# Relational Database System Implementation CS122 - Lecture 11 Winter Term, 2018-2019

### Indexes

- Many queries only need a small number of records
  - Records with a specific value
  - Records with a specific range of values
- Most queries involve join operations
  - Correlate values of a column across two or more tables
- So far we have used simple file scans
  - Prohibitively slow for large data sets
- Better databases use *indexes* to speed access to records with specific values

# Indexes (2)

- An index is a separate access structure associated with a particular table
  - e.g. tables and their indexes are usually stored in separate files
  - Much smaller, and structured for faster lookups
- Each index has an associated search key
  - Attribute (or set of attributes) used to look up records
  - This kind of "key" is completely separate from primary keys, candidate keys, etc.
- A table can have multiple indexes
  - Each index will have its own search key

# Indexes (3)

- Several kinds of indexes with different capabilities:
- Access patterns and access time
  - Types of access that are supported efficiently
  - Time it takes to access a particular item or set of items
- Indexes must be kept in sync with their table
  - Time it takes to insert a new data item
  - Time it takes to delete a data item
- Indexes also consume extra space!
  - Additional space overhead taken by the index
  - Usually, extra space taken by index is far outweighed by the performance improvement

# Index Types

- Two main categories of indexes
- Ordered indexes maintain a sorted ordering based on search key values
  - Logarithmic time for finding a specific record, or a boundary of a range
  - Can retrieve values in search key order
- Hash indexes use a hash function to distribute search key values across buckets
  - Constant time for finding a specific record, or a group of records with same value
  - Very inefficient for retrieving a range of values

## **Sequential Files and Indexes**

- Sequential files are also stored in search key order
- An index on the search key can still be useful!
  - An index lookup can be much faster than doing a binary search on the table itself
    - Index entries are much smaller than tuples
    - e.g. 2-3 block reads, vs. 10+ block reads
- Primary indexes:
  - Ordered indexes that are in the same search-key order as their associated tables
  - Also called *clustering indexes*
  - (Has nothing to do with primary keys!!!)
- Sequential file + primary index = index-sequential file

### **Dense and Sparse Indexes**

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- For a sequential file with a primary index, the index can be either dense or sparse
- Dense indexes store an entry for every distinct value in the search key
  - Easy to find any particular value; all are represented in index
  - Index can easily become very large, for large tables
- Sparse indexes only store entries for a subset of the values in the search key
  - To find a specific record, find index entry with largest value less than desired value
  - Then, scan through sequential file from that location, until the record is found

### **Secondary Indexes**

- Secondary indexes don't share the same search key as their associated table
  - Table may have a different search key order
  - Table may be a heap file with no specific order!
- Secondary indexes *must* be dense
  - Must include an entry for every value of search key
  - Must include a pointer to every record in the table
  - Since table is in a different order from the index, the index won't be generally useful if it isn't dense

#### **B-Tree Indexes**

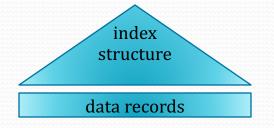
- Most widely used index structure is the *B-tree* family of index structures
  - A *multilevel* indexing structure built as a balanced tree
  - Supports <u>both</u> sequential access and direct access!
- Depth of tree grows automatically as required by the table being indexed
- Space within disk blocks is managed automatically; all blocks at least 50% full, no overflow needed (usually)
- Branching factor is *very* large (normally hundreds), producing an extremely broad, flat tree
  - Disk accesses required is proportional to *depth* of tree

## B-Tree Indexes (2)

- Not clear what the "B" stands for in B-trees...
  - Definitely <u>not</u> "binary" these are multiway trees
  - "Balanced," "broad," "bushy" have all been suggested
  - Developed by "Bayer" (and McCreight) while at "Boeing"
  - Who knows... (Who cares?)
- Different versions vary in rather important ways:
  - How full are tree-nodes allowed to get before splitting?
  - Is indexing and storage kept together or separate?
- Of all B-tree variants, most widely used is B<sup>+</sup>-tree
  - When people say "B-tree", they usually mean B<sup>+</sup>-tree

### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Indexes

- B<sup>+</sup>-trees separate indexing structure and data records
  - Original B-tree structure mixes these!
- Main implication:



- Internal nodes have different structure than leaf nodes
- Internal nodes only store keys (plus structural data)
- Leaf nodes store keys and data records as well
- B<sup>+</sup>-trees (and other variants) can be used for storing sequential files as well as for indexes
  - In indexes, "records" are simply file-pointers into table

## B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Indexes (2)

- Other relevant details:
  - All tree-nodes must be at least 50% full (except for root)
  - Every path from root to leaf is the same length
  - Key-values may be repeated in different tree-nodes (original B-tree eliminates this redundancy, but mixes the indexing and data records)
- B<sup>+</sup>-trees are often used for filesystems
  - Index built on top of sequential file laid out on disk
  - Allows rapid mapping of logical file-location to physical cylinder/sector on disk
  - Also facilitates sequential access of file contents

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Nodes

#### Tree nodes have up to n children

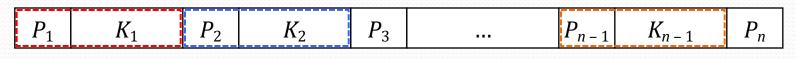
- A simplification, for now: *n* is fixed for an entire tree
  - Value of *n* depends on block size, key size, and pointer size
  - Can often be large, e.g. a few hundred!
- A node stores n pointers and n 1 values

$P_1$	<i>K</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>		<i>P</i> <sub><i>n</i>-1</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub><i>n</i>-1</sub>	$P_n$	222222222
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- *K<sub>i</sub>* are search-key values
- *P<sub>i</sub>* are pointers that specify the tree's structure
- Key values are kept in sorted order: if i < j then  $K_i \le K_j$ 
  - (In case of duplicate key values, may have neighboring  $K_i = K_j$ )

### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Leaf Nodes

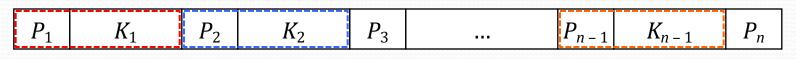
#### • For leaf nodes:



- Pointer *P<sub>i</sub>* refers to a record with search-key value *K<sub>i</sub>*
- If search key is a candidate key, only one record in the table will have the key-value K<sub>i</sub>
  - A common case indexes built on primary keys for enforcing key and referential integrity constraints
  - *P<sub>i</sub>* points to the record with key value *K<sub>i</sub>*

# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Leaf Nodes (2)

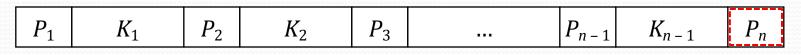
#### • For leaf nodes:



- Pointer *P<sub>i</sub>* refers to a record with search-key value *K<sub>i</sub>*
- If search key is <u>not</u> a candidate key, multiple records in the table will have the same key-value K<sub>i</sub>
  - Unfortunately, also a common case...
- Two options:
  - Can simply repeat search-key value multiple times
  - Or, have P<sub>i</sub> point to a bucket containing pointers for all records with key-value K<sub>i</sub> (complicated; adds I/O costs)

# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Leaf Nodes (3)

#### • For leaf nodes:



- Pointer  $P_n$  points to the next leaf-node in the sequence
- Within a node, key values are kept in sorted order
  - (if i < j then  $K_i \le K_j$ )
- Leaves contain non-overlapping ranges of key/record associations
- B<sup>+</sup>-tree orders leaves in increasing sequential order
  - Allows *very* easy traversal of dataset in search-key order

### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Non-Leaf Nodes

#### • For non-leaf nodes:

<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>		$P_{n-1}$	<i>K</i> <sub><i>n</i>-1</sub>	$P_n$	
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• All pointers *P<sub>i</sub>* refer to other B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

#### • For 1 < *i* < *n*:

- Pointer  $P_i$  points to subtree containing search-key values of at least  $K_{i-1}$ , but less than  $K_i$
- For *i* = 1 or *i* = *n*:
  - Pointer  $P_1$  points to subtree with search-key values less than  $K_1$
  - Pointer  $P_n$  points to subtree containing search-key values of at least  $K_{n-1}$

