



Chapter 14: Indexing

Database System Concepts, 7th Ed.

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Outline

- Basic Concepts
- Ordered Indices
- B⁺-Tree Index Files
- B-Tree Index Files
- Hashing
- Write-optimized indices
- Spatio-Temporal Indexing



Basic Concepts

- Indexing mechanisms used to speed up access to desired data.
 - E.g., author catalog in library
- **Search Key** - attribute or set of attributes used to look up records in a file.
- An **index file** consists of records (called **index entries**) of the form



- Index files are typically much smaller than the original file
- Two basic kinds of indices:
 - **Ordered indices:** search keys are stored in sorted order
 - **Hash indices:** search keys are distributed uniformly across “buckets” using a “hash function”.



Index Evaluation Metrics

- Access types supported efficiently. E.g.,
 - Records with a specified value in the attribute
 - Records with an attribute value falling in a specified range of values.
- Access time
- Insertion time
- Deletion time
- Space overhead



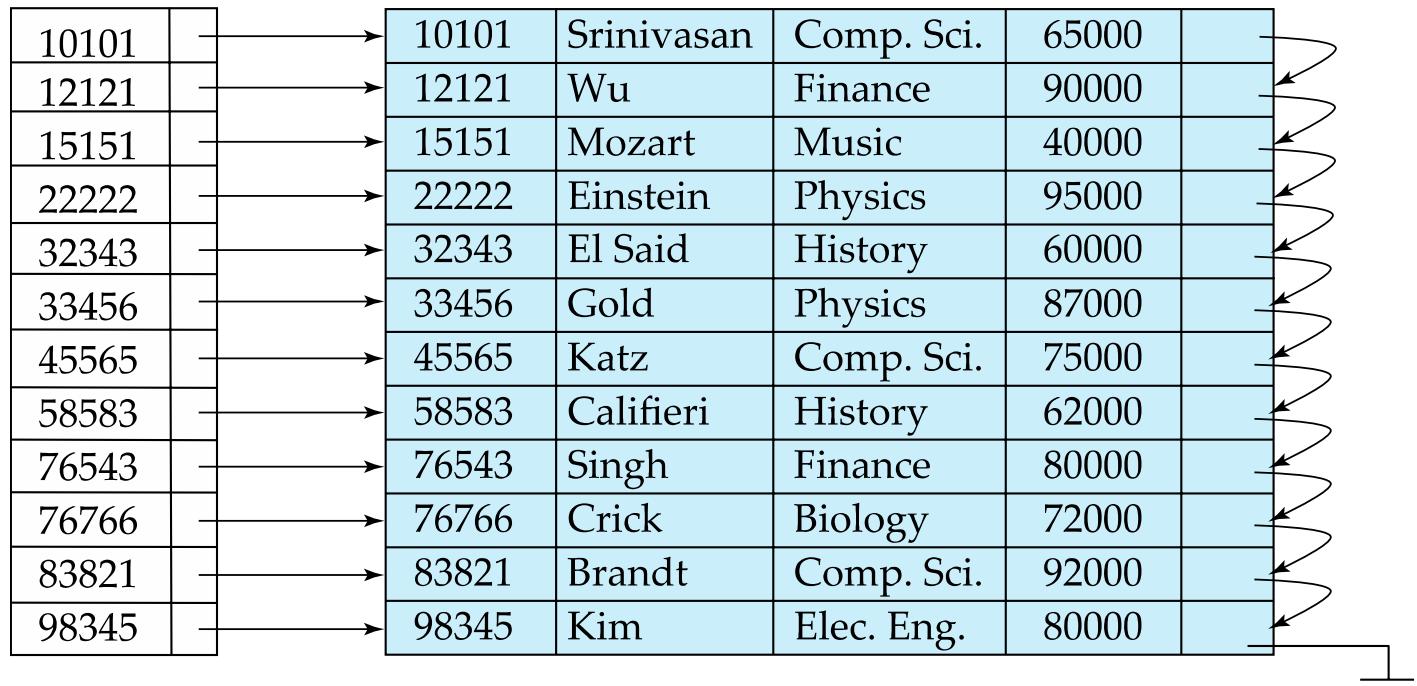
Ordered Indices

- In an **ordered index**, index entries are stored sorted on the search key value.
- **Clustering index**: in a sequentially ordered file, the index whose search key specifies the sequential order of the file.
 - Also called **primary index**
 - The search key of a primary index is usually but not necessarily the primary key.
- **Secondary index**: an index whose search key specifies an order different from the sequential order of the file. Also called **nonclustering index**.
- **Index-sequential file**: sequential file ordered on a search key, with a clustering index on the search key.



Dense Index Files

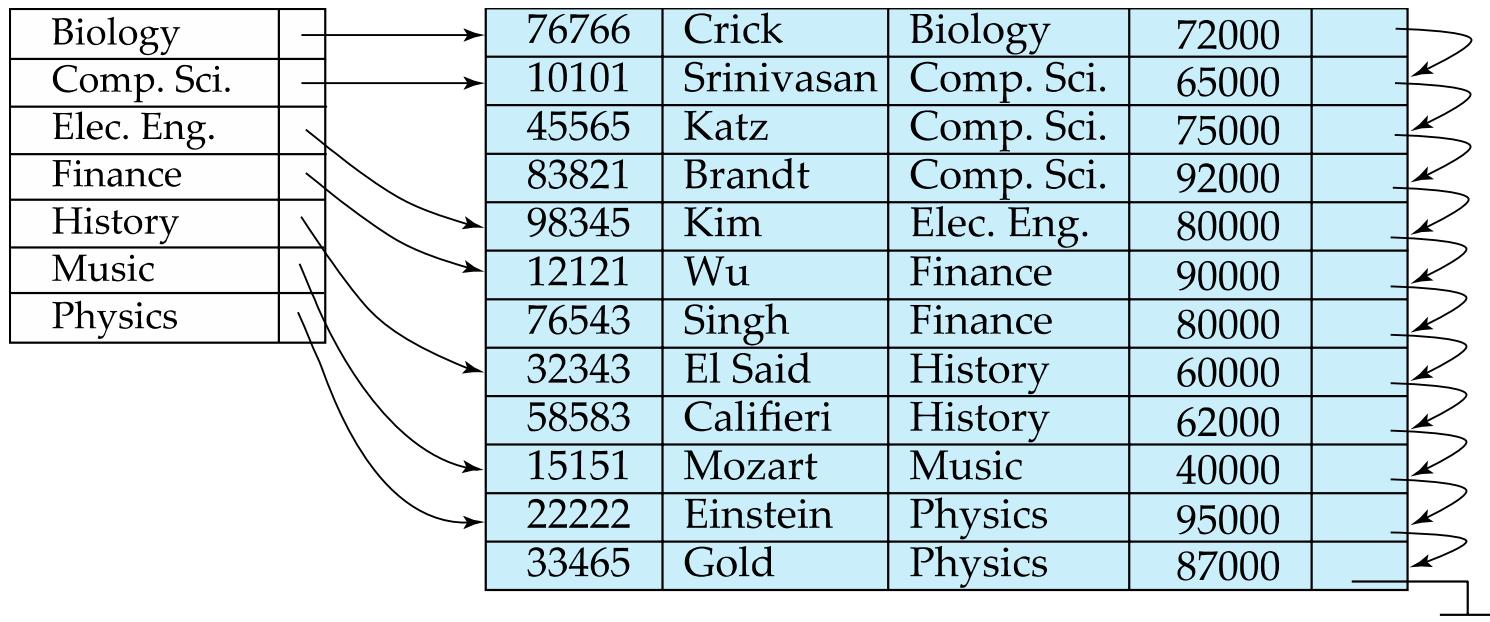
- **Dense index** — Index record appears for every search-key value in the file, and it is ordered by the search-key
- E.g. index on *ID* attribute of *instructor* relation





Dense Index Files (Cont.)

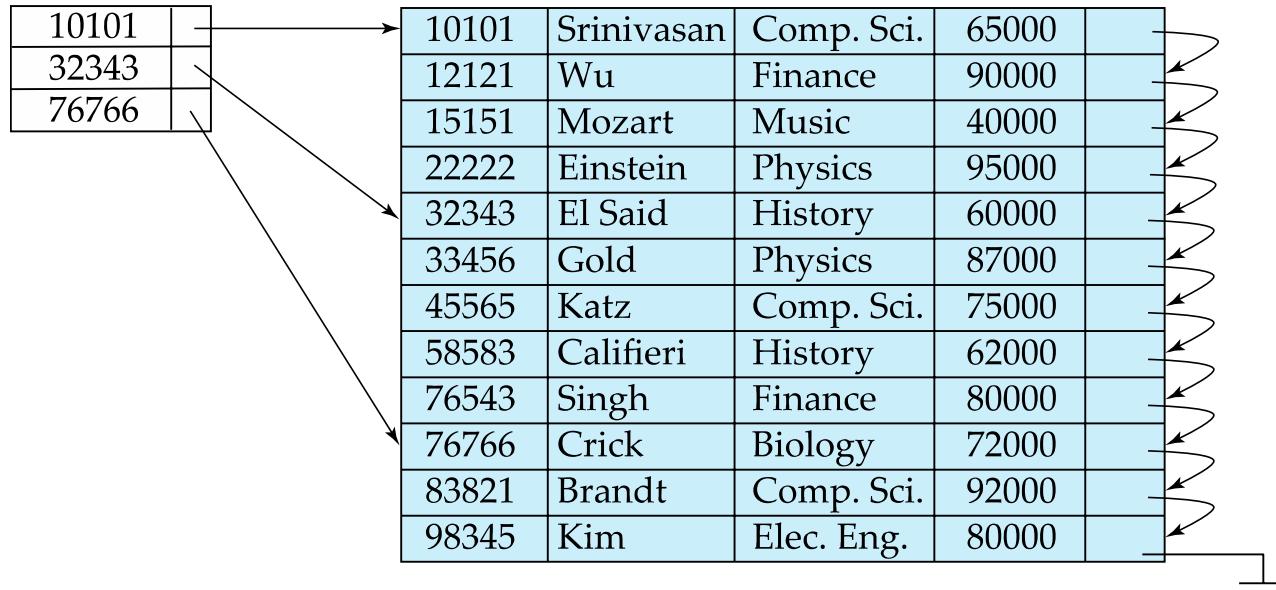
- Dense index on *dept_name*, with *instructor* file sorted on *dept_name*





Sparse Index Files

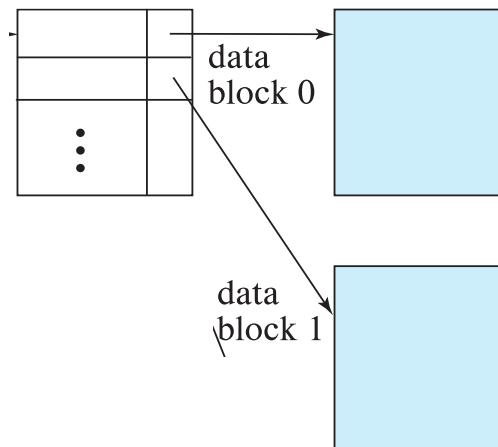
- **Sparse Index:** contains index records for only some search-key values.
 - Applicable when records are sequentially ordered on search-key (i.e. clustering indices)
- To locate a record with search-key value K we:
 - Find index record with largest search-key value $< K$
 - Search file sequentially starting at the record to which the index record points





Sparse Index Files (Cont.)

- Compared to dense indices:
 - Less space and less maintenance overhead for insertions and deletions.
 - Generally slower than dense index for locating records.
- **Good tradeoff:**
 - for clustered index: sparse index with an index entry for every block in file, corresponding to least search-key value in the block.

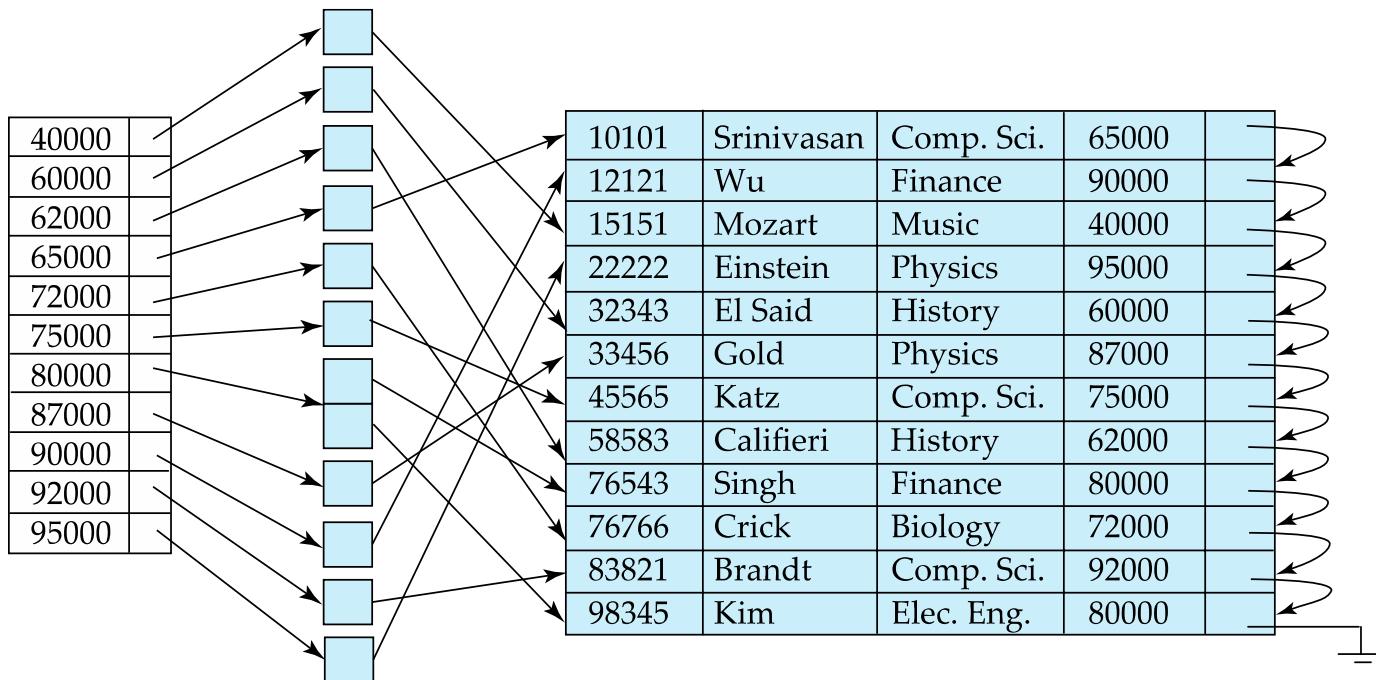


- For unclustered index: sparse index on top of dense index because the dense index is ordered by the search key (multilevel index)



Secondary Indices Example

- Secondary index on salary field of instructor



- Index record points to a bucket that contains pointers to all the actual records with that particular search-key value.
- Secondary indices have to be dense



Clustering vs Nonclustering Indices

- Indices offer substantial benefits when searching for records.
- BUT: indices imposes overhead on database modification
 - when a record is inserted or deleted, every index on the relation must be updated
 - When a record is updated, any index on an updated attribute must be updated
- Sequential scan using clustering index is efficient, but a sequential scan using a secondary (nonclustering) index is expensive on magnetic disk
 - Each record access may fetch a new block from disk
 - Each block fetch on magnetic disk requires about 5 to 10 milliseconds

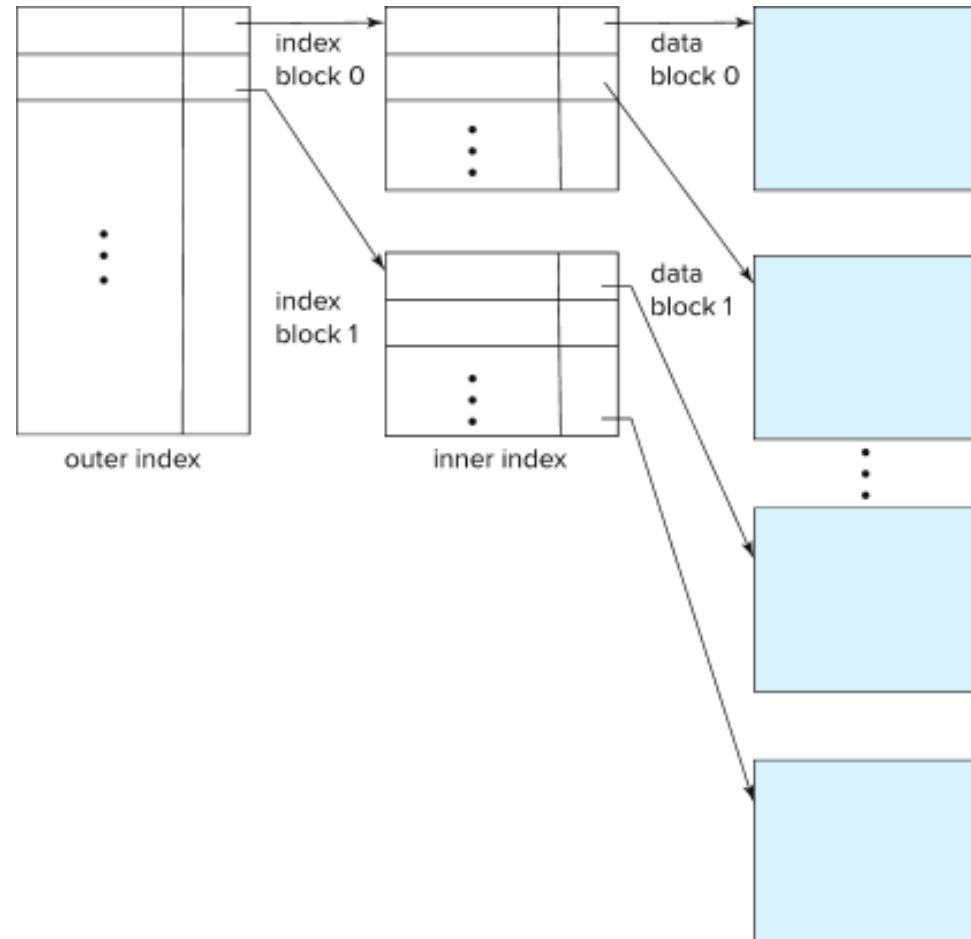


Multilevel Index

- If index does not fit in memory, access becomes expensive.
- Solution: treat index kept on disk as a sequential file and construct a sparse index on it.
 - outer index – a sparse index of the basic index
 - inner index – the basic index file
- If even outer index is too large to fit in main memory, yet another level of index can be created, and so on.
- Indices at all levels must be updated on insertion or deletion from the file.



