

# Indexing

CPS 196.3  
Introduction to Database Systems

## Basics

- 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;`

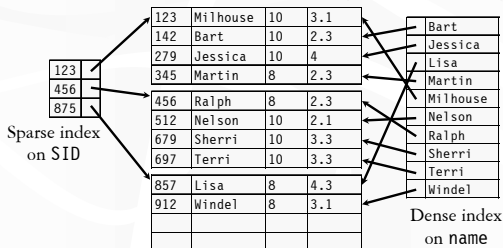
Other search criteria, e.g.

- Range search  
`SELECT * FROM R WHERE A > value;`

Keyword search

## Dense and sparse indexes

- Dense: one index entry for each search key value
- 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

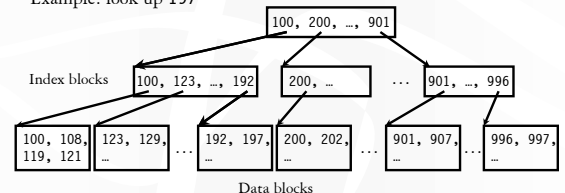
## Primary and secondary indexes

- Primary index
  - Created for the primary key of a table
  - Records are usually clustered according to 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
  - Secondary index can be created on non-key attribute(s)  
`CREATE INDEX StudentGPAIndex ON Student (GPA);`

## ISAM

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

Example: look up 197

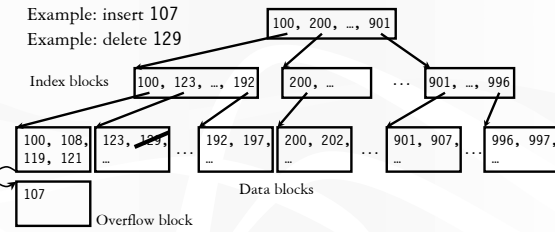


## Updates with ISAM

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Example: insert 107

Example: delete 129



❖ Overflow chains and empty data blocks degrade performance

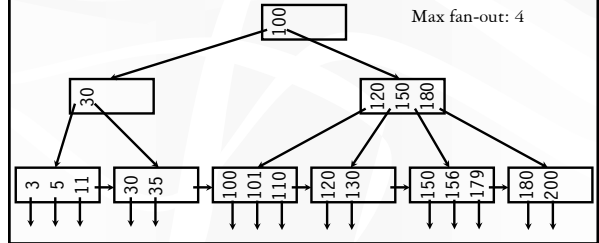
- Worst case: most records go into one long chain

## B<sup>+</sup>-tree

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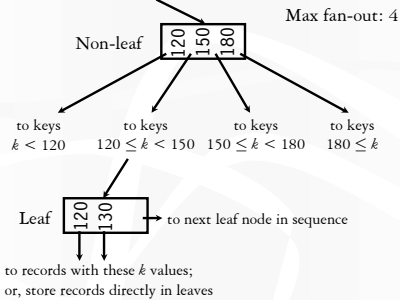
❖ Balanced (although not perfectly): good performance guarantee

❖ Disk-based: one node per block; large fan-out



## Sample B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

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## B<sup>+</sup>-tree balancing properties

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❖ All leaves at the same lowest level

❖ All nodes at least half full (except root)

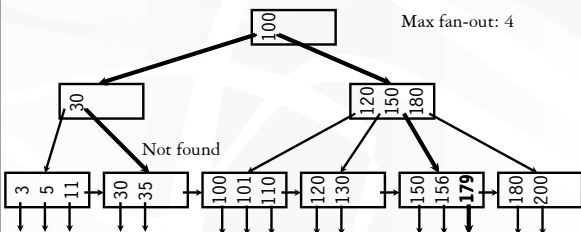
	Max # pointers	Max # keys	Min # active pointers	Min # keys
Non-leaf	$f$	$f - 1$	$\lceil f/2 \rceil$	$\lceil f/2 \rceil - 1$
Root	$f$	$f - 1$	2	1
Leaf	$f$	$f - 1$	$\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$	$\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$

## Lookups

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SELECT \* FROM R WHERE  $k = 179$ ;