## B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Non-Leaf Nodes (2)

#### • For non-leaf nodes:

$P_1$	<i>K</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>		$P_{n-1}$	<i>K</i> <sub><i>n</i>-1</sub>	$P_n$	
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• All pointers *P<sub>i</sub>* refer to other B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

#### In other words:

- $P_1$  points to subtree with search-keys in range [- $\infty$ ,  $K_1$ ]
- $P_2$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[K_1, K_2]$
- $P_3$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[K_2, K_3]$
- ...
- $P_{n-1}$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[K_{n-2}, K_{n-1}]$
- $P_n$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[K_{n-1}, +\infty)$

#### Non-Full B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Nodes

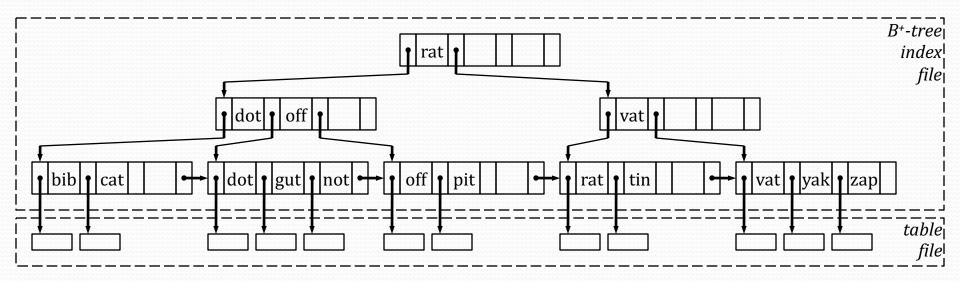
- B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes must be at least 50% full
  - Specified in terms of *n*, number of pointers in each node
  - (Can also state this constraint as number of bytes used)
- The root node is not required to be at least 50% full
  - (Often simply don't have enough data to enforce this.)
- Non-leaf nodes must have at least  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  pointers
  - Must contain at least  $\lceil n/2 \rceil 1$  keys
  - e.g. for tree with *n* = 5:
    - $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  = 3 ptrs and 2 keys, minimum

### Non-Full B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Nodes (2)

- Leaf nodes always use  $P_n$  to point to next leaf-node...
- Don't count this "next leaf-node" pointer in the measure of whether a leaf is half-full
  - Each *P<sub>i</sub>* points to a row with value *K<sub>i</sub>*
  - Must have at least  $\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil$  pointers and keys
  - e.g. tree with *n* = 4:
    - $\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil = 2$  ptrs and 2 keys, minimum

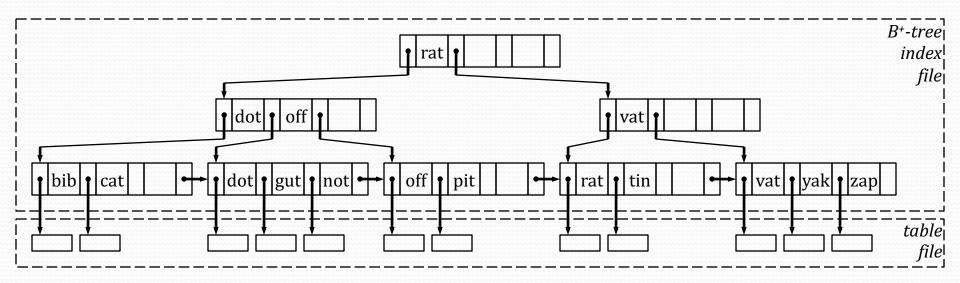
### Example B<sup>+</sup>-Tree

- Will use a tree with low *n* for sake of simplicity
  - Easy to comprehend
  - Will provoke frequent need to split and join nodes
- A simple tree with *n* = 4:
  - Non-leaf nodes must have at least 2 pointers and 1 key
  - Leaf nodes must have at least 2 pointers and 2 keys



