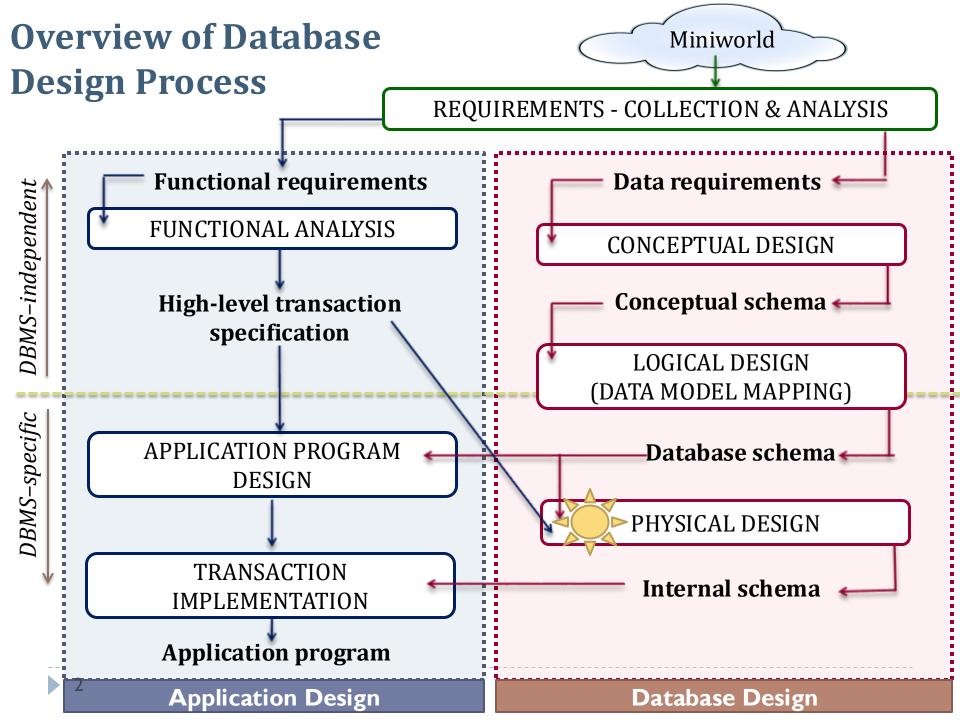


Data Storage, Indexing Structures for Files

Chapter 8



Contents (*) homework

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1.1	Disk Storage Devices
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1.5	RAID Technology and Storage Area Networks (*)
2	Indexing Structures for Files
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2.2	Multilevel Indexes
2.3	Dynamic Multilevel Indexes Using B-Trees and B+-Trees

