Trees for Huge Indexing Operations

Trees can be used to store entire records from a database, serving as an in-memory representation of the collection of records in a file.

Trees can also be used to store indices of the collection of records in a file.

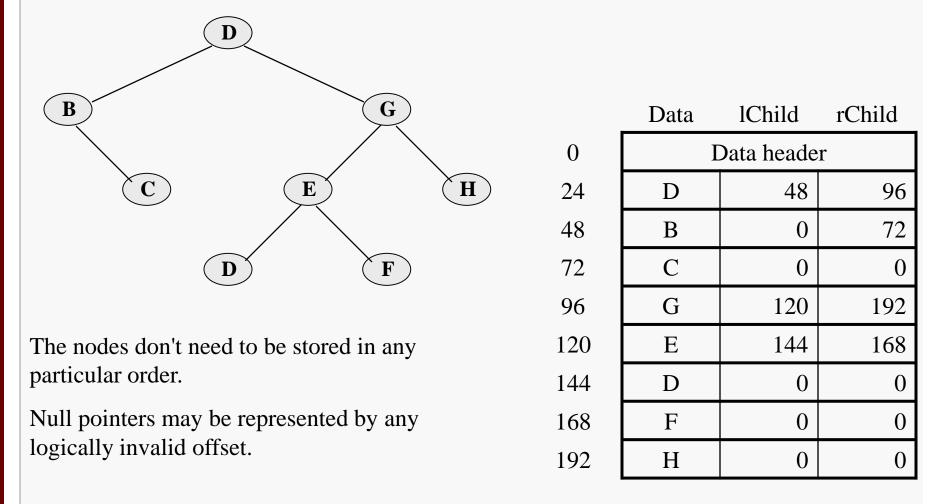
In either case, if the collection of records is quite large, the tree may be so large that it is unacceptable to store it all in memory at once.

For example, if we have a database file holding 2³⁰ records, and each index entry requires 8 bytes of storage, a BST holding the index would require 2³⁰ nodes, each taking 24 bytes of memory (assuming 64-bit pointers), or 24 GB of memory.

An alternative would be to store the entire tree in a file on disk, and only load the immediately relevant portions of it into memory...

Disk Representation

It is a relatively simple matter to write any binary tree to a disk file, by representing each tree node by a data record that holds the data element and two file offsets specifying the locations of the children, if any of that node.



Disk Representation

Some binary trees may change which node is the root, as operations are performed.

It is useful to reserve a block of space at the front of the file for bookkeeping uses:

- the offset of the root node
- description of node layout
- time of last update
- etc...

	Data	lChild	rChild	
0	Data header			
24	D	48	96	
48	В	0	72	
72	C	0	0	
96	G	120	192	
120	E	144	168	
144	D	0	0	
168	F	0	0	
192	Н	0	0	

Disk Representation

The problem is that this disk representation will require too many individual disk accesses when processing a typical tree operation, such as a search or a traversal.

Why?

These tree operations typically require transiting from a node to one or both of its children.

But there's no reason that the child nodes		Data	lChild	rChild
will be stored anywhere near the parent	0	Data header		
node (although we could at least guarantee	24	D	48	96
that siblings are adjacent).	48	В	0	72
Since each node stores only one data value, and the nodes we might well perform one	72	С	0	0
disk access for every node that is accessed	96	G	120	192
during the tree operation.	120	Е	144	168
Given the extremely slow nature of disk	144	D	0	0
access, this is unacceptable.	168	F	0	0
	192	Н	0	0

A B-tree of order *m* is a multi-way tree such that:

