DB 2

09 - Ordered Indexes (B+Trees)

Summer 2018

Torsten Grust Universität Tübingen, Germany Sequential scan (**Seq Scan**) and interpreted predicate evaluation go a long way. Large input tables call for significantly more **efficient support for value-based row access:**

```
SELECT i.b, i.c

FROM indexed AS i

WHERE i.a = 42 [i.c = 0.42] -- either filter on i.a or i.c
```

Assume column a is **primary key** in table indexed: expect query workload that frequently identifies rows via predicates a = k. **Indexes** can support such queries.



DBMS expects predicates a = k and creates an **index on column** a—a data structure associated with and maintained in addition to table indexed—to speed up evaluation:

CREATE INDEX indexed_a ON indexed USING btree (a);

- 2. When indexed is updated, indexed_a is maintained. ❖

¹ PostgreSQL chooses index name indexed_pkey but let's follow a _<column> naming scheme here.



```
EXPLAIN VERBOSE

SELECT i.b, i.c

FROM indexed AS i -- 10° rows
WHERE i.a = 42; -- selection on key column a ⇒ ≤ 1 row will qualify

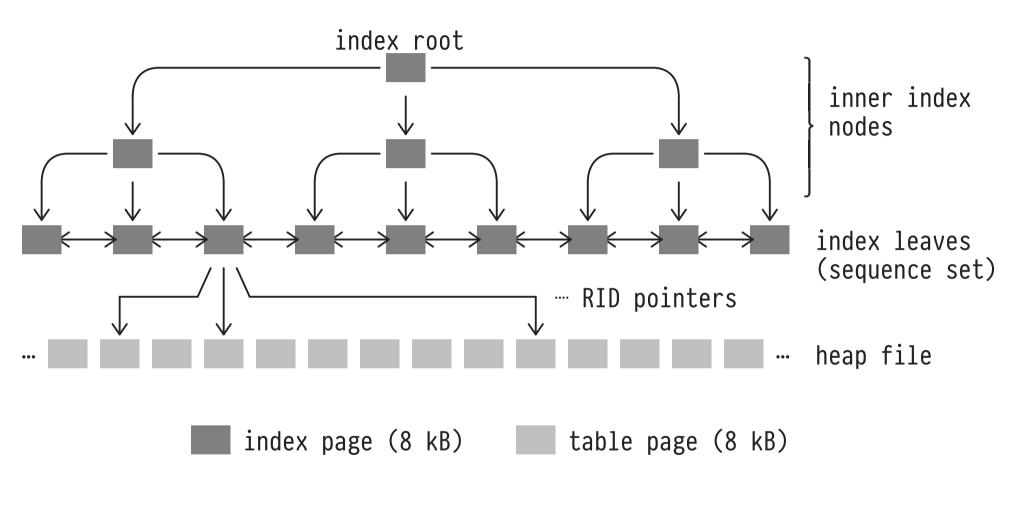
QUERY PLAN

Index Scan using indexed_a on indexed i (cost=0.42..8.44 rows=1 ...)

Output: b, c
Index Cond: (i.a = 42) --
```

- DBMS uses Index Scan (instead of Seq Scan), index scan will evaluate predicate i.a = k.
- System expects small result of a single row (rows=1),
 i.e., the predicate is assumed to be very selective.





Anatomy of a B+Tree

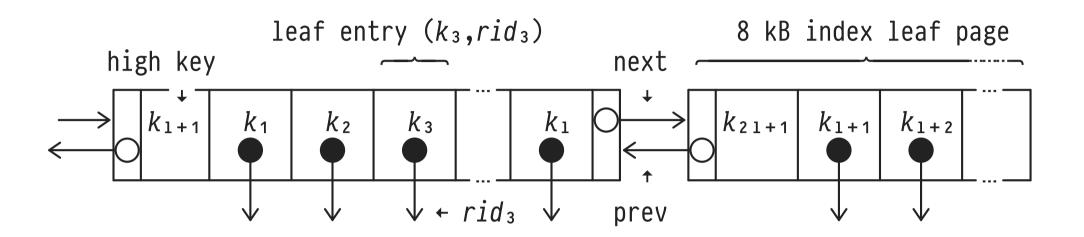


Notes on B+Tree anatomy:

- A B+Tree² index I on column T(a) is an ordered, n-ary (n
 > 2), balanced, block-oriented, dynamic search tree.
- Inner nodes and leaves are formed by 8 kB index pages.
- Each inner node holds n-1 values of column α (separators) that allow to navigate the search tree structure.
- Leaves form a bidirectional chain, the sequence set.
- Leaves use RIDs to point to rows in the heap file of table T: besides a column values, I holds no data of T.

² Invented by Bayer and McCreight (1969) at Boeing Labs. The "B" in "B+Tree" does *not* stand for Bayer, binary, balanced, block, or Boeing. (We tried to find out, but Rudolf Bayer wouldn't say.)





- Uses pointers prev/next to form the chained sequence set.
- Leaf entries are ordered by index keys k_i : $k_i \le k_{i+1}$.
- RID rid_i points to a row t of T with $t.a = k_i$.
- The high key holds smallest key of next leaf (if any).

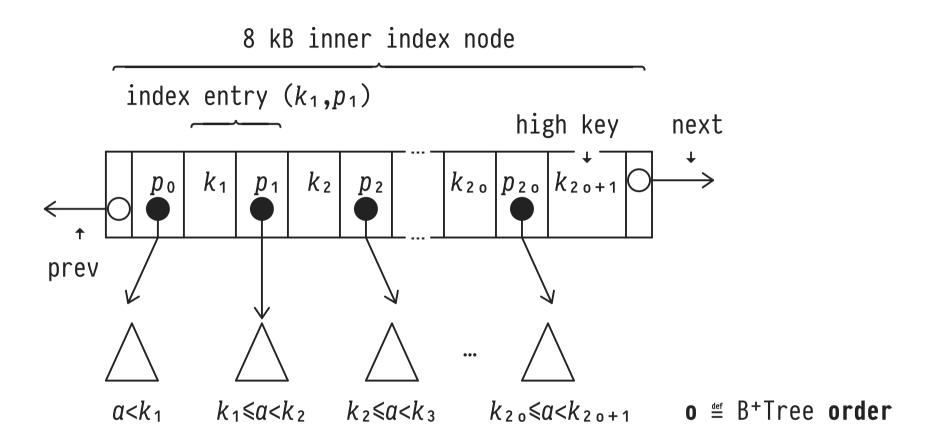


As described, a B+Tree is a **dense** index structure: every row t of T is represent by one leaf entry.

- The sequence set is ordered by keys $k_i \Rightarrow$ a binary search for a key $k = k_i$ may sound viable, **BUT** the search would
 - 1. need to inspect $\log_2(|T|)$ keys in the sequence set and access just as many pages \mathbb{Q} , and
 - 2. "jump around" the sequence set in an unpredictable fashion, thus leading to random I/O. \heartsuit

B+Trees exploit the sequence set ordering and erect an n-ary search tree structure (n large!) atop the leaf entries.





