform $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ ahead of $\overset{p_{23}}{\to}$, we need to push $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ in Q_a below both π_{R_2} and γ_{R_3}. The swap between $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ and π_{R_2} is trivially accomplished by applying the following rewriting rule, where $A \subseteq attr(R_1)$ and $attr(p_{12}) \subseteq A \cup attr(R_2)$:

$$\pi_A(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} R_2 = \pi_{\{A,R_2\}}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} R_2) \tag{10}$$
$$\text{where } \circ \in \{\bowtie, \to, \leftarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$$

After this swapping, we obtain Q_b in Figure 2(b). Next, pushing $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ in Q_b below γ_{R_3} is achieved by applying Rule 2 in Table 2 to produce Q_c in Figure 2(c). Now that $\overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie}$ and $\overset{p_{23}}{\to}$ are both adjacent operators in Q_c, we apply the associativity property between $\bowtie$ and $\to$ (i.e., $(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3 = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\to} R_3)$) to swap these operators to obtain Q_d in Figure 2(d). Finally, we apply Equation (9) once more to rewrite Q_d to Q_e in Figure 2(e). □

The next example illustrates the need for γ^* operator in join reorderings.

Example 4.6. Consider the reordering of the joins in the query $Q = R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\to} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\rhd} R_3)$ such that the join of R_1 and R_2 is computed first. By applying Equation (9), Q is rewritten to Q_a as depicted in Figure 3(a). We apply Equation (10) to get Q_b. Then by pushing down the join $\overset{p_{12}}{\to}$ below γ_{R_3} in Q_b, we get the query Q_c. However, this rewriting actually does not preserve the equivalence of Q_b and Q_c because while all the tuples in R_1 are preserved in the result of Q_b, some of the tuples from R_1 could be removed by γ_{R_3} in the result of Q_c.

Intuitively, to preserve equivalence for the rewriting that pushes $\overset{p_{12}}{\to}$ below γ_{R_3} in Q_b, we should restrict γ_{R_3}'s power such that it cannot remove tuples from R_1. To achieve this, we need to replace γ_{R_3} by the more general form $\gamma^*_{R_3,R_1}$ after the rewriting to obtain the query Q_d shown in Figure 3(d). By the definition of γ given in

Equation (8), $\gamma^*_{R_3, R_1}$ will not remove any tuple from R_1. Note that Q_d and Q_b, Q_a are equivalent. A more precise formulation of this rewriting is given by Rule 3 in Table 2. □

We conclude this section with a brief discussion on the completeness of the rewriting rules in Table 3. In general, each assoc/l-asscom/r-asscom transformation for a given pair of join operators should be associated with two rewriting rules: one for rewriting from the LHS to RHS, and the other from rewriting from the RHS to LHS. For instance, Table 3 has two rewriting rules associated with the assoc($\rightarrow$, $\triangleright$) transformation. However, for some transformations such as assoc($\triangleright$, $\bowtie$), the schema of its LHS, i.e., $(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2) \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3$, is actually not meaningful: the output schema of $(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2)$ is the schema of R_1 and it does not make sense to join $(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2)$ with R_3 using the join predicate p_{23}. For such cases, there is only one rewriting rule associated with the transformation.

4.4 Pulling Up Compensation Operators

As illustrated by Examples 4.5 and 4.6, the compensation operators $\lambda/\gamma/\gamma^*$ generated during the query rewriting process could get sandwiched between other operators on top (e.g., π, other join operators) and a subtree of join operators below. In order to facilitate the reordering of the join operators, the compensation operators need to be pulled up to bypass other join operators above them.

Pulling up γ/γ^* to bypass join operators can be achieved using rewriting rules in Table 2. For pulling up λ, we introduce two additional rewriting rules in Table 4. We have the following results.

THEOREM 4.7. *Rules 26 and 27 in Table 4 are sound.* □

Based on Rules 26 and 27, Table 5 in Appendix B shows the complete rewriting rules for pulling up the λ operator.

Rule 26	$\lambda_{P_1, M}(\lambda_{P_2, N}(R)) = \lambda_{P_2, N}(\lambda_{P_1, M}(R))$, if P_1 does not reference N
Rule 27	$\lambda_{P_1, M}(\lambda_{P_2, N}(R)) = \lambda_{P_2, M \cup N}(\lambda_{P_1, M}(R))$, if P_1 references N

Table 4: Rewriting rules for swapping λ. Note that $\lambda_{P_1, M}$ comes from a join node above $\lambda_{P_2, N}$.

The next example shows how the rewriting rules help to pull up compensation operators in join reordering.

Example 4.8. Suppose that we want to reorder the join operations in query Q_a in Figure 4(a) such that the join of R_1 and R_2 is computed first, followed by the join of R_1 and R_4. To achieve this, we first reorder $\overset{p_{12}}{\circ}$ and $\overset{p_{23}}{\circ}$ by Rule 14 in Table 3 to get Q_b. Next, we need to pull up the path of non-join operators $(\pi_{R_1}, \gamma_{R_2}, \beta, \lambda_{p_{23}, R_2})$ in Q_b so that $\overset{p_{14}}{\circ}$ becomes adjacent to $\overset{p_{23}}{\circ}$ to facilitate $\overset{p_{14}}{\rightarrow}$ to be reordered ahead of $\overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow}$. The pulling up of π_{R_1} and γ_{R_2} can be done by applying Equation (10) followed by Rule 4 in Table 2. The pulling up β is achieved by applying Equations (2), (4) and (6) in Section 2.2. Finally, the pulling up of λ_{p_{23}, R_2} is achieved by applying Rule 30 from Table 5. The resultant query is Q_c in Figure 4(c) which now enables $\overset{p_{14}}{\rightarrow}$ to be swapped with $\overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow}$. □

Algorithm 1: TopDown($Q, \mathcal{R}$)

Input: Query Q over a set of relations $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \cdots, R_n\}$
Output: An optimal query plan for Q
1 let P_{init} be the initial query plan derived from Q
2 **foreach** $R_i \in \mathcal{R}$ **do**
3   bestAccess[R_i] = best access method for R_i
4 **foreach** $S \subseteq \mathcal{R}$, $|S| > 1$ **do**
5   initialize bestPlan[S] = null
6 **return** GenerateSubplan($P_{init}, null, \mathcal{R}$)

---

5 TOP-DOWN PLAN ENUMERATION

In this section, we present a top-down plan enumeration strategy to compute an optimal query plan for an input query Q on a set of relations $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \cdots, R_n\}$.

In conventional top-down plan enumeration (e.g., [3]), an optimal query plan for Q is computed by enumerating all feasible decompositions of $\mathcal{R}$ into two non-empty, disjoint subsets S_1 and S_2 that could be joined together, and recursively finding optimal subplans for each of S_1 and S_2. Moreover, the best query subplan found for each subset of $\mathcal{R}$ is cached for reuse in subsequent enumerated query plans.

As our approach for reordering joins could introduce compensation operations which are generally different even for joining the same subset of relations under different query plans, this creates additional challenges for enumerating and reusing query subplans. The following example illustrates these additional complexities.