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Memory & Storage Hierarchy

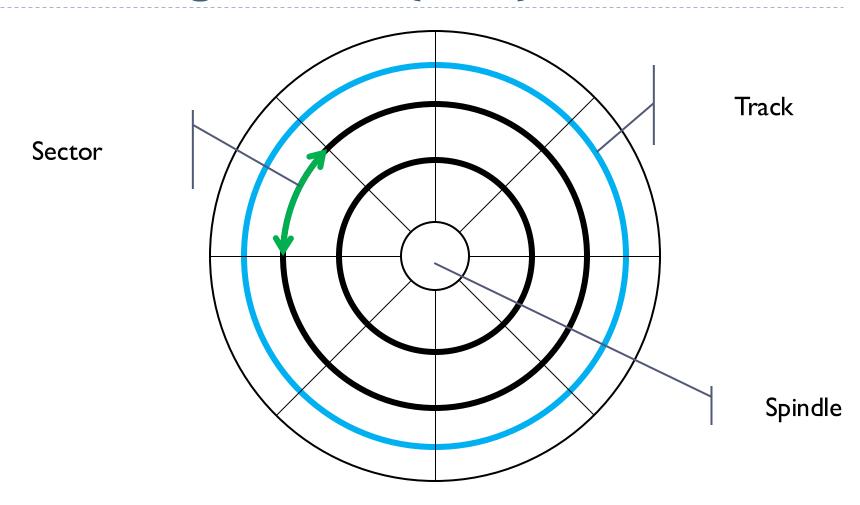


Source: http://www.ts.avnet.com/uk/products and solutions/storage/hierarchy.html

Disk Storage Devices

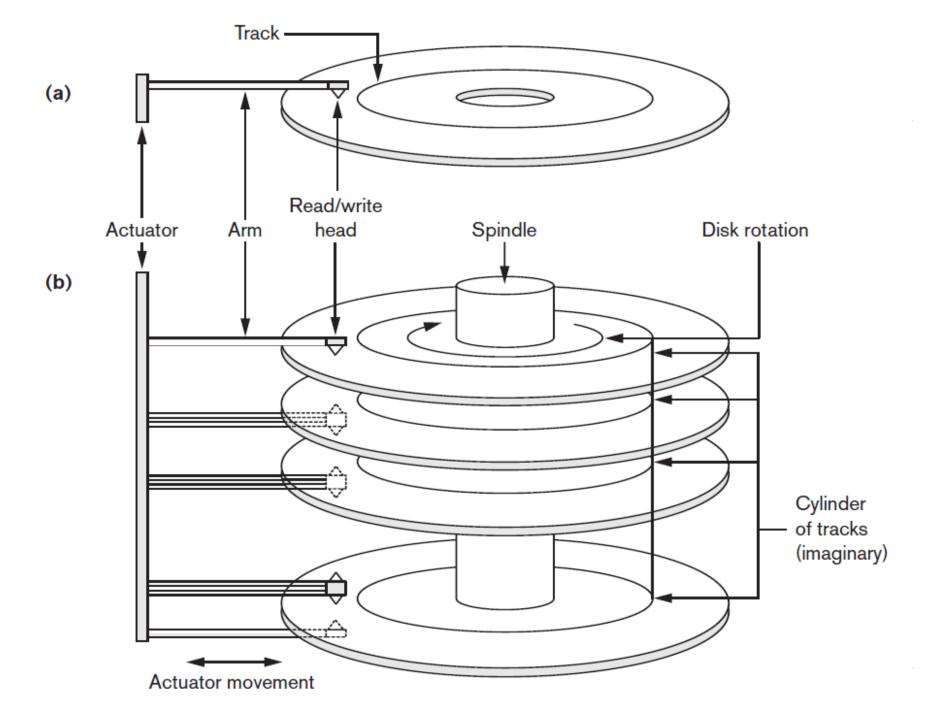
- Preferred secondary storage device for high storage capacity and low cost.
- Data stored as magnetized areas on magnetic disk surfaces.
- A disk pack contains several magnetic disks connected to a rotating spindle.
- Disks are divided into concentric circular tracks on each disk surface.
 - Track capacities vary typically from 4 to 50 Kbytes.

(a) Track -Sector (arc of track) (b) Three sectors -Two sectors One sector



- ▶ A track is divided into smaller **blocks** or **sectors**.
 - because a track usually contains a large amount of information.
- A track is divided into blocks.
 - The block size B is fixed for each system.
 - ▶ Typical block sizes range from B=512 bytes to B=4096 bytes.
 - Whole blocks are transferred between disk and main memory for processing.

- ▶ A **read-write head** moves to the track that contains the block to be transferred.
 - Disk rotation moves the block under the read-write head for reading or writing.
- A physical disk block (hardware) address consists of:
 - a cylinder number (imaginary collection of tracks of same radius from all recorded surfaces)
 - the track number or surface number (within the cylinder)
 - and block number (within track).
- Reading or writing a disk block is time consuming because of the seek time s and rotational delay (latency) rd.
- Double buffering can be used to speed up the transfer of contiguous disk blocks.



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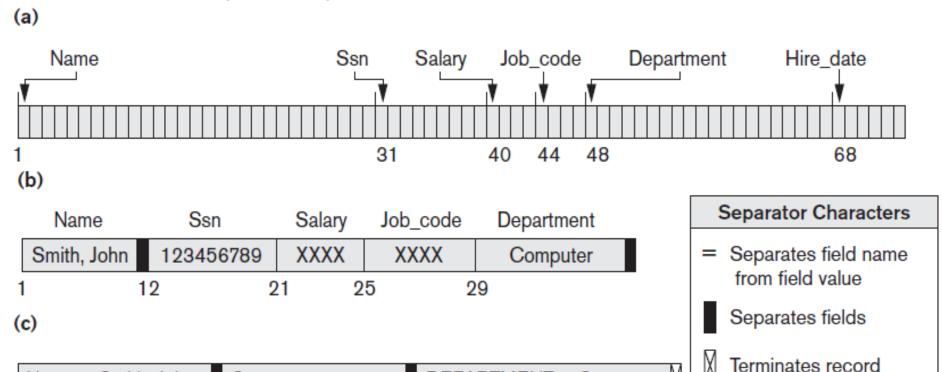
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Records

- Fixed and variable length records.
- Records contain fields which have values of a particular type.
 - E.g., amount, date, time, age.
- Fields themselves may be fixed length or variable length.
- Variable length fields can be mixed into one record:
 - Separator characters or length fields are needed so that the record can be "parsed".

Records (cont.)



DEPARTMENT = Computer |

(a) A fixed-length record with 6 fields and size of 71 bytes.

Ssn = 123456789

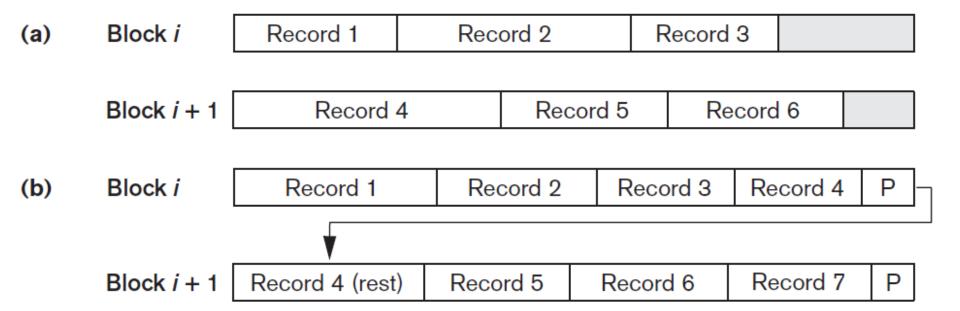
- (b) A record with 2 variable-length fields and 3 fixed-length fields.
- (c) A variable-field record with 3 types of separator characters.