Multilevel Index (Cont.)





Index Update: Deletion

- If deleted record was the only record in the file with its particular search-key value, the search-key is deleted from the index also.
- **Single-level index entry deletion:**
 - **Dense indices** – deletion of search-key is similar to file record deletion.
 - **Sparse indices** –
 - if an entry for the search key exists in the index, it is deleted by replacing the entry in the index with the next search-key value in the file (in search-key order).
 - If the next search-key value already has an index entry, the entry is deleted instead of being replaced.

10101	-	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
32343	-	12121	Wu	Finance	90000
76766	-	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
		22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
		32343	El Said	History	60000
		33456	Gold	Physics	87000
		45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
		58583	Califieri	History	62000
		76543	Singh	Finance	80000
		76766	Crick	Biology	72000
		83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
		98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000



Index Update: Insertion

- **Single-level index insertion:**
 - Perform a lookup using the search-key value of the record to be inserted.
 - **Dense indices** – if the search-key value does not appear in the index, insert it
 - Indices are maintained as sequential files
 - Need to create space for new entry, overflow blocks may be required
 - **Sparse indices** – if index stores an entry for each block of the file, no change needs to be made to the index unless a new block is created.
 - If a new block is created, the first search-key value appearing in the new block is inserted into the index.
- **Multilevel insertion and deletion:** algorithms are simple extensions of the single-level algorithms



Indices on Multiple Keys

- **Composite search key**

- E.g., index on *instructor* relation on attributes (*name*, *ID*)
- Values are sorted lexicographically
 - E.g. (John, 12121) < (John, 13514) and
(John, 13514) < (Peter, 11223)
- Can query on just *name*, or on (*name*, *ID*)

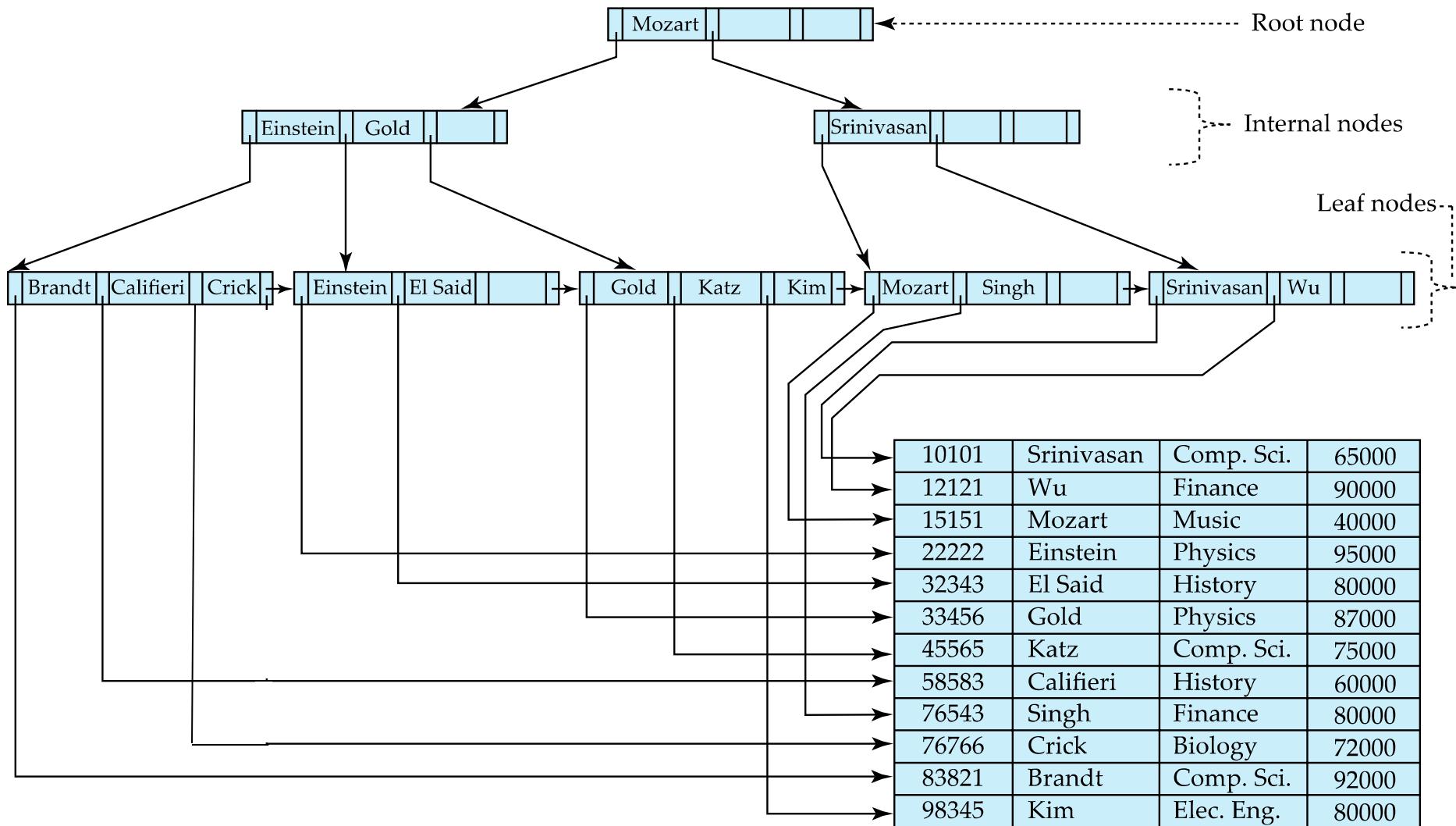


B⁺-Tree Index Files

- Disadvantage of indexed-sequential files
 - Performance degrades as file grows, since many overflow blocks get created.
 - Periodic reorganization of entire file is required.
- Advantage of B⁺-tree index files:
 - Automatically reorganizes itself with small, local, changes, in the face of insertions and deletions.
 - Reorganization of entire file is not required to maintain performance.
- (Minor) disadvantage of B⁺-trees:
 - Extra insertion and deletion overhead, space overhead.
- Advantages of B⁺-trees outweigh disadvantages
 - B⁺-trees are used extensively



Example of B⁺-Tree





B⁺-Tree Index Files (Cont.)

A B⁺-tree is a rooted tree satisfying the following properties:

- All paths from root to leaf are of the same length
- Each node that is not a root or a leaf has between $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ and n children.
- A leaf node has between $\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil$ and $n-1$ values
- Special cases:
 - If the root is not a leaf, it has at least 2 children.
 - If the root is a leaf (that is, there are no other nodes in the tree), it can have between 0 and $(n-1)$ values.



B⁺-Tree Node Structure

- Typical node

P_1	K_1	P_2	\dots	P_{n-1}	K_{n-1}	P_n
-------	-------	-------	---------	-----------	-----------	-------

- K_i are the search-key values
- P_i are pointers to children (for non-leaf nodes) or pointers to records or buckets of records (for leaf nodes).
- The search-keys in a node are ordered

$$K_1 < K_2 < K_3 < \dots < K_{n-1}$$

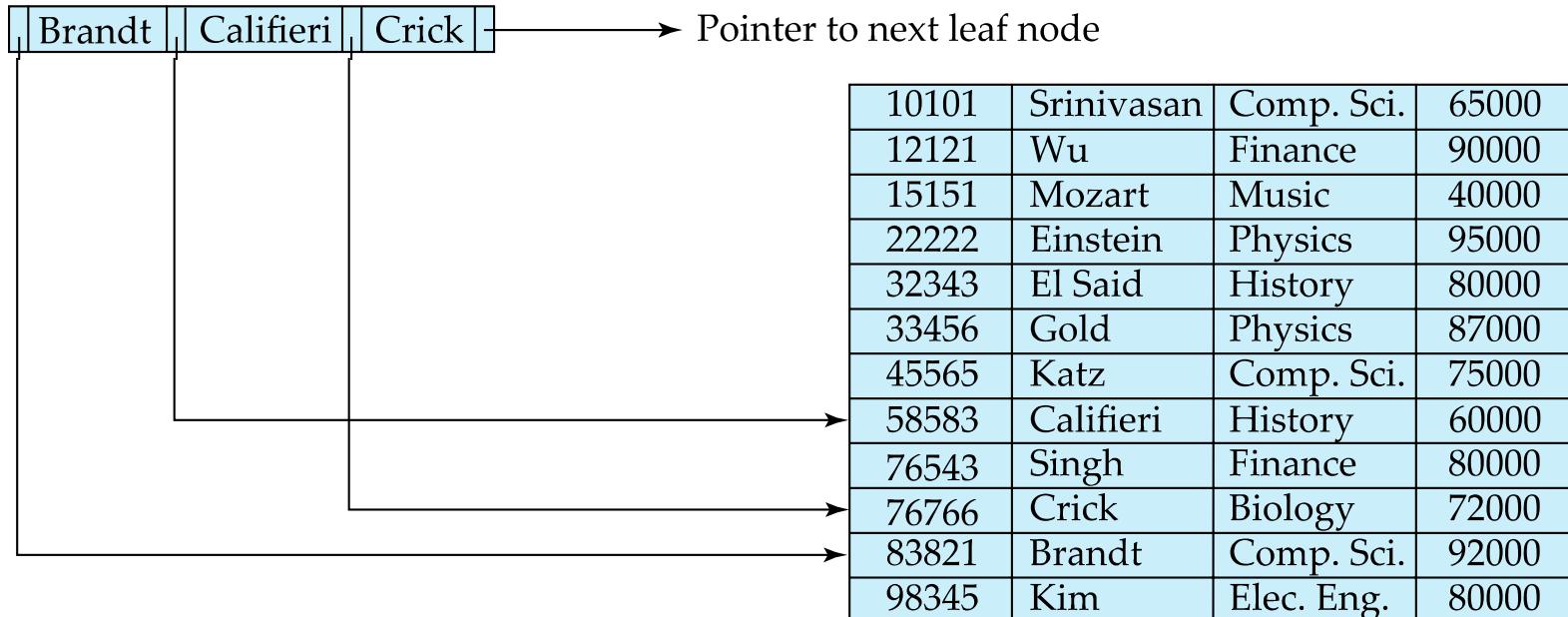
(Initially assume no duplicate keys, address duplicates later)



Leaf Nodes in B⁺-Trees

Properties of a leaf node:

- For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, pointer P_i points to a file record with search-key value K_i ,
- If L_i, L_j are leaf nodes and $i < j$, L_i 's search-key values are less than or equal to L_j 's search-key values
- P_n points to next leaf node in search-key order
leaf node





Non-Leaf Nodes in B⁺-Trees

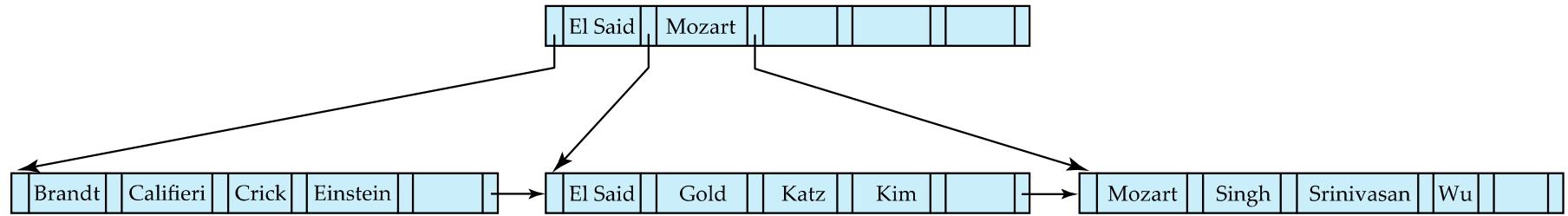
- Non leaf nodes form a multi-level sparse index on the leaf nodes. For a non-leaf node with m pointers:
 - All the search-keys in the subtree to which P_1 points are less than K_1
 - For $2 \leq i \leq n - 1$, all the search-keys in the subtree to which P_i points have values greater than or equal to K_{i-1} and less than K_i
 - All the search-keys in the subtree to which P_n points have values greater than or equal to K_{n-1}
 - General structure





Example of B⁺-tree

- B⁺-tree for *instructor* file ($n = 6$)



- Leaf nodes must have between 3 and 5 values ($\lceil (n-1)/2 \rceil$ and $n - 1$, with $n = 6$).
- Non-leaf nodes other than root must have between 3 and 6 children ($\lceil (n/2) \rceil$ and n with $n = 6$).
- Root must have at least 2 children.



Observations about B⁺-trees

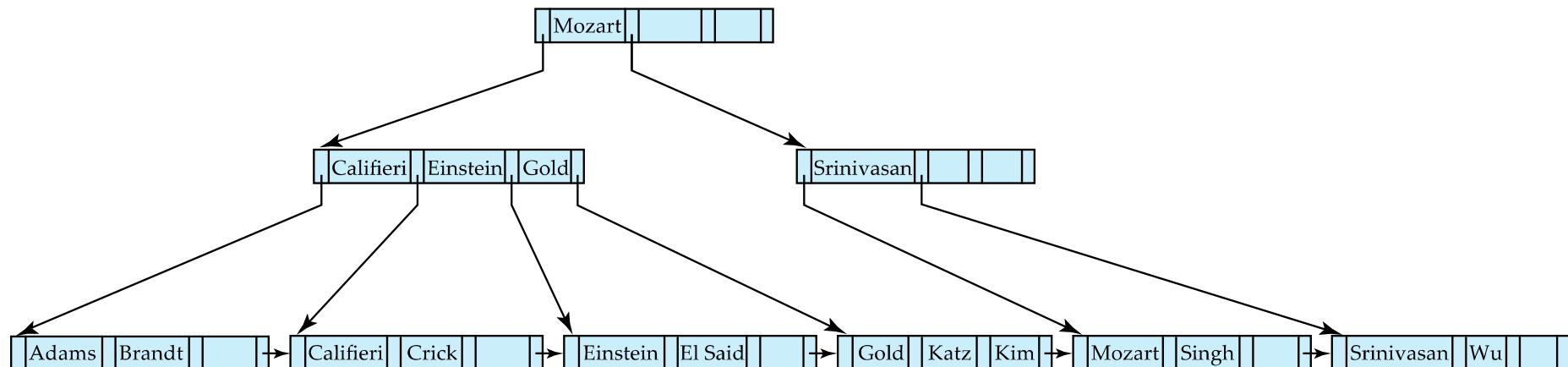
- Since the inter-node connections are done by pointers, “logically” close blocks need not be “physically” close.
- The non-leaf levels of the B⁺-tree form a hierarchy of sparse indices.
- The B⁺-tree contains a relatively small number of levels
 - Level below root has at least $2 * \lceil n/2 \rceil$ values
 - Next level has at least $2 * \lceil n/2 \rceil * \lceil n/2 \rceil$ values
 - .. etc.
- If there are K search-key values in the file, the tree height is no more than $\lceil \log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K) \rceil$
- thus searches can be conducted efficiently.
- Insertions and deletions to the main file can be handled efficiently, as the index can be restructured in logarithmic time (as we shall see).



