

# COSC2406/2407 Database Systems

## File Organisations and Indexing

# Assignment Project Exam Help

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Thursdays

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Lecture 4

References: Ramakrishnan & Gehrke Chapter 8

Garcia-Molina et al. Chapter 13

Elmasri & Navathe Chapters 5 & 6

# Slot Offset Table in Apache Derby [from last lecture]

Slot Offset Table contains of 6 bytes (12 bytes when pagesize > 64KiB) per record:

- 2 bytes page offset for record
- 2 bytes length of record on this page
- 2 bytes  
this

Note: 1 KiB (kibibyte) =  $1024$  bytes  
similarly 1 MiB (mebibyte) =  $1024^2$  bytes  
to avoid confusion with 1 MB (megabyte)  
etc

<http://db.apache.org/derby/papers/pageformats.html>

In the first part of this lecture, we will:

- Introduce the cost model
- Analyse three common file organisations:

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In the second part of this lecture, we will continue with indexes.

- Discuss properties of an index
- Discuss alternatives for data entries in an index

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In our discussion we will use a simple cost model.

The cost metric is the number of disk-block I/Os.

Usually the number of I/Os is the dominant cost in database applications. We ignore CP (cache access).

We express

- $B$ : the number of blocks in the database
- $D$ : (average) time to transfer a disk block

(The average-case analyses here are based on several assumptions.)

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Aside from CPU costs and *blocked* access in our cost model we will ignore:

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- tim

In 2003 the

order of 15 milliseconds. Therefore, I/O is the dom

These trends will continue to diverge: CPU spee

more quickly than disk access speeds — both hav  
factor of over 100 since 2003.

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# Example

We will consider a file that stores data from the following Character

relation:

NAME	LEVEL	CLASS
Varra	19	Hunter
Meerkat	18	
Shaka	9	
Cass	15	
Otho	24	

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan:

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Se

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential scan
- Sequential scan

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Search: Fetch records matching a given key
- Insert: Add a new record to the file
- Delete: Remove a record from the file
- Update: Modify a record in the file
- Indexing: Create and maintain an index
- Join: Combine records from two files
- Aggregation: Summarize data
- Sorting: Order records
- Partitioning: Divide data into smaller chunks
- Replication: Copy data for redundancy
- Backup: Create a copy of the data
- Recovery: Restore data after a failure
- Compression: Reduce the size of the data
- Encryption: Protect data from unauthorized access
- Auditing: Monitor data access and usage
- Archiving: Store data for long-term retention
- Migration: Move data from one system to another
- Partitioning: Divide data into smaller chunks
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- Migration: Move data from one system to another

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential scan
- Equi-join
- File join
- Sequential join

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential selection
- Sequential equijoin
- File selection

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential selection
- Equijoin
- Find all records of characters with /

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential selection
- Equijoin
- Find all records of characters with /
- Insert:

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential Access: Fetch records sequentially from the file
- Sequential Access with Selection: Find all records of characters with 'F'
- Insert: Insert a single, new record into the file
- Delete:

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The operations we analyse are those identified last lecture:

- Scan: Fetch all records in the file
- Sequential Access: Fetch records sequentially from the file
- Selection: Find all records of characters with /
- Insert: Insert a single, new record into the file
- Delete: Delete a single record specified by record id

## Example (again)

We will consider a file that stores data from the following Character

relation:

NAME	LEVEL	CLASS
Varra	19	Hunter
Meerkat	18	
Shaka	2	
Cass	15	
Otho	24	Hunter

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Records are unordered:

Frost	38	Mage
Shaka	2	
Cass	15	
Otho	24	

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Remember that in a heap file, records in the file are unorganised. Here, for simplicity, we assume insertions are always at the end of file. Equality selections are on a unique key, that is, we have exactly one match.

Access costs on average:

- Sca
- Equ
- Range Search:  $BD$
- Insert:  $2D$
- Delete:  $\text{Search} + D$

To ensure a compact heap file, we need to keep and update a free space list for deletions and insertions (using the structures we discussed last week).