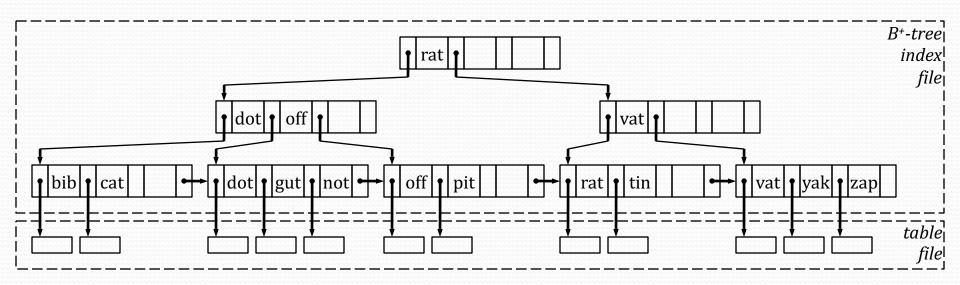
## Example B<sup>+</sup>-Tree (2)

- Also specify that search-key values are unique
  - Don't need to worry about runs of entries with the same search-key value. (We'll handle this later.)
- Finally, specify that this is a dense index
  - Every single value in table also appears in the index
  - No additional search needed once we reach leaf record



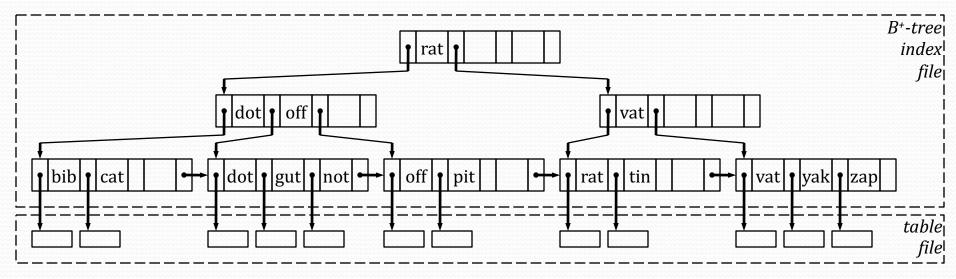
### B<sup>+</sup>-Trees: Querying

- Look up the record with the search-key value V
- Given the value *V*, can follow tree structure to find the exact leaf-node where *V* should be stored
  - If *V* isn't in that leaf node, then *V* isn't in the index



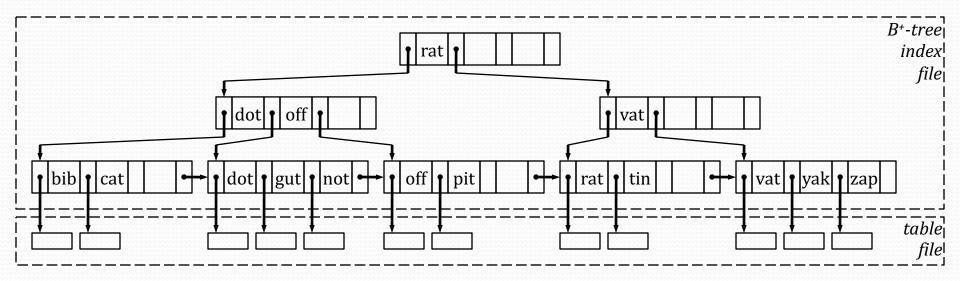
## B<sup>+</sup>-Trees: Querying (2)

- Navigate non-leaf nodes separately from leaf-node
- Each non-leaf node has m pointers,  $P_1 \dots P_m$   $(1 < m \le n)$
- For a given non-leaf node, start with *i* = 1:
  - If  $V < K_i$ , follow pointer  $P_i$
  - If  $V = K_i$ , follow pointer  $P_{i+1}$
  - If i + 1 < m, increment *i* and repeat; otherwise follow  $P_m$



## B<sup>+</sup>-Trees: Querying (3)

- Once we reach a leaf node, it's easy
- Find *K<sub>i</sub>* that equals *V*; *P<sub>i</sub>* points to record with value *V*
- If node doesn't contain any K<sub>i</sub> that equals V, then the table simply doesn't contain a record with value V
  - Don't need to go to next leaf-node, or anything like that