Queries on B⁺-Trees

function *find(v)*

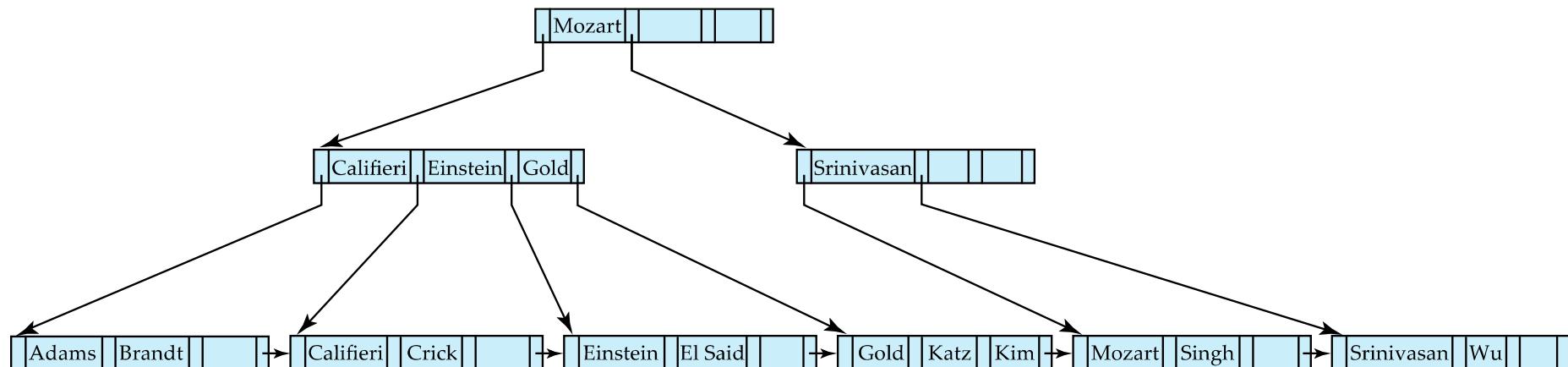
1. **C=root**
2. **while** (C is not a leaf node)
 1. Let i be least number s.t. $V \leq K_i$.
 2. **if** there is no such number i **then**
 3. Set C = *last non-null pointer in C*
 4. **else if** ($v = C.K_i$) Set C = P_{i+1}
 5. **else set** C = $C.P_i$
3. **if** for some i , $K_i = V$ **then** return $C.P_i$
4. **else** return null /* no record with search-key value v exists. */





Queries on B⁺-Trees (Cont.)

- **Range queries** find all records with search key values in a given range
 - See book for details of **function** *findRange(lb, ub)* which returns set of all such records
 - Real implementations usually provide an iterator interface to fetch matching records one at a time, using a *next()* function





Queries on B⁺-Trees (Cont.)

- If there are K search-key values in the file, the height of the tree is no more than $\lceil \log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K) \rceil$.
- A node is generally the same size as a disk block, typically 4 kilobytes
 - and n is typically around 100 (40 bytes per index entry).
- With 1 million search key values and $n = 100$
 - at most $\log_{50}(1,000,000) = 4$ nodes are accessed in a lookup traversal from root to leaf.
- Contrast this with a balanced binary tree with 1 million search key values — around 20 nodes are accessed in a lookup
 - above difference is significant since every node access may need a disk I/O, costing around 20 milliseconds



Non-Unique Keys

- If a search key a_i is not unique, create instead an index on a composite key (a_i, A_p) , which is unique
 - A_p could be a primary key, record ID, or any other attribute that guarantees uniqueness
- Search for $a_i = v$ can be implemented by a range search on composite key, with range $(v, -\infty)$ to $(v, +\infty)$
- But more I/O operations are needed to fetch the actual records
 - If the index is clustering, all accesses are sequential
 - If the index is non-clustering, each record access may need an I/O operation



Updates on B⁺-Trees: Insertion

Assume record already added to the file. Let

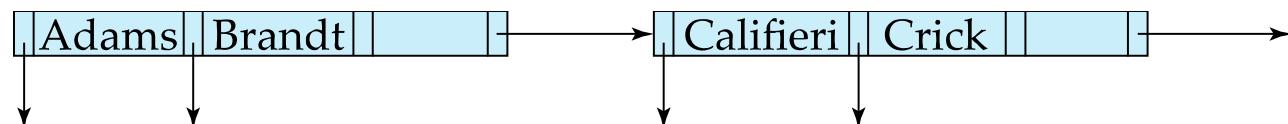
- | pr be pointer to the record, and let
- | v be the search key value of the record

1. Find the leaf node in which the search-key value would appear
 1. If there is room in the leaf node, insert (v, pr) pair in the leaf node
 2. Otherwise, split the node (along with the new (v, pr) entry) as discussed in the next slide, and propagate updates to parent nodes.



Updates on B⁺-Trees: Insertion (Cont.)

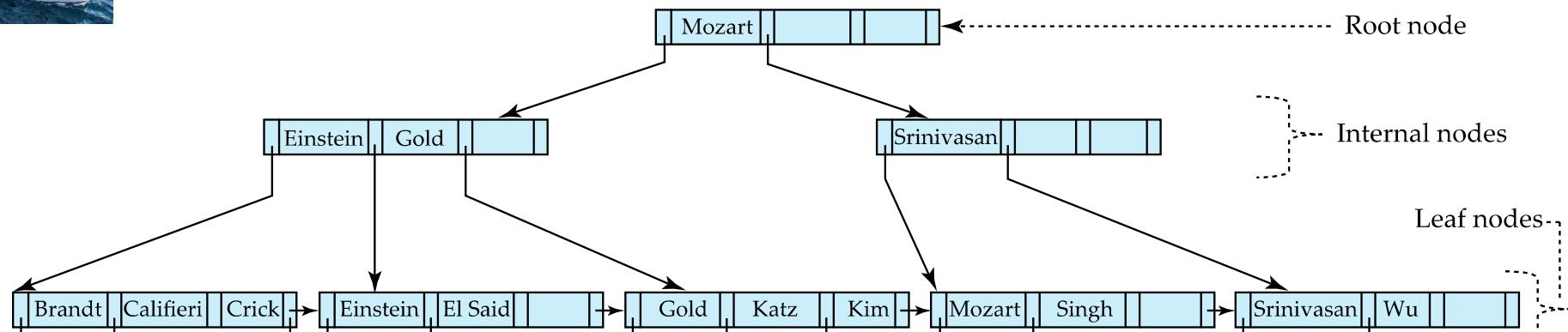
- Splitting a leaf node:
 - take the n (search-key value, pointer) pairs (including the one being inserted) in sorted order. Place the first $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ in the original node, and the rest in a new node.
 - let the new node be p , and let k be the least key value in p . Insert (k,p) in the parent of the node being split.
 - If the parent is full, split it and **propagate** the split further up.
- Splitting of nodes proceeds upwards till a node that is not full is found.
 - In the worst case the root node may be split increasing the height of the tree by 1.



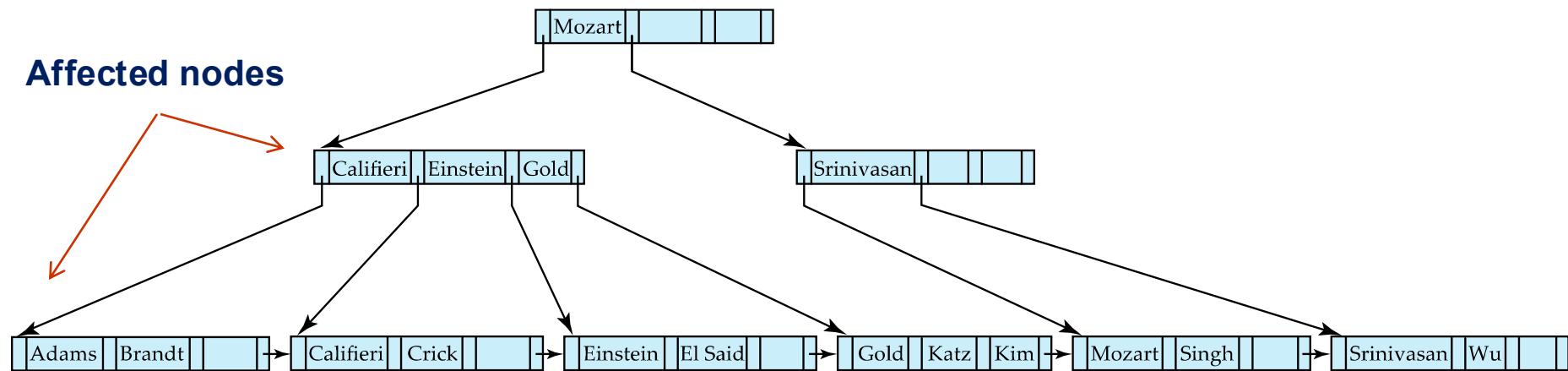
Result of splitting node containing Brandt, Califieri and Crick on inserting Adams
Next step: insert entry with (Califieri, pointer-to-new-node) into parent



B⁺-Tree Insertion



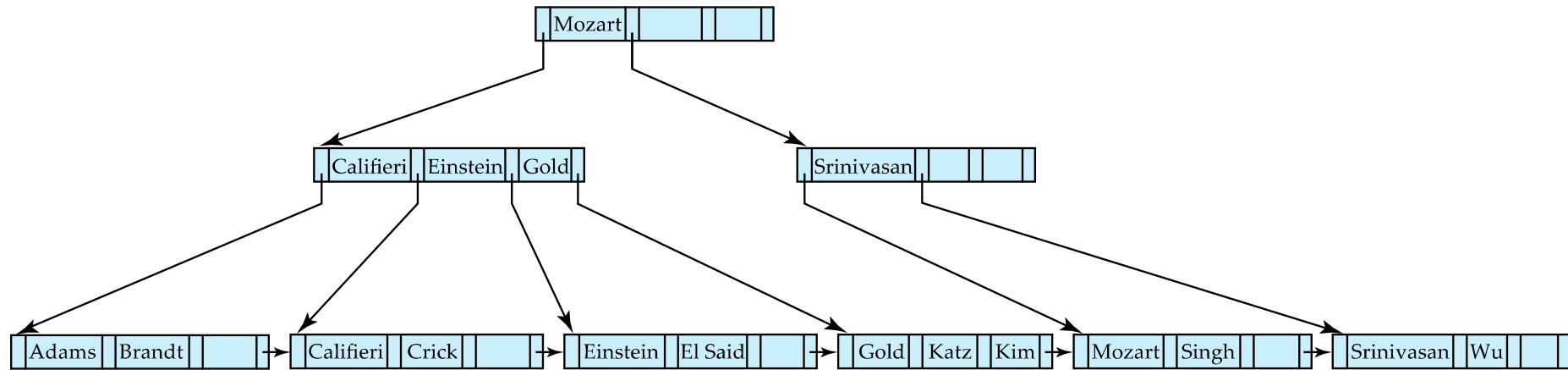
Affected nodes



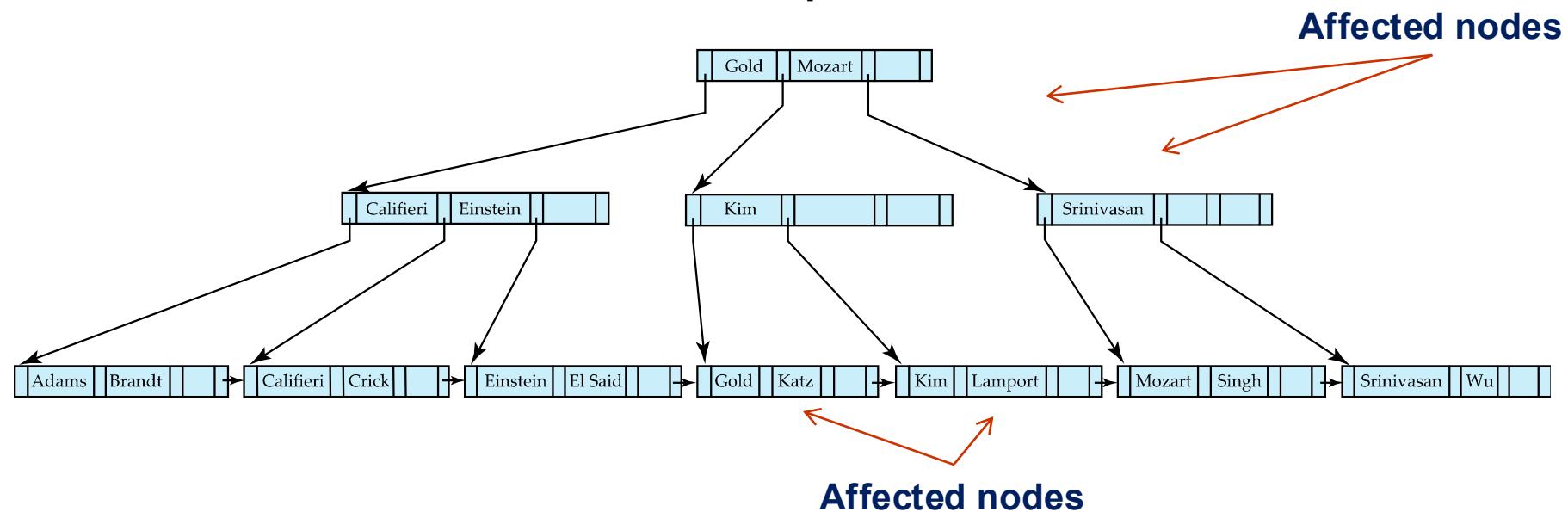
B⁺-Tree before and after insertion of “Adams”



B⁺-Tree Insertion



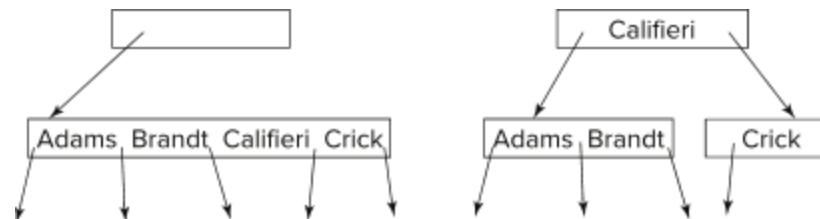
B⁺-Tree before and after insertion of “Lamport”





Insertion in B⁺-Trees (Cont.)

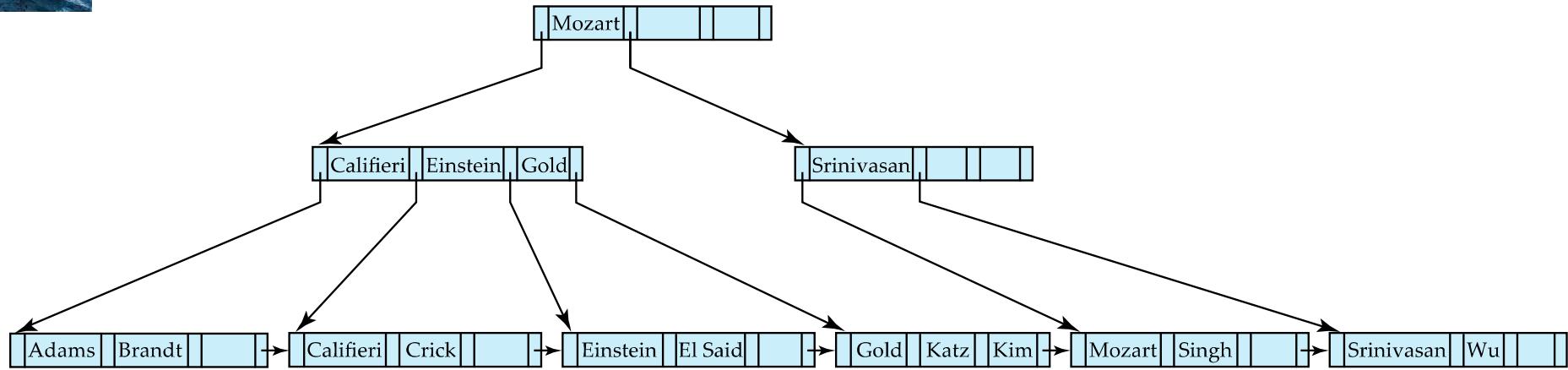
- Splitting a non-leaf node: when inserting (k,p) into an already full internal node N
 - Copy N to an in-memory area M with space for n+1 pointers and n keys
 - Insert (k,p) into M
 - Copy P₁,K₁, ..., K_{lceil n/2 ⌈},P_{lceil n/2 ⌈} from M back into node N
 - Copy P_{lceil n/2 ⌈ +1},K_{lceil n/2 ⌈ +1},...,K_n,P_{n+1} from M into newly allocated node N'
 - Insert (K_{lceil n/2 ⌈},N') into parent N
- Example



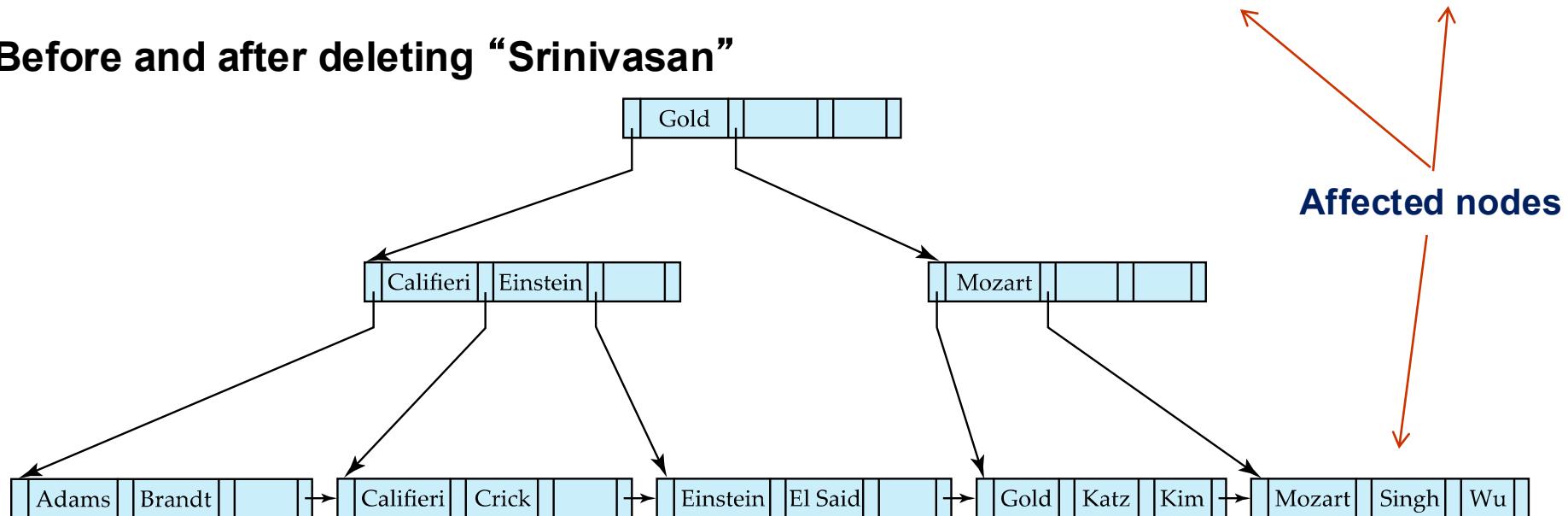
- Read pseudocode in book!