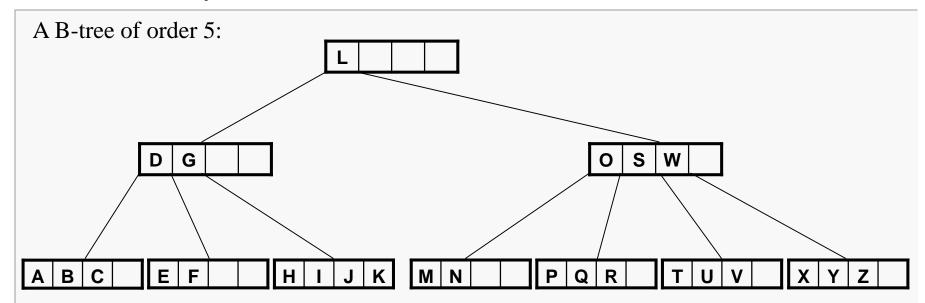
- the root has at least two subtrees, unless it is a leaf
- each nonroot and nonleaf node holds k-1 data values, and k pointers to subtrees, where

$$\lceil m/2 \rceil \le k \le m$$

- each leaf node holds k-1 data values, where $\lceil m/2 \rceil \le k \le m$
- all leaves are on the same level
- the data values in each node are in ascending order
- for all i, the data values in the first i children are less than the i-th data value
- for all i, the data values in the last m-i children are larger than the i-th data value

So, a B-tree is generally at least half full, has a relatively small number of levels, and is perfectly balanced. Typically, *m* will be fairly large.

B Tree Example



Since a binary search may be applied to the data values in each node, searching is highly efficient.

Insertion follows similar logic to the BST, with the complications that we must search the list of values in each node, and make nodes obey the more complex restriction

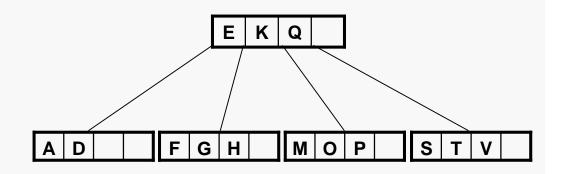
$$\lceil m/2 \rceil \le k \le m$$

where k is the number of children the node has.

The basic idea is the same: search for the appropriate leaf, add the new value, then split and promote keys upward as necessary.

For instance, inserting the values **W** and then **X** into the B tree at right would cause the right-most leaf to split and the value \mathbf{V} to be promoted to the root.

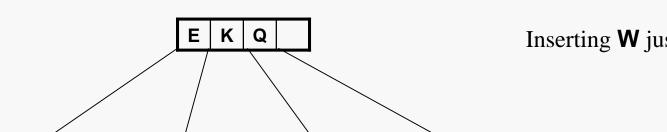
Then, inserting the value **Z** would cause the root to split, and the value **Q** to be promoted to a new root node.