- The **separator** keys k_i are ordered: $k_i \leq k_{i+1}$.
- Page pointers p_j point to index (leaf or inner) nodes.



- Space in inner nodes is used economically: in a B+Tree of order o, any inner node—but the root node—is guaranteed to hold between o and 2 × o (≝ fan-out F) index entries.
- Given predicate $t \cdot a = k$, perform binary search inside node to find B+Tree subtree with $k_i \le k < k_{i+1}$.
- B+Tree is **balanced**: subtrees \triangle are of identical height.
- Path length s from B+Tree root to leaf node predictable:

$$|T| \times 1/F \times \cdots \times 1/F = 1 \Leftrightarrow s = \log_F(|T|)$$
s times



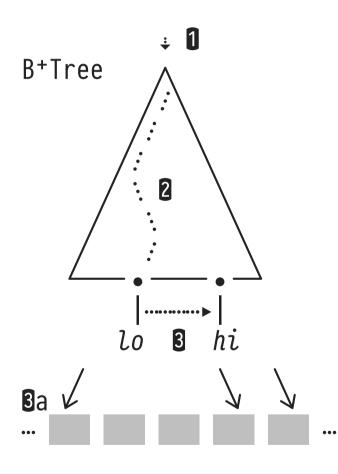
A B+Tree is *the* index structure to support the evaluation of these kinds of conditions:

- 1. Range predicates: $lo \leq a \leq hi$
- 2. Half-open ranges: $lo \leq a$ or $a \leq hi$
- 3. Equality predicates: a = hi
- An **Index Scan** on index I for column T(a) is parameterized by such a condition (PostgreSQL EXPLAIN: Index Cond).
- Index Scan uses *lo* to navigate the search tree structure and locate the start of relevant sequence set section.

³ Half-open ranges are special range predicates where $hi = \infty$ ($lo = \infty$). Equality predicates are special range predicates where lo = hi.



An index scan access the B+Tree index and the heap file:



- 1 Enter at B+Tree root page
- 2 Use key lo to navigate the inner nodes (search tree) until we reach the leaf level
- 8 Scan leaf entries in the sequence set section $lo \le a \le hi$, extract RIDs
 - **B**a For each RID, access heap file for table *T* and return matching row

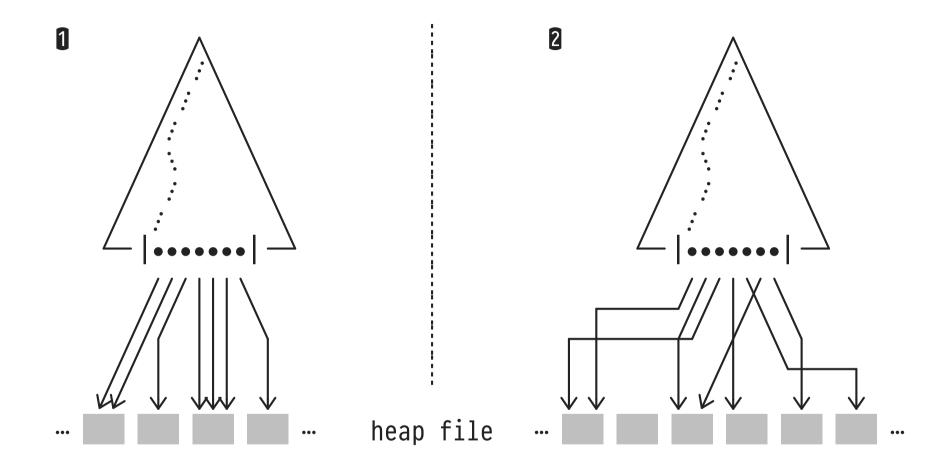
heap file



Phase ② runs a vanilla traversal of a 2×o-way search tree:

```
Search(lo):
                                           returns entry point
                                           for scan of sequence set
  return TreeSearch(lo, root);
TreeSearch(lo, node):
  if (node is a leaf)
   return node;
  switch lo
     case lo < k_1
      | return TreeSearch(lo, p_0);
                                           use binary search
                                           to implement
     case k_i \leq lo < k_{i+1}
      return TreeSearch(lo, p<sub>i</sub>);
                                           subtree choice
     case k_{20} \leq lo
      return TreeSearch(lo, p20);
```





- ① Order of leaf entry keys $k_i = \text{row order in heap file.}$
- ② Order of k_i in sequence set and row order do not match.



An index I for column T(a) is **clustered** if the order of leaf entries coincides with T's row order (i.e., both I's sequence set and T's heap file are ordered by a):

Given entries $\langle k_i, p_i \rangle$ and $\langle k_j, p_j \rangle$, $k_i \leq k_j \Rightarrow p_i \leq p_j$.

- An Index Scan over a *clustered* index
 - 1. collects matching rows from adjacent heap file pages $(\Rightarrow \text{ sequential I/O } \circlearrowleft)$,
 - 2. will find many matching rows on each loaded heap file page (\Rightarrow less page I/O \circlearrowleft).

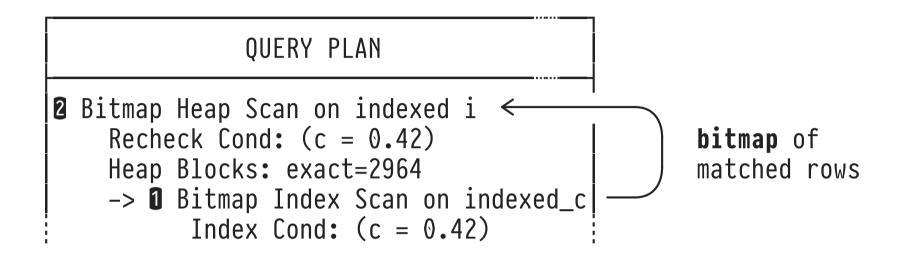


Sad fact: only *one*—among the many possible—indexes for a table may be clustered. Most indexes are non-clustered.

- An Index Scan over a non-clustered index
 - 1. will find matching rows potentially scattered across all heap file pages (\Rightarrow random I/O \heartsuit),
 - 2. will find few matching rows on each loaded heap file page and may access the same page more than once (\Rightarrow as many page I/Os as matching rows \heartsuit).

PostgreSQL addresses this challenge through RID sorting, implemented via Bitmap Index Scan & Bitmap Heap Scan.

