Intro to DB

# CHAPTER 12 INDEXING & HASHING

### Chapter 12: Indexing and Hashing

- Basic Concepts
- Ordered Indices
- B+-Tree Index Files
- B-Tree Index Files
- Static Hashing
- Dynamic Hashing
- Comparison of Ordered Indexing and Hashing
- Index Definition in SQL
- Multiple-Key Access

### Basic Concepts

- to speed up access to desired data
- Search Key
  - <sup>a</sup> attribute (or set of attributes) used to look up records in a file

#### Index file

consists of records (called index entries) of the form

search-key pointer

- Index files are typically much smaller than the original file
- Two basic kinds of indices:
  - Ordered indices: search keys are stored in sorted order
  - Hash indices: search keys are distributed uniformly across "buckets" using a "hash function".

#### Index Evaluation Metrics

- Access types supported
  - Point queries: specific value for search key
  - Range queries: search key value falling in a specified range
- Time
  - Access time
  - Insertion time
  - Deletion time
- Space overhead

#### Ordered Indices

#### Primary index

- index whose search key specifies the sequential order of the file
- also called clustering index
- The search key of a primary index is usually but not necessarily the primary key.

#### Secondary index

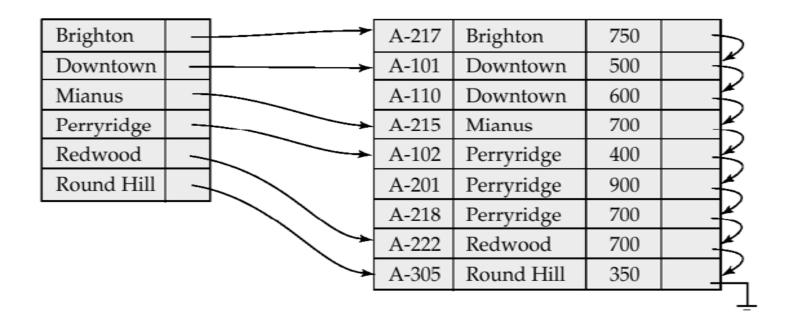
- an index whose search key specifies an order different from the sequential order of the file
- also called non-clustering index

#### Index-sequential file

ordered sequential file with a primary index.

#### Dense Index Files

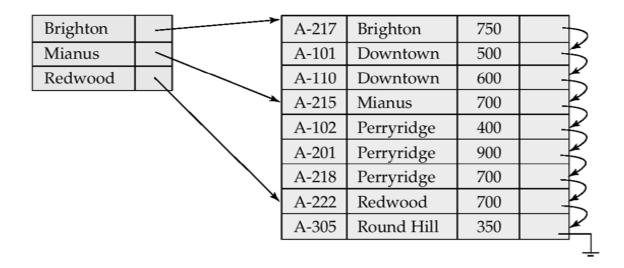
 Dense index — Index record appears for every search-key value in the file.



#### Sparse Index Files

Sparse Index: contains index records for only some search-key values.

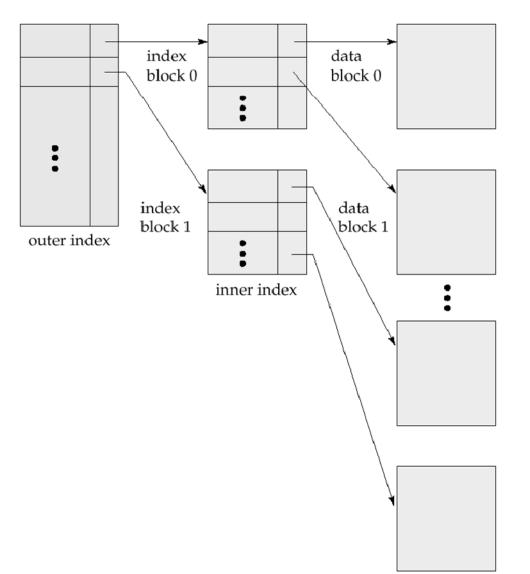
- Applicable when records are sequentially ordered on search-key
- Less space and less maintenance overhead for insertions/deletions.
- Generally slower than dense index for locating records.
- Good tradeoff: sparse index with an index entry for every block in file, corresponding to least search-key value in the block.