# B<sup>+</sup>-Trees: Querying (4)

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Algorithm to find record with search-key value V:

C = root node

while C is a non-leaf node:

m = number of pointers in C; i = 1

SearchNode:

if V < K<sub>i</sub> then set C = C.P<sub>i</sub>

else if V = K<sub>i</sub> then set C = C.P<sub>i+1</sub>

else if i + 1 < m then i++; goto SearchNode

else set C = C.P<sub>m</sub>
```

/\* Now, C is a leaf node \*/
Iterate over all K<sub>i</sub> in leaf-node C:
 if V = K<sub>i</sub> then return P<sub>i</sub>
If no K<sub>i</sub> found then return null

# "Go Right On Equality!"

#### • For non-leaf nodes:

$P_1$	<i>K</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>K</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>P</i> <sub>3</sub>		$P_{n-1}$	<i>K</i> <sub><i>n</i>-1</sub>	$P_n$	
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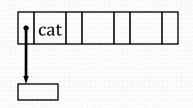
• All pointers  $P_i$  refer to other B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

#### Structural rules:

- $P_1$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[-\infty, K_1]$
- $P_2$  points to subtree with search-keys in range  $[K_1, K_2]$
- ...
- Specifically, if we are looking for search-key value *V*:
  - If  $K_i = V$ , follow pointer to the <u>right</u> of  $K_i$
  - Some B<sup>+</sup>-tree impls. handle this case by going left
  - (Always pay attention to the implementation details...)

### **B<sup>+</sup>-Trees:** Insertion

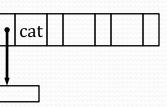
- Insertion is easy, except when a node overflows
  - Since *n* is generally large, overflows occur infrequently
- Simplest case: inserting into an empty B<sup>+</sup>-tree index
  - In this case, the root node will also be a leaf node
- Example: Insert "cat" into empty index



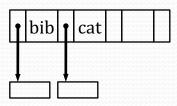
- Note that the leaf-node is < 50% full</li>
  - Simply don't have enough data to satisfy requirement
  - Since it's also the root node, we don't mind

# B<sup>+</sup>-Trees: Insertion (2)

- Similarly, inserting other records into a single-node B<sup>+</sup>-tree is easy, as long as there is room in the node
- Example: Insert "bib" into our index
  - B<sup>+</sup>-tree before insertion:

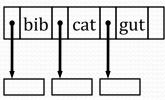


- Must keep K<sub>i</sub> values in increasing order...
  - Slide "cat" over in the node, to make room for "bib"

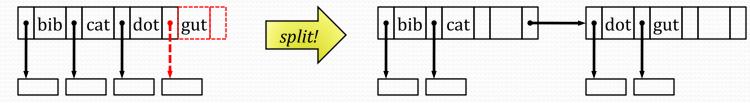


# Splitting the Leaf-Node

- If a leaf node overflows, must split it into two nodes!
- Our index after also inserting a "gut" record:



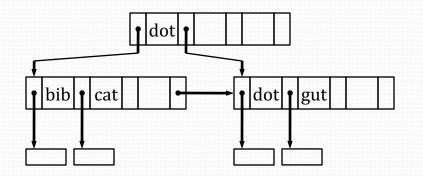
- Next we want to insert "dot", but there isn't room
  - Split the node into two nodes
  - Approx. half of the values remain in left node, and the rest are moved to the right node
  - The two leaf-nodes are chained together



# Splitting the Leaf-Node (2)

#### We aren't done yet...

- We need a new parent node to reference the two leaves
- Will contain one key: "dot"
- General principle:

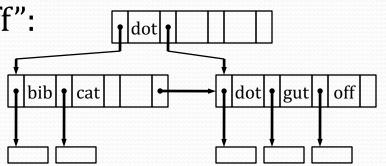


- When a node is split into two, need to promote the new node's first key-value up to the parent-node's table
- <u>Note</u>: New node is always to right of the node being split
- If there isn't a parent-node:
  - The root node is being split!
  - Create a new root node, and increase tree's depth by 1

### Insertion Example, Cont.

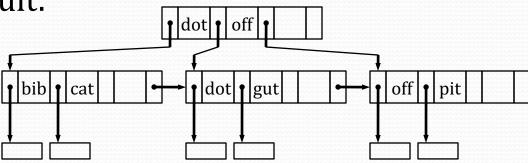
Our tree after also inserting "off":

Now, want to insert "pit"



- Again, split leaf node in two, and divide the leaf's values across the two nodes