Name = Smith, John

Blocking

- ▶ **Blocking:** refers to storing a number of records in one block on the disk.
- ▶ **Blocking factor (***bfr***):** refers to the number of records per block.
- There may be empty space in a block if an integral number of records do not fit in one block.
- ▶ **Spanned Records:** refer to records that exceed the size of one or more blocks and hence span a number of blocks.

Blocking (cont.)



(a)Unspanned records(b)Spanned records

Files of Records

- ▶ A **file** is a *sequence* of records, where each record is a collection of data values (or data items).
- ▶ A **file descriptor** (or **file header**) includes information that describes the file, such as the *field* names and their data types, and the addresses of the file blocks on disk.
- Records are stored on disk blocks.
- The blocking factor bfr for a file is the (average) number of file records stored in a disk block.
- ▶ A file can have **fixed-length** records or **variable-length** records.

Files of Records (cont.)

- File records can be **unspanned** or **spanned**:
 - **Unspanned**: no record can span two blocks
 - ▶ **Spanned**: a record can be stored in more than one block
- The physical disk blocks that are allocated to hold the records of a file can be *contiguous*, *linked*, *or indexed*.
- In a file of fixed-length records, all records have the same format. Usually, unspanned blocking is used with such files.
- Files of variable-length records require additional information to be stored in each record, such as separator characters and field types.
 - Usually spanned blocking is used with such files.

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Operation on Files

- **OPEN:** Reads the file for access, and associates a pointer that will refer to a *current* file record at each point in time.
- **FIND:** Searches for the first file record that satisfies a certain condition, and makes it the current file record.
- ▶ **FINDNEXT:** Searches for the next file record (from the current record) that satisfies a certain condition, and makes it the current file record.
- **READ:** Reads the current file record into a program variable.
- **INSERT:** Inserts a new record into the file, and makes it the current file record.

Operation on Files (cont.)

- **DELETE:** Removes the current file record from the file, usually by marking the record to indicate that it is no longer valid.
- **MODIFY:** Changes the values of some fields of the current file record.
- **CLOSE:** Terminates access to the file.
- ▶ **REORGANIZE:** Reorganizes the file records. For example, the records marked deleted are physically removed from the file or a new organization of the file records is created.
- ▶ **READ_ORDERED:** Read the file blocks in order of a specific field of the file.

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Unordered Files

- Also called a heap or a pile file.
- New records are inserted at the end of the file.
- ▶ A **linear search** through the file records is necessary to search for a record.
 - This requires reading and searching half the file blocks on the average, and is hence quite expensive.
- Record insertion is quite efficient.
- Reading the records in order of a particular field requires sorting the file records.

Ordered Files

- ▶ Also called a **sequential** file.
- File records are kept sorted by the values of an *ordering field*.
- Insertion is expensive: records must be inserted in the correct order.
 - It is common to keep a separate unordered *overflow* (or *transaction*) file for new records to improve insertion efficiency; this is periodically merged with the main ordered file.
- ▶ A **binary search** can be used to search for a record on its *ordering field* value.
 - ▶ This requires reading and searching log₂ of the file blocks on the average, an improvement over linear search.
- Reading the records in order of the ordering field is quite efficient.

	NAME	SSN	BIRTHDATE	JOB	SALARY	SEX
block 1	Aaron, Ed					
	Abbott, Diane					
		-	:	-		
	Acosta, Marc		<u> </u>			
block 2	Adama Jahn	T	T	1		
DIOCK 2	Adams, John	 				-
	Adams, Robin		•	<u> </u>		
	Akers, Jan	T	i ·			
	7 110.0, 04.1			L	<u> </u>	
block 3	Alexander, Ed					
	Alfred, Bob					
Ordered Files			:			
OT GOT CG T HOS	Allen, Sam	<u> </u>		<u></u>		
(cont)						
(cont.)			•			
			•			
block n –1		T	T	Г	I	Г
DIOCK II — I	Wong, James			 		
	Wood, Donald	<u> </u>	I	<u> </u>		I
	Moode Manny	T	T	T	T.	
	Woods, Manny	<u> </u>	1			
block n	Wright, Pam					
	Wyatt, Charles					
			•			
26	Zimmer, Byron					

Average Access Times

▶ The following table shows the average access time to access a specific record for a given type of file:

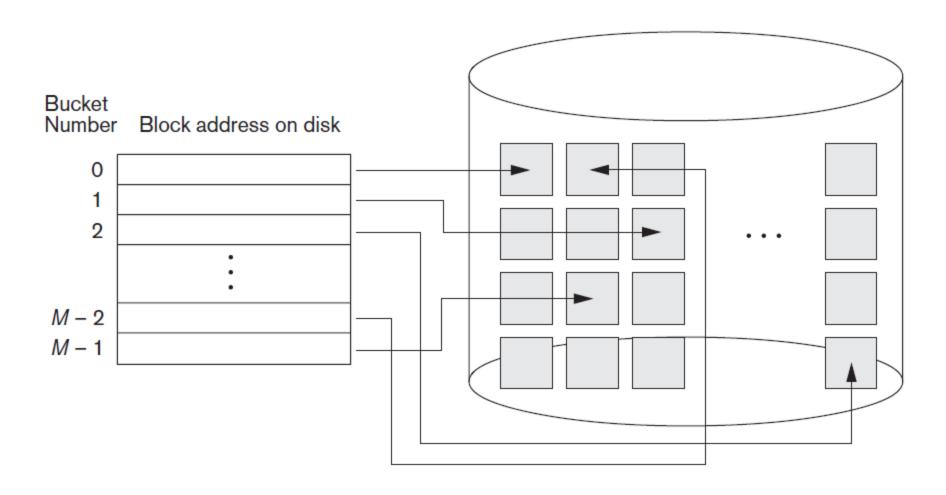
Table 17.2 Average Access Times for a File of *b* Blocks under Basic File Organizations

Type of Organization	Access/Search Method	Average Blocks to Access a Specific Record
Heap (unordered)	Sequential scan (linear search)	<i>b</i> /2
Ordered	Sequential scan	<i>b</i> /2
Ordered	Binary search	$\log_2 b$

Hashed Files

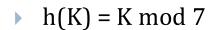
- Hashing for disk files is called External Hashing.
- ▶ The file blocks are divided into M equal-sized buckets, numbered bucket₀, bucket₁, ..., bucket_{M-1}.
 - Typically, a bucket corresponds to one (or a fixed number of) disk block.
- One of the file fields is designated to be the hash key of the file.
- ▶ The record with hash key value K is stored in bucket i, where i=h(K), and h is the hashing function.
- Search is very efficient on the hash key.
- Collisions occur when a new record hashes to a bucket that is already full.
 - An overflow file is kept for storing such records.
 - Overflow records that hash to each bucket can be linked together

Hashed Files (cont.)



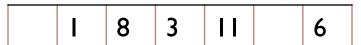
Hashed Files (cont.)

- There are numerous methods for collision resolution, including the following:
 - Open addressing: Proceeding from the occupied position specified by the hash address, the program checks the subsequent positions in order until an unused (empty) position is found.



0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
	I		3	11		6	

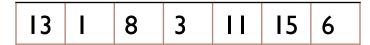
Insert 8



Insert 15



Insert 13



Hashed Files (cont.)

There are numerous methods for collision resolution, including the following:

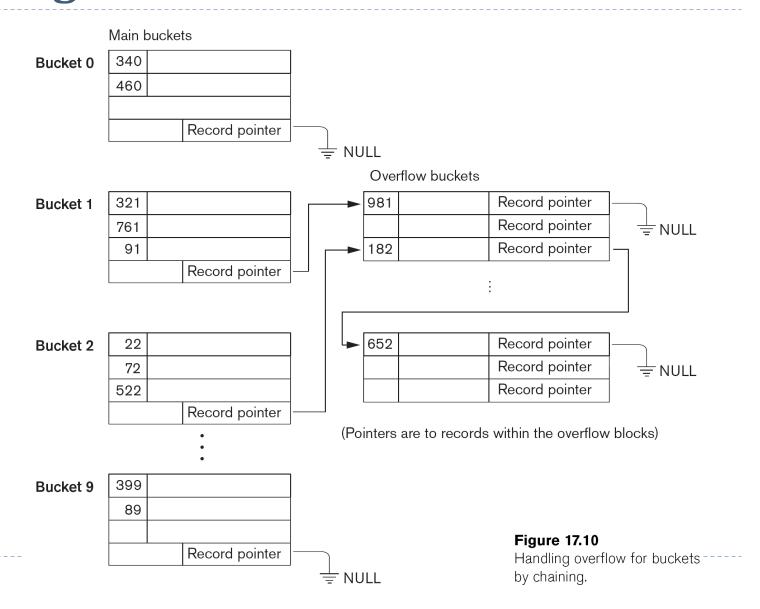
Chaining:

- Various overflow locations are kept: extending the array with a number of overflow positions.
- A pointer field is added to each record location.
- A collision is resolved by placing the new record in an unused overflow location and setting the pointer of the occupied hash address location to the address of that overflow location.

Multiple hashing:

- The program applies a second hash function if the first results in a collision.
- If another collision results, the program uses open addressing or applies a third hash function and then uses open addressing if necessary.

