Indexing

Introduction to Databases CompSci 316 Fall 2019



Announcements (Mon., Nov. 4)

- Homework 3 due today
 - Sample solution to be posted on Sakai by this weekend
- Project milestone 2 due Wed.
 - No Piazza update this week
- Gradiance indexes exercise assigned today
 - Due next Monday
- Homework 4 to be assigned Wed.

What are indexes for?

- Given a value, locate the record(s) with this value SELECT * FROM R WHERE A = value; SELECT * FROM R, S WHERE R.A = S.B;
- Find data by other search criteria, e.g.
 - Range search SELECT * FROM *R* WHERE *A* > *value*;
 - Keyword search

database indexing



Focus of this lecture

Dense and sparse indexes

- Dense: one index entry for each search key value
 - One entry may "point" to multiple records (e.g., two users named Jessica)
- Sparse: one index entry for each block
 - Records must be clustered according to the search key



Dense versus sparse indexes

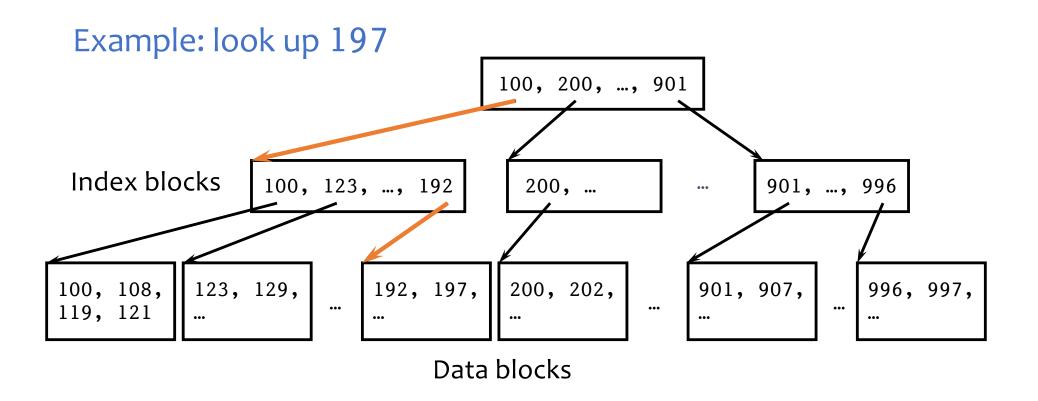
- Index size
 - Sparse index is smaller
- Requirement on records
 - Records must be clustered for sparse index
- Lookup
 - Sparse index is smaller and may fit in memory
 - Dense index can directly tell if a record exists
- Update
 - Easier for sparse index

Primary and secondary indexes

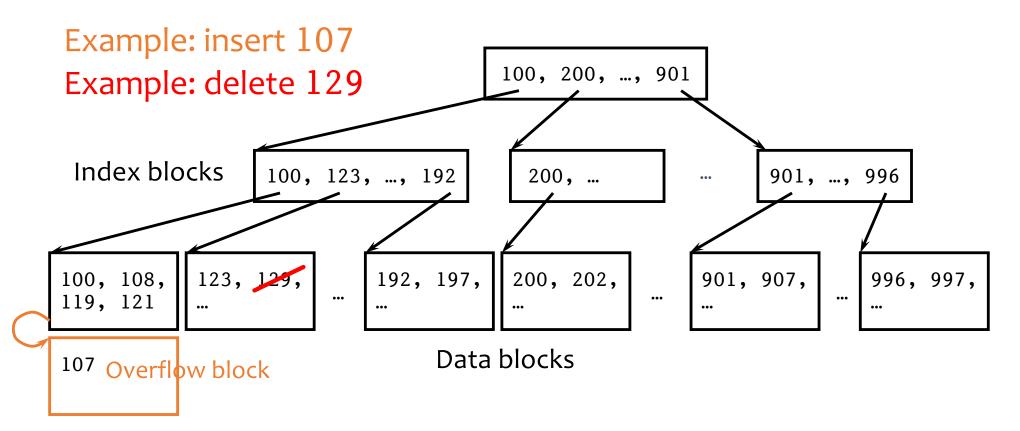
- Primary index
 - Created for the primary key of a table
 - Records are usually clustered by the primary key
 - Can be sparse
- Secondary index
 - Usually dense
- SQL
 - PRIMARY KEY declaration automatically creates a primary index, UNIQUE key automatically creates a secondary index
 - Additional secondary index can be created on non-key attribute(s): CREATE INDEX UserPopIndex ON User(pop);

