# CSE 326: Data Structures B-Trees and B+ Trees

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3

## Announcements (4/30/08)

- · Midterm on Friday
- Special office hour: 4:30-5:30 Thursday in Jaech Gallery (6<sup>th</sup> floor of CSE building)
  - This is *instead of* my usual 11am office hour.
- Reading for this lecture: Weiss Sec. 4.7

2

## Traversing very large datasets

Suppose we had very many pieces of data (as in a database), e.g.,  $n = 2^{30} \approx 10^9$ .

How many (worst case) hops through the tree to find a node?

- BST
- AVL
- Splay

# Memory considerations

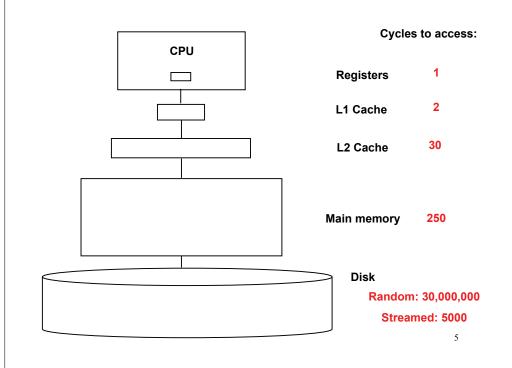
What is in a tree node? In an object?

```
Node:
Object obj;
Node left;
Node right;
Node parent;
Object:
Key key;
...data...
```

Suppose the data is 1KB.

How much space does the tree take?

How much of the data can live in 1GB of RAM?



# Minimizing random disk access

In our example, almost all of our data structure is on disk.

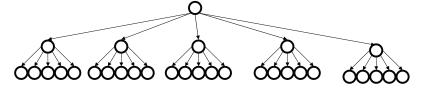
Thus, hopping through a tree amounts to random accesses to disk. Ouch!

How can we address this problem?

6

# *M*-ary Search Tree

Suppose, *somehow*, we devised a search tree with maximum branching factor *M*:



Complete tree has height:

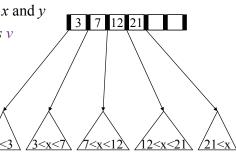
# hops for *find*:

Runtime of *find*:

## **B-Trees**

How do we make an *M*-ary search tree work?

- Each **node** has (up to) M-1 keys.
- Order property:
  - subtree between two keys x and y contain leaves with values v
     such that x < y < y</li>



## **B-Tree Structure Properties**

## Root (special case)

- has between 2 and M children (or root could be a leaf)

#### Internal nodes

- store up to M-1 keys
- have between  $\lceil M/2 \rceil$  and M children

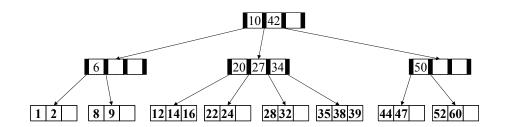
### Leaf nodes

- store between  $\lceil (M-1)/2 \rceil$  and M-1 sorted keys
- all at the same depth

9

## B-Tree: Example

B-Tree with M = 4



10

## B+ Trees

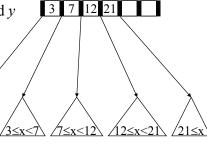
In a B+ tree, the internal nodes have no data – only the leaves do!

- Each internal node still has (up to) *M*-1 keys:
- Order property:

- subtree between two keys x and y contain leaves with *values* y such that  $x \le y < y$ 

Note the "≤"

• Leaf nodes have up to *L* sorted keys.



## B+ Tree Structure Properties

## Root (special case)

- has between 2 and **M** children (or root could be a leaf)

#### Internal nodes

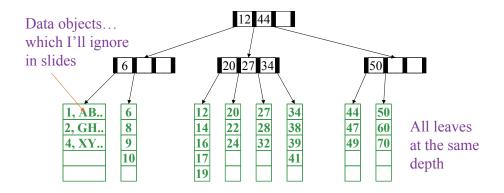
- store up to M-1 keys
- have between  $\lceil M/2 \rceil$  and M children

### Leaf nodes

- where data is stored
- all at the same depth
- contain between  $\lceil L/2 \rceil$  and L data items

## B+ Tree: Example

B+ Tree with M = 4 (# pointers in internal node) and L = 5 (# data items in leaf)



Definition for later: "neighbor" is the next sibling to the left or right.