Example 5.1. Consider the query plan Q_d for joining $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, R_5\}$ shown in Figure 4. Q_g and Q_h are two query plans with different join reorderings that are each equivalent to Q_d. In terms of top-down plan enumeration, if we use S to denote the set $\{R_3, R_4, R_5\}$, then Q_g is formed by first decomposing $\mathcal{R}$ into $(S \cup \{R_1\}) \circ \{R_2\}$, followed by decomposing $(S \cup \{R_1\})$ into $S \circ \{R_1\}$. In contrast, Q_h is formed by first decomposing $\mathcal{R}$ into $S \circ \{R_1, R_2\}$. Suppose that Q_g is enumerated before Q_h and that $P_g = (R_3 \overset{p_{34}}{\bowtie} R_4) \overset{p_{45}}{\rightarrow} R_5$ is the best query subplan for joining S in Q_g. As part of the construction of Q_h, we need to determine the best plan for joining S. If we were to reuse the best plan found in Q_g for S (i.e., replace the subplan $P_h = (R_3 \overset{p_{34}}{\bowtie} R_4) \overset{p_{45}}{\triangleright} R_5$ in Q_h with P_g), the resultant query plan will not be equivalent to Q_h because P_g and P_h are not equivalent. □

The above example highlights two key complications with compensation operators. First, the enumeration of query subplans needs to keep track of any compensation operations generated. Second, the reuse of optimal query subplans requires more careful reasoning to ensure correctness.

To simplify the presentation, we first discuss our approach for the class of join queries without full outerjoins $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$ in Sections 5.1 and 5.2, and then present an extension in Section 5.3 to handle all join queries including full outerjoins. Section 5.1 presents a basic approach that keeps track of compensation operations generated during plan enumeration without any reuse of optimal query subplans. Section 5.2 presents a refinement that also enables the reuse of optimal query subplans.
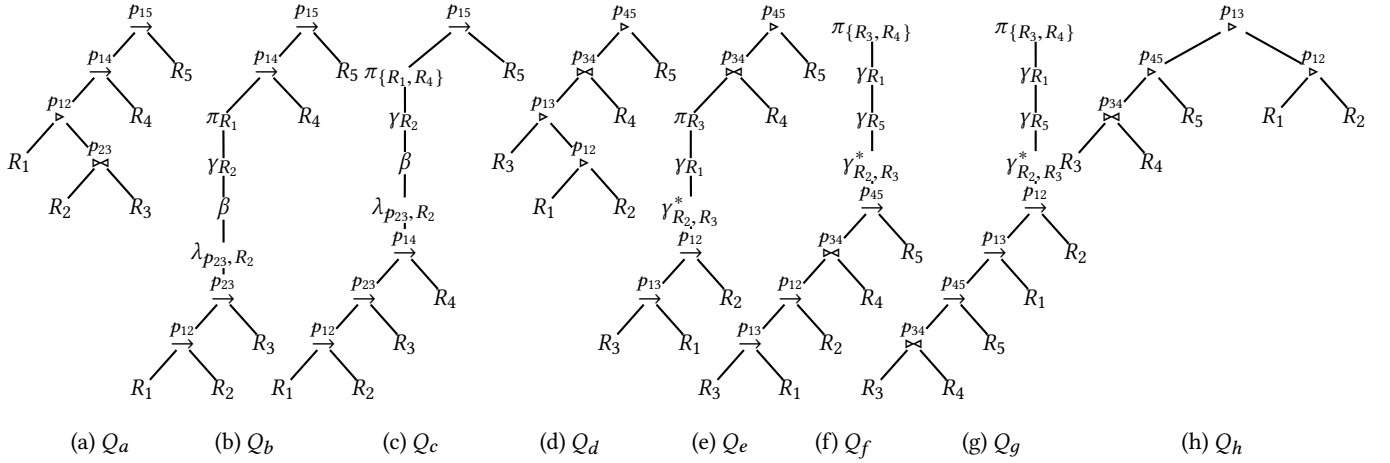
Figure 4: Query plans for Example 4.8 and Example 5.1

Algorithm 2: GenerateSubplan(P, i, S)

Input: P is a query plan, i is either null or a join node in P, S is a subset of relations in P

Output: A query plan P' that is derived from P that contains an optimal subplan SP for joining S. If $i \neq null$, then SP is a child subtree of i; otherwise, $P' = SP$.

1   **if** $S = \{R_i\}$ **then**
2   **return** P with R_i replaced by bestAccess[R_i]
3   **foreach** *joinable pair* (S_1, S_2) *of* S **do**
4   initialize $P' = P$
5   let j be the join node in P' that joins S_1 and S_2
6   **while** $par(j) \neq i$ **do**
7       $P' = $ Swap(P', j)
8     $P' = $ GenerateSubplan(P', j, S_1)
9     $P' = $ GenerateSubplan(P', j, S_2)
10   **if** $cost(subtree(P', S)) < cost(subtree(bestPlan[S], S))$ **then**
11   bestPlan[S] $= P'$
12 **return** bestPlan[S]

Algorithm 3: Swap(P, i)

Input: P is a query plan where i is an internal non-root join node in P

Output: A modified query plan P with i swapped with its parent join node

1   let j be the parent join node of i in P
2   **if** *there are compensation operators between i and j* **then**
3   apply appropriate rewriting rule in Table 2, 4 or 5 to pull all compensation operators above j
4   let T_ℓ and T_r denote the left and right child subtrees of i in P
5   **if** j *refers to T_ℓ and not to T_r* **then**
6     $P = $ apply appropriate assoc rewriting rule to swap i and j
7   **else**
8   **if** j *refers to T_r and not to T_ℓ* **then**
9   **if** i *is the left child of j* **then**
10        $P = $ apply appropriate l-asscom rewriting rule to swap i and j
11   **else**
12        $P = $ apply appropriate r-asscom rewriting rule to swap i and j
13 **return** P

5.1 Basic Approach

To facilitate the tracking of compensation operators in query plans, our approach enumerates each query subplan SP for joining $S \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ within the context of some complete query plan P (i.e., query plan for the entire query). Given a query Q to be optimized, the simplest choice of an initial complete query plan for Q is the query plan that is directly translated from the specification of Q. We use P_{init} to denote this initial query plan for Q. Note that our interest in P_{init} is in both the logical join operators as well as join ordering specified in P_{init}, which are essential for generating appropriate compensation operators as the joins in P_{init} are being reordered to enumerate query subplans. Thus, P_{init} is a logical (and not a physical) query plan.

Algorithm 1 shows the main driver of our top-down enumeration approach. An array bestAccess[R_i] is used to store the best access plan for each relation $R_i \in \mathcal{R}$; and another array bestPlan[S]

is used to store the query plan P that contains a best subplan SP for joining $S \subseteq \mathcal{R}$.[3]

GenerateSubplan returns an optimal subplan SP (within a given query plan P for Q) to join an input set of relations $S \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ such that SP is a child subtree of a given internal node i in P if $i \neq null$; otherwise, $P = SP$.