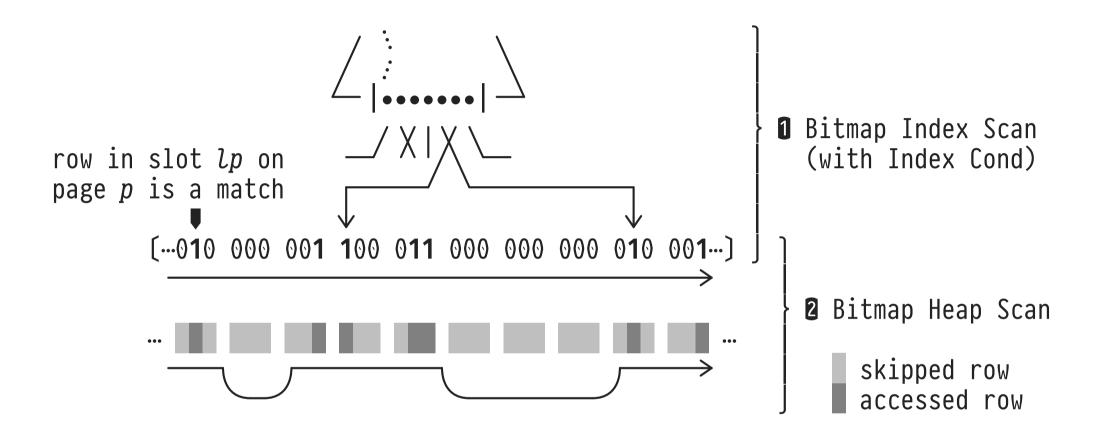




- **1** Bitmap Index Scan: perform Index Scan and create bitmap that encodes heap file locations of rows matching the Index Cond. Do not access rows in heap file yet.
- Bitmap Index Scan: scan heap file once, only access those rows (pages) that have been marked 1 in the bitmap.

Bitmap Index Scan & Bitmap Heap Scan: Row-Level Bitmap

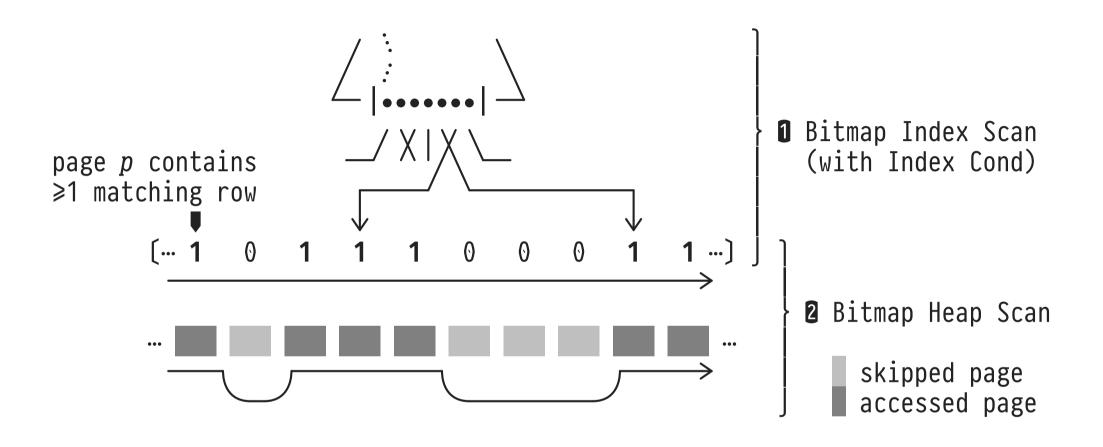




Bitmap Heap Scan performs one sequential scan (with skips) of the heap file, regardless of RID order in sequence set.

Bitmap Index Scan & Bitmap Heap Scan: Page-Level Bitmap





Working memory tight \Rightarrow build page-level bitmap. \triangle In \bigcirc , need to recheck condition for all rows on accessed pages.



If the workload depends on top performance of particular predicates supported by non-clustered index I, we may

physically reorder the rows of underlying table's T**heap file** to coincide with the key order in I's sequence set (i.e., *I* will become a *clustered* index⁴):

```
CLUSTER [VERBOSE] \langle T \rangle USING \langle I \rangle;
CLUSTER <T>; -- re-cluster once T's rows get out of order
```

 \bullet **!** Subsequent updates on T can destroy the perfect clustering. (May need to re-cluster T in intervals.)

⁴ At a price, of course: formerly *clustered* indexes on T will turn into *non-clustered* indexes.

B+Trees...

- 1. economically utilize space in inner/leaf nodes (minimum node occupancy 50%, typical fill factor 67%),
- 2. are **balanced** trees and thus require a **predictable number of page I/Os** to traverse from root to sequence set— enables query optimizer to forecast B+Tree access cost.

DBMSs maintain properties 1. and 2. when rows are **inserted** into/**deleted** from an B+Tree-indexed table.⁵

 $^{^{5}}$ Some real B+Tree implementations of row deletion deviate from the textbook to keep things simpler.

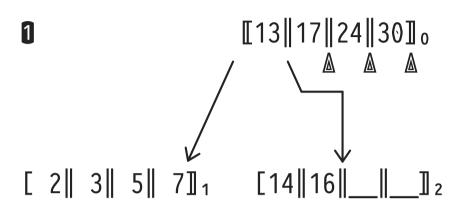
B⁺Tree Insertion for New Entry $\langle k, rid \rangle$ (Sketch)

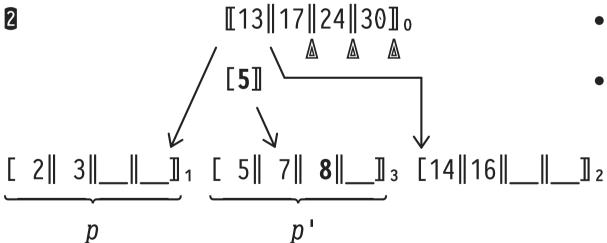


- 1. Use Search(k) to **find leaf page** p which should hold the entry for k.
- 2. If p has **enough space** to hold new entry (i.e., at most $2\times 0-1$ entries in p), **simply insert** $\langle k,rid \rangle$ into p.
- 3. Otherwise, node p must be **split** into p and p' and a new **separator** has to be inserted \heartsuit into the parent of p.
 - Splitting happens recursively♡ and may eventually lead to a split of the root node (increasing B+Tree height).
- 4. **Distribute** the entries of p and new entry $\langle k, rid \rangle$ onto pages p and p'.