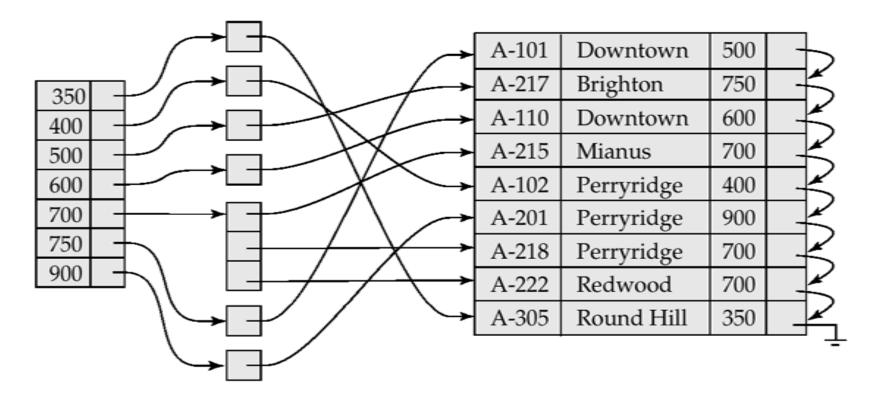
#### Multilevel Index

- If primary index does not fit in memory, access becomes expensive.
- Treat primary index kept on disk as a sequential file and construct a sparse index on it.
  - outer index a sparse index of primary index
  - inner index the primary index file
- If outer index is still too large to fit in main memory, another level of index can be created, and so on.
- Indices at all levels must be updated on insertion or deletion from the file.

#### Multilevel Index (Cont.)



#### Secondary Index



Secondary index on balance field of account

### Primary and Secondary Indices

- Secondary indices have to be dense
- Indices offer substantial benefits when searching for records.
- When a file is modified, every index on the file must be updated
  - Updating indices imposes overhead on database modification
- Sequential scan using primary index is efficient, but a sequential scan using a secondary index is expensive
  - each record access may fetch a new block from disk
- Index takes up space

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Index Files

B<sup>+</sup>-tree indices are an alternative to indexed-sequential files

- Disadvantage of indexed-sequential files
  - performance degrades as file grows, since many overflow blocks get created.
  - Periodic reorganization of entire file is required.
- Advantage of B<sup>+</sup>-tree index files:
  - automatically reorganizes itself with small, local, changes, in the face of insertions and deletions.
  - Reorganization of entire file is not required to maintain performance.
- (Minor) disadvantage of B<sup>+</sup>-trees:
  - extra insertion and deletion overhead, space overhead.
- Advantages of B<sup>+</sup>-trees outweigh disadvantages
  - B<sup>+</sup>-trees are used extensively

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Index Files (Cont.)

A B<sup>+</sup>-tree is a rooted tree satisfying the following properties:

- All paths from root to leaf are of the same length
- Each node that is not a root or a leaf has between  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  and *n* children.
- A leaf node has between  $\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil$  and n-1 values
- Special cases:
  - If the root is not a leaf, it has at least 2 children.
  - If the root is a leaf (that is, there are no other nodes in the tree), it can have between 0 and (n-1) values.