ISAM

- What if an index is still too big?
 - Put a another (sparse) index on top of that!
 ISAM (Index Sequential Access Method), more or less



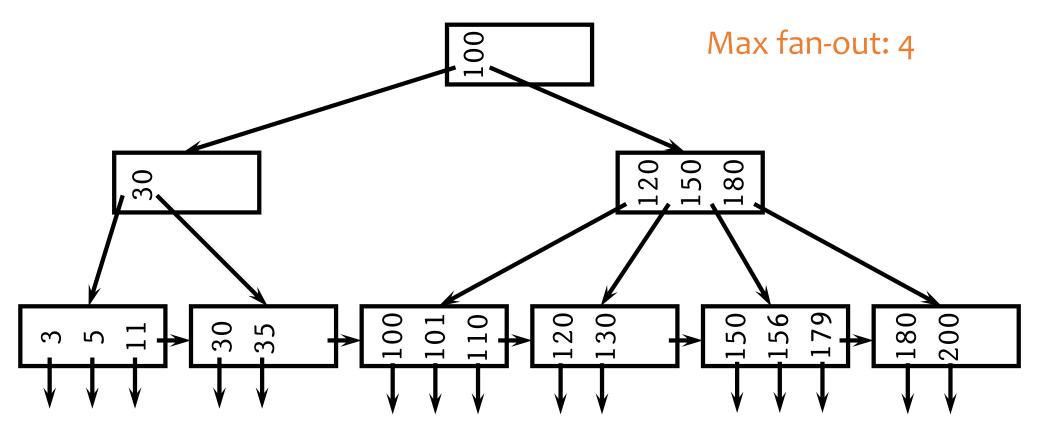
Updates with ISAM



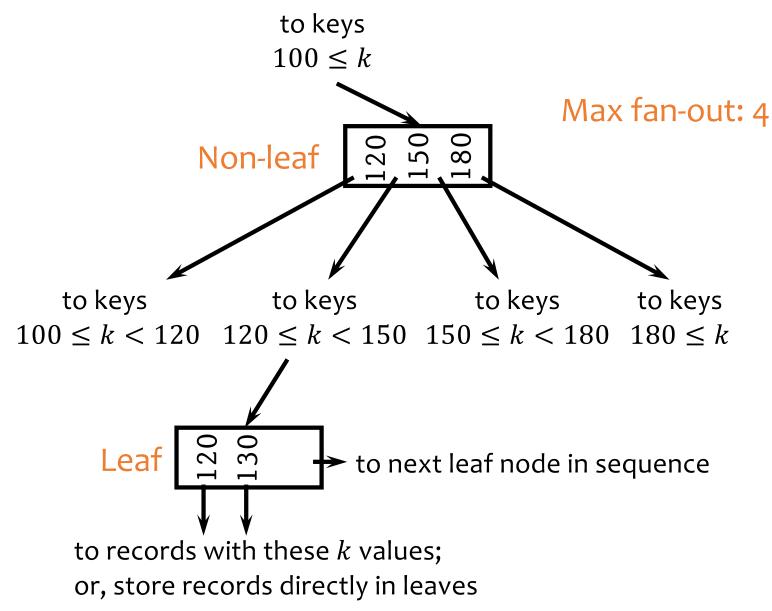
- Overflow chains and empty data blocks degrade performance
 - Worst case: most records go into one long chain, so lookups require scanning all data!