The for-loop (step 4) iterates all feasible query subplans to join S. We define (S_2, S_2) to be a *joinable pair of S* if there exists a join ordering of Q with an internal node such that S_1 and S_2 are precisely the set of relations in the child subtrees of that node and $S = S_1 \cup S_2$.

Both the checking of whether (S_1, S_2) is a joinable pair of S (step 4) as well as identifying the join node j for this pair (step 5) can be

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[3] Although our basic approach does not reuse optimal query subplans and therefore does not really need to use bestPlan[], we maintain this structure for ease of transition when we present our enhanced algorithms later.

efficiently performed based on the following property: (S_1, S_2) is a joinable pair of S with join node j if j is the only join node in P that refers to some relation in each of S_1 and S_2. As an example, consider the query plan $P = Q_a$ in Figure 4. If $S = \{R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4\}$, then $(\{R_1, R_3\}, \{R_2, R_4\})$ is not a joinable pair of S because there is more than one join node in P' (i.e., p_{14} and p_{23}) that refers to each of $\{R_1, R_3\}$ and $\{R_2, R_4\}$. On the other hand, $(\{R_1, R_2, R_3\}, \{R_4\})$ is a joinable pair of S as there is exactly one join node p_{14} in P' that refers to each of $\{R_1, R_2, R_3\}$ and $\{R_4\}$.

Given the join node j for a joinable pair (S_1, S_2) of S, GenerateSubplan first moves j so that i becomes the parent join node[4] of i in P' (steps 6 and 7); if $i = null$, then j becomes the root join node[5] in P'. This transformation of P' is performed by calling the Swap function (Algorithm 3) iteratively to swap j with its parent node in P'. In step 6, $par(j)$ denotes the parent join node of j in P where $par(j) = null$ if j is the root join node in P.

After the relocation of j in P', GenerateSubplan recursively generates an optimal subplan for each of S_1 and S_2 (steps 8-9). Steps 10 uses the best plan found so far to eliminate non-optimal subplans. Step 11 stores the cheapest query plan P' for joining S in bestPlan$[S]$. The evaluation cost of a query plan P is given by $cost(P)$; if P = null, then cost(P) = ∞. The cost model for estimating the cost of query plans is discussed in Section 6.2.

Since the query subplan SP for joining S is embedded within a complete query plan P', we use subtree(P, S) to denote SP. More precisely, subtree(P, S) denote the smallest subtree SP in P (in terms of the number of relations in SP) that satisfies the following two properties: (1) SP contains all the relations in S, and (2) SP contains all the compensation operators that are between the root join node r in SP and the closest ancestor join node r' of r (if r' does not exist, then $SP = P$). As an example, in Figure 4(b), subtree$(Q_b, \{R_1, R_2, R_3\})$ is the subplan of Q_b rooted at the node π_{R_1}.

Given a query plan P and an internal non-root join node i in P, the function Swap (Algorithm 3) transforms P by swapping i with its parent join node j in P. If there are compensation operators between i and j, we first pull these compensations above j by applying appropriate rewriting rules from Table 2, 4 or 5, to make i and j adjacent. Then we swap i and j by applying an appropriate assoc/l-asscom/r-asscom rewriting rule. The structural transformation for this kind of swap is illustrated in Figure 1. Since our approach provides complete join reorderability for $C_J^{\leftrightarrow}$, it is always possible to find appropriate rewriting rules to perform the swap operation.

5.2 Enabling Reuse of Query Subplans

In this section, we present a refinement of the basic approach presented in the previous section to enable the reuse of optimal query subplans whenever possible.

As illustrated by Example 5.1, the compensation operators generated from an invalid transformation could affect the reusability of query subplans. The following example provides the intuition for the condition under which it is correct to reuse the best query

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[4] Given two nodes i and j in a query plan P, we say that i is the parent join node of j if i is the closest ancestor join node of j in P.
[5] Given a query plan P, we define the root join node in P to be the top-most join node in P.

subplan for joining some subset of relations S (w.r.t. some complete query plan) in a different complete query plan for joining S.

Example 5.2. Consider the three query subplans for joining $S = \{R_1, R_2, R_3\}$ in Figures 4(a), (b), and (c). Note that subtree(Q_b, S) rooted at π_{R_1} is equivalent to subtree(Q_a, S) because the compensation operators $(\pi_{R_1}, \gamma_{R_2}, \beta, \lambda_{P_{23}, R_2})$ generated by swapping the two join operators p_{12} and p_{23} in Q_a to derive Q_b are all within subtree(Q_b, S). On the other hand, subtree(Q_c, S) rooted at $\overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow}$ is not equivalent to subtree(Q_a, S) rooted at $\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}$ because all the compensation operators associated with the swap of the join operators are outside of subtree(Q_c, S). $\square$

The above example illustrates that query subplan equivalence needs to take into account of the compensation operators that are associated with the join operators within the subplans. Specifically, a join operator depends on a compensation operator in two scenarios. First, if a sequence of compensation operators C is generated when a join operator $\circ_1$ is swapped above another join operator $\circ_2$, then both $\circ_1$ and $\circ_2$ depend on each operator in C. Second, if a compensation operator c is swapped above a join operation $\circ$ and it causes the join type of $\circ$ to be changed, then $\circ$ depends on c.

To capture the dependencies among join and compensation operators, we introduce a new labeled edge type in query plans termed *dependency edge (d-edge)*. For the first scenario, for each $\circ_i$, $i \in \{1, 2\}$, we add a d-edge from $\circ_i$ to a virtual node v that represents C with label $(\circ_1, \circ_2)$ to indicate that C is generated when $\circ_2$ is swapped above $\circ_1$. For the second scenario, we add a d-edge from $\circ$ to c with label $(\circ, c)$ to indicate that the join type of $\circ$ was changed from c is swapped above $\circ$. We denote a d-edge from node v to w with label ℓ by $v \overset{\ell}{\longmapsto} w$.

Example 5.3. Referring once more to Figure 4, when the join operators $\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}$ and $\overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie}$ in Q_a are swapped to derive Q_b, it generates the sequence of compensations $C = (\pi_{R_1}, \gamma_{R_2}, \beta, \lambda_{p_{23}, R_2})$. To represent the dependency of the join operators on C, our approach would add two d-edges: $e_1 : \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} \overset{(\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}, \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie})}{\longmapsto} v$ and $e_2 : \overset{p_{23}}{\circ} \overset{(\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}, \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie})}{\longmapsto} v$, where v is a virtual node that represents C. $\square$

We now state the precise conditions for two query subplans to be considered equivalent. Given two d-edges, e_1 and e_2, where each $e_i : \overset{p_i}{\circ_i} \overset{label_i}{\longmapsto} v_i$, e_1 and e_2 defined to be *equivalent* if and only if $p_1 = p_2$ and $label_1 = label_2$. Note that the definition does not require that $v_1 = v_2$ because compensation operators could change form when they are swapped (e.g., Rules 3 and 8 in Table 2). Given a query subplan SP, we use $ExtDEdge(SP)$ to denote the set of d-edges whose source nodes are within SP but their destination nodes are outside of SP. We use $ExtDEdge(SP_1) \equiv ExtDEdge(SP_2)$ to denote that the d-edges in both $ExtDEdge(SP_1)$ and $ExtDEdge(SP_2)$ are equivalent. We have the following result.