B*Tree Insertion and Leaf Node Split





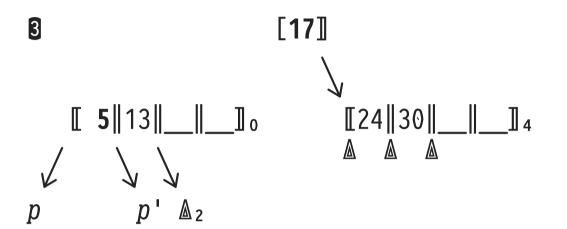


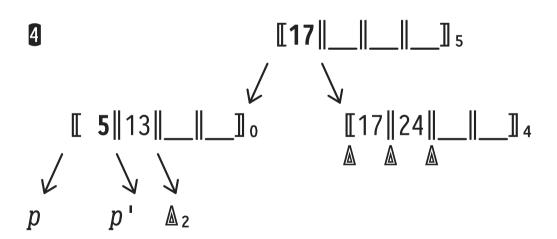
- 1 Insert new entry <8, rid>
- Search(8) returns leaf p = 1
- Leaf 1 is full ⇒ split

- 2 Leaf 1 split into leaves p = 1 and p' = 3
- Distribute {2,3,5,7,8} between leaves 1 and 3
- Copy0 new separator [5] into parent node 0

B+Tree Insertion and Inner Node Split







- Inner node 0 (here: root)
 is full ⇒ split
- Inner node 0 splits into nodes p = 0 and p' = 4
- Distribute {5,13,24,30} A between nodes 0 and 4
- Move new separator [17] into parent of node 0
- Split node 0 has been the
 old root
- Create new root node 5, has [17 | as only entry
- B+Tree height has increased

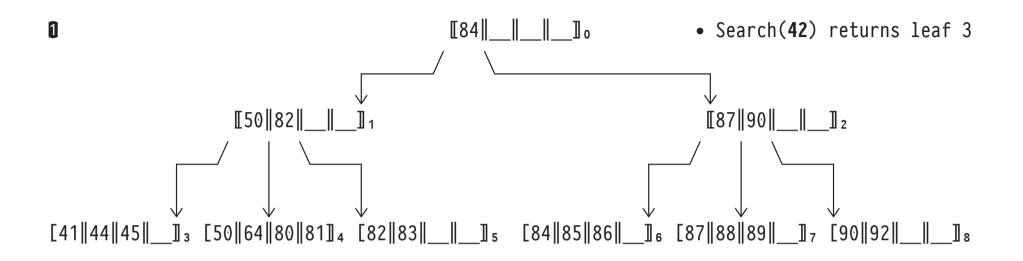


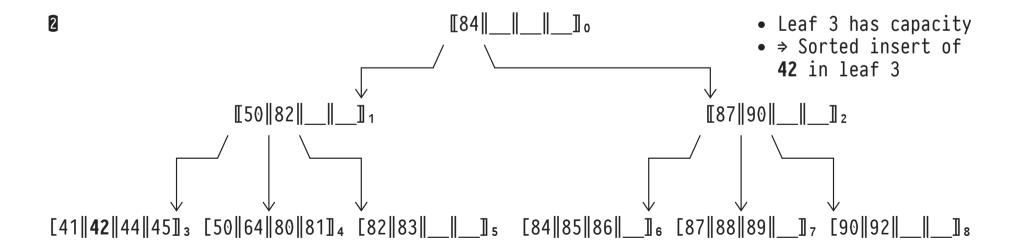
- Splitting starts at the leaf level and continues upward as long as inner index nodes are fully occupied (holding 2x0 entries).
- ! Unlike during a *leaf* split, an *inner* node split **moves**⁶ the new separator [*sep*] discriminating between *p* and *p*' upwards and recursively inserts it into the parent. Q: Why?
- Q: How often do you expect a root node split to happen?

⁶ A leaf node split **copies** the new separator upwards, i.e., the entry [**sep**] also remains at the leaf level.