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Node Structure

Typical node

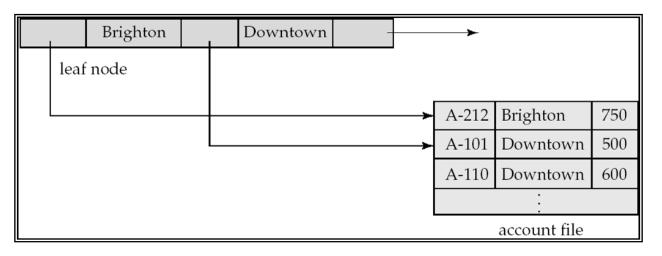
$$P_1 \qquad K_1 \qquad P_2 \qquad \dots \qquad P_{n-1} \qquad K_{n-1} \qquad P_n$$

- K<sub>i</sub> are the search-key values
- P<sub>i</sub> are pointers to children (for non-leaf nodes) or pointers to records or buckets of records (for leaf nodes).
- The search-keys in a node are ordered

 $K_1 < K_2 < K_3 < \ldots < K_{n-1}$ 

#### Leaf Nodes in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees

- For perties 2f, a leaf node pointer  $P_i$  either points to a file record with search-key value  $K_i$ , or to a bucket of pointers to file records, each record having search-key value  $K_i$ . Only need bucket structure if search-key does not form a primary key.
- If L<sub>i</sub>, L<sub>j</sub> are leaf nodes and i < j, L<sub>i</sub>'s search-key values are less than L<sub>j</sub>'s search-key values
- $P_n$  points to next leaf node in search-key order

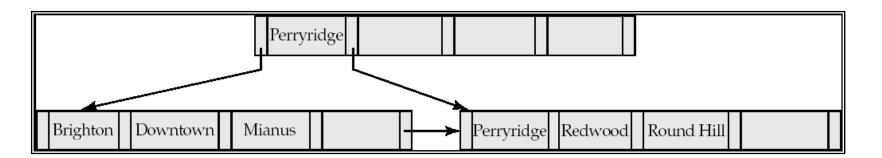


#### Non-Leaf Nodes in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees

- Non leaf nodes form a multi-level sparse index on the leaf nodes.
  For a non-leaf node with *m* pointers:
  - All the search-keys in the subtree to which  $P_1$  points are less than  $K_1$
  - For  $2 \le i \le n-1$ , all the search-keys in the subtree to which  $P_i$  points have values greater than or equal to  $K_{i-1}$  and less than  $K_{m-1}$



Example of a B<sup>+</sup>-tree



B<sup>+</sup>-tree for *account* file (n = 5)

- Leaf nodes must have between 2 and 4 values ((n-1)/2) and n-1, with n = 5).
- Non-leaf nodes other than root must have between 3 and 5 children  $(\lceil n/2 \rceil$  and *n* with n = 5).
- Root must have at least 2 children.

#### Observations about B<sup>+</sup>-trees

- Since the inter-node connections are done by pointers, "logically" close blocks need not be "physically" close.
- The non-leaf levels of the B<sup>+</sup>-tree form a hierarchy of sparse indices.
- The B<sup>+</sup>-tree contains a relatively small number of levels
  - Level below root has at least  $2* \lceil n/2 \rceil$  values
  - Next level has at least  $2* \lceil n/2 \rceil * \lceil n/2 \rceil$  values
  - .. etc.
  - If there are *K* search-key values in the file, the tree height is no more than  $\lceil \log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K) \rceil$
  - thus searches can be conducted efficiently.
- Insertions and deletions to the main file can be handled efficiently, as the index can be restructured in logarithmic time (as we shall see).

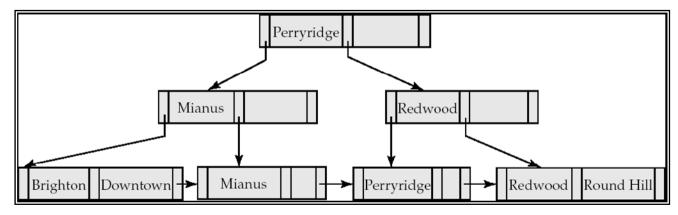
#### Queries on B<sup>+</sup>-Trees

#### Find all records with a search-key value of k.

- 1. N=root
- 2. Repeat
  - 1. Examine N for the smallest search-key value > k.
  - 2. If such a value exists, assume it is  $K_i$ . Then set  $N = P_i$
  - 3. Otherwise  $k \ge K_{n-1}$ . Set  $N = P_n$

Until N is a leaf node

- 3. If for some *i*, key  $K_i = k$  follow pointer  $P_i$  to the desired record or bucket.
- 4. Else no record with search-key value k exists.