THEOREM 5.4. *Given two query plans P_1 and P_2 where each P_i contains a subplan SP_i for joining a set of relations S, SP_1 and SP_2 are equivalent subplans if $ExtDEdge(SP_1) \equiv ExtDEdge(SP_2)$.* $\square$

The algorithms for our enhanced approach are given in Appendix C.

Example 5.5. Consider the two query subplans for joining $S = \{R_3, R_4, R_5\}$ in Figures 4(g) and (h). Note that there are three d-edges in Q_g: $e_1 : \overset{p_{12}}{\circ} \overset{(\overset{p_{13}}{\triangleright}, \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright})}{\longmapsto} v_1$, $e_2 : \overset{p_{13}}{\circ} \overset{(\overset{p_{13}}{\triangleright}, \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright})}{\longmapsto} v_1$ and $e_3 : \overset{p_{45}}{\circ} \overset{(C_1, \overset{p_{45}}{\triangleright})}{\longmapsto} v_1$, where v_1 represents $C_1 = (\pi_{\{R_3, R_4\}}, \gamma_{R_1}, \gamma_{R_5}, \gamma^*_{R_2, R_3})$. Both e_1 and e_2 are added from the swapping of $\overset{p_{13}}{\triangleright}$ and $\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}$ in Q_d to derive Q_e, while e_3 is added from the pulling up of compensation operators C_1 above $\circ_{p_{45}}$ to derive Q_f. Since $ExtDEdge(subtree(Q_g, S)) = \{e_3\}$ and $ExtDEdge(subtree(Q_h, S)) = \emptyset$, $subtree(Q_g, S)$ and $subtree(Q_h, S)$ are not equivalent query subplans. □

5.3 Handling Full-Outerjoins

In this section, we explain how our join enumeration approach can be easily extended to handle the class of all join queries C_J including those queries with full outerjoins. As discussed in Section 3, although our approach does not provide complete join reorderability for C_J, any join reordering supported by TBA is also supported by our approach.

Since our approach provides only partial reorderability for C_J, it might not be always possible for Algorithm 3 to find an applicable rewriting rule to perform a swap operation involving a full outerjoin. For such cases, Swap simply returns *null* to indicate that the swap cannot be performed. If a call to Swap returns *null*, then GenerateSubplan would abandon the construction of that query subplan to join S_1 and S_2.

5.4 Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, our approach is the first top-down plan enumeration for query plans with compensation operators. CBA [12] described a bottom-up plan enumeration algorithm (based on the concept of *Nullification Sets*) for query plans containing λ and β compensation operators. However, their algorithm simply enumerates all possible join plans without any pruning or reusing of query subplans.

Incorporating cost-based pruning and dynamic programming-style reusing of query subplans is difficult for bottom-up plan enumeration because of the presence of compensation operators in query plans. As we have explained in Example 5.1, compensation operators complicate the reasoning about query subplan equivalence. Therefore, we have chosen to design a top-down approach for plan enumeration in this paper that is able to to incorporate both cost-based pruning as well as reusing of optimal subplans.

6 IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES

In this section, we discuss how the compensation operators in our approach can be implemented. In general, there are two ways to implement new query operators. The first is a language-based approach that implements the new operators at the SQL language level. Given a query plan P produced by the optimizer, if P contains any compensation operator, P will be rewritten into a SQL query that enforces the join ordering in P for execution. The second approach is a native approach that implements at least one evaluation algorithm for each compensation operator.

In this paper, we focus on the first approach as it is a less intrusive approach that can be more easily implemented.

6.1 SQL-level Implementation

Among the four compensation operators ($\lambda, \beta, \gamma, \gamma^*$) used in our approach, there already exists SQL-level implementations for both λ and β operators, which were introduced by CBA [12]. We first overview how λ and β are implemented in CBA, and explain the implementation of the operators γ and γ^* introduced by our approach. A complete example showing the SQL implementation of a query plan with compensation operators is given in Appendix E.

The nullification operator λ_{p_i, A_i} (see Section 2.2) is easily implemented using SQL's case expression for each attribute $A_{i,j} \in A_i$ as follows: "CASE WHEN p_i THEN $A_{i,j}$ END AS $B_{i,j}$". Here, $B_{i,j}$ is set to $A_{i,j}$ if p_i is *true*; and *null*, otherwise.

For the best-match operation $\beta(R)$, the key idea behind CBA's implementation is to sort R to generate R' in such a way that for each spurious tuple $t \in R'$, t is immediately preceded by a tuple in R' that dominates or duplicates t. In this way, the spurious tuples in R' can be easily eliminated by a scan of R'. Depending on the λ operators in a query plan, the implementation of β in general might require more than one sorting of R (with different orderings) to completely eliminate all its spurious tuples. The sorting and spurious tuple elimination operations in β are implemented using SQL's window function construct.

We now discuss how the two new operators introduced by our approach can be easily implemented following their definitions in Section 4.2. The $\gamma_A(R)$ operation is simply implemented using a SELECT subquery to eliminate all tuples in R with a non-null value for some attribute in A.

The $\gamma^*_{A, B}(R)$ operation is implemented directly following its definition using a combination of SELECT subquery, λ operation, and β operation. A SELECT subquery is first used to find the tuples in R with non-null values for all attributes in A, and a λ operation is applied on these tuples to nullify all its attribute values except for the attributes B. Finally, we apply the β operation to eliminate all the spurious tuples.

In summary, all the compensation operators used in our approach can be easily implemented at the SQL level.

6.2 Cost Model

In this section, we discuss the cost models for the four compensation operations, $\lambda, \beta, \gamma,$ and γ^*.

For λ and γ, which are essentially selection operations, the cost for them is simply the cost of a scan through its operand.

As the evaluation of β is dominated by the the cost of sorting, the cost for β is $O(nlogn)$, where n is the size of its operand. For γ^*, since it is semantically equivalent to a λ operation followed by a β operation, the cost for γ^* is also $O(nlogn)$, where n is the size of its operand.