B*Tree Insertion Example: Insert <42, rid>

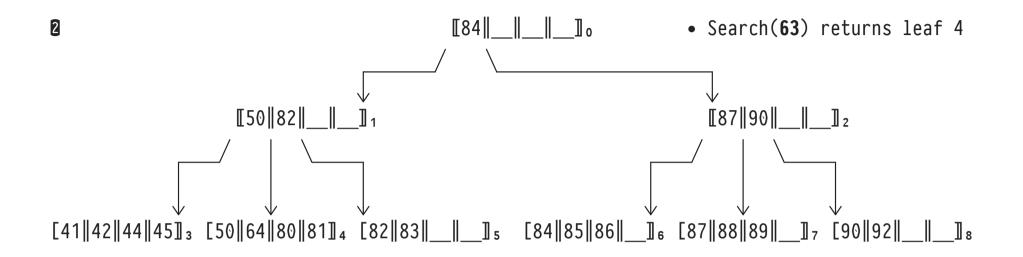


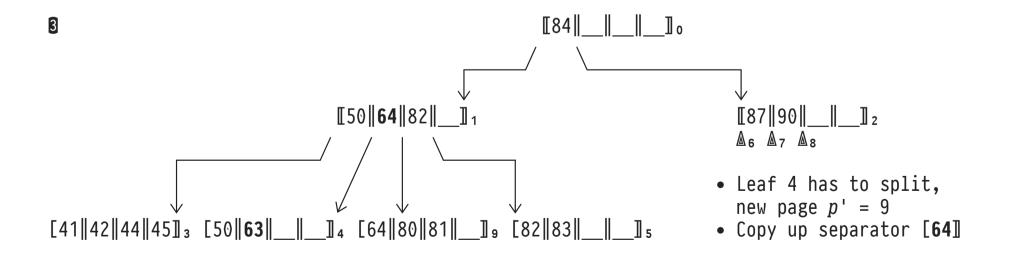




B+Tree Insertion Example: Insert <63, rid>

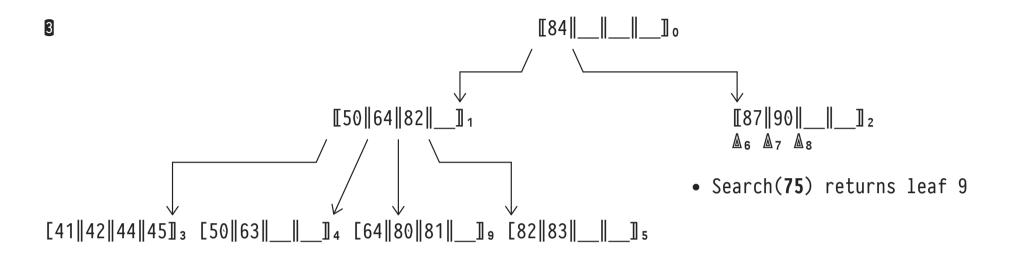


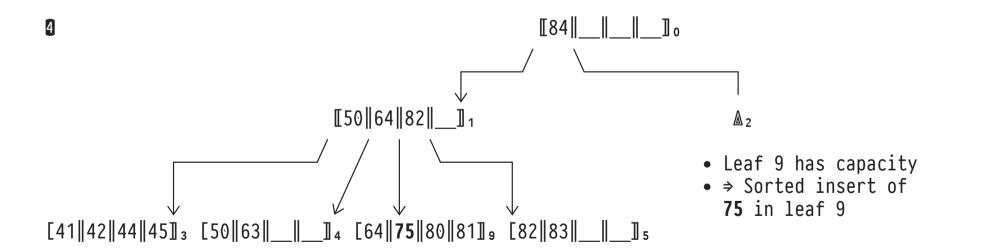




B*Tree Insertion Example: Insert <75, rid>

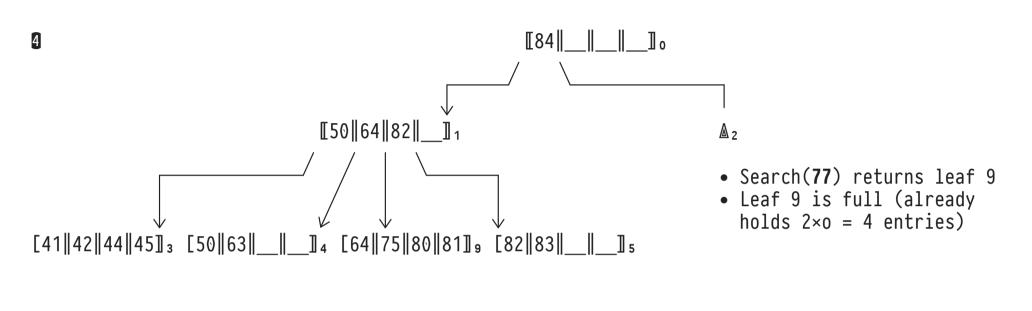


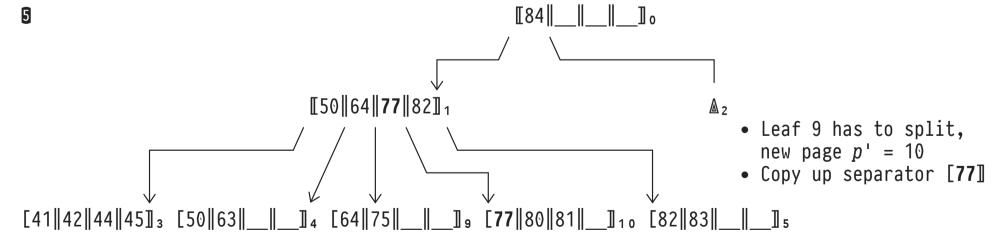




B*Tree Insertion Example: Insert <77, rid>

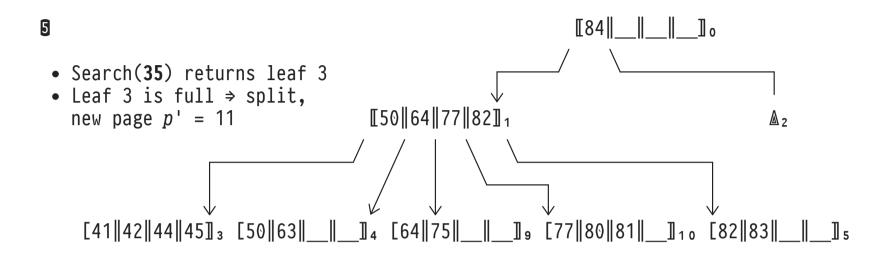


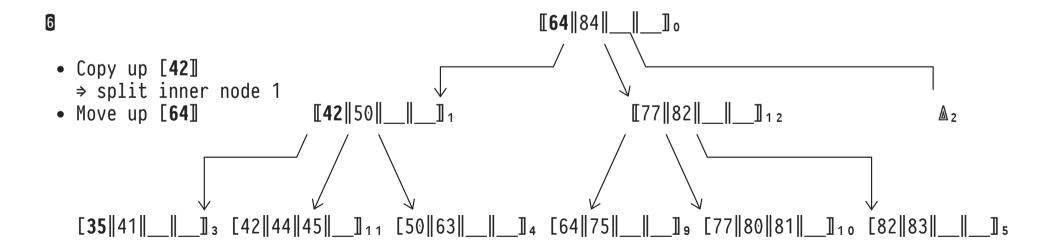




B*Tree Insertion Example: Insert <35, rid>









```
TreeInsert(<k,rid>,node):
   if (node is a leaf)
       return LeafInsert(<k,rid>,node);
  else
       switch k
           case k < k_1
            | \langle sep, ptr \rangle \leftarrow TreeInsert(\langle k, rid \rangle, p_0);
           case k_i \leq k < k_{i+1}
                                                                        see Search()
            \langle sep,ptr \rangle \leftarrow TreeInsert(\langle k,rid \rangle,p_i);
           case k_{20} \leq k
            \langle sep,ptr \rangle \leftarrow TreeInsert(\langle k,rid \rangle,p_{20});
       if (sep = 1)
           return <1,1>;
       else
           return InnerInsert(<sep,ptr>,node);
```

⁷ Note: $\langle sep,ptr \rangle \equiv [sep]$ in our discussion above.

B*Tree Insertion Algorithm (2)



```
LeafInsert(\langle k, rid \rangle, node):

if (node has < 2×0 entries)

| insert \langle k, rid \rangle into node;
| return \langle 1, 1 \rangle; | \langle 1, - \rangle \equiv no upwards split required

else

| p' \( \tau \) allocate leaf page;
| [\langle k_1, rid_1 \rangle, ..., \langle k_{20+1}, rid_{20+1} \rangle] \( \tau \) entries of node \cup \langle k, rid \rangle;
| node \( \tau [k_1 | rid_1 | ... | k_0 | rid_0 | ___ ||______];
| p' \( \leftarrow [k_{0+1} | rid_{0+1} | ... | k_{20+1} | rid_{20+1} | ___ ||_____];
| return \( \langle k_{0+1}, p' \rangle ;
```

• Copy upwards: entry $\langle k_{0+1}, rid_{0+1} \rangle$ remains in leaf p'.

B*Tree Insertion Algorithm (3)



```
InnerInsert(\langle sep,ptr \rangle, node):

if (node has < 2 \times 0 entries)

| insert \langle sep,ptr \rangle into node;
| return \langle 1,1 \rangle; | \rangle \langle 1,- \rangle \equiv no upwards split required

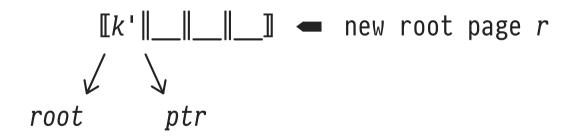
else
| p' \leftarrow allocate inner node page;
| [p<sub>0</sub>,\langle k_1,p_1 \rangle,...,\langle k_{2\,0+1},p_{2\,0+1} \rangle] \leftarrow entries of node \cup \langle sep,ptr \rangle;
| node \leftarrow [p<sub>0</sub>|k<sub>1</sub>|p<sub>1</sub>|...|k<sub>0</sub>|p<sub>0</sub>|__||_||;
| p' \leftarrow [p_{0+1}|k_{0+2}|p_{0+2}|...|k_{2\,0+1}|p_{2\,0+1}|_-||_-||;
| return \langle k_{0+1},p' \rangle;
```

• Move upwards: new entry $\langle k_{0+1}, p' \rangle$ returned for insertion at parent. No entry $\langle k_{0+1}, _ \rangle$ remains at level of node/p'.