B⁺-tree

- A hierarchy of nodes with intervals
- Balanced (more or less): good performance guarantee
- Disk-based: one node per block; large fan-out



Sample B⁺-tree nodes



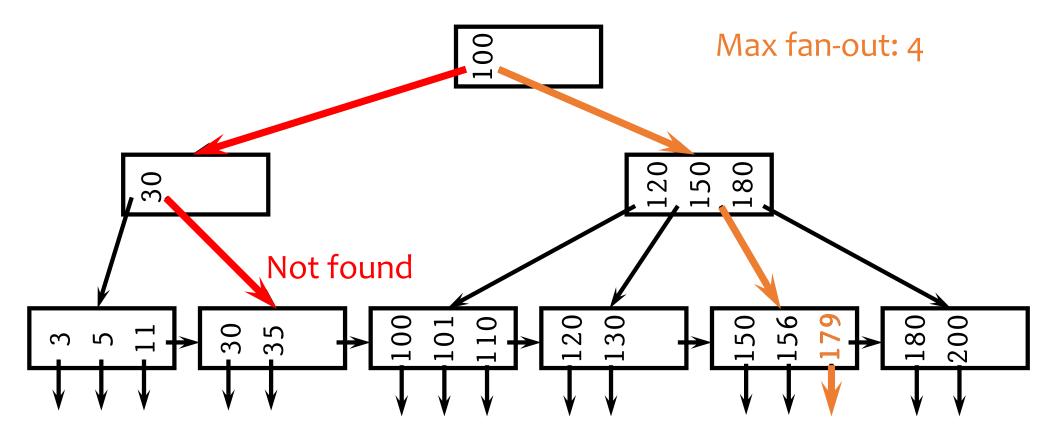
B⁺-tree balancing properties

- Height constraint: all leaves at the same lowest level
- Fan-out constraint: all nodes at least half full (except root)

	Max #	Max #	Min #	Min #
	pointers	keys	active pointers	<u>keys</u>
Non-leaf	f	f - 1	[<i>f</i> /2]	[f/2] - 1
Root	f	f - 1	2	1
Leaf	f	f - 1	$\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$	$\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$

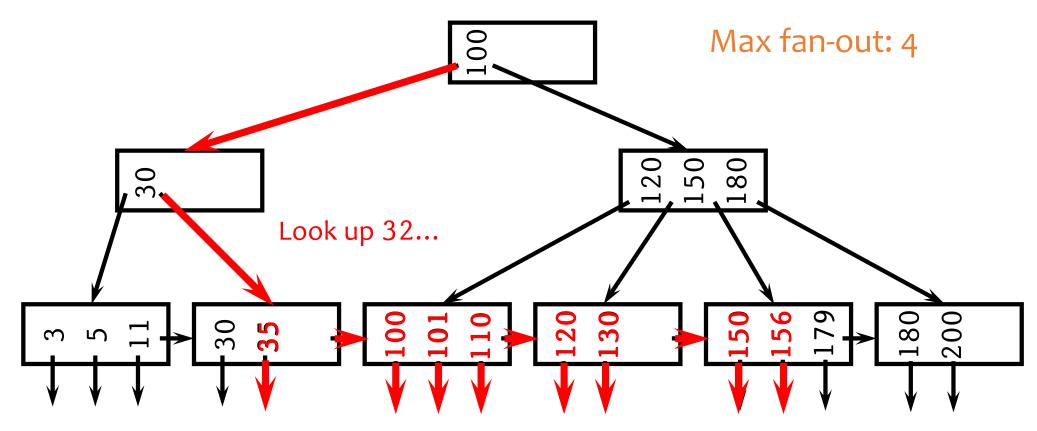
Lookups

- SELECT * FROM R WHERE k = 179;
- SELECT * FROM R WHERE k = 32;



Range query

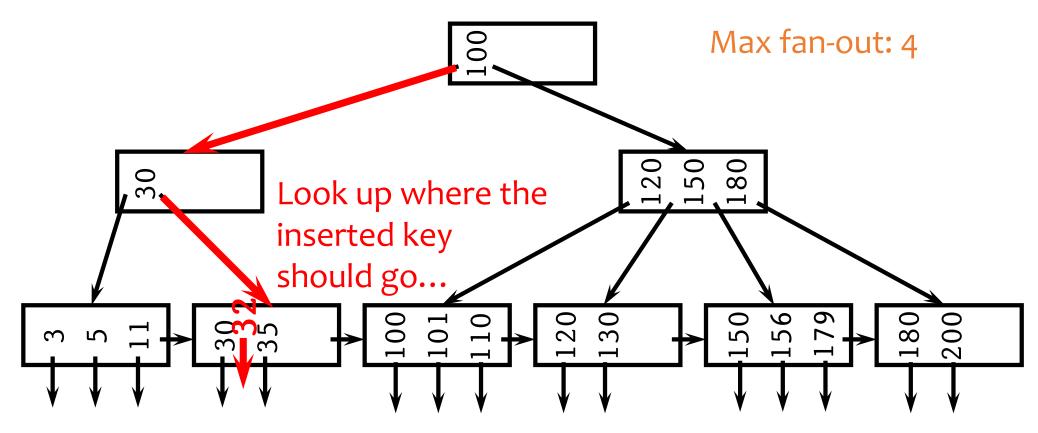
• SELECT * FROM R WHERE k > 32 AND k < 179;