F

A D

G

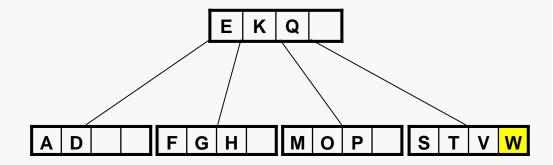


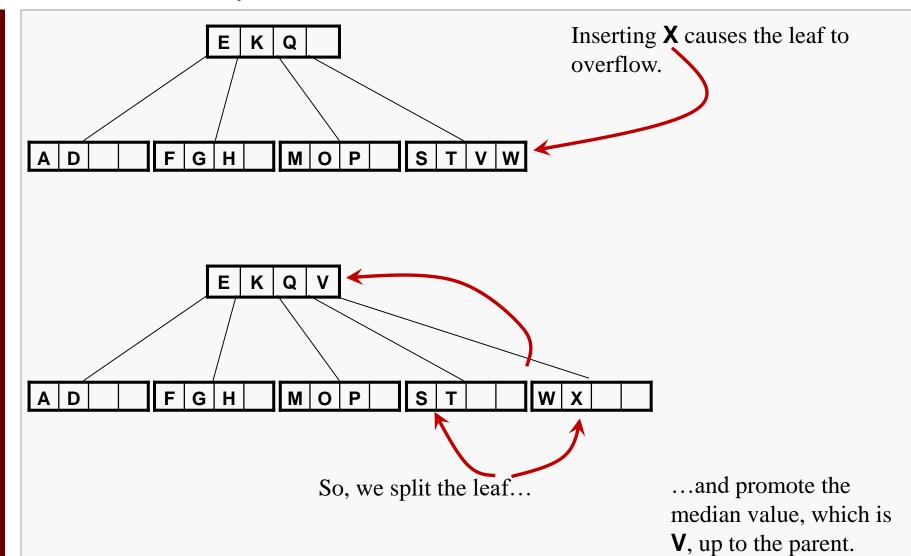
Ρ

S

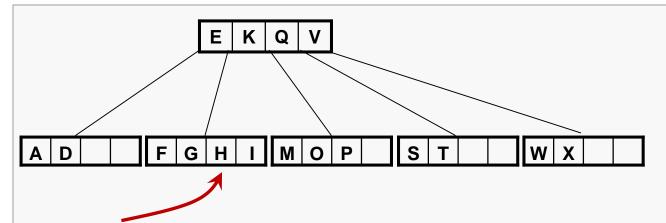
M O

Inserting **W** just fills the leaf.





The node there had room for the new value, so no further splitting occurs.

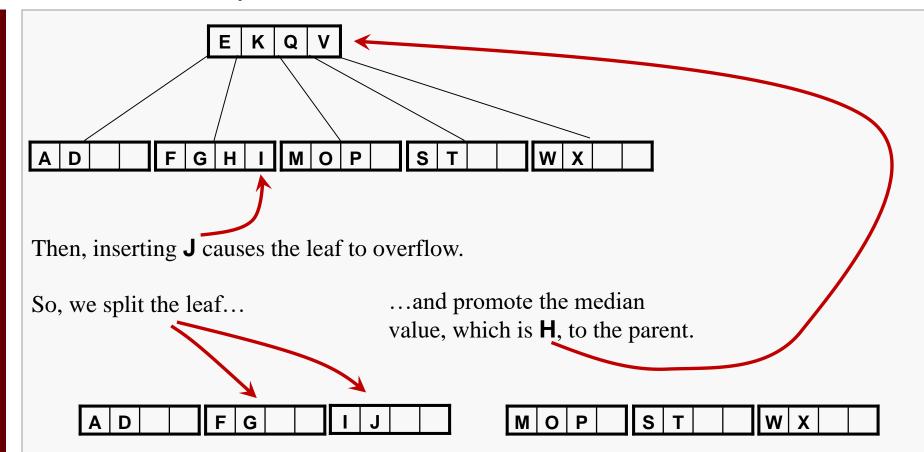


Inserting I just fills the second leaf.

Then, inserting **J** causes the leaf to overflow.

So, we split the leaf and promote the median value, which is \mathbf{H} , up to the parent.

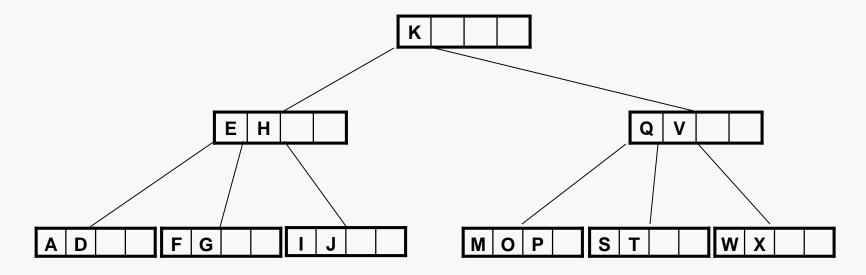
But, the parent is full, and so splitting proceeds...



But, the parent is full, and so splitting proceeds...

Insertion Example III

Splitting the root sends K up:



So, the B-tree grows by pushing up a new root, which keeps all leaves at the same level.

As you can see here, the root must be an exception to the requirement that each node contains a minimum number of data values, since root-splitting will naturally lead to a new root node holding only one value.

B Tree Insertion Algorithm

```
InsertHelper(Val, sRoot, upVal, upChild, splitHappened) {
  NULL test, on general principles
   if at leaf {
      if NOTFULL {
         insert Val
         splitHappened = false
      else {
         split off new right sibling for sRoot
         set upVal to middle value from splitting
         set upChild to new right sibling
         splitHappened = true
     return
   find index Idx of child to descend
   InsertHelper(Val, ptr[Idx], upVal, upChild, splitHappened)
```

Note: this started as an implementation in C++; adapt to the language of your choice...