B*Tree Insertion Algorithm (Top Level)



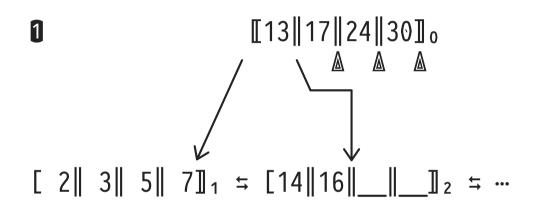
Insert(<k,rid>) is the top-level B+Tree insertion routine:



• Note: Insert() may leave us with a new root node that violates the minimum occupancy rule. 「\(ツ)/¬



Can improve average occupancy and delay height increase on B+Tree insertion through **redistribution**:

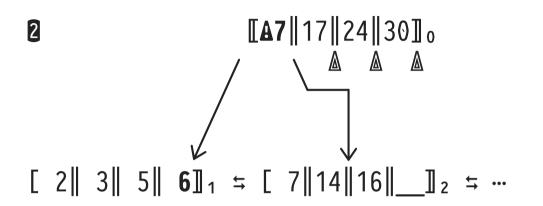


- 1 Insert new entry <6, rid>
- Search(6) returns leaf 1
- Leaf 1 is full, but its right **sibling** 2 has capacity

- Push entry from overflowing node to sibling and . update separator in parent node to reflect this redistribution.

B*Tree Insertion: Redistribution (2)





- 2 Push entry <7, rid'> to leaf 2
- Place <**6**, rid> in leaf 1
- Update separator (13 → 7)
 in parent node 0
- B+Tree remains at height 2

- Inspecting node sibling involves additional page I/O. 🐶
- Actual implementations use redistribution on the index leaf level only (if at all).

7 B+Tree Deletion of Entry With Key k (Sketch)



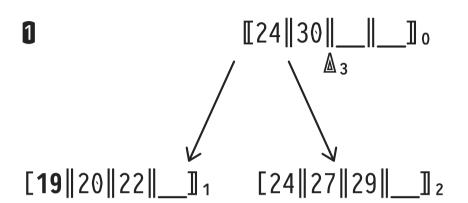
- 1. Use Search(k) to **find the leaf** p holding entry $\langle k, rid \rangle$.
- 2. Simply delete $\langle k, rid \rangle$ from p.8
- 3. If p now holds < 0 entries, leaf p underflows. Any sibling of p with spare entries?
 - \circ Yes, use **redistribution** to move an entry into p.
 - \circ No, merge p and a sibling leaf p' of o entries. Delete \circ the now obsolete separator of p and p' in their parent node.

Deletion propagates upwards and may eventually leave the root node empty (decreases B+Tree height).

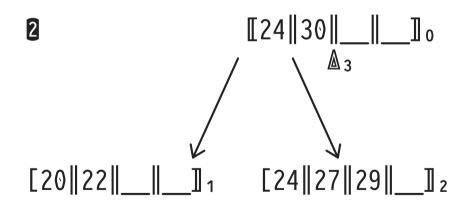
⁸ Q: If $\langle k, rid \rangle$ is the leftmost entry in p, do we need to update the associated separator entry in p's parent node? Why not?

B*Tree Deletion (No Underflow)





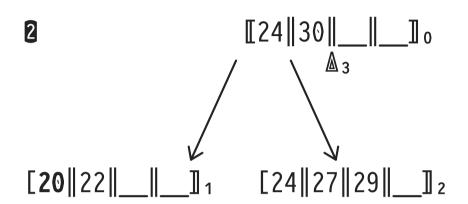
- 1 Delete entry with key k = 19
- Search(19) returns leaf 1
- Leaf 1 has > o entries,
 node will not underflow



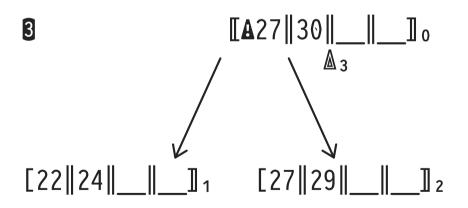
2 Simply delete entry <19,rid> from leaf 1

B+Tree Deletion and Redistribution





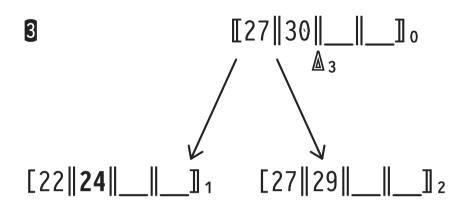
- **2** Delete entry with key k = 20
- Search(20) returns leaf 1
- Leaf 1 has minimum occupancy of o entries ⇒ will underflow



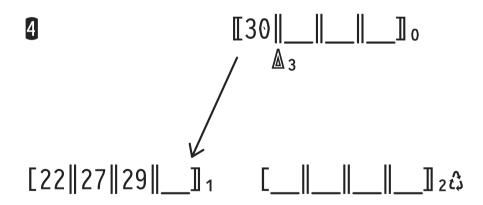
- Sibling p' = 2 has one entry to spare \Rightarrow redistribution
- Move entry <24, rid'> from leaf 2 to leaf 1
- Update separator (24 → 27)
 in parent node 0

B*Tree Deletion and Leaf Node Merging





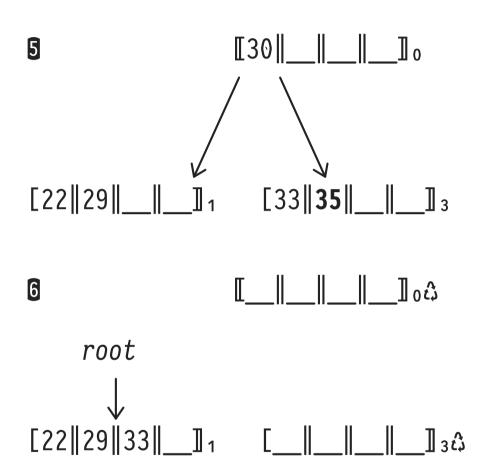
- **3** Delete entry with key k = 24
- Search(24) returns leaf 1
- Leaf 1 has minimum occupancy, no sibling with spare entries



- 4 Merge leaf nodes 1 and 2, mark empty page 2 as garbage
- In parent 0, delete0 obsolete separator [27]

B*Tree Deletion and Leaf Node Merging (Empty Root)



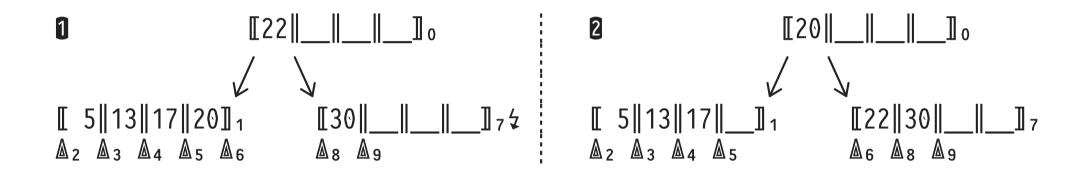


- **4** Delete entry with key k = 35
- Search(35) returns leaf 3
- Leaf 3 has minimum occupancy, no sibling with spare entries