Examples of B⁺-Tree Deletion



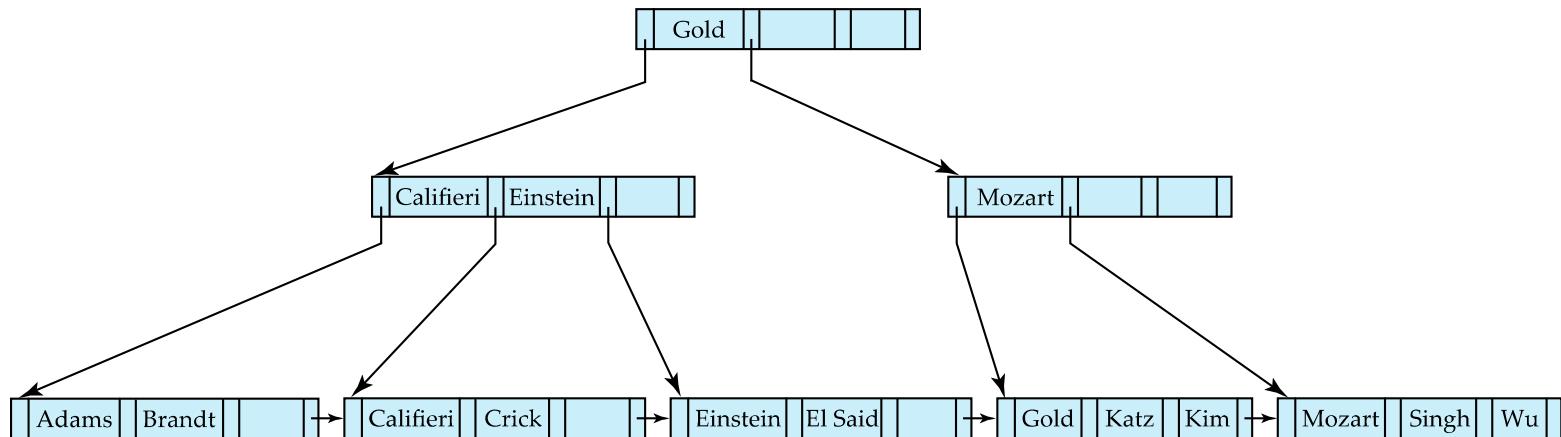
Before and after deleting “Srinivasan”



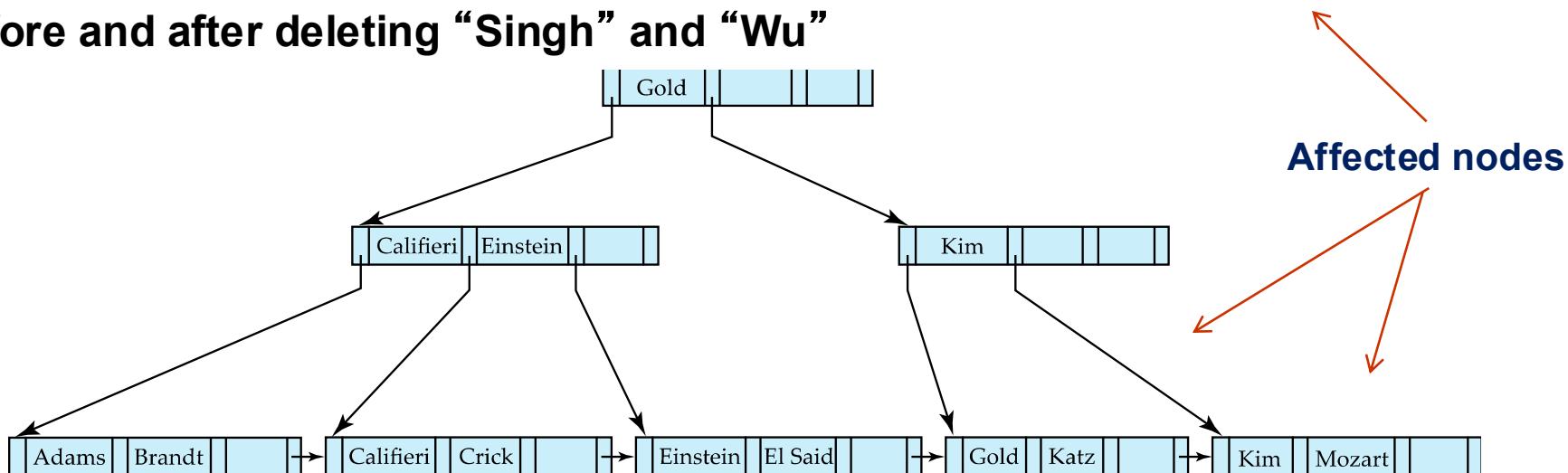
- Deleting “Srinivasan” causes **merging** of under-full leaves



Examples of B⁺-Tree Deletion (Cont.)



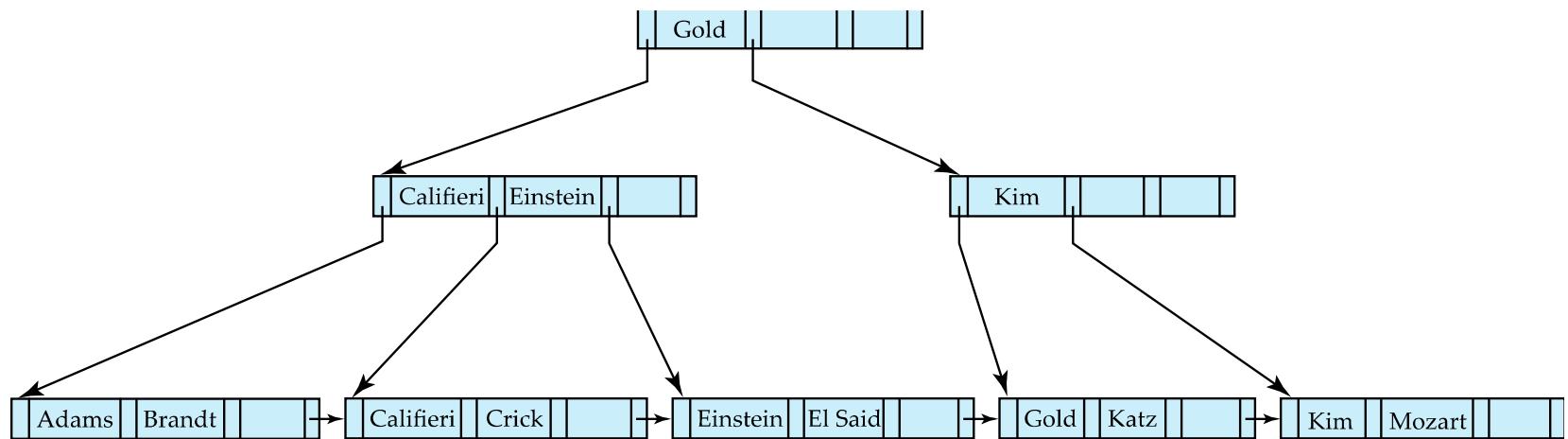
Before and after deleting “Singh” and “Wu”



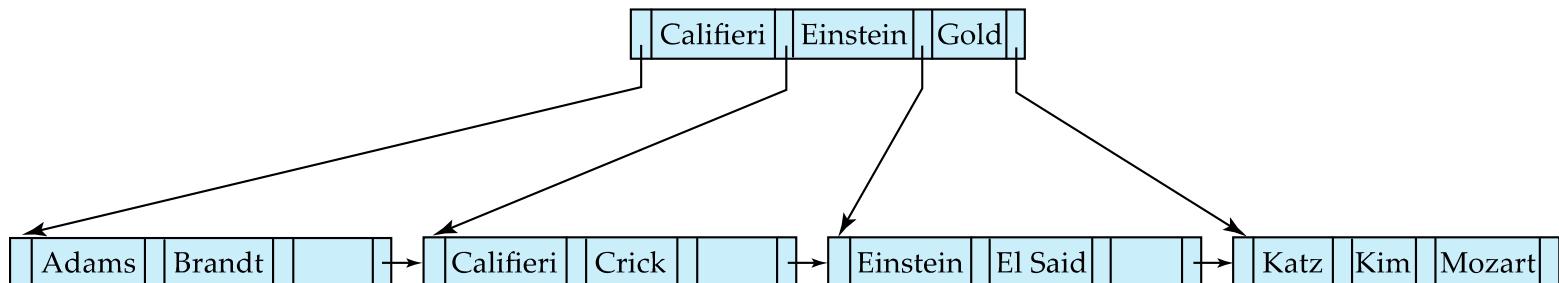
- Leaf containing Singh and Wu became underfull, and **borrowed a value** Kim from its left sibling
- Search-key value in the parent changes as a result



Example of B⁺-tree Deletion (Cont.)



Before and after deletion of “Gold”



- Node with Gold and Katz became underfull, and was merged with its sibling
- Parent node becomes underfull, and is merged with its sibling
 - Value separating two nodes (at the parent) is pulled down when merging
- Root node then has only one pointer child, and is deleted



Updates on B⁺-Trees: Deletion

Assume record already deleted from file. Let V be the search key value of the record, and Pr be the pointer to the record.

- Remove (Pr, V) from the leaf node
- If the node has too few entries due to the removal, and the entries in the node and a sibling fit into a single node, then **merge siblings**:
 - Insert all the search-key values in the two nodes into a single node (the one on the left), and delete the other node.
 - Delete the pair (K_{i-1}, P_i) , where P_i is the pointer to the deleted node, from its parent, recursively using the above procedure.



Updates on B⁺-Trees: Deletion

- Otherwise, if the node has too few entries due to the removal, but the entries in the node and a sibling do not fit into a single node, then **redistribute pointers**:
 - Redistribute the pointers between the node and a sibling such that both have more than the minimum number of entries.
 - Update the corresponding search-key value in the parent of the node.
- The node deletions may cascade upwards till a node which has $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ or more pointers is found.
- If the root node has only one pointer after deletion, it is deleted and the sole child becomes the root.



Complexity of Updates

- Cost (in terms of number of I/O operations) of insertion and deletion of a single entry proportional to height of the tree
 - With K entries and maximum fanout of n , worst case complexity of insert/delete of an entry is $O(\log_{\lceil n/2 \rceil}(K))$
- In practice, number of I/O operations is less:
 - Internal nodes tend to be in buffer
 - Splits/merges are rare, most insert/delete operations only affect a leaf node
- Average node occupancy depends on insertion order
 - 2/3rds with random, 1/2 with insertion in sorted order
- You may experiment at:
<https://www.cs.usfca.edu/~galles/visualization/BPlusTree.html>



Non-Unique Search Keys

- Alternatives to scheme described earlier
 - Buckets on separate block (bad idea)
 - List of tuple pointers with each key
 - Extra code to handle long lists
 - Deletion of a tuple can be expensive if there are many duplicates on search key (why?)
 - Worst case complexity may be linear!
 - Low space overhead, no extra cost for queries
 - Make search key unique by adding a record-identifier
 - Extra storage overhead for keys
 - Simpler code for insertion/deletion
 - Widely used



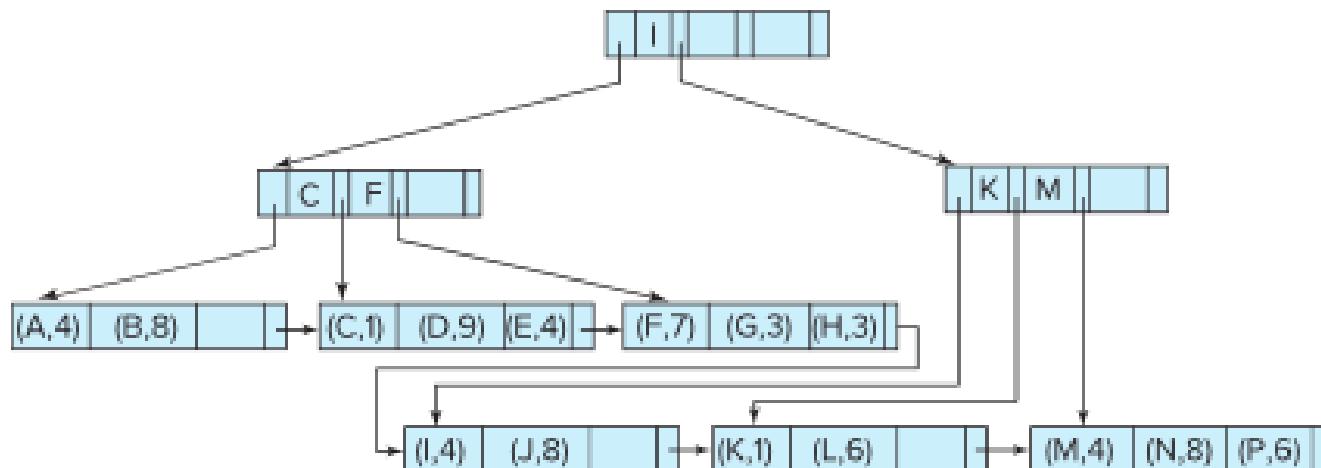
B⁺-Tree File Organization

- B⁺-Tree File Organization:
 - Leaf nodes in a B⁺-tree file organization store records, instead of pointers
 - Helps keep data records clustered even when there are insertions/deletions/updates
- Leaf nodes are still required to be half full
 - Since records are larger than pointers, the maximum number of records that can be stored in a leaf node is less than the number of pointers in a nonleaf node.
- Insertion and deletion are handled in the same way as insertion and deletion of entries in a B⁺-tree index.



B⁺-Tree File Organization (Cont.)