B Tree Insertion Algorithm

```
if ( splitHappened ) {
   if NOTFULL {
      insert upVal and upChild to sRoot
      splitHappened = false
   }
   else {
      split off new right sibling for sRoot
      set upVal to middle value from splitting
      set upChild to new right sibling
      splitHappened = true
   }
}
return
```

If we let $q = \lceil m/2 \rceil$ then we can derive an upper bound on the height of the B-tree storing n key values:

$$h \le \log_q \left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right) + 1$$

This is very small. For example, if m = 200 and n = 2,000,000 then $h \le 4$.

But don't get too excited by this. The cost of doing a binary search of the data values in a node would be at least $\log_2(q)$, and if we do that at each level in the tree, the total cost would be

$$\Theta\left(\log(q) \cdot \log_q\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)\right) = \Theta\left(\log\left(\frac{n+1}{2}\right)\right) = \Theta\left(\log n\right)$$

Keep in mind that the motivation is to find a tree structure that can be efficiently stored to disk, and matching the search cost of a perfectly balanced binary tree is a plus.

Cost of Splitting

It would seem that the primary concern about the cost of insertion would be the number of splits that must be performed (everything else is essentially analogous to BST insertion).

It is possible to show that as n increases, the average probability of a split is approximated by

$$\frac{1}{\lceil m/2 \rceil - 1}$$

So, for example, if m = 100 then the probability of a split is about 2%. That shouldn't be surprising.

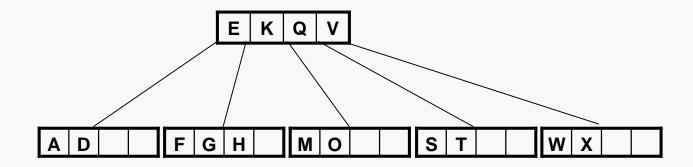
Splitting a node is fairly expensive since about half the data values in the node must be moved to a new location, but for typical B-trees it won't be required all that often.

B Tree Deletion

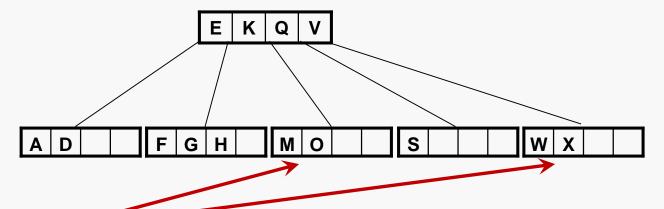
Deletion of a value from a node has an interesting consequence, since the number of children is related to the number of values in the node.

For a leaf node, deleting a value may drop the number of data values in the node below the mandatory floor. If that happens, the leaf must borrow a value from an adjacent sibling node if one has a value to spare, or be merged with an adjacent sibling node. But the latter will decrease the number of children the parent node has, and so a value must be moved from the parent node into the merged leaf.

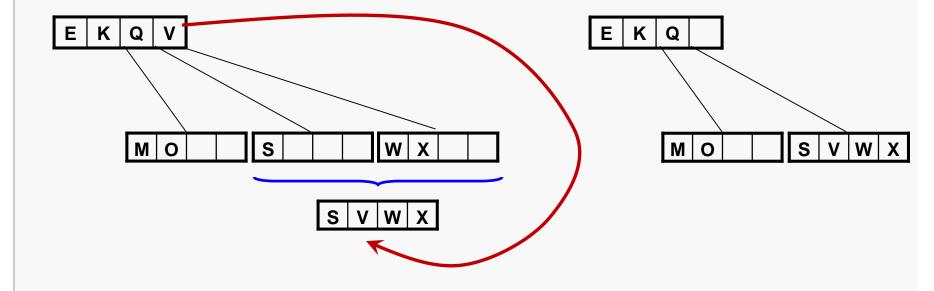
Consider deleting **T** from the B-tree of order 5 below:



Removing **T** from the leaf causes it to "underflow".