Hashed Files (cont.) - Overflow handling



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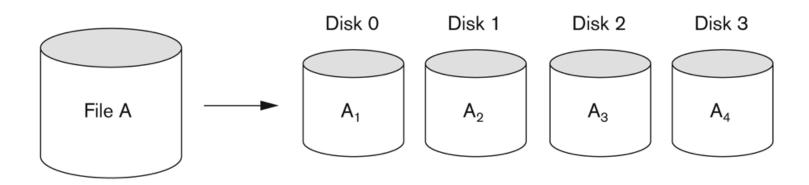
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Parallelizing Disk Access using RAID Technology

- Secondary storage technology must take steps to keep up in performance and reliability with processor technology.
- ▶ A major advance in secondary storage technology is represented by the development of RAID, which originally stood for Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks.
- ▶ The main goal of RAID is to even out the widely different rates of performance improvement of disks against those in memory and microprocessors.

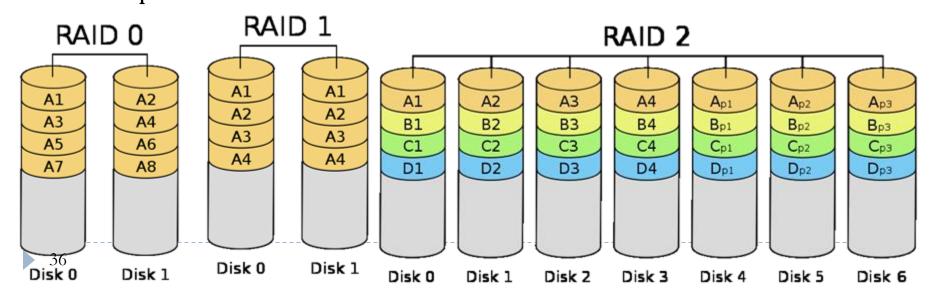
RAID Technology (cont.)

- A natural solution is a large array of small independent disks acting as a single higher-performance logical disk.
- A concept called **data striping** is used, which utilizes *parallelism* to improve disk performance.
- Data striping distributes data transparently over multiple disks to make them appear as a single large, fast disk.



RAID Technology (cont.)

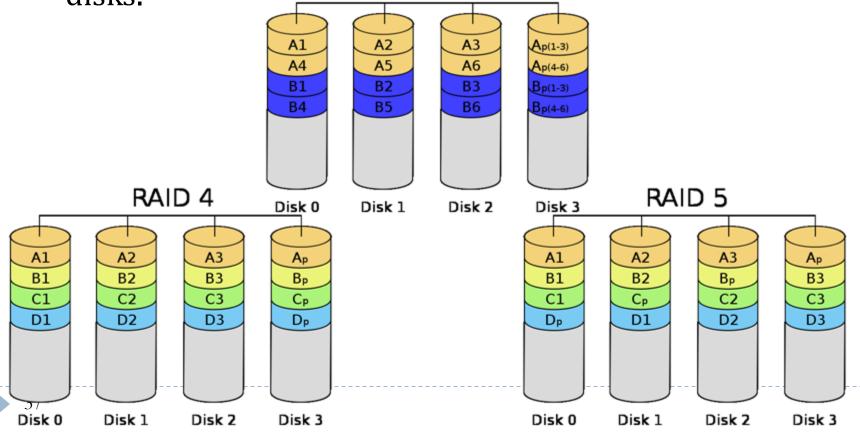
- Different raid organizations were defined based on different combinations of the two factors of granularity of data interleaving (striping) and pattern used to compute redundant information.
 - ▶ **Raid level 0** has no redundant data and hence has the best write performance.
 - ▶ **Raid level 1** uses mirrored disks.
 - Raid level 2 uses memory-style redundancy by using Hamming codes, which contain parity bits for distinct overlapping subsets of components. Level 2 includes both error detection and correction.



RAID Technology (cont.)

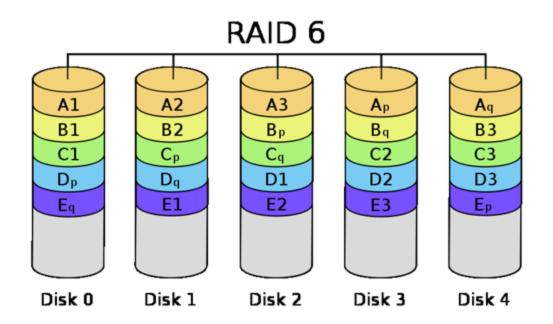
▶ **Raid level 3** uses a single parity disk relying on the disk controller to figure out which disk has failed.

Raid levels 4 and 5 use block-level data striping, with level 5 distributing data and parity information across all disks.



RAID Technology (cont.)

▶ **Raid level 6** applies the so-called *P* + *Q* redundancy scheme using Reed-Soloman codes to protect against up to two disk failures by using just two redundant disks.



Use of RAID Technology (cont.)