## B+ trees vs. AVL trees

Suppose again we have  $n = 2^{30} \approx 10^9$  items:

- Depth of AVL Tree
- Depth of B+ Tree with M = 256, L = 256

Great, but how to we actually make a B+ tree and keep it balanced...?

## Disk Friendliness

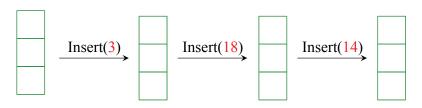
What makes B+ trees disk-friendly?

- 1. Many keys stored in a node
  - All brought to memory/cache in one disk access.
- 2. Internal nodes contain *only* keys;

  Only leaf nodes contain keys and actual *data* 
  - Much of tree structure can be loaded into memory irrespective of data object size
  - Data actually resides in disk

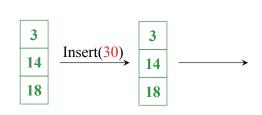
14

## Building a B+ Tree with Insertions



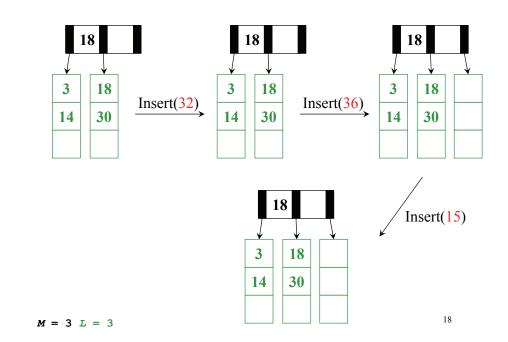
The empty B-Tree

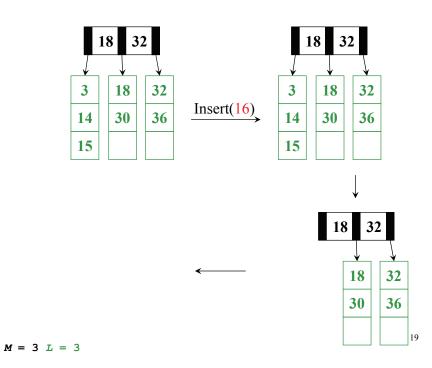
$$M = 3 L = 3$$

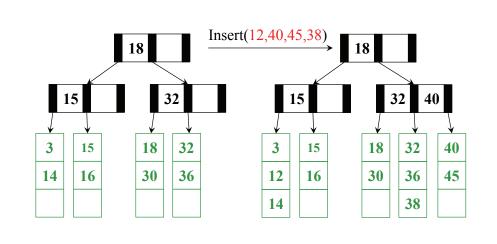


M = 3 L = 3

17







M = 3 L = 3

## Insertion Algorithm

- 1. Insert the key in its leaf in sorted order
- 2. If the leaf ends up with L+1 items, **overflow**!
  - Split the leaf into two nodes:
    - original with  $\lceil (L+1)/2 \rceil$  items
    - new one with \(\( (L+1) /2 \) items
  - Add the new child to the parent
  - If the parent ends up with M+1 children, overflow!

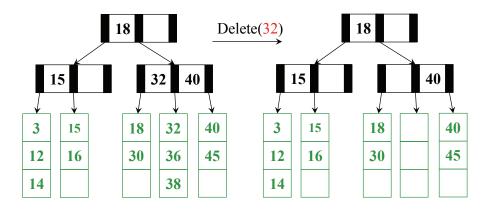
This makes the tree deeper!

- 3. If an internal node ends up with M+1 children, **overflow!** 
  - Split the node into two nodes:
    - original with \( (M+1) /2 \) children
    - new one with \[ (M+1)/2 \] children
  - Add the new child to the parent
  - If the parent ends up with M+1 items, overflow!