And follow next-leaf pointers until you hit upper bound

Insertion

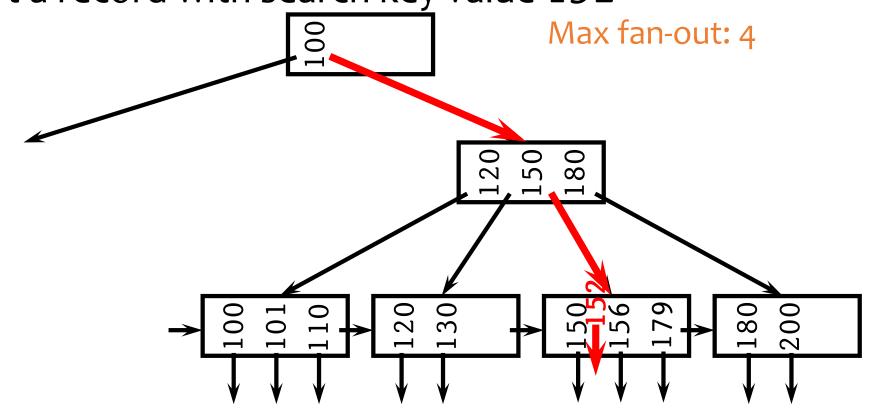
• Insert a record with search key value 32



And insert it right there

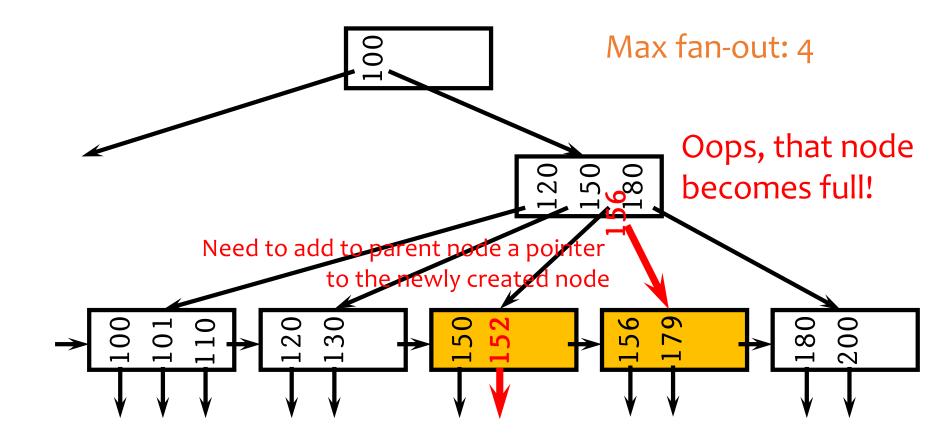
Another insertion example

Insert a record with search key value 152

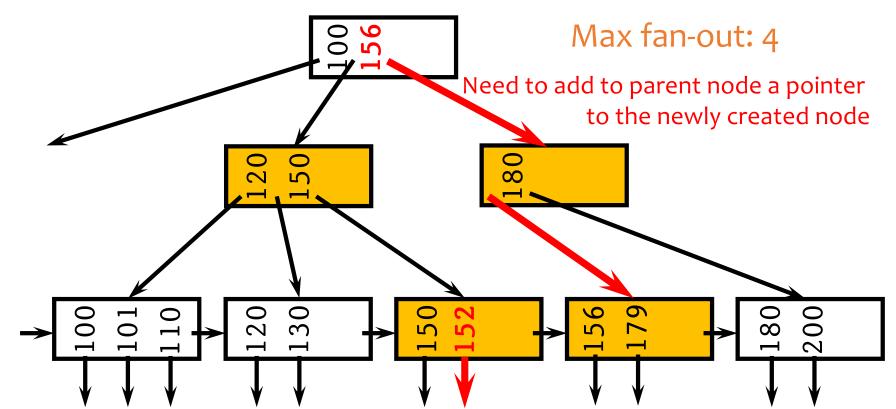


Oops, node is already full!