7 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In this section, we present an experimental evaluation to demonstrate the performance improvements that can be achieved by our approach of supporting more join reorderings. Our results show that our approach can improve the running time performance by up to a factor of 2.84 for a 5-table join query in PostgreSQL. Additional performance results using a commercial database system and discussions are presented in Appendix F.
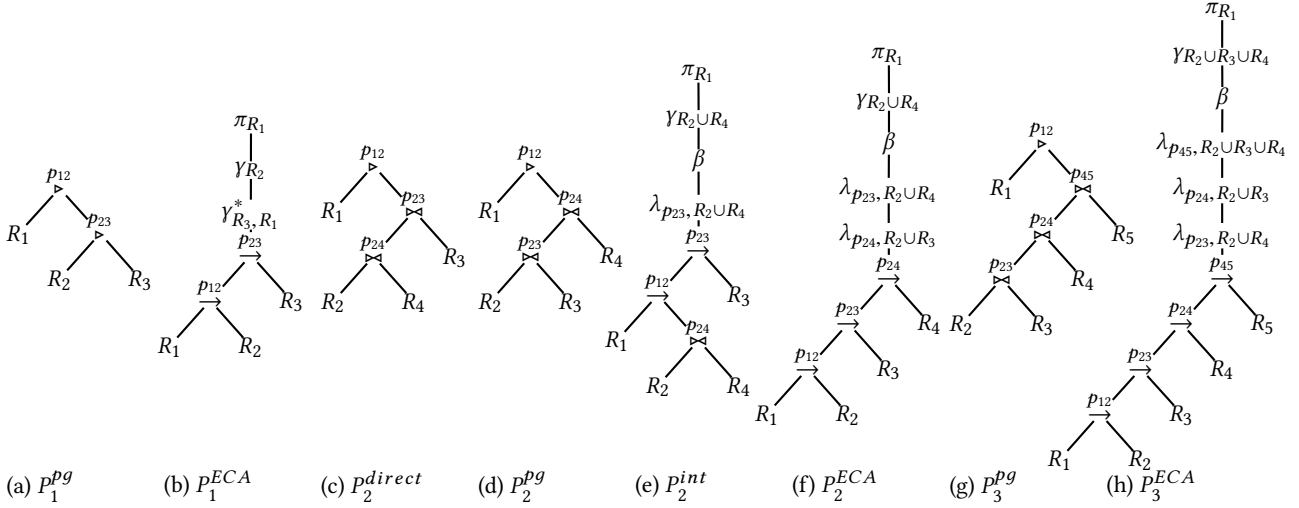
Figure 5: Query plans for Q_1, Q_2 and Q_3

Our experiments were conducted on an Intel Xeon Processor E5-2603 v2 server running Ubuntu Linux 14.04 with 32GB memory and two 1TB SATA disks (one for the OS and database server installation and the other for database files storage). The queries were run on PostgreSQL 9.6.1 database server with shared_buffers = 5GB and work_mem = 1GB.

We evaluated the following three queries (with increasing complexity) on three TPC-H benchmark datasets (with scaling factors 1, 10, and 100, respectively):

Q_1: $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} (R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\triangleright} R_3)$

Q_2: $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} ((R_2 \overset{p_{24}}{\bowtie} R_4) \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$

Q_3: $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} ((R_2 \overset{p_{24}}{\bowtie} (R_4 \overset{p_{45}}{\bowtie} R_5)) \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie} R_3)$

where $R_1 = Supplier$, $R_2 = Partsupp$, $R_3 = \sigma_{p\_name=c_1}(Part)$, $R_4 = Lineitem$, $R_5 = \sigma_{o\_totalprice>c_2}(Orders)$, p_{12} is "$(s\_suppkey = ps\_suppkey) \wedge (s\_acctbal > v \times ps\_supplycost)$", p_{23} is "$ps\_partkey = p\_partkey$", p_{24} is "$(ps\_suppkey = l\_suppkey) \wedge (ps\_partkey = l\_partkey)$", p_{45} is "$l\_orderkey = o\_orderkey$". Here, c_1 and c_2 are some constant values, and v is a parameter that is used to vary the selectivity factor of $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2$ (denoted by f_{12}); i.e., $f_{12} = \frac{|R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2|}{|R_1|}$. As it will become clear later, f_{12} affects the relative performance of the compared query plans.

For each query Q_i, we compared its running times for two query plans: the query plan produced by PostgreSQL's query optimizer (denoted by P_i^{pg}) and the query plan produced by our approach (denoted by P_i^{ECA}). Each reported timing for a query plan is the average of three executions of the plan with a cold cache.

Query Q_1. The two query plans for Q_1 are shown in Figures 5(a) and (b). Since Q_1 has two antijoins and assoc($\triangleright, \triangleright$) is an invalid transformation, it is not possible to reorder these two joins using a conventional optimizer. Hence, the only possible join ordering considered by PostgreSQL is P_1^{pg}. In contrast, our approach could reorder the joins in Q_1 to produce the plan P_1^{ECA} by applying Rule 15 in Table 3. We expect P_1^{ECA} to outperform P_1^{pg} when f_{12} is large

(i.e., a large proportion of tuples in R_1 do not join with any tuple in R_2) as this would reduce the cost of joining the R_1 tuples from the first join with R_3 in P_1^{ECA}. The SQL queries corresponding to these two query plans are given in Appendix E.

The performance comparisons for Q_1 are shown in Figures 6(a) to (c) for the 1GB, 10GB, and 100GB TPC-H databases with the selectivity factor of $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} R_2$ (i.e., f_{12}) being varied. The performance results follow our expectation: P_1^{ECA} outperforms P_1^{pg} except for a few cases when f_{12} is small. Moreover, the performance improvement of P_1^{ECA} over P_1^{pg} also increases with the database size: our approach wins by up to a factor of 1.36, 1.47, and 1.65 for the 1GB, 10GB, and 100GB databases, respectively.

Query Q_2. A straightforward query plan obtained from a direct translation of Q_2 is P_2^{direct} shown in Figure 5(c). PostgreSQL is able to reorder the joins in P_2^{direct} to the plan P_2^{pg} in Figure 5(d) by applying the l-asscom($\overset{p_{24}}{\bowtie}, \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie}$) rule (which is a valid transformation). PostgreSQL chooses P_2^{pg} over P_2^{direct} because performing $R_2 \overset{p_{23}}{\triangleright} R_3$ first would reduce the size of R_2 and hence reduce the cost of $R_2 \overset{p_{24}}{\rightarrow} R_4$.

In contrast, our approach is able to first apply the assoc($\overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright}, \overset{p_{23}}{\bowtie}$) rule (i.e., Rule 14 in Table 3) to obtain the intermediate plan P_2^{int} (Figure 5(e)), and then apply the assoc($\overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow}, \overset{p_{24}}{\bowtie}$) rule (Rule 22 in Table 3) and l-asscom($\overset{p_{24}}{\rightarrow}, \overset{p_{23}}{\rightarrow}$) rule to derive P_2^{ECA} in Figure 5(f). Similarly as for Q_1, we expect P_2^{ECA} to outperform P_2^{pg} when the join selectivity f_{12} is large, because a larger f_{12} means that there would be fewer R_2 tuples to join with R_4 and R_3, and thus reducing the join cost.