# Linear Search

We wish to search for a data entry with key value 73 in the following array of 16 items:

Slot	0														14	15
Key	7														92	94

For a linear search, the average cost is:

$$\frac{N+1}{2} = \frac{16+1}{2} = 8.5$$

# Binary Search

Suppose that we again wish to search for a data entry with key value 73 in the following array of 16 items, this time using *binary search*.

Slot	0													14	15
Key	7													92	94

For a binary search, the average cost is:

$$\log_2 N = \log_2 16$$

Records are sorted on name:

Cass	15	Mage
Otho	24	
Shaka	2	
Varra	19	

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# Sorted Files

A sorted file is like a heap file, but the file is sorted on a sequence of fields, which we call the *search key*.

A *search key* need not uniquely identify records. We can locate a record using a binary search on the search key.

I/O cost on

- Scan
- Equality Search:  $D \log_2 B$
- Range Search:  $D(\log_2 B + \text{number of } p)$
- Insert: Search +  $BD$
- Delete: Search +  $BD$

Inserting and expanding records can be problematic.

Hash function:  $\text{level} \bmod 3$

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Hash function:  $\text{level} \bmod 3$

	Cass	15	Mage
2	Frost Moon Shaka	38 20 2	Shaman

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Suppose that 100 records are to be stored in a file, and that 10 records can fit on one page.

- How many pages are needed?

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Now suppose

- How many records fit on one page?

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- How many pages are needed in total?

# Static Hashed Files

The pages in a hashed file are grouped into buckets. We can apply a hash function to the search key to find out the bucket number to which a record belongs. We assume that we do not have overflow buckets. The page occupancy is assumed to be 80%. I/O cost on average:

- Search:  $\frac{1}{0.8}$  (cords)
- Equi-join:  $\frac{1}{0.8}$
- Range query:  $\frac{1}{0.8}$
- Insert:  $2D$
- Delete:  $2D$

Overflowing buckets decrease the performance of Dynamic hash structures such as *Linear Hashing*, and *Extendible Hashing* address this problem.

## Cost of Operation : Summary

Access Method	Heap File	Sorted File	Hashed File
Scan	$BD$	$BD$	$1.25BD$
Equality	0		
Range S			
Insert	2		
Delete	Search $+D$	Search	

No file organisation is uniformly superior in all situations. The choice of organisation depends on the types of operations that are most frequently performed on the data. The organisation should be chosen to speed up operations that are not efficiently supported by the current organisation.

- Heap files: suitable when the typical access is a file scan to retrieve all records
- Sorted or *sequential files*: best if records must be retrieved in so
- Hashed files: best if records must be retrieved by a key value
  - File is a collection of *buckets*;  
Bucket = *primary* page plus zero or more overflow pages
  - Hashing function  $h$  maps a record  $r$  to a bucket  $b$  at some of the fields of  $r$ , called the *hash key*

Each file organisation works well for some situations but not for all.

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An *Index* on a file speeds up selections on the *search key*

- Any subset of the fields of a relation can be the search key of an ind
- A *secondary index* is an index that

An index contains a collection of *data entries*  
retrieval of all data entries  $k_i$  with a given  $s$   
There are three alternatives for a data entry

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# Alternatives for the Data Entry $k_*$ in an Index

Three alternatives:

- 1 Data record with search key value  $k$
- 2  $(k, \text{rid of data record with search key value } k)$
- 3  $(k, \text{li})$

The choice of index technique can use one of the three alternatives.

Examples of indexing techniques include B+-tree structures.

Typically, an index contains auxiliary information to the desired data entries (for example, index entries in index pages in a B+-tree).

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- Alternative 1:

- If this is used, the index structure is in fact a file organisation for

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- If data records are very large, the number of entries is high. This typically implies that the information in the index is also large.