- Example of B+-tree File Organization



- Good space utilization important since records use more space than pointers.
- To improve space utilization, involve more sibling nodes in redistribution during splits and merges
 - Involving 2 siblings in redistribution (to avoid split / merge where possible) results in each node having at least $\lfloor 2n/3 \rfloor$ entries



Other Issues in Indexing

- **Record relocation and secondary indices**
 - If a record moves, all secondary indices that store record pointers have to be updated
 - Node splits in B⁺-tree file organizations become very expensive
 - *Solution:* use search key of B⁺-tree file organization instead of record pointer in secondary index
 - Add record-id if B⁺-tree file organization search key is non-unique
 - Extra traversal of file organization to locate record
 - Higher cost for queries, but node splits are cheap



Indexing Strings

- Variable length strings as keys
 - Variable fanout
 - Use space utilization as criterion for splitting, not number of pointers
- **Prefix compression**
 - Key values at internal nodes can be prefixes of full key
 - Keep enough characters to distinguish entries in the subtrees separated by the key value
 - E.g., “Silas” and “Silberschatz” can be separated by “Silb”
 - Keys in leaf node can be compressed by sharing common prefixes



Bulk Loading and Bottom-Up Build

- Inserting entries one-at-a-time into a B⁺-tree requires ≥ 1 IO per entry
 - assuming leaf level does not fit in memory
 - can be very inefficient for loading a large number of entries at a time
(bulk loading)
- Efficient alternative 1:
 - sort entries first (using efficient external-memory sort algorithms discussed later in Section 12.4)
 - insert in sorted order
 - insertion will go to existing page (or cause a split)
 - much improved IO performance, but most leaf nodes half full
- Efficient alternative 2: **Bottom-up B⁺-tree construction**
 - As before sort entries
 - And then create tree layer-by-layer, starting with leaf level
 - details as an exercise
 - Implemented as part of bulk-load utility by most database systems



B-Tree Index Files

- Similar to B+-tree, but B-tree allows search-key values to appear only once; eliminates redundant storage of search keys.
- Search keys in nonleaf nodes appear nowhere else in the B-tree; an additional pointer field for each search key in a nonleaf node must be included.
- Generalized B-tree leaf node

P_1	K_1	P_2	\dots	P_{n-1}	K_{n-1}	P_n
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(a)

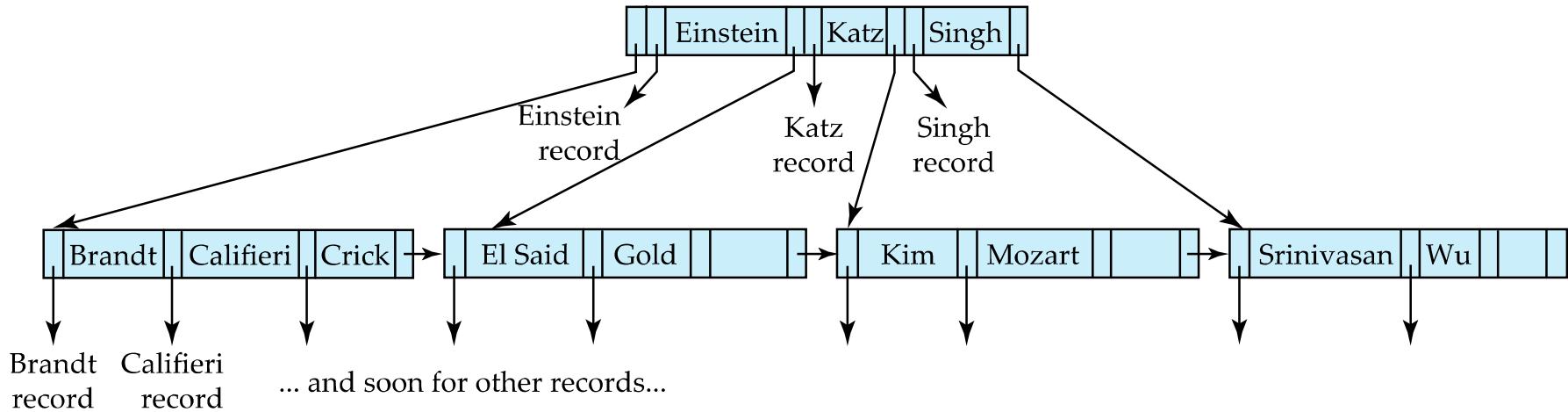
P_1	B_1	K_1	P_2	B_2	K_2	\dots	P_{m-1}	B_{m-1}	K_{m-1}	P_m
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(b)

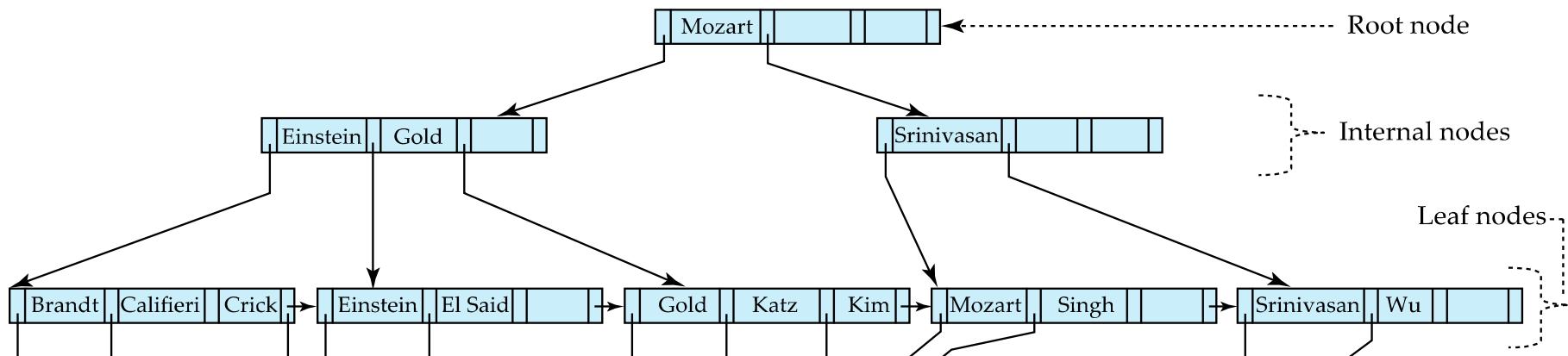
- Nonleaf node – pointers Bi are the bucket or file record pointers.



B-Tree Index File Example



B-tree (above) and B+-tree (below) on same data





Indexing on Flash

- Random I/O cost much lower on flash
 - 20 to 100 microseconds for read/write
- Writes are not in-place, and (eventually) require a more expensive erase
- Optimum page size therefore much smaller
- Bulk-loading still useful since it minimizes page erases
- Write-optimized tree structures (discussed later) have been adapted to minimize page writes for flash-optimized search trees



Indexing in Main Memory

- Random access in memory
 - Much cheaper than on disk/flash
 - But still expensive compared to cache read
 - Data structures that make best use of cache preferable
 - Binary search for a key value within a large B⁺-tree node results in many cache misses
- B⁺- trees with small nodes that fit in cache line are preferable to reduce cache misses
- Key idea: use large node size to optimize disk access, but structure data within a node using a tree with small node size, instead of using an array.



Multiple-Key Access

- Use multiple indices for certain types of queries.
- Example:

```
select ID  
from instructor  
where dept_name = "Finance" and salary = 80000
```

- Possible strategies for processing query using indices on single attributes:
 1. Use index on *dept_name* to find instructors with department name Finance; test *salary* = 80000
 2. Use index on *salary* to find instructors with a salary of \$80000; test *dept_name* = "Finance".
 3. Use *dept_name* index to find pointers to all records pertaining to the "Finance" department. Similarly use index on *salary*. Take intersection of both sets of pointers obtained.



Indices on Multiple Keys

- **Composite search keys** are search keys containing more than one attribute
 - E.g., $(dept_name, salary)$
- Lexicographic ordering: $(a_1, a_2) < (b_1, b_2)$ if either
 - $a_1 < b_1$, or
 - $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 < b_2$



Indices on Multiple Attributes

Suppose we have an index on combined search-key
 $(dept_name, salary)$.

- With the **where** clause
 - **where dept_name = “Finance” and salary = 80000**
the index on $(dept_name, salary)$ can be used to fetch only records that satisfy both conditions.
 - Using separate indices is less efficient — we may fetch many records (or pointers) that satisfy only one of the conditions.
- Can also efficiently handle
 - **where dept_name = “Finance” and salary < 80000**
- But cannot efficiently handle
 - **where dept_name < “Finance” and balance = 80000**
 - May fetch many records that satisfy the first but not the second condition



Other Features

- **Covering indices**
 - Add extra attributes to index so (some) queries can avoid fetching the actual records
 - Store extra attributes only at leaf
 - Why?
- Particularly useful for secondary indices
 - Why?



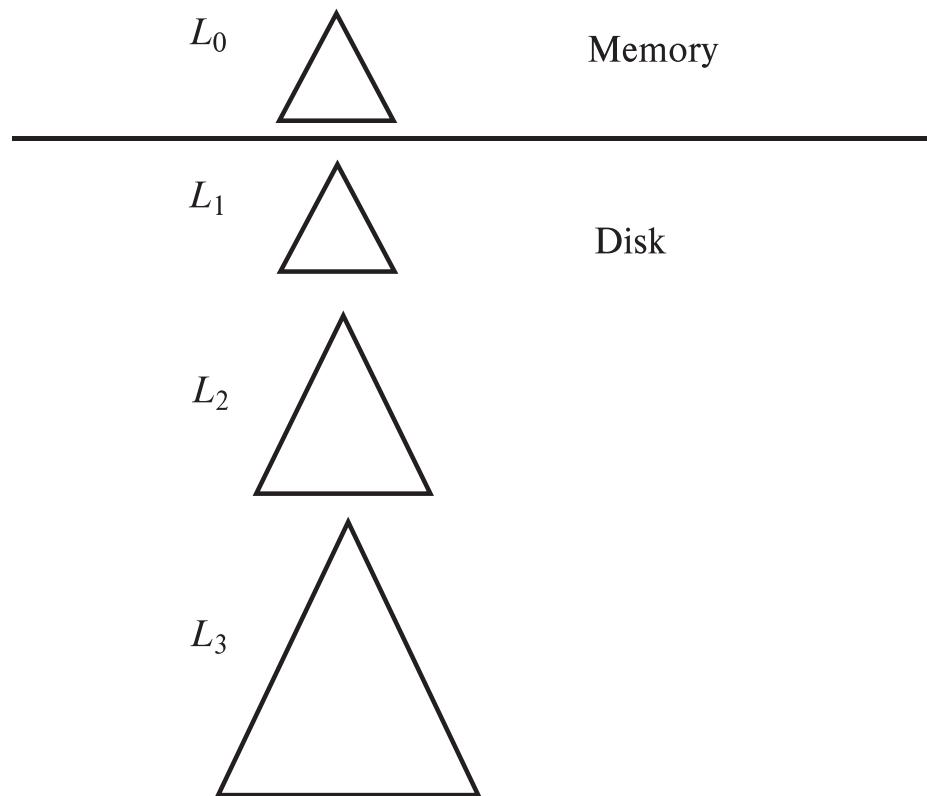
Write Optimized Indices

- Performance of B⁺-trees can be poor for write-intensive workloads
 - One I/O per leaf, assuming all internal nodes are in memory
 - With magnetic disks, < 100 inserts per second per disk
 - With flash memory, one page overwrite per insert
- Two approaches to reducing cost of writes
 - **Log-structured merge tree**
 - **Buffer tree**



Log Structured Merge (LSM) Tree

- Consider only inserts/queries for now
- Records inserted first into in-memory tree (L_0 tree)
- When in-memory tree is full, records moved to disk (L_1 tree)
 - B^+ -tree constructed using bottom-up build by merging existing L_1 tree with records from L_0 tree
- When L_1 tree exceeds some threshold, merge into L_2 tree
 - And so on for more levels
 - Size threshold for L_{i+1} tree is k times size threshold for L_i tree





LSM Tree (Cont.)

- Benefits of LSM approach
 - Inserts are done using only sequential I/O operations
 - Leaves are full, avoiding space wastage
 - Reduced number of I/O operations per record inserted as compared to normal B⁺-tree (up to some size)
- Drawback of LSM approach
 - Queries have to search multiple trees
 - Entire content of each level copied multiple times
- Stepped-merge index
 - Variant of LSM tree with multiple trees at each level
 - Reduces write cost compared to LSM tree
 - But queries are even more expensive
 - Bloom filters to avoid lookups in most trees
- Details are covered in Chapter 24



LSM Trees (Cont.)

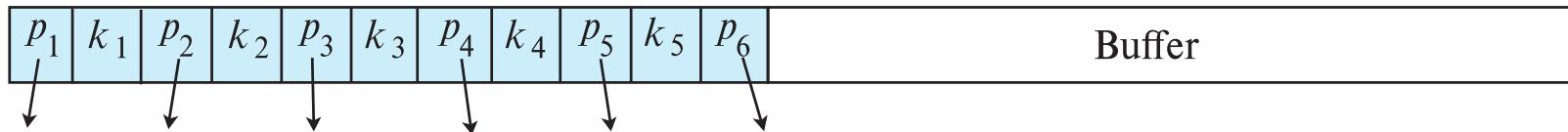
- Deletion handled by adding special “delete” entries
 - Lookups will find both original entry and the delete entry, and must return only those entries that do not have matching delete entry
 - When trees are merged, if we find a delete entry matching an original entry, both are dropped.
- Update handled using insert+delete
- LSM trees were introduced for disk-based indices
 - But useful to minimize erases with flash-based indices
 - The stepped-merge variant of LSM trees is used in many BigData storage systems
 - Google BigTable, Apache Cassandra, MongoDB
 - And more recently in SQLite4, LevelDB, and MyRocks storage engine of MySQL



Buffer Tree

- Alternative to LSM tree
- Key idea: each internal node of B⁺-tree has a buffer to store inserts
 - Inserts are moved to lower levels when buffer is full
 - With a large buffer, many records are moved to lower level each time
 - Per record I/O decreases correspondingly
- Benefits
 - Less overhead on queries
 - Can be used with any tree index structure
 - Used in PostgreSQL Generalized Search Tree (GiST) indices
- Drawback: more random I/O than LSM tree

Internal node





Bitmap Indices

- Bitmap indices are a special type of index designed for efficient querying on multiple keys
- Records in a relation are assumed to be numbered sequentially from, say, 0
 - Given a number n it must be easy to retrieve record n
 - Particularly easy if records are of fixed size
- Applicable on attributes that take on a relatively small number of distinct values
 - E.g., gender, country, state, ...
 - E.g., income-level (income broken up into a small number of levels such as 0-9999, 10000-19999, 20000-50000, 50000- infinity)
- A bitmap is simply an array of bits



Bitmap Indices (Cont.)

- In its simplest form a bitmap index on an attribute has a bitmap for each value of the attribute
 - Bitmap has as many bits as records
 - In a bitmap for value v, the bit for a record is 1 if the record has the value v for the attribute, and is 0 otherwise
- Example

record number	<i>ID</i>	<i>gender</i>	<i>income_level</i>
0	76766	m	L1
1	22222	f	L2
2	12121	f	L1
3	15151	m	L4
4	58583	f	L3

Bitmaps for <i>gender</i>		Bitmaps for <i>income_level</i>	
m	10010	L1	10100
f	01101	L2	01000
		L3	00001
		L4	00010
		L5	00000



Bitmap Indices (Cont.)

- Bitmap indices are useful for queries on multiple attributes
 - not particularly useful for single attribute queries
- Queries are answered using bitmap operations
 - Intersection (and)
 - Union (or)
- Each operation takes two bitmaps of the same size and applies the operation on corresponding bits to get the result bitmap
 - E.g., $100110 \text{ AND } 110011 = 100010$
 $100110 \text{ OR } 110011 = 110111$
 $\text{NOT } 100110 = 011001$
 - Males with income level L1: $10010 \text{ AND } 10100 = 10000$
 - Can then retrieve required tuples.
 - Counting number of matching tuples is even faster



Bitmap Indices (Cont.)