Neither sibling node has a value to spare. So we must merge with a sibling:

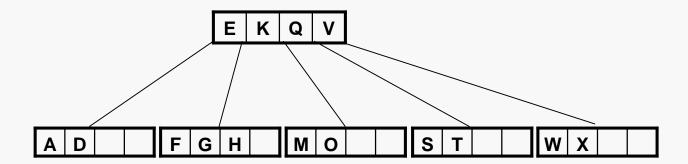


Deleting a value from an internal node is accomplished by reducing it to the former case.

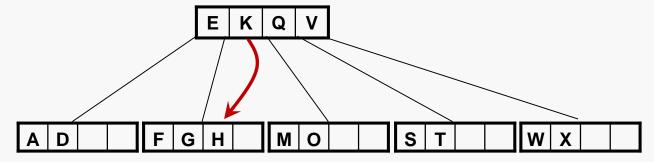
Denote the value to be deleted by V_{κ} .

The immediate predecessor of V_K , which must be in a leaf node, is borrowed to replace the value that is being deleted, and then deleted from the leaf node.

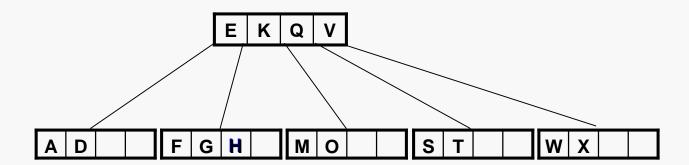
Consider deleting **K** from the following B-tree of order 5:



The immediate predecessor of K is the largest value in the right-most leaf below the child that lies to the left of K:



The immediate predecessor is copied to replace the value being deleted and then removed from the leaf (trivial case this time):



B Tree Deletion Algorithm

```
DeleteHelper(Val, sRoot, underflowHappened) {
  NULL test, on general principles
   search sRoot for Val or closest predecessor
   if Val does not occur in sRoot {
      DeleteHelper (Val, appropriate child, underflowHappened)
      if success and underflowHappened {
         if can borrow {
            borrow value from appropriate child
         else {
            merge appropriate children
            adjust sRoot to account for merge
            set underflowHappened
      return
   else if sRoot is a leaf {
     delete Val from sRoot
     set underflowHappened
     return
```

Note: this started as an implementation in C++; adapt to the language of your choice...

B Tree Deletion Algorithm

```
else {
   replace Val in sRoot with closest predecessor
   DeleteHelpher(closest predecessor, left subtree from Val,
                 underflowHappened)
   if success and underflowHappened {
      if can borrow {
         borrow value from appropriate child
      else {
         merge appropriate children
         adjust sRoot to account for merge
         set underflowHappened
   return
return
```

B Tree Storage Efficiency

In a B tree:

- nodes are guaranteed to be (essentially) at least 50% full
- node could also be only 50% full, wasting half the data space in the nodes
- but that "wasted" space is available to service future insertions
- analysis and simulation indicates that in typical use a B tree will be about 70% full

This expectation of wasted space is a motivation for some variants of the basic B tree.

In B* trees:

- all nodes except the root are required to be at least 2/3 full rather than 1/2 full
- splitting transforms 2 nodes into 3, rather than 1 node into 2
- analysis indicates the average utilization of a B* tree will be about 81%
- can be generalized to specify a fill factor of (n+1)/(n+2); a B^n tree

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In B+ trees:

- Internal nodes store only key values and pointers*.
- All records, or pointers to records, are stored in leaves.
- Commonly, the leaves are simply the logical blocks of a database file index, storing key values and offsets. In this case, many key values will occur twice in the tree, once at an internal node to guide searching, and again in a leaf.
- If the leaves are simply an index, it is common to implement the leaf level as a linked list of B tree nodes... why?

The B+ tree is the most commonly implemented variant of the B-tree family, and the structure of choice for large databases.

* In small databases, it is fairly common to use a B-tree as a direct data structure, with nodes storing records.

Of course, the point is that we will store the nodes persistently on disk.

So, how will we lay out the node in a file?

- write alternating pointer (offset) and data values?
- write the key values as a block and the pointers as a block?
- what other values are necessary?

There are a number of options... it will be up to you to pick one.

And, of course, the nature of the data values must be taken into account.

- fixed-length simple data values?
- variable-length or otherwise complex data values
- text format or binary format?