#### Queries on B<sup>+-</sup>Trees (Cont.)

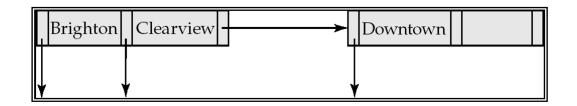
- If there are *K* search-key values in the file, the height of the tree is no more than  $\lceil \log_{n/2} \rceil(K) \rceil$ .
- A node is generally the same size as a disk block, typically 4 kilobytes
  - and *n* is typically around 100 (40 bytes per index entry).
- With 1 million search key values and *n* = 100
  - at most  $log_{50}(1,000,000) = 4$  nodes are accessed in a lookup.
- Contrast this with a balanced binary free with 1 million search key values — around 20 nodes are accessed in a lookup
  - above difference is significant since every node access may need a disk I/O, costing around 20 milliseconds

#### Insertion in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees

- 1. Find the leaf node in which the search-key value would appear
- 2. If the search-key value is already present in the leaf node
  - 1. Add record to the file
  - 2. If necessary add a pointer to the bucket.
- 3. If the search-key value is not present, then
  - 1. add the record to the main file (and create a bucket if necessary)
  - 2. If there is room in the leaf node, insert (key-value, pointer) pair in the leaf node
  - 3. Otherwise, split the node (along with the new (key-value, pointer) entry) as discussed in the next slide.

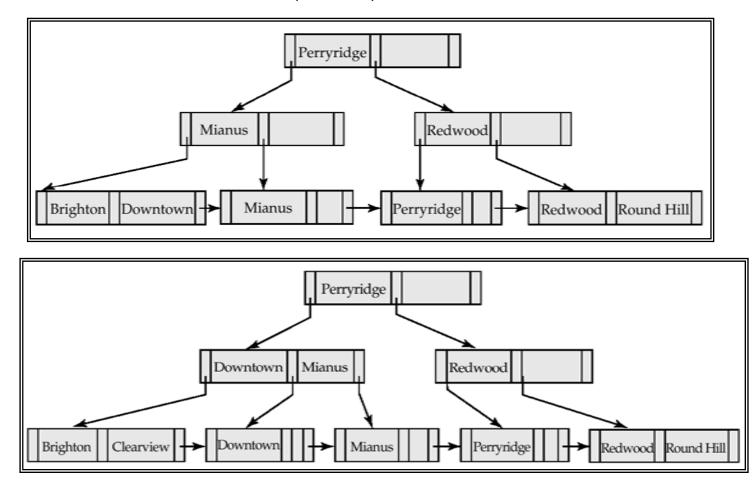
### Insertion in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees (cont.)

- Splitting a leaf node:
  - <sup>**D**</sup> take the *n* (search-key value, pointer) pairs (including the one being inserted) in sorted order. Place the first  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  in the original node, and the rest in a new node.
  - let the new node be p, and let k be the least key value in p. Insert (k,p) in the parent of the node being split.
  - If the parent is full, split it and **propagate** the split further up.
- Splitting of nodes proceeds upwards till a node that is not full is found.
  - In the worst case the root node may be split increasing the height of the tree by 1.