The performance results comparing P_2^{pg} and P_2^{ECA} are shown in Figures 6(d) to (f) for the 1GB, 10GB, and 100GB TPC-H databases. The results show that our approach wins by up to a factor of 2.20, 2.17, 2.35 for the 1GB, 10GB, and 100GB databases, respectively.
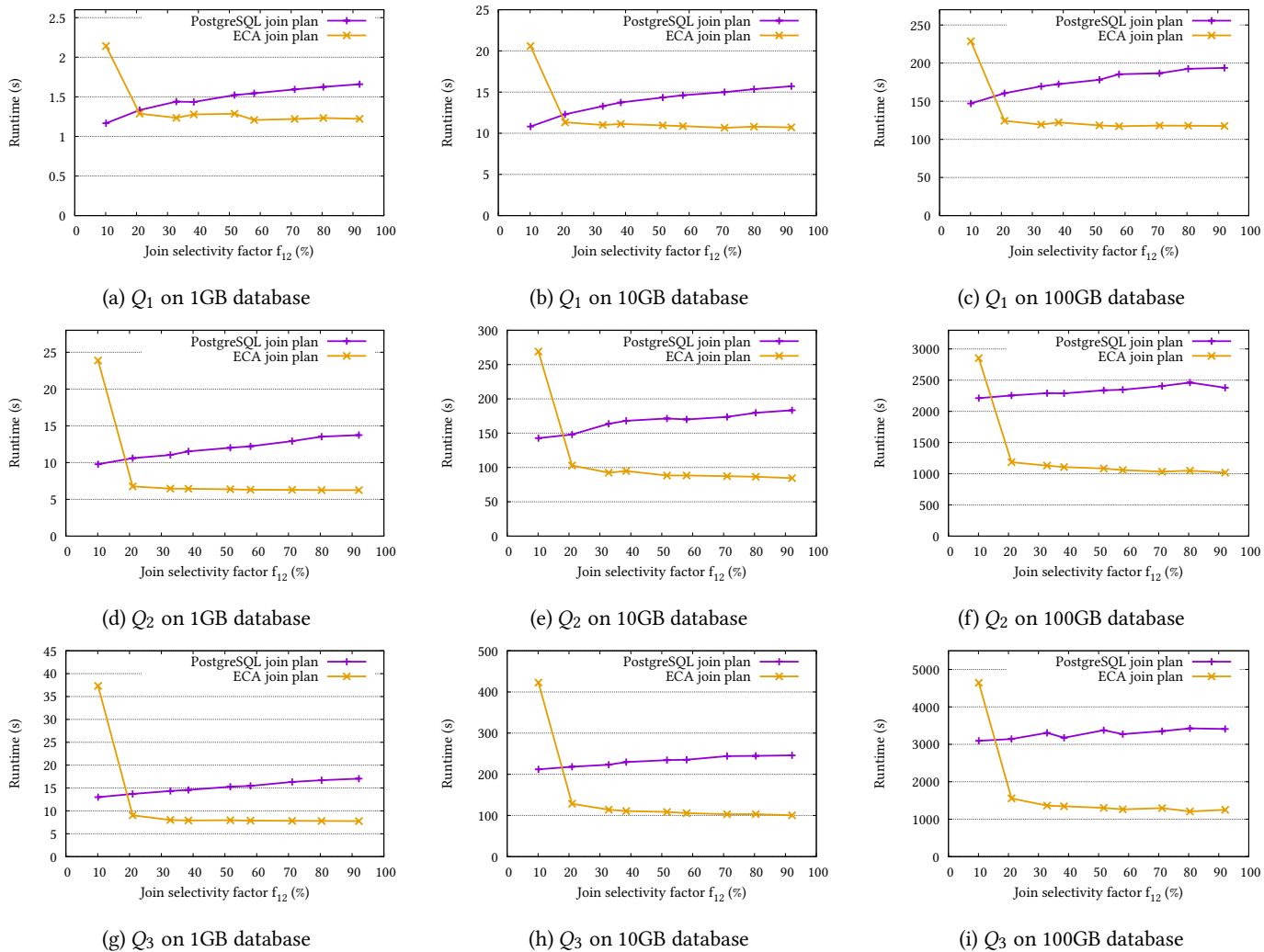
Figure 6: Performance results for Queries Q_1, Q_2 and Q_3

Query Q_3. Q_3 has one additional join with R_5 compared to Q_2. The two query plans obtained are shown in Figure 5(g) and (h). Their performance comparison in Figures 6(g) to (i) shows that our approach wins by a factor of 2.20, 2.45, 2.84 for the 1GB, 10GB, 100GB databases, respectively. The explanation for this performance trend is similar to that Q_2 and we omit a detailed discussion.

8 CONCLUSIONS

The join reordering problem is a fundamental task in query optimization. While this is a well studied problem for inner-join queries, there is currently no single best solution for reordering joins in complex queries involving non-inner joins. In this paper, we have formalized the notion of complete join reorderability and developed a new approach for join reordering that enables more join reorderings compared to the state-of-the-art solutions. Our performance study has demonstrated that enabling more join reorderings can improve query execution time by up to a factor of 2.84 for a

5-table join query. As part of our future work, we plan to investigate enabling complete join reorderability for queries with full outerjoins.

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A PROOFS FOR REWRITING RULES 3 & 18

In this section, we present partial proofs of Theorems 4.2 and 4.4 by presenting the proofs of two rewriting rules: Rule 3 in Table 2 and Rule 18 in Table 3. The other rewriting rules can be proved similarly.

Rule 3: $R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1) = \gamma^*_{R_3, R_2}(R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_1)$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3.

PROOF. Let LHS denote $R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} \gamma_{R_3}(R_1)$ and RHS denote $\gamma^*_{R_3, R_2}(R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_1)$. By the definition of γ, $attr(R_3) \subseteq attr(R_1)$. LHS removes all tuples in R_1 with non-null values for $attr(R_3)$ (by γ_{R_3}) and computes a left outerjoin between R_2 and $\gamma_{R_3}(R_1)$. RHS first computes a left outerjoin between R_2 and R_1, and for the tuples in the join result with non-null values for $attr(R_3)$, their values for attributes in $attr(R_1)$ are set to *null* (by γ^*). Thus, each tuple in LHS and RHS is either of the form $(r_2, null)$ or (r_2, r_1), where $r_2 \in R_2$ and $r_1 \in R_1$.

First, we show that LHS $\subseteq$ RHS. For a tuple t of the form (r_2, r_1) in LHS, we know that the values of $attr(R_3)$ for t are null; otherwise, t would have been removed by γ_{R_3}. Moreover, the join predicate p_{12} must evaluate to true for t. Therefore, $t \in R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_1$, and t is not removed or modified by $\gamma^*_{R_3, R_2}$ which implies that $t \in RHS$.

For a tuple t of the form $(r_2, null)$ in LHS, this implies that either (a) r_2 does not join (w.r.t. p_{12}) with any tuple in R_1 or (b) r_2 joins (w.r.t. p_{12}) only with tuples in R_1 that have non-null values for $attr(R_3)$. For case (a), $t \in R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_1$ and t is not removed or modified by $\gamma^*_{R_3, R_2}$; thus, t is also in RHS. For case (b), $\gamma^*_{R_3, R_2}$ will

set the values for $attr(R_1)$ to null, and therefore $(r_2, null)$ is in RHS. Therefore, LHS $\subseteq$ RHS.