- Bitmap indices are generally very small compared to the relation size
 - E.g., if a record is 1000 bytes, space for a single bitmap is 1/8000 of the space used by relation.
 - If the number of distinct attribute values is 8, bitmap is only 1/1000 of the relation size
- Deletion needs to be handled properly
 - **Existence bitmap** to mark whether there is a valid record at a record location
 - Needed for complementation
 - $\text{not}(A=v)$: $(\text{NOT } \text{bitmap-}A\text{-}v) \text{ AND ExistenceBitmap}$
- Should keep bitmaps for all values, even null value
 - To correctly handle SQL null semantics for $\text{NOT}(A=v)$:
 - intersect above result with $(\text{NOT } \text{bitmap-}A\text{-Null})$



Efficient Implementation of Bitmap Operations

- Bitmaps are packed into words; a single word and (a basic CPU instruction) computes and of 32 or 64 bits at once
 - E.g., 1-million-bit maps can be and-ed with just 31,250 instruction
- Counting number of 1s can be done fast by a trick:
 - Use each byte to index into a precomputed array of 256 elements each storing the count of 1s in the binary representation
 - Can use pairs of bytes to speed up further at a higher memory cost
 - Add up the retrieved counts
- Bitmaps can be used instead of Tuple-ID lists at leaf levels of B⁺-trees, for values that have a large number of matching records
 - Worthwhile if > 1/64 of the records have that value, assuming a tuple-id is 64 bits
 - Above technique merges benefits of bitmap and B⁺-tree indices



Spatial and Temporal Indices



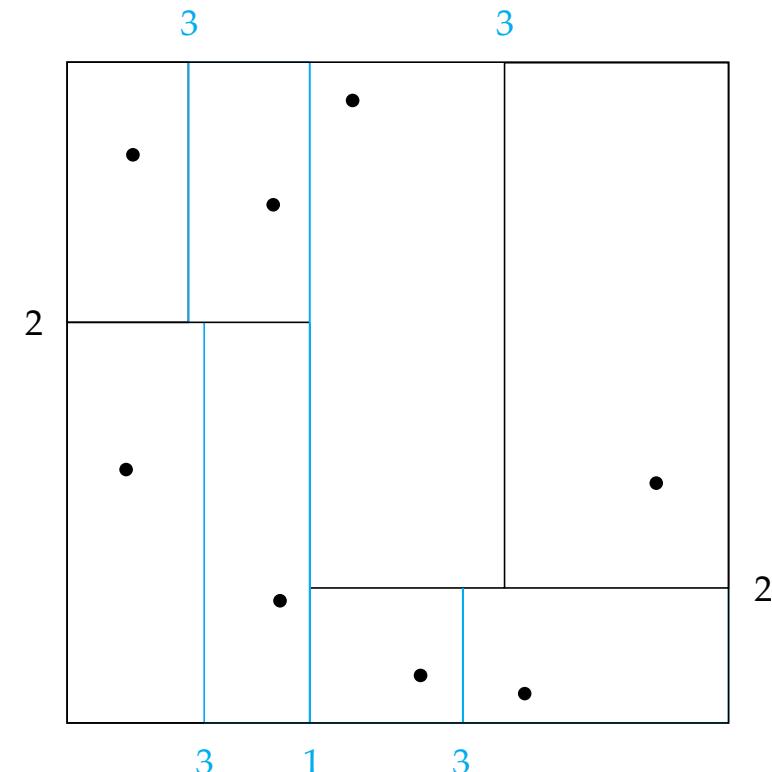
Spatial Data

- Databases can store data types such as lines, polygons, in addition to raster images
 - allows relational databases to store and retrieve spatial information
 - Queries can use spatial conditions (e.g. contains or overlaps).
 - queries can mix spatial and nonspatial conditions
- **Nearest neighbor queries**, given a point or an object, find the nearest object that satisfies given conditions.
- **Range queries** deal with spatial regions. e.g., ask for objects that lie partially or fully inside a specified region.
- Queries that compute intersections or **unions** of regions.
- **Spatial join** of two spatial relations with the location playing the role of join attribute.



Indexing of Spatial Data

- **k-d tree** - early structure used for indexing in multiple dimensions.
- Each level of a *k-d* tree partitions the space into two.
 - Choose one dimension for partitioning at the root level of the tree.
 - Choose another dimensions for partitioning in nodes at the next level and so on, cycling through the dimensions.
- In each node, approximately half of the points stored in the sub-tree fall on one side and half on the other.
- Partitioning stops when a node has less than a given number of points.

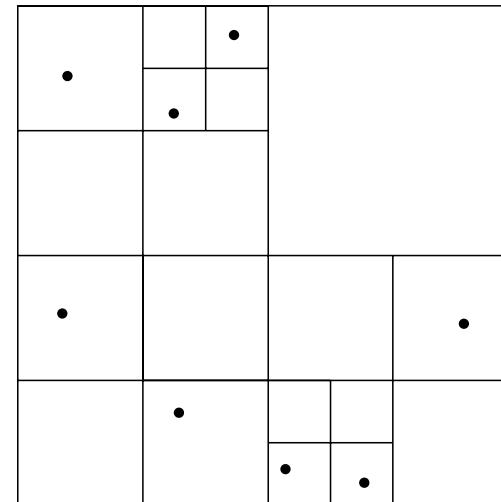


- The **k-d-B tree** extends the *k-d* tree to allow multiple child nodes for each internal node; well-suited for secondary storage.



Division of Space by Quadtrees

- Each node of a quadtree is associated with a rectangular region of space; the top node is associated with the entire target space.
- Each non-leaf nodes divides its region into four equal sized quadrants
 - correspondingly each such node has four child nodes corresponding to the four quadrants and so on
- Leaf nodes have between zero and some fixed maximum number of points (set to 1 in example).





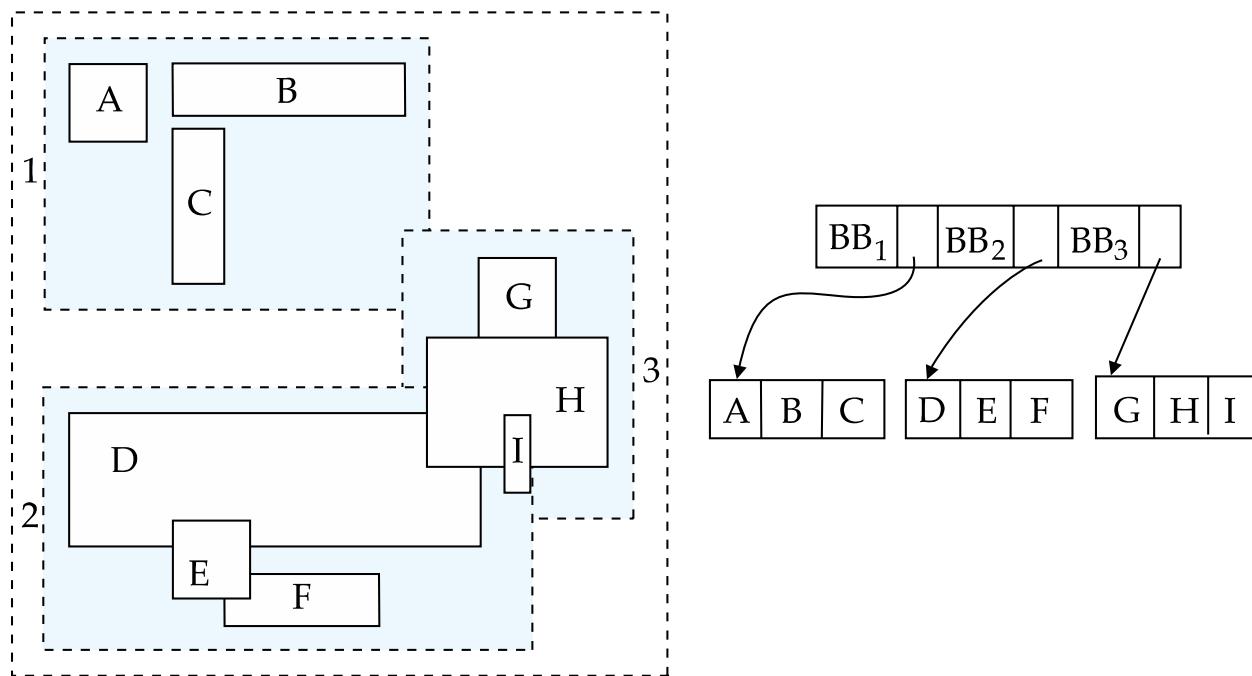
R-Trees

- **R-trees** are a N-dimensional extension of B⁺-trees, useful for indexing sets of rectangles and other polygons.
- Supported in many modern database systems, along with variants like R⁺ - trees and R*-trees.
- Basic idea: generalize the notion of a one-dimensional interval associated with each B+ -tree node to an N-dimensional interval, that is, an N-dimensional rectangle.
- Will consider only the two-dimensional case ($N = 2$)
 - generalization for $N > 2$ is straightforward, although R-trees work well only for relatively small N
- The **bounding box** of a node is a minimum sized rectangle that contains all the rectangles/polylgons associated with the node
 - *Bounding boxes of children of a node are allowed to overlap*



Example R-Tree

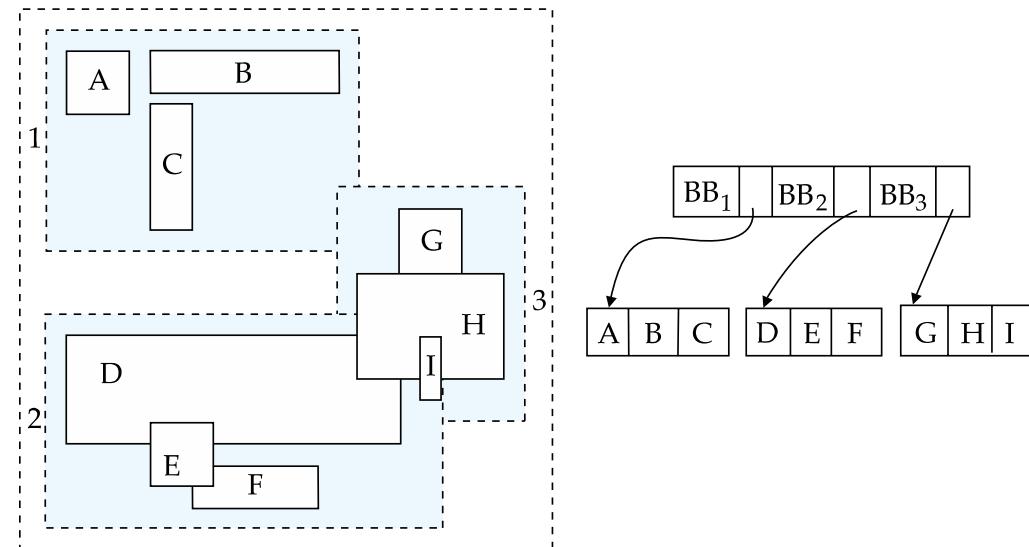
- A set of rectangles (solid line) and the bounding boxes (dashed line) of the nodes of an R-tree for the rectangles.
- The R-tree is shown on the right.





Search in R-Trees

- To find data items intersecting a given query point/region, do the following, starting from the root node:
 - If the node is a leaf node, output the data items whose keys intersect the given query point/region.
 - Else, for each child of the current node whose bounding box intersects the query point/region, recursively search the child
- Can be very inefficient in worst case since multiple paths may need to be searched, but works acceptably in practice.





Indexing Temporal Data

- Temporal data refers to data that has an associated time period (interval)
 - Example: a temporal version of the *course* relation

<i>course_id</i>	<i>title</i>	<i>dept_name</i>	<i>credits</i>	<i>start</i>	<i>end</i>
BIO-101	Intro. to Biology	Biology	4	1985-01-01	9999-12-31
CS-201	Intro. to C	Comp. Sci.	4	1985-01-01	1999-01-01
CS-201	Intro. to Java	Comp. Sci.	4	1999-01-01	2010-01-01
CS-201	Intro. to Python	Comp. Sci.	4	2010-01-01	9999-12-31

- Time interval has a start and end time
 - End time set to infinity (or large date such as 9999-12-31) if a tuple is currently valid and its validity end time is not currently known
- Query may ask for all tuples that are valid at a point in time or during a time interval
 - Index on valid time period speeds up this task



Indexing Temporal Data (Cont.)

- To create a temporal index on attribute a :
 - Use spatial index, such as R-tree, with attribute a as one dimension, and time as another dimension
 - Valid time forms an interval in the time dimension
 - Tuples that are currently valid cause problems, since value is infinite or very large
 - Solution: store all current tuples (with end time as infinity) in a separate index, indexed on $(a, start\text{-}time)$
 - To find tuples valid at a point in time t in the current tuple index, search for tuples in the range $(a, 0)$ to (a, t)
- Temporal index on primary key can help enforce temporal primary key constraint

<i>course_id</i>	<i>title</i>	<i>dept_name</i>	<i>credits</i>	<i>start</i>	<i>end</i>
BIO-101	Intro. to Biology	Biology	4	1985-01-01	9999-12-31
CS-201	Intro. to C	Comp. Sci.	4	1985-01-01	1999-01-01
CS-201	Intro. to Java	Comp. Sci.	4	1999-01-01	2010-01-01
CS-201	Intro. to Python	Comp. Sci.	4	2010-01-01	9999-12-31



Creation of Indices

- Example
 - create index takes_pk on takes (ID,course_ID, year, semester, section)**
 - drop index takes_pk**
- Most database systems allow specification of type of index, and clustering.
- Indices on primary key created automatically by all databases
 - Why?
- Some database also create indices on foreign key attributes
 - Why might such an index be useful for this query:
 - *takes* $\bowtie \sigma_{name='Shankar'}$ (*student*)
- Indices can greatly speed up lookups, but impose cost on updates
 - Index tuning assistants/wizards supported on several databases to help choose indices, based on query and update workload



Index Definition in SQL

- Create an index

```
create index <index-name> on <relation-name>  
          (<attribute-list>)
```

E.g.,: **create index b-index on branch(branch_name)**

- Use **create unique index** to indirectly specify and enforce the condition that the search key is a candidate key is a candidate key.
 - Not really required if SQL **unique** integrity constraint is supported
- To drop an index

```
drop index <index-name>
```

- Most database systems allow specification of type of index, and clustering.



Indexing in Oracle

- Oracle supports B⁺-Tree indices as a default for the **create index** SQL command
 - B⁺-Tree indices are created by default for every primary key and unique declaration
- A new non-null attribute *rowid* is added to all indices to non-unique attributes, so as to guarantee that all search keys are unique.
 - indices are supported on
 - attributes, and attribute lists,
 - on results of function over attributes
 - or using structures external to Oracle (Domain indices)
- Bitmap indices are also supported, with an explicit declaration:
create bitmap index <index-name> on <relation-name> (<attribute-list>)
- Oracle also has spatial indices, using R-Trees:
**create index <index-name> on <relation-name> (<attribute-list>)
indextype is mdsys.spatial_index**
**YOU NEED TO INTRODUCE AN EXTRA TUPLE IN TABLE
user_sdo_geom_metadata**



Hashing



Static Hashing

- A **bucket** is a unit of storage containing one or more entries (a bucket is typically a disk block).
 - we obtain the bucket of an entry from its search-key value using a **hash function**
- Hash function h is a function from the set of all search-key values K to the set of all bucket addresses B .
- Hash function is used to locate entries for access, insertion as well as deletion.
- Entries with different search-key values may be mapped to the same bucket; thus entire bucket has to be searched sequentially to locate an entry.
- In a **hash index**, buckets store entries with pointers to records
- In a **hash file-organization** buckets store records



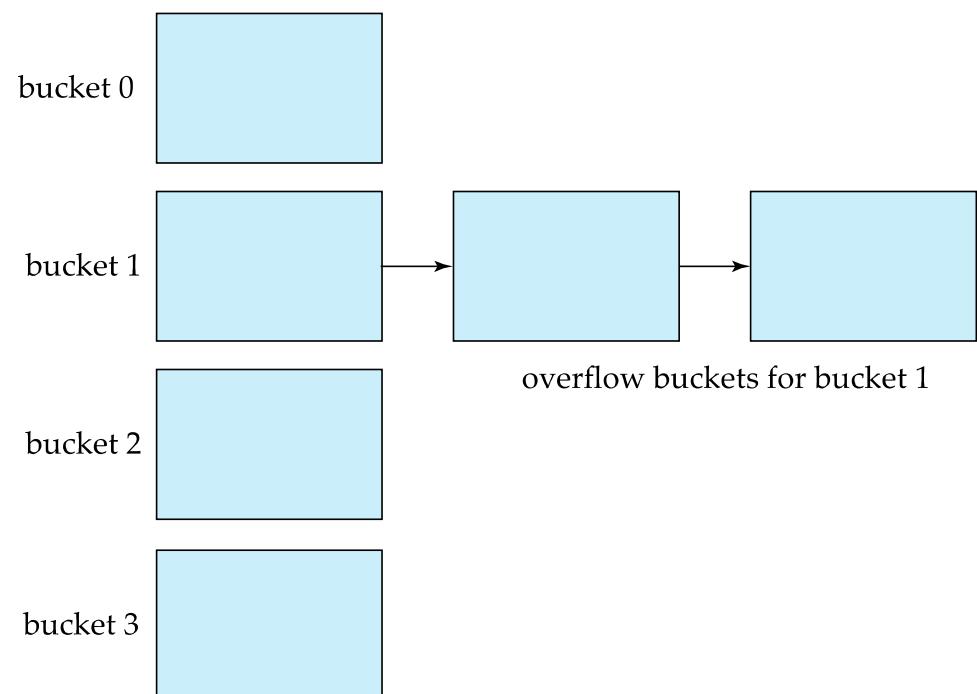
Handling of Bucket Overflows

- Bucket overflow can occur because of
 - Insufficient buckets
 - Skew in distribution of records. This can occur due to two reasons:
 - multiple records have same search-key value
 - chosen hash function produces non-uniform distribution of key values
- Although the probability of bucket overflow can be reduced, it cannot be eliminated; it is handled by using **overflow buckets**.