Result of splitting node containing Brighton and Downtown on inserting Clearview Next step: insert entry with (Downtown,pointer-to-new-node) into parent

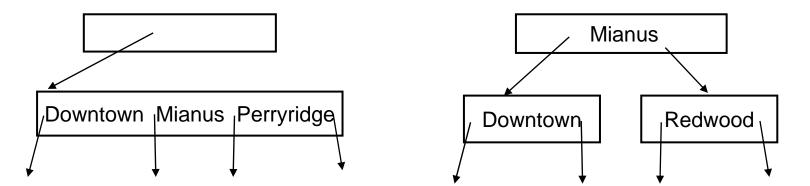
Insertion in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees (cont.)



B<sup>+</sup>-Tree before and after insertion of "Clearview"

#### Insertion in B<sup>+</sup>-Trees (cont.)

- Splitting a non-leaf node: when inserting (k,p) into an already full internal node N
  - Copy N to an in-memory area M with space for n+1 pointers and n keys
  - Insert (k,p) into M
  - Copy  $P_1, K_1, ..., K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}, P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$  from M back into node N
  - Copy  $P_{\lceil n/2 \rceil+1}, K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil+1}, \dots, K_n, P_{n+1}$  from M into newly allocated node N'
  - Insert ( $K_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}$ , N') into parent N
- Read pseudocode in book!



#### Deletion on B<sup>+</sup>-Trees

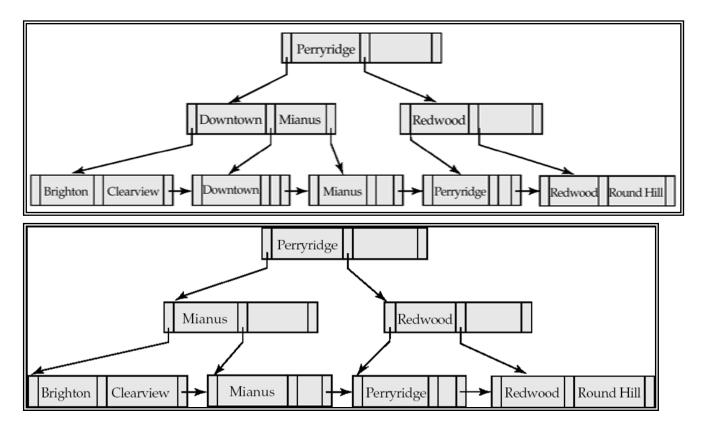
- Find the record to be deleted, and remove it from the main file and from the bucket (if present)
- Remove (search-key value, pointer) from the leaf node if there is no bucket or if the bucket has become empty
- If the node has too few entries due to the removal, and the entries in the node and a sibling fit into a single node, then *merge siblings:*
  - Insert all the search-key values in the two nodes into a single node (the one on the left), and delete the other node.
  - Delete the pair  $(K_{i-1}, P_i)$ , where  $P_i$  is the pointer to the deleted node, from its parent, recursively using the above procedure.

#### Deletion on B<sup>+</sup>-Trees (cont.)

- Otherwise, if the node has too few entries due to the removal, but the entries in the node and a sibling do not fit into a single node, then **redistribute pointers**:
  - Redistribute the pointers between the node and a sibling such that both have more than the minimum number of entries.
  - Update the corresponding search-key value in the parent of the node.
- The node deletions may cascade upwards till a node which has  $\lceil n/2 \rceil$  or more pointers is found.
- If the root node has only one pointer after deletion, it is deleted and the sole child becomes the root.

#### Examples of B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Deletion

- Deleting "Downtown" causes merging of under-full leaves
  - leaf node can become empty only for n=3!