- Merge leaf nodes 1 and 3,
 mark empty page 3 as garbage
- In parent 0, delete0 obsolete separator [30]
- Old root empty (⇒ garbage),
 mark page 1 as the new root
- B+Tree height decreases



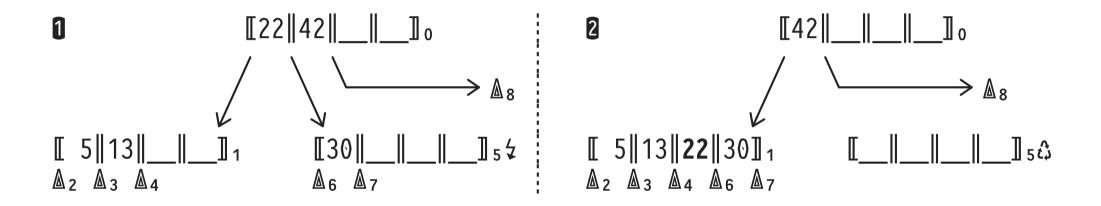
• **Redistribution** is also defined for **inner nodes**. Suppose we encounter underflow **①** during ♥ deletion propagation:



- Inner node 1 has two spare entries. "Rotate entry [20] through parent" to underflowed inner node 7.
 - **N.B.:** Semantics of subtree \triangle_6 (holds index entries with $k \ge 20 \land k < 22$) are preserved.



• Likewise, inner nodes may also be merged. The underflow in 1 cannot be handled by redistribution:



• Note how the separator 22 has been **pulled down** \bigcirc from the parent to discriminate between subtrees \triangle_4 and \triangle_6 :

 \circ \triangle_4 : $k \ge 13 \land k < 22$

 $\circ \Delta_6$: $k \ge 22 \land k < 30$



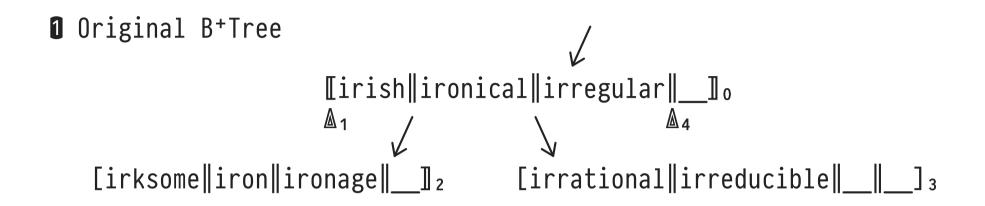
The higher the fan-out F, the more index entries fit in a B+Tree of fixed height. How to maximize F?

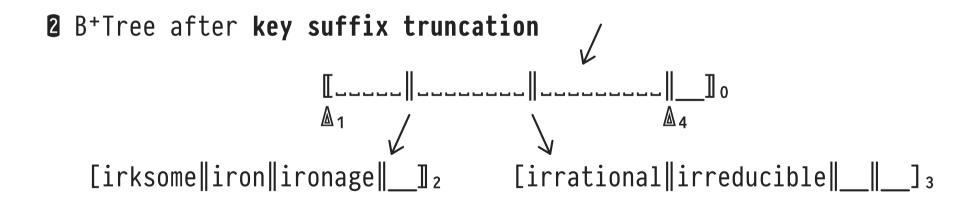
- For entries $\langle k,p \rangle$ in indexes over text/char columns, we may have $|k| \gg p$. Can we reduce the size of k?
- Search() and TreeInsert() do not inspect the actual key values but only use </≤ to direct tree traversals.
 - $\circ \Rightarrow$ May shorten (truncate) string keys as long as the ordering relation is preserved.
 - This applies to index entries inner nodes only. Leaf level keys remain as is.

⁹ The implementation (thus size) of page pointers p is prescribed by the DBMS. Nothing to win here.

B⁺Trees: Key Suffix Truncation







While truncating, preserve the separator semantics.

B*Trees: Key Prefix Compression



Observation: string keys within a B+Tree inner node often share a common prefix.

- Violating the 50% occupancy rule can help compression.



Grab a hot cup of **P** and start a war on Stack Overflow: 10

Q: Which order of operations is better?

```
O CREATE TABLE T (...);
O INSERT INTO T VALUES (<5 × 10 ^6 rows>);
O CREATE INDEX I ON T USING btree (...);
```

or

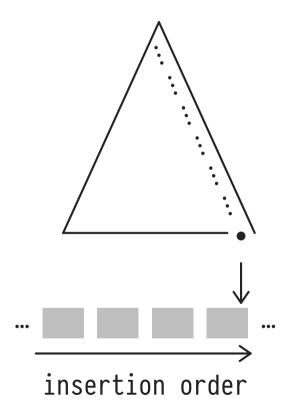
```
O CREATE TABLE T (...);
CREATE INDEX I ON T USING btree (...);
INSERT INTO T VALUES (<5 × 10<sup>6</sup> rows>);

■
```

¹⁰ See, for example, https://stackoverflow.com/questions/5910486/indexes-on-a-table-database



If insertions happen in index key order (i.e., ascending values of k), we observe a particular B+Tree access pattern:



- TreeInsert() will always traverse path :, will always hit the righmost leaf.
- ⇒ Fix rightmost leaf in buffer, insert next entry right there (no traversal from root). Node splits only occur along path :.
- We effectively create a clustered index.

heap file (sorted on keys k)

11 Q_8 — Filtering a Table





```
SELECT i.b, i.c

FROM indexed AS i

WHERE i.a = 42 [i.c = 0.42] -- either filter on i.a or i.c
```

Indexes in MonetDB play a secondary role and are *not* organized in tree shapes.

MMDBMSs try to exploit that data resides in directly adressable memory and primarily aim to avoid access to separate index data structures (to avoid pointer chasing and potential cache misses).

Using EXPLAIN on Q_8 : Filter on Column a



 MonetDB uses algebra.thetaselect(..., 42:int, "==") to implement the predicate filter.

Using EXPLAIN on Q_8 : Filter on Column c^{11}



- Plan is nearly identical (modulo access to the a BAT).
- MonetDB appears to use the same algebra.thetaselect(..., 42:int, "==") MAL operation.

Note how MonetDB maps the domain of type numeric(3,2) of column c, i.e., the set $N_{3,2} \equiv \{-9.99,...,9.99\}$ with $|N_{3,2}| = 1999$, to a 16-bit value of type :sht. Nifty.