- Different raid organizations are being used under different situations:
 - Raid level 1 (mirrored disks) is the easiest for rebuild of a disk from other disks
 - ▶ It is used for critical applications like logs.
 - Raid level 2 uses memory-style redundancy by using Hamming codes, which contain parity bits for distinct overlapping subsets of components. Level 2 includes both error detection and correction.
 - Raid level 3 (single parity disks relying on the disk controller to figure out which disk has failed) and level 5 (block-level data striping) are preferred for large volume storage, with level 3 giving higher transfer rates.
 - Most popular uses of the RAID technology currently are: Level 0 (with striping), Level 1 (with mirroring) and Level 5 with an extra drive for parity.
 - Design decisions for RAID include level of RAID, number of disks, choice of parity schemes, and grouping of disks for block-level striping.

Storage Area Networks

- The demand for higher storage has risen considerably in recent times.
- Organizations have a need to move from a static fixed data center oriented operation to a more flexible and dynamic infrastructure for information processing.
- ▶ Thus they are moving to a concept of Storage Area Networks (SANs).
 - In a SAN, online storage peripherals are configured as nodes on a high-speed network and can be attached and detached from servers in a very flexible manner.
- ▶ This allows storage systems to be placed at longer distances from the servers and provide different performance and connectivity options.

Storage Area Networks (cont.)

Advantages of SANs are:

- Flexible many-to-many connectivity among servers and storage devices using fiber channel hubs and switches.
- Up to 10km separation between a server and a storage system using appropriate fiber optic cables.
- Better isolation capabilities allowing nondisruptive addition of new peripherals and servers.
- SANs face the problem of combining storage options from multiple vendors and dealing with evolving standards of storage management software and hardware.

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Indexes as Access Paths

- A single-level index is an auxiliary file that makes it more efficient to search for a record in the data file.
- The index is usually specified on one field of the file (although it could be specified on several fields)
- One form of an index is a file of entries < field value, pointer to record>, which is ordered by field value
- ▶ The index is called an access path on the field.

Indexes as Access Paths (cont.)

- The index file usually occupies considerably less disk blocks than the data file because its entries are much smaller.
- A *binary search* on the index yields a pointer to the file record.
- Indexes can also be characterized as dense or sparse:
 - A dense index has an index entry for every search key value (and hence every record) in the data file.
 - A **sparse (or nondense) index**, on the other hand, has index entries for only some of the search values

Example

Given the following data file: EMPLOYEE(NAME, SSN, ADDRESS, JOB, SAL, ...) Suppose that:

- ▶ record size R=150 bytes, block size B=512 bytes, r=30000 records
- ▶ SSN Field size V_{SSN}=9 bytes, record pointer size P_R=7 bytes

Then, we get:

- ▶ blocking factor: $bfr = \lfloor B/R \rfloor = \lfloor 512/150 \rfloor = 3$ records/block
- number of blocks needed for the file: $b = \lceil r/bfr \rceil = \lceil 30000/3 \rceil = 10000$ blocks

For an dense index on the SSN field:

- index entry size: $R_i = (V_{SSN} + P_R) = (9+7) = 16$ bytes
- index blocking factor $bfr_i = \lfloor B/R_I \rfloor = \lfloor 512/16 \rfloor = 32$ entries/block
- number of blocks for index file: $b_i = \lceil r/bfr_i \rceil = (30000/32) = 938$ blocks
- search for and retrieve a record needs: $\lceil \log_2 b_i \rceil + 1 = \lceil \log_2 938 \rceil + 1 = 11$ block accesses
- ▶ This is compared to an average linear search cost of:

$$(b/2) = 10000/2 = 5000$$
 block accesses

▶ If the file records are ordered, the binary search cost would be:

$$\lceil \log_2 b \rceil = \lceil \log_2 10000 \rceil = 14 \text{ block accesses}$$

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Types of Single-level Ordered Indexes

Primary Indexes

Clustering Indexes

Secondary Indexes

Primary Index

- Defined on an ordered data file.
 - ▶ The data file is ordered on a *key field*.
- One index entry for each block in the data file
 - First record in the block, which is called the block anchor
- A similar scheme can use the *last record* in a block.

Primary key field

Index file $(\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle)$ entries

Primary key value	Block pointer
I	
4	
8	
12	

ID	Name	DoB	Salary	Sex
ı				
2				
3				
4				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
			•	
12				
13				
15				

Primary Index

- Number of index entries?
 - Number of blocks in data file.
- Dense or Nondense?
 - Nondense
- Search/Insert/Update/Delete?

Clustering Index

- Defined on an ordered data file.
 - ▶ The data file is ordered on a *non-key field*.
- ▶ One index entry *each distinct value* of the field.
 - The index entry points to the *first data block* that contains records with that field value

Uclustering field

Index file $(\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle)$ entries

Clustering field value	Block pointer
I	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Name	DoB	Salary	Sex
	Name	Name DoB	Name DoB Salary

Clustering	field
------------	-------

ır	idex i	ille
(< K(i),	P(i)>	entries)

Clustering field value	Block pointer
I	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Dept_No	Name	DoB	Salary	Sex	
I					
I					
2					
2					
2					
2					
2					
	•				
3					
3					
4					
4					
				_	1
5					

Clustering Index

- Number of index entries?
 - Number of distinct indexing field values in data file.
- Dense or Nondense?
 - Nondense
- Search/Insert/Update/Delete?
- At most one primary index or one clustering index but not both.