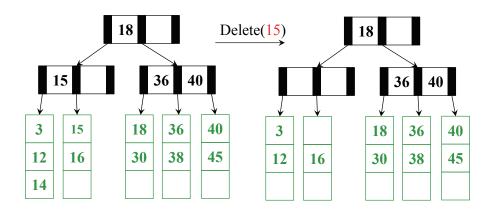
23

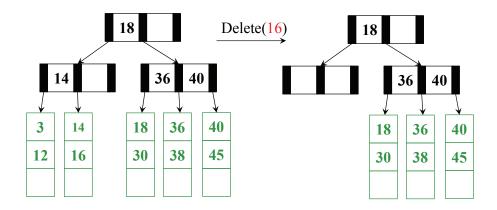
- 4. Split an overflowed root in two and hang the new nodes under a new root
- 5. Propagate keys up tree. 21

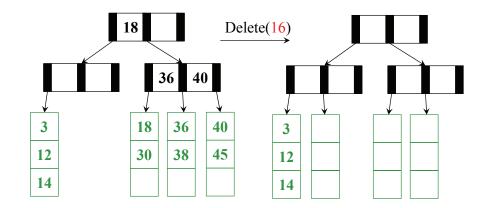
## And Now for Deletion...



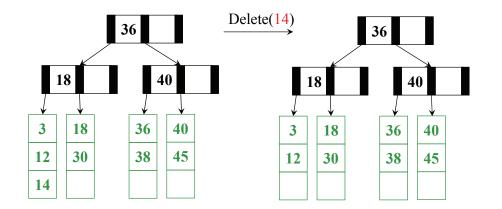
M = 3 L = 3



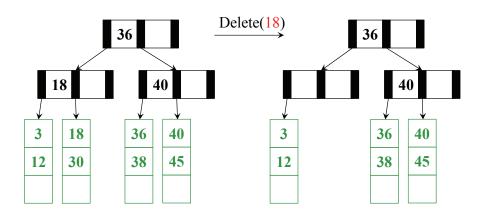




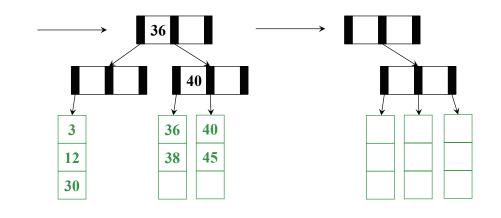
M = 3 L = 3 25



M = 3 L = 3 26



27



28

M = 3 L = 3

# Deletion Algorithm

- 1. Remove the key from its leaf
- 2. If the leaf ends up with fewer than [L/2] items, underflow!
  - Adopt data from a neighbor; update the parent
  - If adopting won't work, delete node and merge with neighbor
  - If the parent ends up with fewer than [M/2] children. underflow!

Deletion Slide Two

- 3. If an internal node ends up with fewer than [M/2] children, underflow!
  - Adopt from a neighbor; update the parent
  - If adoption won't work, merge with neighbor
  - If the parent ends up with fewer than  $\lceil M/2 \rceil$ children, underflow!
- 4. If the root ends up with only one child, make the child the new root of the tree
- 5. Propagate keys up through tree.

This reduces the height of the tree!

30

# Thinking about B+ Trees

- B+ Tree insertion can cause (expensive) splitting and propagation
- B+ Tree deletion can cause (cheap) adoption or (expensive) deletion, merging and propagation
- Propagation is rare if **M** and **L** are large (Why?)
- Pick branching factor **M** and data items/leaf **L** such that each node takes one full page/block of memory/disk.

## Tree Names You Might Encounter

#### FYI:

- B-Trees with M = 3, L = x are called 2-3 trees
  - Nodes can have 2 or 3 keys
- B-Trees with M = 4, L = x are called 2-3-4 trees
  - Nodes can have 2, 3, or 4 keys