When MonetDB constructs a BAT t, a family of tail column **properties** prop(t) is derived/maintained: 12

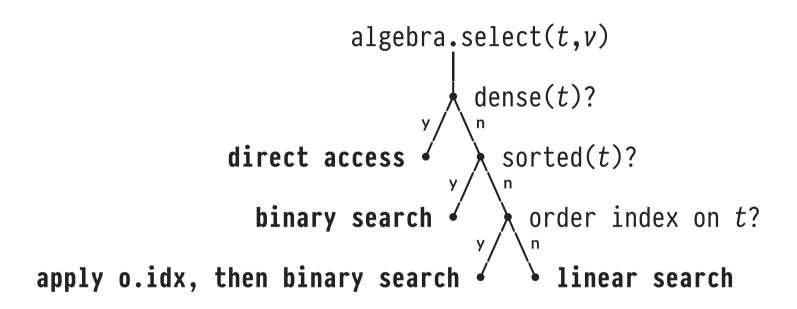
BAT Property prop(t)	Description
dense (tails of type :oid only) kev	ascending values, no gaps unique values
key sorted revsorted	ascending values descending values
nil/nonil	at least one/no nil value

- Use bat.info(t) to inspect current properties of t.
- Incomplete: t's tail may be sorted although sorted(t) = false (\Rightarrow but not \Leftrightarrow).

¹² Additional properties nokey, nosorted, norevsorted give "proofs" (tail positions) why property does not hold. Example: nosorted = 3 ≡ tail value for row 3@0 < tail value for row 2@0.



MAL operations inspect BAT properties at *query runtime*, select one of several efficient implementations:



• This is coined **tactical optimization** (as opposed to strategical query optimization at *query compile time*).

The Tactics of algebra.select: dense(t)



If input BAT t is **dense**, use **positional access** and **slicing** to evaluate equality and range selections:



head tail

000 3900
100 4000
200 4100
300 4200 --- offset 3 = 4200-3900
400 4300 --- hseqbase(t)

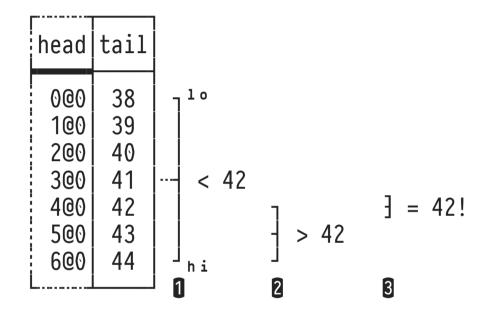
algebra.select(t, 40@0, 42@0, t, t, f)

head	tail							
1@0 2@0	41@0	1	≡	alge	bra.s	lice	(t , 1	, 3)

The Tactics of algebra.select: sorted(t)



algebra.select(t,42)



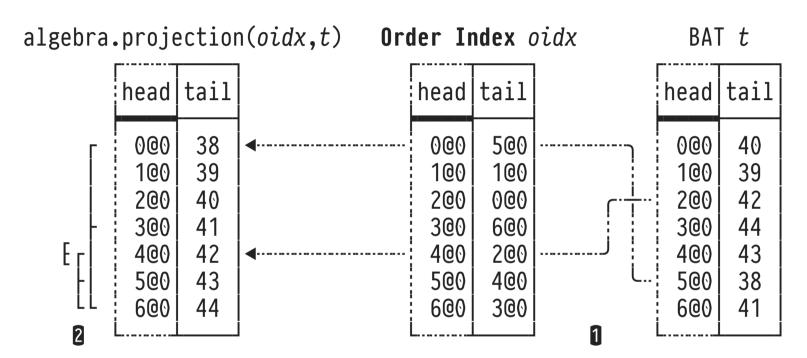
Binary Search:

- Test middle value (pivot) between limits lo and hi
- Recurse into upper or lower partition based on test
- Finishes in $log_2(|t|)$ steps

The Tactics of algebra.select: Order Indexes



algebra.select(t, v)



• Row $[i@0,j@0] \in oidx$: value at offset j is ith largest in tail. Tactic: ① Apply oidx, ② then use binary search.

Creating Order Indexes (On the Fly)



MonetDB may automatically create a temporary order index to support predicates $lo \le a \le hi$ or other order-sensitive queries (e.g., ORDER BY, GROUP BY).

 Check current properties of column BATs and presence of indexes in MonetDB system table sys.storage:

<pre>sql> SELECT column, sorted, revsorted, "unique", orderidx FROM sys.storage('sys', 'indexed');</pre>						
	column	sorted	revsorted	unique	orderidx	
	a b c	true null false		true null null	0 0 0	

Creating Order Indexes (Manually)



If this seems beneficial for the query workload, clients may manually create an order index.

• ♪ Order indexes are **static** (i.e., not maintained under updates—costly) ⇒ underlying table must be *read-only*:

```
<create and populate table T>
sql> ALTER TABLE T SET READ ONLY;
sql> CREATE ORDERED INDEX I ON T(\alpha);
```

 \circ Order index I is made persistent (in a *.torderidx disk file) and will be used by future algebra.select()s on column α .



With **column cracking**, ¹³ MonetDB introduced a **self-organizing** (partially) ordered index structure.

- A cracker index for column α is created/updated as a byproduct of processing range predicates $lo \leq \alpha \leq hi$.
 - \circ In the cracker index, the α values \in [lo,hi] are stored physically contiguous.
- If the query workload focuses only on a subset of column α , that part is indexed with fine granularity (while the other parts remain largely non-indexed).

^{13 &}quot;Database Cracking", S. Idreos, M. Kersten, S. Manegold. Proc. CIDR, Asilomar (CA, USA), 2007.

Column Cracking As a By-Product of Query Processing



1	BA	Ιa
U	ΒA	ı a

head	tail
0@0	17
1@0	3
2@0	8
3@0	6
4@0	2
5@0	15
6@0	13
7@0	4
8@0	12



000 4] 100 3] ≤ 200 2] 300 6] > 400 8] Qi 500 15] 600 13] ≥ 700 17		head	tail	
800 12	<i>Q</i> _i	1@0 2@0 3@0 4@0 5@0 6@0	3 2 6 8 15 13	

3 Cracker Index

head	tail] 			
000	2]	\leq	3	S 4
100	3				
2@0	4]	>	3	S 5
3@0	6	[]	>	5	S ₆
400	8				
5@0	12	ĪĪ	≥	10	S 7
600	13				
7@0	17	١٦	≥	14	S ₈
800	15				
L					

• Q_i : ... WHERE a > 5 AND a < 10 Result: slice s_2 • Q_j : ... WHERE a > 3 AND a < 14 Result: slices $s_5 + s_6 + s_7$

5 S₁

5 S₂

 $10 \, s_3$

Column Cracking Notes



- MonetDB implements slicing in terms of *views*¹⁴ of the source BAT, no data copying involved. Cost free.
- $\forall x \in s_i$, $y \in s_{i+1}$: x < y: a fully cracked column ($\forall_i | s_i | = 1$) is completely ordered. This is uncommon (workload skew).
- First cracking step (①→②) copies source BAT. All further steps physically reorganize the cracker index.
- Physical cracker index reorganization ("tail shuffling")
 can be efficiently performed in-situ.

¹⁴ A possible BAT view: (source BAT, first row, last row).



Reorganize column vector a[] between row offsets start and end, relocate its elements in-situ:

• \star Either a[start] \geq hi \wedge a[end] < hi or start = end.