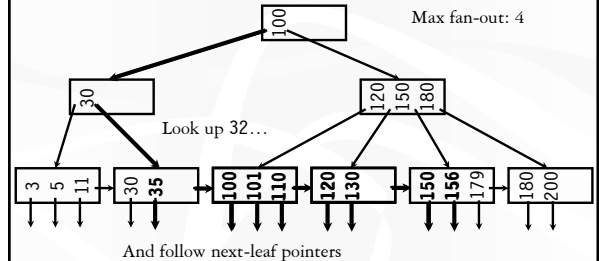
SELECT \* FROM R WHERE  $k = 32$ ;



## Range query

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



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### Insertion

❖ Insert a record with search key value 32

Max fan-out: 4

Look up where the inserted key should go...

And insert it right there

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### Another insertion example

❖ Insert a record with search key value 152

Max fan-out: 4

Oops, node is already full!

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### Node splitting

Max fan-out: 4

Yikes, this node is also already full!

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### More node splitting

Max fan-out: 4

❖ In the worst case, node splitting can "propagate" all the way up to the root of the tree (not illustrated here)

- Splitting the root causes the tree to grow "up" by one level

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### Deletion

❖ Delete a record with search key value 130

Max fan-out: 4

Look up the key to be deleted...

If a sibling has more than enough keys, steal one!

And delete it

Oops, node is too empty!

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### Stealing from a sibling

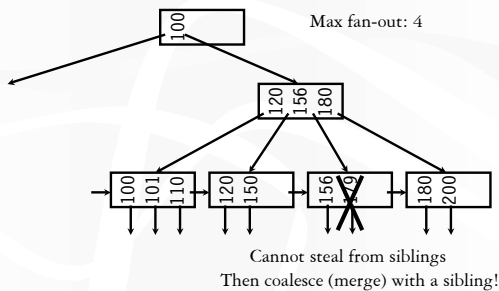
Max fan-out: 4

Remember to fix the key in the least common ancestor

## Another deletion example

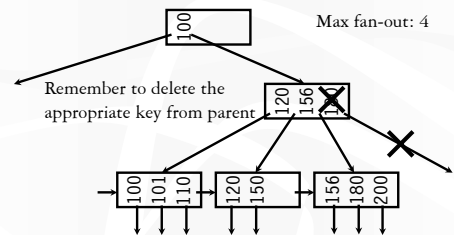
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- ❖ Delete a record with search key value 179



## Coalescing

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- ❖ 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

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- ❖ How many I/O's are required for each operation?
  - $b$  (more or less), where  $b$  is the height of the tree
  - Plus one or two to manipulate actual records
  - Plus  $O(b)$  for reorganization (should be very rare if  $f$  is large)
  - Minus one if we cache the root in memory
- ❖ How big is  $b$ ?
  - Roughly  $\log_{\text{fan-out}} N$ , where  $N$  is the number of records
  - B<sup>+</sup>-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<sup>+</sup>-tree is enough for typical tables

## B<sup>+</sup>-tree in practice

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- ❖ Complex reorganization for deletion often is not implemented (e.g., Oracle, Informix)
- ❖ Most commercial DBMS use B<sup>+</sup>-tree instead of hashing-based indexes because B<sup>+</sup>-tree handles range queries

## B<sup>+</sup>-tree versus ISAM

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

## B<sup>+</sup>-tree versus B-tree

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- ❖ B-tree: why not store records (or record pointers) in non-leaf nodes?
  - These records can be accessed with fewer I/O's
- ❖ Problems?
  - Storing more data in a node decreases fan-out and increases  $b$
  - Records in leaves require more I/O's to access
  - Vast majority of the records live in leaves!

## Beyond ISAM, B- and B<sup>+</sup>-trees

- ❖ Hashing-based indexes: extensible hashing, linear hashing, etc.
- ❖ Tree-based indexes: R- and R<sup>+</sup>-trees, disk-based quad-trees, kdB-trees, etc.
- ❖ Other tricks: bitmap index, bit-sliced index, etc.