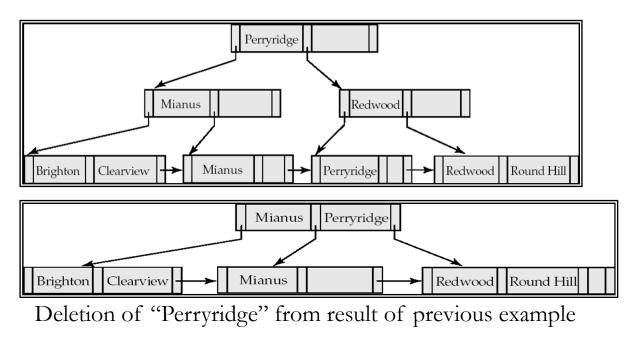


Before and after deleting "Downtown"

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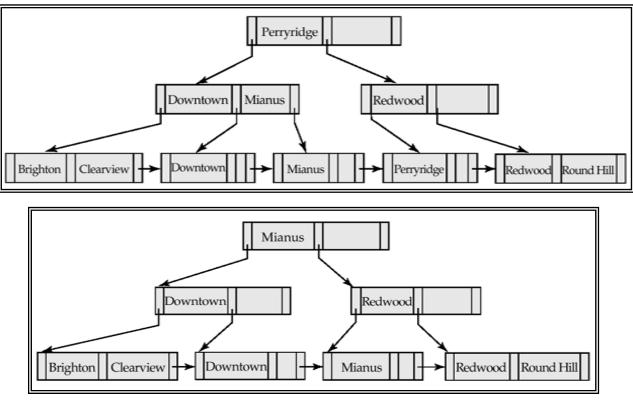
#### Examples of B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Deletion (Cont.)

- Leaf with "Perryridge" becomes underfull (actually empty, in this special case) and merged with its sibling.
- As a result "Perryridge" node's parent became underfull, and was merged with its sibling
  - Value separating two nodes (at parent) moves into merged node
  - Entry deleted from parent
- Root node then has only one child, and is deleted



#### Examples of B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Deletion (Cont.)

- Parent of leaf containing Perryridge became underfull, and borrowed a pointer from its left sibling
- Search-key value in the parent's parent changes as a result



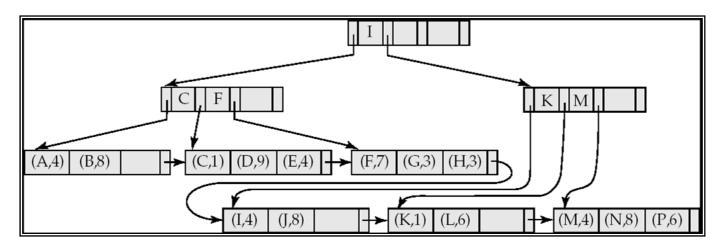
Before and after deletion of "Perryridge" from earlier example

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree File Organization

- Index file degradation problem is solved by using B<sup>+</sup>-Tree indices.
- Data file degradation problem is solved by using B<sup>+</sup>-Tree File Organization.
- The leaf nodes in a B<sup>+</sup>-tree file organization store records, instead of pointers.
- Leaf nodes are still required to be half full
  - Since records are larger than pointers, the maximum number of records that can be stored in a leaf node is less than the number of pointers in a nonleaf node.
- Insertion and deletion are handled in the same way as insertion and deletion of entries in a B<sup>+</sup>-tree index.

#### B<sup>+</sup>-Tree File Organization (cont.)

- Good space utilization important since records use more space than pointers.
- To improve space utilization, involve more sibling nodes in redistribution during splits and merges
  - Involving 2 siblings in redistribution (to avoid split / merge where possible) results in each node having at least  $\lfloor 2n/3 \rfloor$  entries



### Ordered Indexing vs Hashing

- Cost of periodic re-organization
  - Static hashing is worst => dynamic hashing
- Relative frequency of insertions and deletions
- Is it desirable to optimize average access time at the expense of worst-case access time?
- Expected type of queries:
  - Hashing is generally better at retrieving records having a specified value of the key.
  - If range queries are common, ordered indices are to be preferred

### Index Definition in SQL

Create an index

E.g.: **create index** *b-index* **on** *branch(branch-name)* 

- Use **create unique index** to indirectly specify and enforce the condition that the search key is a candidate key.
  - Not really required if SQL **unique** integrity constraint is supported
- To drop an index

drop index <index-name>

## **END OF CHAPTER 12**