Secondary index

- A secondary index provides a secondary means of accessing a file.
 - The data file is unordered on indexing field.
- Indexing field:
 - secondary key (unique value)
 - nonkey (duplicate values)
- The index is an ordered file with two fields.
 - ▶ The first field: *indexing field*.
 - ▶ The second field: *block* pointer or *record* pointer.
- There can be many secondary indexes for the same file.

Index file

 $(\langle K(i), P(i) \rangle$ entries)

Secondary key field

Index field value	Block pointer	7	5		
3			13		
4			8		
			_		
5		4	6		
6			15		
8			3		
9					
			9		
11			21		
13		•••	11		
15			11		
18			4		
21			23		
23			18		

Secondary index on key field

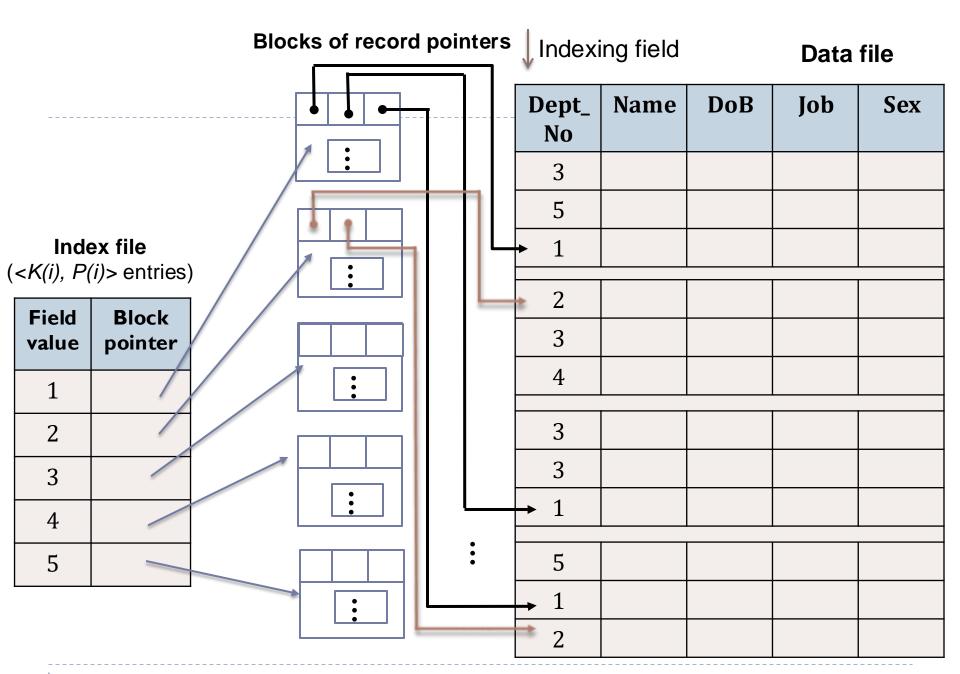
Secondary index on key field

- Number of index entries?
 - Number of record in data file
- Dense or Nondense?
 - Dense

Search/Insert/Update/Delete?

Secondary index on non-key field

- Discussion: Structure of Secondary index on non-key field?
- ▶ Option 1: include **duplicate index entries** with the same *K*(*i*) value one for each record.
- ▶ Option 2: keep a **list of pointers** < P(i, 1), ..., P(i, k)> in the index entry for K(i).
- Option 3:
 - more commonly used.
 - one entry for each distinct index field value + an extra level of indirection to handle the multiple pointers.



Secondary Index on non-key field: option 3

Secondary index on nonkey field

- Number of index entries?
 - Number of records in data file
 - Number of distinct index field values
- Dense or Nondense?
 - Dense/ nondense
- Search/Insert/Update/Delete?

Summary of Single-level indexes

- Ordered file on indexing field?
 - Primary index
 - Clustering index
- Indexing field is Key?
 - Primary index
 - Secondary index
- Indexing field is not Key?
 - Clustering index
 - Secondary index

Summary of Single-level indexes

- Dense index?
 - Secondary index
- Nondense index?
 - Primary index
 - Clustering index
 - Secondary index

Summary of Single-level indexes

Table 18.2 Properties of Index Types

Type of Index	Number of (First-level) Index Entries	Dense or Nondense (Sparse)	Block Anchoring on the Data File
Primary	Number of blocks in data file	Nondense	Yes
Clustering	Number of distinct index field values	Nondense	Yes/no ^a
Secondary (key)	Number of records in data file	Dense	No
Secondary (nonkey)	Number of records ^b or number of distinct index field values ^c	Dense or Nondense	No

^aYes if every distinct value of the ordering field starts a new block; no otherwise.

^bFor option 1.

^cFor options 2 and 3.