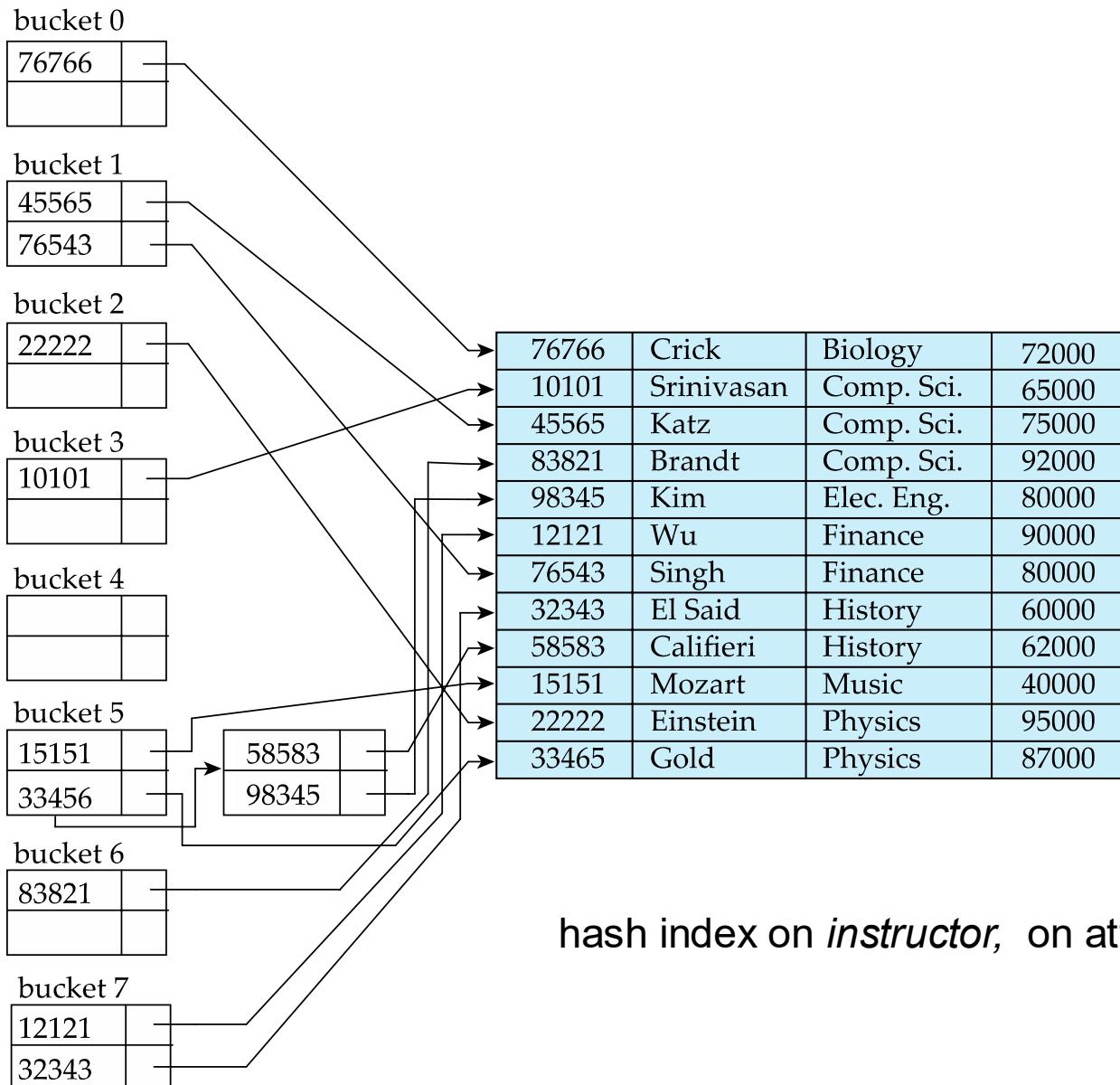
Handling of Bucket Overflows (Cont.)

- **Overflow chaining** – the overflow buckets of a given bucket are chained together in a linked list.
- Above scheme is called **closed addressing** (also called **closed hashing** or **open hashing** depending on the book you use)
 - An alternative, called **open addressing** (also called **open hashing** or **closed hashing** depending on the book you use) which does not use overflow buckets, is not suitable for database applications.





Example of Hash Index





Example of Hash File Organization

Hash file organization of *instructor* file, using *dept_name* as key.

bucket 0

bucket 1

15151	Mozart	Music	40000

bucket 2

32343	El Said	History	80000
58583	Califieri	History	60000

bucket 3

22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

bucket 4

12121	Wu	Finance	90000
76543	Singh	Finance	80000

bucket 5

76766	Crick	Biology	72000

bucket 6

10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000

bucket 7



Deficiencies of Static Hashing

- In static hashing, function h maps search-key values to a fixed set of B of bucket addresses. Databases grow or shrink with time.
 - If initial number of buckets is too small, and file grows, performance will degrade due to too much overflows.
 - If space is allocated for anticipated growth, a significant amount of space will be wasted initially (and buckets will be underfull).
 - If database shrinks, again space will be wasted.
- One solution: periodic re-organization of the file with a new hash function
 - Expensive, disrupts normal operations
- Better solution: allow the number of buckets to be modified dynamically.



Dynamic Hashing

- Periodic rehashing
 - If number of entries in a hash table becomes (say) 1.5 times size of hash table,
 - create new hash table of size (say) 2 times the size of the previous hash table
 - Rehash all entries to new table
- Linear Hashing
 - Do rehashing in an incremental manner
- Extendable Hashing
 - Tailored to disk based hashing, with buckets shared by multiple hash values
 - Doubling of # of entries in hash table, without doubling # of buckets



Extendable Hashing vs. Other Schemes

- Benefits of extendable hashing:
 - Hash performance does not degrade with growth of file
 - Minimal space overhead
- Disadvantages of extendable hashing
 - Extra level of indirection to find desired record
 - Bucket address table may itself become very big (larger than memory)
 - Cannot allocate very large contiguous areas on disk either
 - Solution: B⁺-tree structure to locate desired record in bucket address table
 - Changing size of bucket address table is an expensive operation
- **Linear hashing** is an alternative mechanism
 - Allows incremental growth of its directory (equivalent to bucket address table)
 - At the cost of more bucket overflows



Comparison of Ordered Indexing and Hashing

- Cost of periodic re-organization
- Relative frequency of insertions and deletions
- Is it desirable to optimize average access time at the expense of worst-case access time?
- Expected type of queries:
 - Hashing is generally better at retrieving records having a specified value of the key.
 - If range queries are common, ordered indices are to be preferred
- In practice:
 - PostgreSQL supports hash indices, but discourages use due to poor performance
 - Oracle supports static hash organization, but not hash indices
 - SQLServer supports only B⁺-trees



Hashing in Oracle

- Hash indices are not supported
- However (limited) static hash file organisation is supported for partitions
 - create table ... partition by hash(<attribute-list>)**
 - partitions <N>**
 - stored in (<tables>)**
- Index files can also be partitioned using hash function
 - create index ... global partition by hash(<attribute-list>)**
 - partitions <N>**
- This creates a global index partitioned by the hash function
- (Global) indexing over hash partitioned table is also possible
- Hashing may also be used to organise clusters in multitable clusters

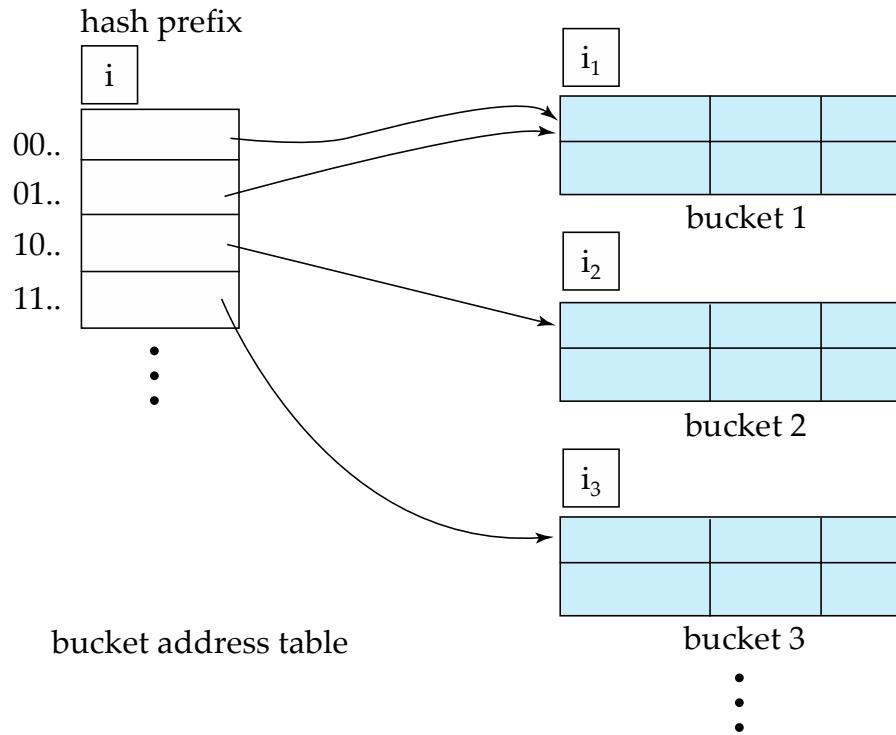


Extendable Hashing

- **Extendable hashing** – one form of dynamic hashing
 - Hash function generates values over a large range — typically b -bit integers, with $b = 32$.
 - At any time use only a prefix of the hash function to index into a table of bucket addresses.
 - Let the length of the prefix be i bits, $0 \leq i \leq 32$.
 - Bucket address table size = 2^i . Initially $i = 0$
 - Value of i grows and shrinks as the size of the database grows and shrinks.
 - Multiple entries in the bucket address table may point to the same bucket
 - Thus, actual number of buckets is $< 2^i$
 - (with $b = 32$, this allows for up to 4G buckets)
 - The number of buckets also changes dynamically due to coalescing and splitting of buckets.



General Extendable Hash Structure



In this structure, $i_2 = i_3 = i$, whereas $i_1 = i - 1$ (see next slide for details)



Use of Extendable Hash Structure

- Each bucket j stores a value i_j
 - All the entries that point to the same bucket have the same values on the first i_j bits.
- To locate the bucket containing search-key K_j :
 1. Compute $h(K_j) = X$
 2. Use the first i high order bits of X as a displacement into bucket address table, and follow the pointer to appropriate bucket
- To insert a record with search-key value K_j
 - follow same procedure as look-up and locate the bucket, say j .
 - If there is room in the bucket j insert record in the bucket.
 - Else the bucket must be split and insertion re-attempted (next slide.)
 - Overflow buckets used instead in some cases (will see shortly)



Insertion in Extendable Hash Structure (Cont.)

To split a bucket j when inserting record with search-key value K_j :

- If $i > i_j$ (more than one pointer to bucket j)
 - allocate a new bucket z , and set $i_j = i_z = (j + 1)$
 - Update the second half of the bucket address table entries originally pointing to j , to point to z
 - remove each record in bucket j and reinsert (in j or z)
 - recompute new bucket for K_j and insert record in the bucket (further splitting is required if the bucket is still full)
- If $i = i_j$ (only one pointer to bucket j)
 - If i reaches some limit b , or too many splits have happened in this insertion, create an overflow bucket
 - Else
 - increment i and double the size of the bucket address table.
 - replace each entry in the table by two entries that point to the same bucket.
 - recompute new bucket address table entry for K_j
Now $i > i_j$ so use the first case above.



Deletion in Extendable Hash Structure

- To delete a key value,
 - locate it in its bucket and remove it.
 - The bucket itself can be removed if it becomes empty (with appropriate updates to the bucket address table).
 - Coalescing of buckets can be done (can coalesce only with a “*buddy*” bucket having same value of i_j and same $i_j - 1$ prefix, if it is present)
 - Decreasing bucket address table size is also possible
 - Note: decreasing bucket address table size is an expensive operation and should be done only if number of buckets becomes much smaller than the size of the table



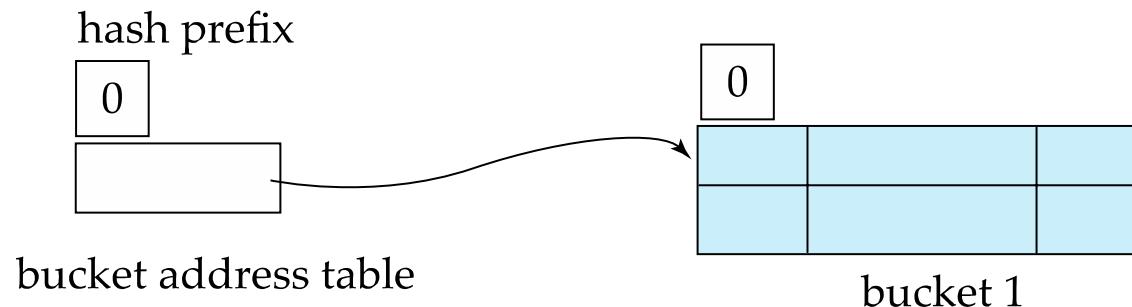
Use of Extendable Hash Structure: Example

$dept_name$	$h(dept_name)$
Biology	0010 1101 1111 1011 0010 1100 0011 0000
Comp. Sci.	1111 0001 0010 0100 1001 0011 0110 1101
Elec. Eng.	0100 0011 1010 1100 1100 0110 1101 1111
Finance	1010 0011 1010 0000 1100 0110 1001 1111
History	1100 0111 1110 1101 1011 1111 0011 1010
Music	0011 0101 1010 0110 1100 1001 1110 1011
Physics	1001 1000 0011 1111 1001 1100 0000 0001



Example (Cont.)

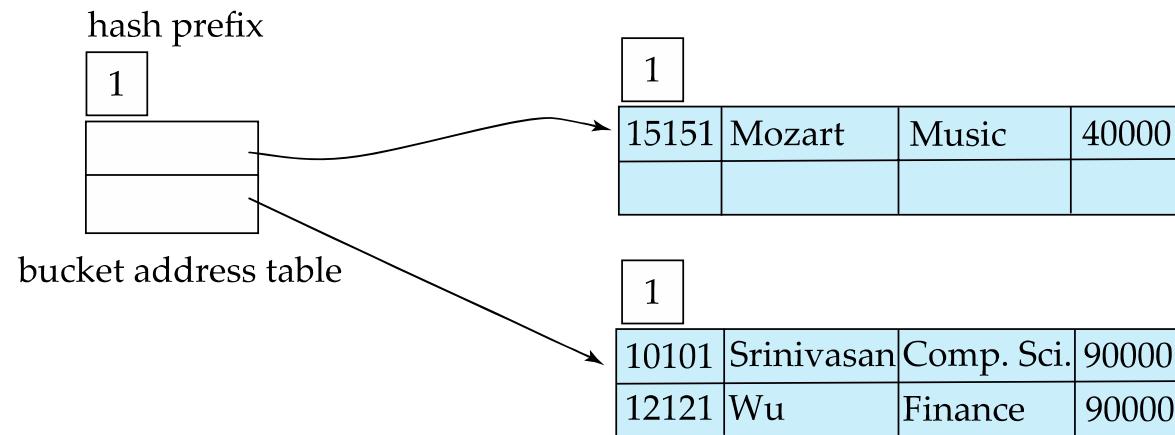
- Initial hash structure; bucket size = 2





Example (Cont.)