Node splitting



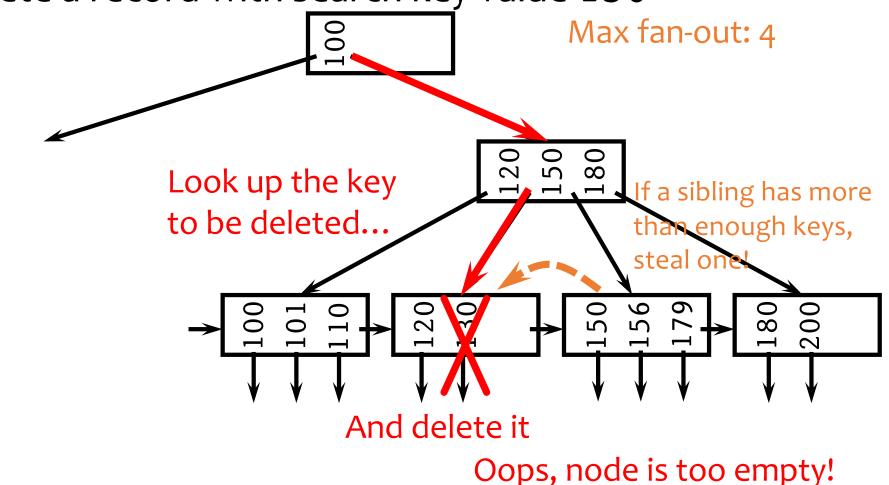
More node splitting



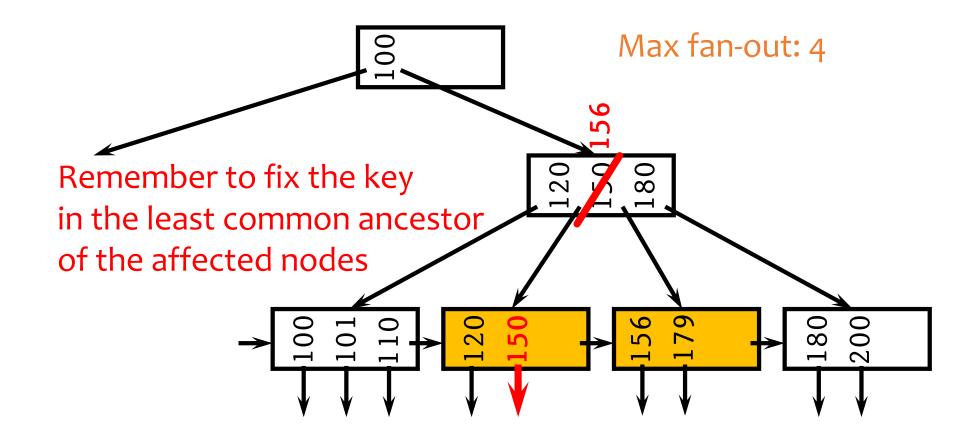
- In the worst case, node splitting can "propagate" all the way up to the root of the tree (not illustrated here)
 - Splitting the root introduces a new root of fan-out 2 and causes the tree to grow "up" by one level