Next, we show that RHS $\subseteq$ LHS. For a tuple t of the form (r_2, r_1) in RHS, we know that join predicate p_{12} evaluates to true for r_2 and r_1, and that the t's values for $attr(R_3)$ are null. Therefore, t is also in LHS. For a tuple t of the form $(r_2, null)$ in RHS, either r_2 does not join (w.r.t. p_{12}) with any tuple from R_1, or r_2 joins (w.r.t. p_{12}) only with tuples in R_1 that have non-null values for $attr(R_3)$. By the definition of left outerjoin, t is also in LHS. Thus, RHS $\subseteq$ LHS. □

Rule 18: $R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} (R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{23}}_{\triangleright} R_3) = \pi_{\{R_1, R_2\}}(\gamma^*_{R_3, R_1}((R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_2) \xrightarrow{p_{23}} R_3))$

PROOF.

$$R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} (R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{23}}_{\triangleright} R_3)$$

$$= R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} \pi_{R_2}(\gamma_{R_3}(R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{23}} R_3)), \text{ by Equation 9 in Section 4.3}$$

$$= \pi_{R_1, R_2}(R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} \gamma_{R_3}(R_2 \xrightarrow{p_{23}} R_3)), \text{ by Equation 10 in Section 4.3}$$

$$= \pi_{\{R_1, R_2\}}(\gamma^*_{R_3, R_1}((R_1 \xrightarrow{p_{12}} R_2) \xrightarrow{p_{23}} R_3)), \text{ by Rule 3 in Table 2}$$

□

B RULES FOR PULLING λ

Based on Rules 26 and 27 discussed in Section 4.4, Table 5 shows the rewriting rules for pulling λ above join operators.

C ENHANCED APPROACH

This section presents the details of our enhanced approach introduced in Section 5.2 to enable the reuse of optimal query subplans.

The enhanced approach consists of the same main driver as the basic approach (Algorithm 1 in Section 5.1) and modified versions of GenerateSubplan and Swap (shown as Algorithms 4 and 5). GenerateSubplan uses two additional functions, GetBestPlan (shown as Algorithm 6) and UpdateBestPlan (details are not shown) to reuse optimal subplans when applicable.

Recall from the discussion in Section 5.2 that for a set of relations S to be joined, there could be multiple query plans each consisting of a different subplan for joining S, and these subplans are not necessarily equivalent. Our enhanced approach uses bestPlan[S] to store these incomparable optimal subplans for joining S.

Specifically, in GenerateSubplan, if there is no reusable optimal subplan for joining a set of relations S, steps 7 to 15 will compute an optimal subplan P' for S and invoke UpdateBestPlan(S, P') to insert P' into bestPlan[S]. On the other hand, if an applicable optimal subplan for S is available (retrieved by GetBestPlan in step 3), it will be reused (step 5). The correctness of GetBestPlan is based on Theorem 5.4.

Steps 5 and 17 in Swap function generate appropriate d-edges in query plans when operators are swapped to enable reasoning about query subplan equivalence.

D HANDLING NULL-TOLERANT JOIN PREDICATES

Although we have so far restricted the discussed query classes to contain only null-intolerant join predicates, our approach can be

Rule 28	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 29	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_1 \cup R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2))$, where p_{12} references R_3
Rule 30	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 31	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2 = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))$, where p_{12} references R_3
Rule 32	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} \lambda_{p,R_3}(R_2) = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 33	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} \lambda_{p,R_3}(R_2) = \beta(\lambda_{p,R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_2))$, where p_{12} references R_3
Rule 34	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 35	$\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1) \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} R_2 = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p,R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))))$, where p_{12} references R_3
Rule 36	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} \lambda_{p,R_3}(R_2) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p,R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))))$, where p_{12} does not reference R_3
Rule 37	$R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rhd} \lambda_{p,R_3}(R_2) = \pi_{R_1}(\gamma_{R_2}(\beta(\lambda_{p,R_2 \cup R_3}(R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\rightarrow} R_2))))$, where p_{12} references R_3

Table 5: Rewriting rules for pulling λ above join operators

Algorithm 5: Swap(P, i)

Input: P is a query plan where i is an internal non-root join node in P

Output: A modified query plan P with i swapped with its parent join node

1 let j be the parent join node of i in P
2 **if** *there are compensation operators between i and j* **then**
3   apply appropriate rewriting rule(s) in Table 2, 4 or 5 to pull these compensation operators above j
4   **if** *swapping the of j and some compensation operator c has changed the join type of j* **then**
5   add a d-edge $j \overset{(j,c)}{\longmapsto} c$ to P
6 let T_ℓ and T_r denote the left and right child subtrees of i in P
7 **if** *j refers to T_ℓ and not to T_r* **then**
8   P = apply appropriate assoc rewriting rule to swap i and j
9 **else**
10   **if** *j refers to T_r and not to T_ℓ* **then**
11   **if** *i is the left child of j* **then**
12   P = apply appropriate l-asscom rewriting rule to swap i and j
13   **else**
14   P = apply appropriate r-asscom rewriting rule to swap i and j
15 **if** *the swapping of i and j has produced a set of compensation operators C* **then**
16   let v be a virtual node representing C
17   add d-edges $i \overset{(j,i)}{\longmapsto} v$ and $j \overset{(j,i)}{\longmapsto} v$ to P
18 **return** P

Algorithm 6: GetBestPlan(S, P)

Input: P is a query plan, S is a subset of relations in P

Output: A query plan P_{opt} in bestPlan[S] where subtree(P_{opt}, S) is equivalent to subtree(P, S)

1 SP_1 = subtree(P, S)
2 **foreach** *query plan P_{opt} in bestPlan[S]* **do**
3   SP_2 = subtree(P_{opt}, S)
4   **if** $ExtDEdge(SP_1) \equiv ExtDEdge(SP_2)$ **then**
5   **return** P_{opt}
6 **return** null

Algorithm 4: GenerateSubplan(P, i, S)

Input: P is a query plan, i is either null or a join node in P, S is a subset of relations in P

Output: A query plan P' that is derived from P that contains an optimal subplan SP for joining S. If $i \neq null$, then SP is a child subtree of i; otherwise, $P' = SP$.

1 **if** $S = \{R_i\}$ **then**
2   **return** P with R_i replaced by bestAccess[R_i]
3 P_{opt} = GetBestPlan(S,P)
4 **if** $P_{opt} \neq null$ **then**
5   replace subtree(P, S) in P by subtree(P_{opt}, S)
6   **return** P
7 **foreach** *joinable pair (S_1, S_2) of S* **do**
8   initialize $P' = P$
9   let j be the join node in P' that joins S_1 and S_2
10   **while** $par(j) \neq i$ **do**
11   P' = Swap(P', j)
12   P' = GenerateSubplan(P', j, S_1)
13   P' = GenerateSubplan(P', j, S_2)
14   **if** *cost(subtree(P',S)) < cost(subtree(GetBestPlan(S, P'),S))* **then**
15   UpdateBestPlan(S, P')
16 **return** GetBestPlan(S, P)

---

easily extended to handle queries with null-tolerant join predicates. As can be expected, we will only have partial join reorderability for queries with null-tolerant predicates.