- Hash structure after insertion of “Mozart”, “Srinivasan”, and “Wu” records

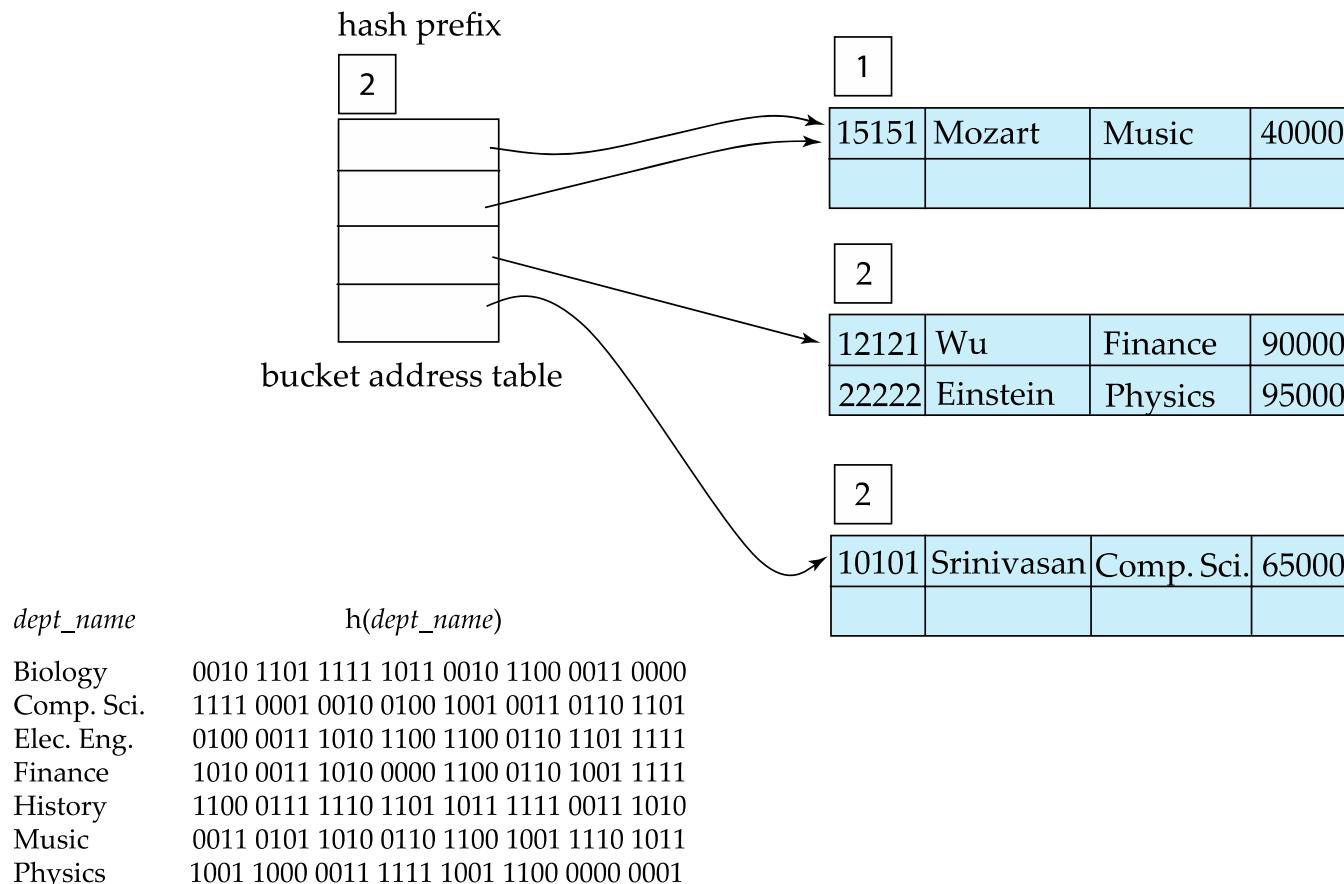


<i>dept_name</i>	$h(dept_name)$
Biology	0010 1101 1111 1011 0010 1100 0011 0000
Comp. Sci.	1111 0001 0010 0100 1001 0011 0110 1101
Elec. Eng.	0100 0011 1010 1100 1100 0110 1101 1111
Finance	1010 0011 1010 0000 1100 0110 1001 1111
History	1100 0111 1110 1101 1011 1111 0011 1010
Music	0011 0101 1010 0110 1100 1001 1110 1011
Physics	1001 1000 0011 1111 1001 1100 0000 0001



Example (Cont.)

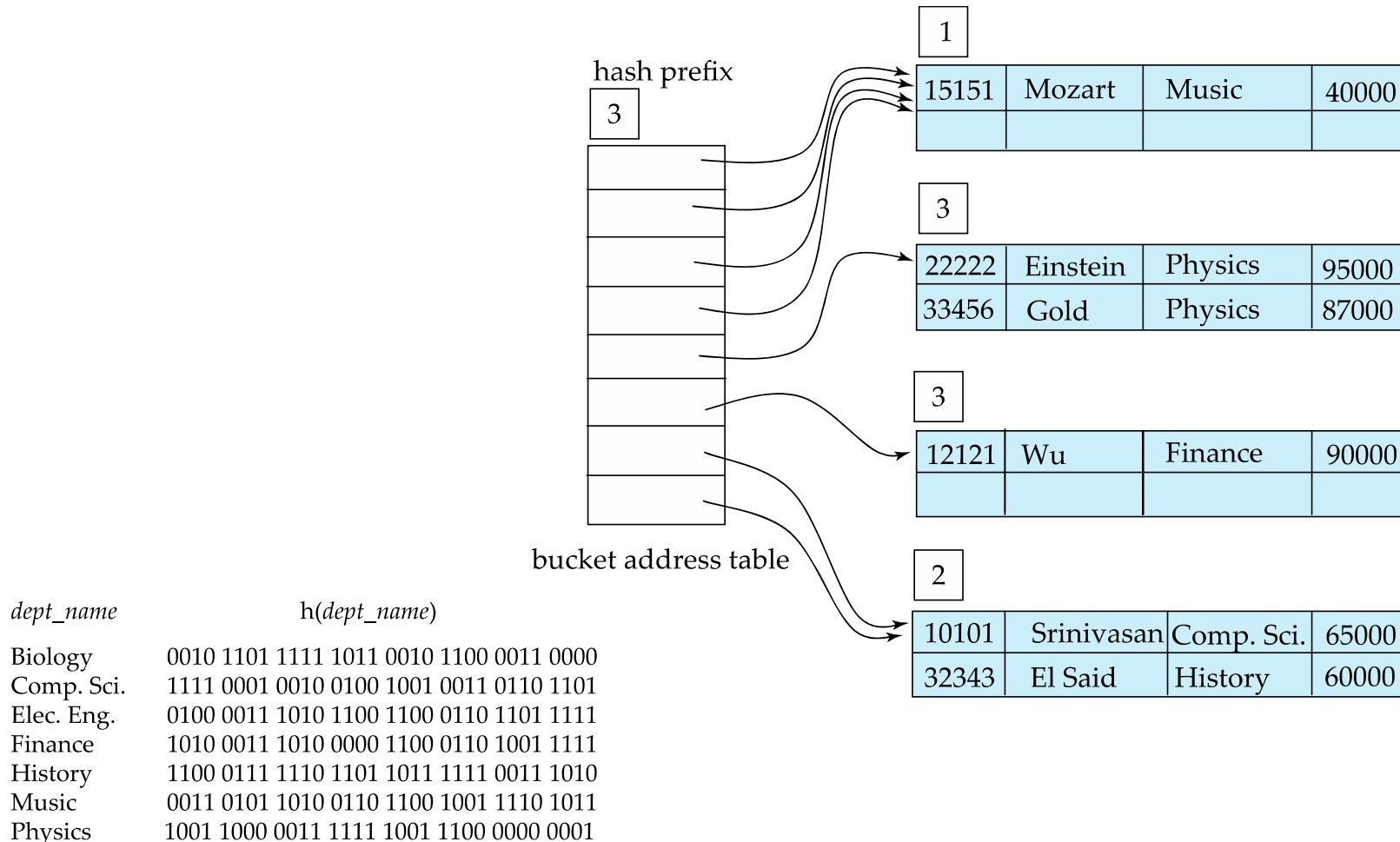
- Hash structure after insertion of Einstein record





Example (Cont.)

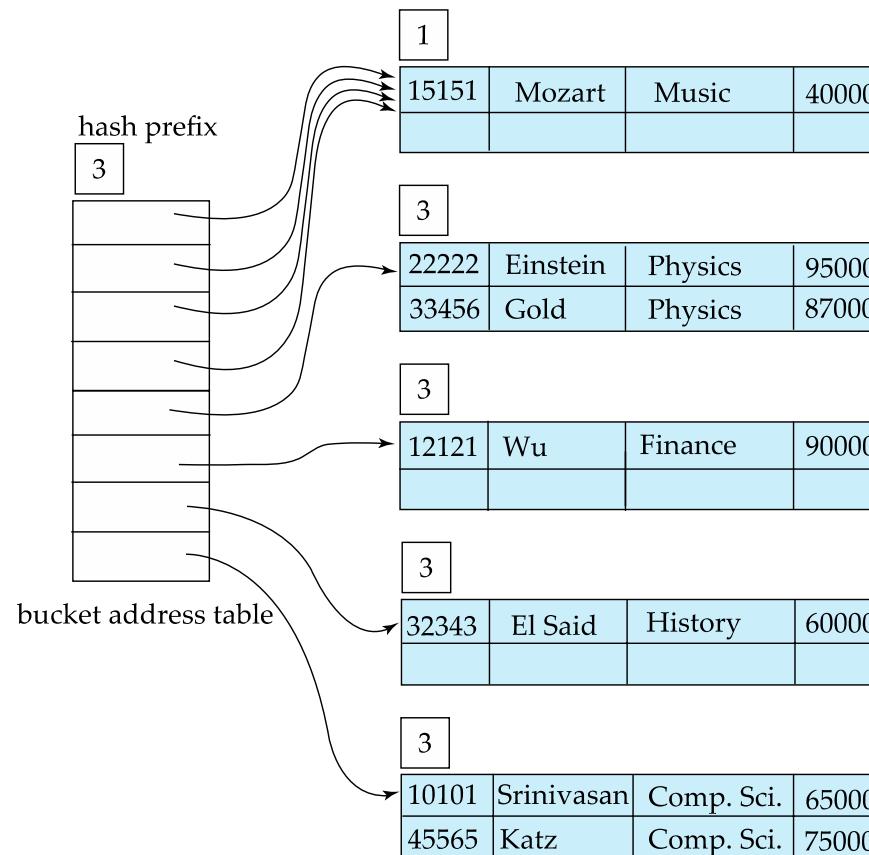
- Hash structure after insertion of Gold and El Said records





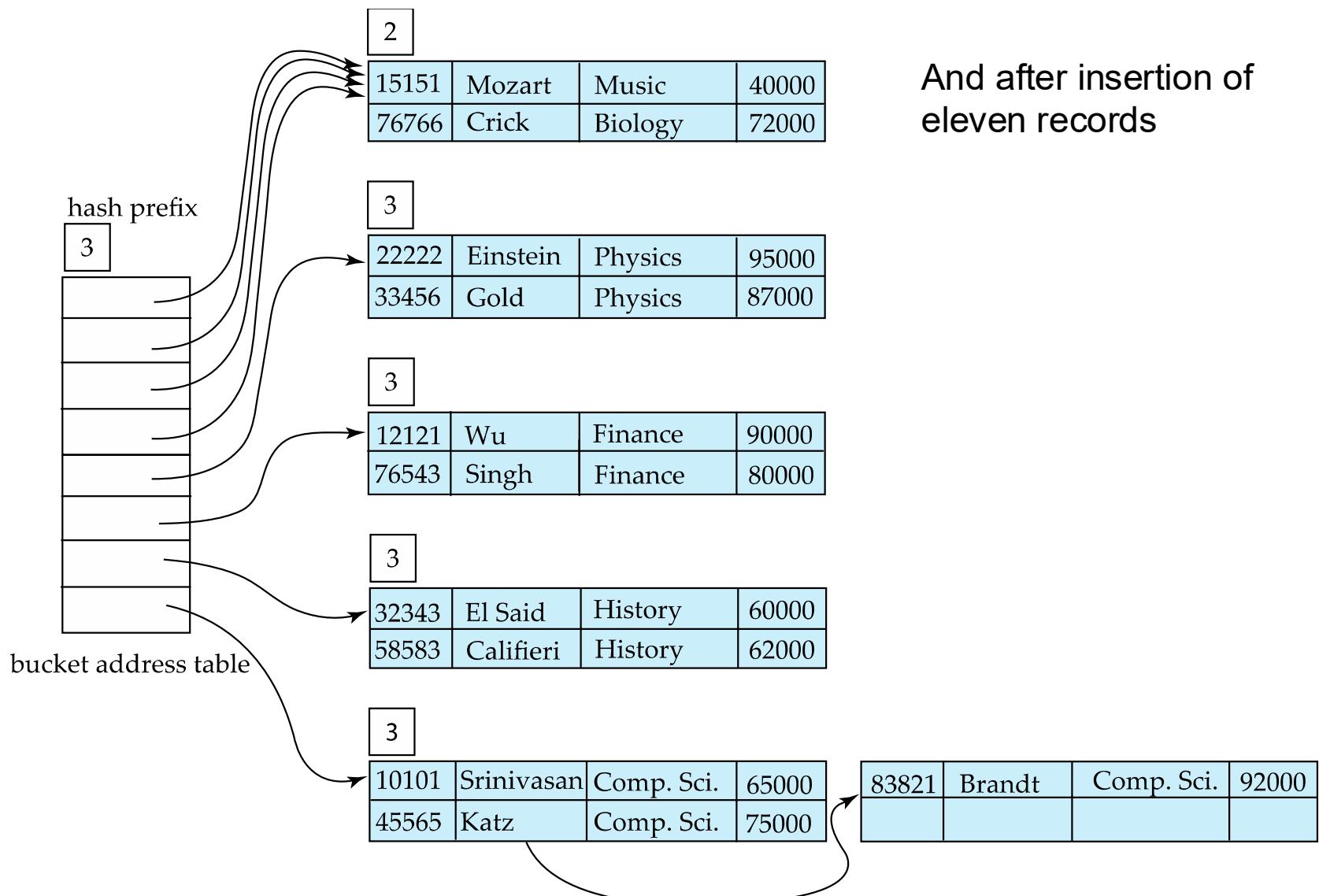
Example (Cont.)

- Hash structure after insertion of Katz record



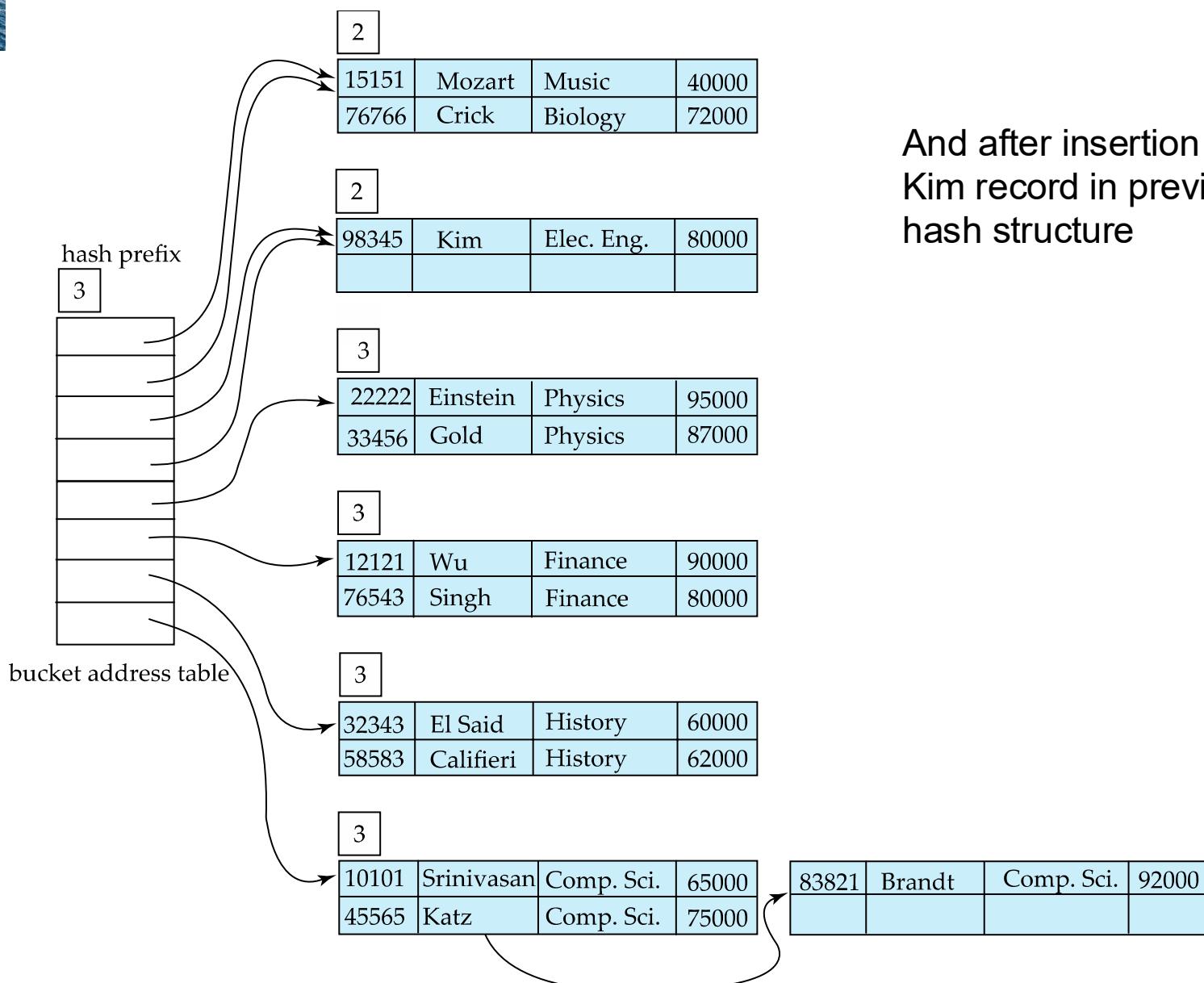


Example (Cont.)





Example (Cont.)



And after insertion of
Kim record in previous
hash structure



End of Chapter 14