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# An Alternative 1 Index

An Alternative 1 index on level1:

Shaka	2	Shaman
Moon	20	
Otho	24	
Frost	38	

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- Alternatives 2 and 3:

- 

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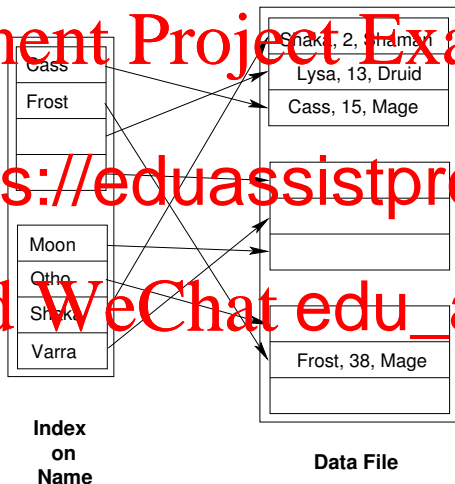
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- Alternative 3 is most compact, but the variability of entries is harder to handle (lists can grow a

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## Alternative 2 Index

An Alternative 2 index on name:



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- *Primary vs. secondary:* If the search key contains the primary key, then the index is the primary index.
- 
- *Clustered vs. non-clustered:*
  - *Clustered:* The index is clustered or “clustered” if the index is clustered or not
  - Using alternative 1 implies a clustered index
  - A file can be clustered at most on one search key
  - The cost of retrieving data records greatly depends on whether the index is clustered or not

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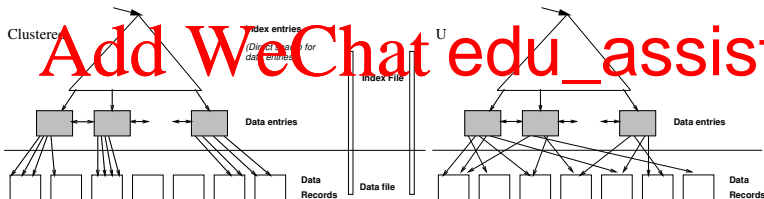
# Clustered vs. Unclustered Indexes

Consider using alternative 2 used for the data entries and storing the data records in a heap file.

- To build clustered index, first sort the heap file (leaving free space on each page for future inserts).

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# Dense vs. Sparse Indexes

- *Dense vs sparse*: If there is (at least) one data entry in the index for each search key value then the index is dense. In a sparse index, we may have one data entry in the index for a page or set of

rec

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order)

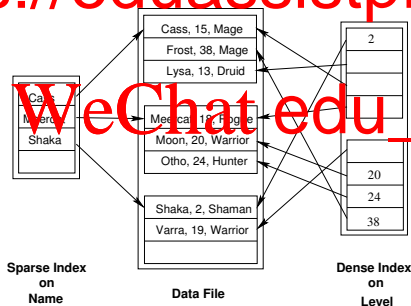
- There is only one sparse index (since we can use a dense index)
- Sparse indexes are smaller; however, they are based on dense indexes (refer to Section 12.5.2 of Ramakrishnan & Gehrke)



# Dense vs. Sparse Indexes ...

The first index shown below is a sparse, clustered index on *name*. The order of data entries in the index corresponds to the order of records in the data file. There is one data entry per page of records.

The second index is a dense, unclustered index on *level*. The order of data entries in the index differs from the order of data records. (There is one data entry in the i



# Advantages and Disadvantages

- Clustered index: good for range queries. *Rids* of qualifying index entries point to a contiguous collection of records, hence few page I/Os
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mat  
add
- De  
memory; can find a record with one I/O. Can d  
alone whether a record exists
- Sparse index: smaller than a dense index, s  
memory and can be searched quickly. However, may need to to  
an I/O just to check whether a record exists

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- Many alternative file organisations exist, each is appropriate for particular situations

- If sel  
ind

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and also good for equality searches

- An index is a collection of data entries, plus a w  
entries with given key values

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- Index data entries can be actual data records, (key, rid) pairs, or (key, rid-list) pairs.
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- Indexes can be classified as clustered or unclustered, primary or secondary, and dense or sparse. Different index types have different consequences for utility and performance.

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# Summary: File Organisations and Properties of Indexes

We have discussed:

- A file-access cost model based on the number of disk page I/Os as the cost metric.
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- the p
- 
- *dense* vs. *sparse*;
- *primary* vs. *secondary*.
- Alternatives for the index data entries  $k$

In the next few lectures, we will cover hash-based indexing and tree-based indexing techniques like the B+ tree. We will also discuss a related topic, the external merge sort.