Indeed, most of the valid transformations summarized in Table 1 do not require the join predicates to be null-intolerant [8]. To handle null-tolerant join predicates, the key modification required to our approach is in query plan enumeration (Section 5): whenever a swap is being considered between a pair of join nodes that involves some null-tolerant join predicate, the Swap function permits the swap if it is allowed by the corresponding valid transformation [8]; otherwise, the Swap function returns null to indicate that the reordering is infeasible.

Let C_J^* denote the class of join queries with join operators from the set $J = \{\bowtie, \rightarrow, \leftarrow, \leftrightarrow, \ltimes, \rtimes, \rhd, \lhd\}$ where the join predicates could be null-tolerant or null-intolerant. We have the following result.

THEOREM D.1. *For C_J^*, our approach strictly supersedes both* TBA *and* CBA. □

The soundness of the above theorem follows from the fact that our approach allows all valid transformations involving null-tolerant join predicates that are supported in TBA, and CBA does not support join reordering with null-tolerant join predicates.

E SQL QUERIES FOR Q_1 IN SECTION 7

The SQL queries executed by PostgreSQL and our approach for Q_1 in Section 7 are shown in Figure 7(a) and (b), respectively.

F ADDITIONAL PERFORMANCE RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

F.1 Experiments with a Commercial DBMS

In this section, we present additional performance results with the same queries from Section 7 on a commercial database system which we refer to as *CDB*.

For queries Q_2 and Q_3, *CDB* generated the same logical query plans (in terms of join ordering) as those from PostgreSQL. Similar to the results for PostgreSQL, our approach outperforms the conventional query plans produced by *CDB* for Q_2 and Q_3. However, the performance gains of our approach are more significant on *CDB* than on PostgreSQL: the improvement factors for Q_2 and Q_3 on *CDB* are, respectively, 2.60 and 6.14 (compared to 2.35 and 2.84 on PostgreSQL). The reason for this is that *CDB* was able to choose a more efficient algorithm (e.g., hash join over sort merge join) for the join operations resulting in larger improvement factors for the more complex query plans from Q_2 and Q_3.

For query Q_1, the conventional query plan produced by *CDB* performs unexpectedly much worse than the plan generated by our approach (by a factor of 500). It turns out that *CDB* had chosen to use the nested-loop algorithm to compute the NOT EXISTS subquery in the translated SQL query (refer to Figure 7(a)). To get around this inefficient conventional query plan picked by *CDB*, we rewrite the SQL query to express the antijoin operation in terms of

a left outerjoin with a null-tolerant selection predicate "p_partkey IS NULL". With this revised SQL query, *CDB* was able to produce a much more efficient query plan for Q_1 that has a comparable performance as the query plan produced by our approach. Interestingly, the query plan produced by *CDB* for the revised SQL query corresponds to $R_1 \overset{p_{12}}{\triangleright} ((R_2 \overset{p_{12}}{\bowtie} R_1) \overset{p_{23}}{\triangleright} R_3)$ which introduces an additional join with another instance of R_1. We also tried similar revised SQL queries for both Q_2 and Q_3 but this did not change the conventional query plans produced by *CDB* for these queries.

F.2 Additional Experimental Discussions

In this section, we provide a more detailed explanation of the experimental results with PostgreSQL that were presented in Section 7.

Observe from Figure 6 that while the improvement factors of our approach for both Q_1 and Q_3 grow with the data size, this is not the case for Q_2. The reason is as follows. We observe that for each of the three databases D, the running time for P_2^{pg} on D is about 9-12 times longer than that for P_1^{pg} on D. This behaviour also holds for our query plans but only on the 10GB and 100GB databases; for the 1GB database, the running time for P_2^{ECA} is only 5 times longer than that for P_1^{ECA}. This is because for the 1GB database, R_4 fits in main memory, and since $\overset{p_{12}}{\circ}$ is performed first in P_2^{ECA} to obtain a small intermediate result, joining this intermediate result with R_4 also produces a small result. Thus, having an additional table R_4 in Q_2 does not significantly increase the running time of P_2^{ECA} over P_1^{ECA}. In contrast, for P_2^{pg} on the 1GB database, although R_4 also fits in main memory, joining R_4 in P_2^{pg} produces a large intermediate result which does not fit in main memory, so the running time for P_2^{pg} is about 9 times longer than that for P_1^{pg}. For the 10GB and 100GB databases, since neither R_4 nor the intermediate result after joining with R_4 can fit completely in main memory, the running time for Q_2 is 9-12 times longer than that for Q_1 using each of the approaches. For Q_3, as the additional R_5 is a large table, the performance is affected more by the database size, and the improvement factor of our approach increases with database size.

```
              SELECT        s_suppkey
              FROM       supplier
              WHERE        NOT EXISTS
                   (
                   SELECT        NULL
                   FROM        (
                          SELECT  ps_suppkey, ps_supplycost
                          FROM    partsupp
                          WHERE   NOT EXISTS
                                  (
                                  SELECT  NULL
                                  FROM    part
                                  WHERE   ps_partkey = p_partkey
                                          AND p_name = 'cyan orchid indian cornflower saddle'
                                  )
                          ) AS pruned_partsupp
                   WHERE        ps_suppkey = s_suppkey
                          AND s_acctbal > :v * ps_supplycost
                   )
```

(a) SQL query executed by PostgreSQL for Q_1

```
SELECT          s_suppkey
FROM        (
        SELECT          s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey,
              max(s_suppkey) OVER (ORDER BY s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey
                            ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 PRECEDING) AS s_suppkey_p,
              max(ps_suppkey) OVER (ORDER BY s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey
                            ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 PRECEDING) AS ps_suppkey_p,
              max(ps_partkey) OVER (ORDER BY s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey
                            ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 PRECEDING) AS ps_partkey_p,
              max(p_partkey) OVER (ORDER BY s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey
                            ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 PRECEDING) AS p_partkey_p,
              row_number() OVER (ORDER BY s_suppkey, ps_suppkey, ps_partkey, p_partkey
                            ROWS BETWEEN 1 PRECEDING AND 1 PRECEDING) AS row_num
        FROM        (
              SELECT  s_suppkey,
                    CASE WHEN p_partkey IS NULL THEN ps_suppkey END AS ps_suppkey,
                    CASE WHEN p_partkey IS NULL THEN ps_partkey END AS ps_partkey,
                    CASE WHEN p_partkey IS NULL THEN p_partkey END AS p_partkey
              FROM
                    (
                          (supplier LEFT JOIN partsupp
                               ON s_suppkey = ps_suppkey AND s_acctbal > :v * ps_supplycost)
                          LEFT JOIN
                          (SELECT p_partkey FROM part WHERE p_name = 'cyan orchid indian cornflower saddle')
                          AS part ON p_partkey = ps_partkey
                    )
              ) AS nullified
        ) AS window_table
WHERE
        (
        s_suppkey <> s_suppkey_p OR
        ps_suppkey <> ps_suppkey_p OR
        ps_partkey <> ps_partkey_p OR
        p_partkey <> p_partkey_p OR
        row_num = 1
        ) AND
        ps_suppkey IS NULL
```

(b) Rewritten SQL query executed by our approach for Q_1

Figure 7: SQL Queries for Q_1 (Section 7)