- Promote new node's first key-value to the parent

• Result:



## **B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Insertion Algorithm**

- Algorithm is generally straightforward to implement
- When splitting a leaf node, simplify process by using a temp memory area *T* that can hold overflowed node's contents
- Example: *L* is a full leaf-node
  - Want to add key *K* and associated record-pointer *P* to node *L*

#### • Implementation:

- Copy contents of *L* into temporary memory block *T*
- Insert new pair *K*, *P* into *T* (*it can hold the extra record*)
- Create new empty leaf-node L'
- Set  $L'.P_n = L.P_n$ , and set  $L.P_n = L'$  (chain leaves together)
- Clear *L*, and copy  $P_1$ ,  $K_1$  thru  $P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$ ,  $K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$  from *T* into *L*
- Copy  $P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil+1}$ ,  $K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil+1}$  thru  $P_n$ ,  $K_n$  from T into L'

# **B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Insertion Algorithm**

insert(value K, pointer P):
 if tree is empty:

*L* = new empty leaf node else:

L = find leaf where K should go, using earlier search algorithm if L has less than n - 1 keys: insert\_in\_leaf(L, K, P) else:

split node L into L, L' using mechanism on prev. slide K' = smallest key in L' insert\_in\_parent(L, K', L')

insert\_in\_leaf(node L, value K, pointer P):
 if K < L.K<sub>1</sub>:

insert *P*, *K* into *L* before *L*.*P*<sub>1</sub> else:

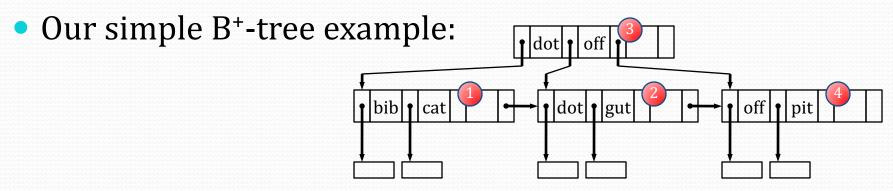
find largest *K<sub>i</sub>* in *L* less than *K* insert *P*, *K* into *L* after *L*.*K<sub>i</sub>* 

insert\_in\_parent(node *N*, value *K'*, node *N'*): if *N* is root of tree: R = new empty non-leaf node set *R* contents to (*N*, *K*', *N*') make *R* the new root else: P = parent(N)if *P* has less than *n* pointers: insert (K', N') into P, just after N else: copy *P* to temporary block *T* insert (K', N') into T, just after N create new node P'; clear P copy  $P_1$ ,  $K_1$  thru  $P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$ ,  $K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$  from T into P copy  $P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$ ,  $K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$  thru  $P_n$ ,  $K_n$  from T into P' $K'' = P'.K_1$ insert\_in\_parent(P, K", P')

### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Implementation Details

- Several additional details need to be maintained
  - e.g. type of node stored in each page (leaf/non-leaf/empty)
- Additionally, need to keep track of which node is B<sup>+</sup>-tree's root node
  - As with table files, can store such details in page 0, and start the actual index pages with page 1
- Seems appealing to store additional structural details in B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes
  - The node's parent, siblings, etc.
  - Unfortunately, dramatically increases number of nodes that must be modified when manipulating the tree
  - Added complexity of using this simple structure is less costly than the additional IOs that would be required (!!!)

# Implementation Details (2)



- Index file is still a linear sequence of pages
  - Pages in data file are in order of addition to the B<sup>+</sup>-tree...
  - Over time, physical page order in data file will deviate widely from logical page order specified by the index
    - (particularly the sequential traversal part)
  - Periodically need to reorganize index pages to minimize number of disk seeks incurred by access/traversal