Deletion

Delete a record with search key value 130

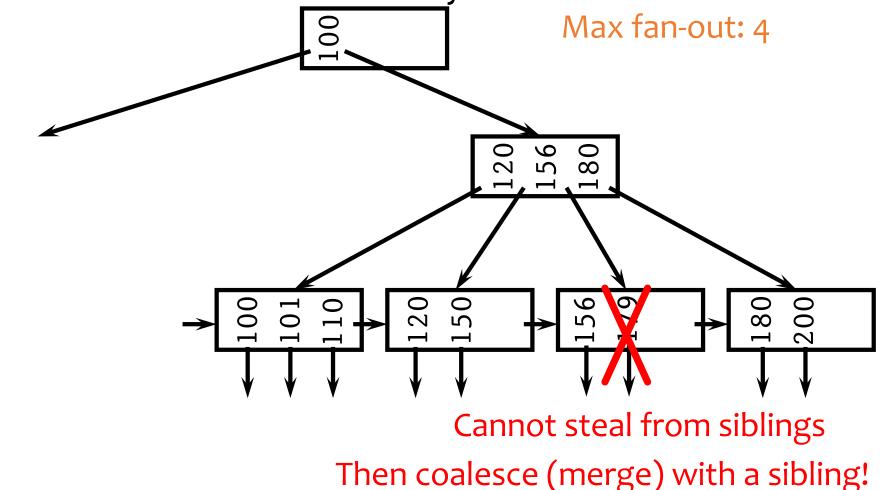


Stealing from a sibling

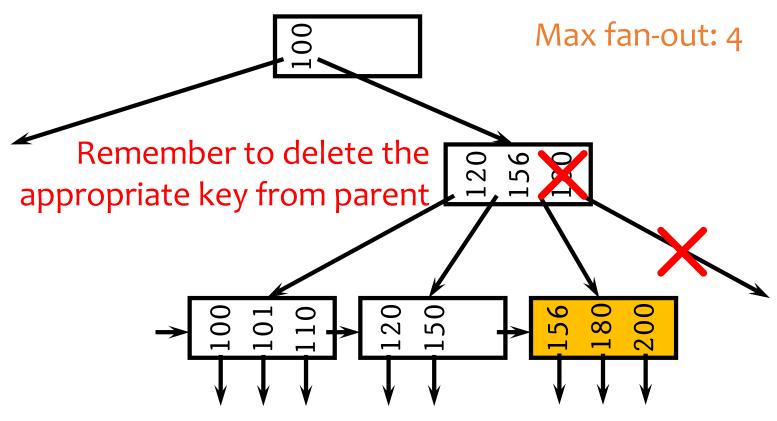


Another deletion example

• Delete a record with search key value 179



Coalescing



- Deletion can "propagate" all the way up to the root of the tree (not illustrated here)
 - When the root becomes empty, the tree "shrinks" by one level

Performance analysis

- How many I/O's are required for each operation?
 - *h*, the height of the tree (more or less)
 - Plus one or two to manipulate actual records
 - Plus O(h) for reorganization (rare if f is large)
 - Minus one if we cache the root in memory
- How big is h?
 - Roughly log_{fanout} *N*, where *N* is the number of records
 - B⁺-tree properties guarantee that fan-out is least *f*/2 for all non-root nodes
 - Fan-out is typically large (in hundreds)—many keys and pointers can fit into one block
 - A 4-level B⁺-tree is enough for "typical" tables

B⁺-tree in practice

- Complex reorganization for deletion often is not implemented (e.g., Oracle)
 - Leave nodes less than half full and periodically reorganize
- Most commercial DBMS use B⁺-tree instead of hashing-based indexes because B⁺-tree handles range queries

The Halloween Problem

• Story from the early days of System R...

```
UPDATE Payroll
SET salary = salary * 1.1
WHERE salary >= 100000;
```

- There is a B⁺-tree index on Payroll(salary)
- The update never stopped (why?)
- Solutions?
 - Scan index in reverse, or
 - Before update, scan index to create a "to-do" list, or
 - During update, maintain a "done" list, or
 - Tag every row with transaction/statement id

B⁺-tree versus ISAM

- ISAM is more static; B⁺-tree is more dynamic
- ISAM can be more compact (at least initially)
 - Fewer levels and I/O's than B⁺-tree
- Overtime, ISAM may not be balanced
 - Cannot provide guaranteed performance as B⁺-tree does

B⁺-tree versus B-tree

- B-tree: why not store records (or record pointers) in non-leaf nodes?
 - These records can be accessed with fewer I/O's
- Problems?

Beyond ISAM, B-, and B⁺-trees

- Other tree-based indexes: R-trees and variants, GiST, etc.
 - How about binary tree?



- Hashing-based indexes: extensible hashing, linear hashing, etc.
- Text indexes: inverted-list index, suffix arrays, etc.
- Other tricks: bitmap index, bit-sliced index, etc.