Example

Given the following data file: EMPLOYEE(NAME, SSN, ADDRESS, JOB, SAL, ...) Suppose that:

- ▶ record size R=150 bytes, block size B=512 bytes, r=30000 records
- ▶ SSN Field size V_{SSN}=9 bytes, block pointer size P=6 bytes

Then, we get:

- ▶ blocking factor: $bfr = \lfloor B/R \rfloor = \lfloor 512/150 \rfloor = 3$ records/block
- number of blocks needed for the file: $b = \lceil r/bfr \rceil = \lceil 30000/3 \rceil = 10000$ blocks

For a primary index on the ordering key field SSN:

- index entry size: $R_i = (V_{SSN} + P) = (9+6) = 15$ bytes
- index blocking factor $bfr_i = \lfloor B/R_i \rfloor = \lfloor 512/15 \rfloor = 34$ entries/block
- number of blocks for index file: $b_i = \lceil b/bfr_i \rceil = \lceil 10000/34 \rceil = 295$ blocks
- ▶ search for and retrieve a record needs: $\lceil \log_2 b_i \rceil + 1 = \lceil \log_2 295 \rceil + 1 = 10$ block accesses
- ▶ This is compared to a dense index cost of: 11 block accesses

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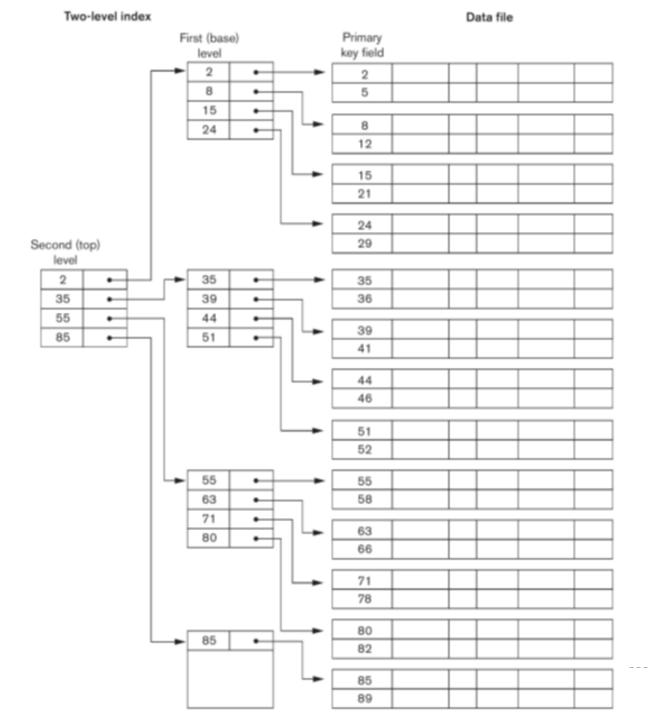
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Multi-Level Indexes

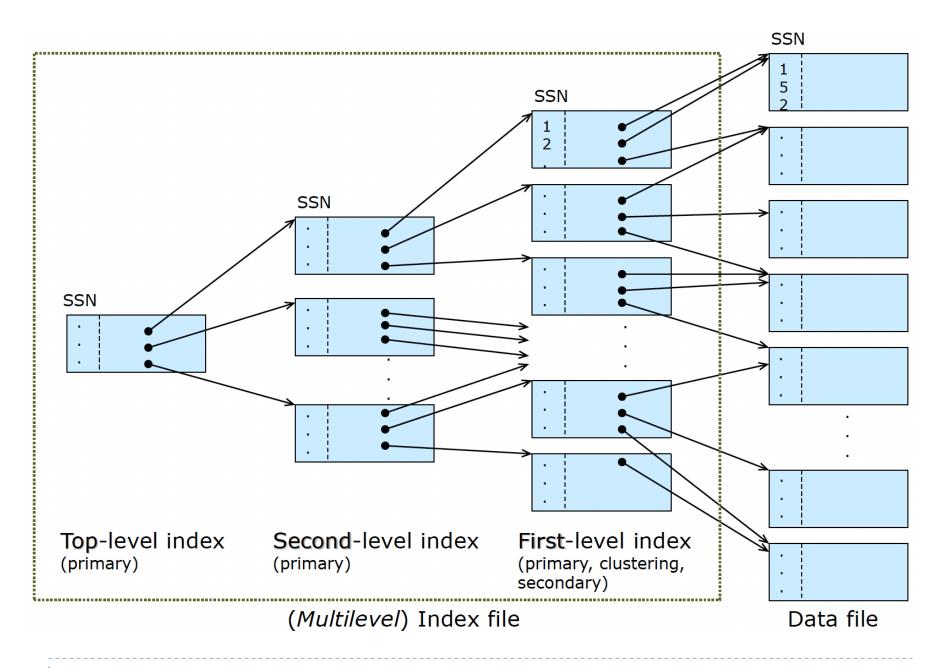
- Because a single-level index is an ordered file, we can create a primary index to the index itself.
 - The original index file is called the *first-level index* and the index to the index is called the *second-level index*.
- We can repeat the process, creating a third, fourth, ..., top level until all entries of the top level fit in one disk block.
- A multi-level index can be created for any type of first-level index (primary, secondary, clustering) as long as the first-level index consists of *more than one* disk block.

Multi-Level Indexes

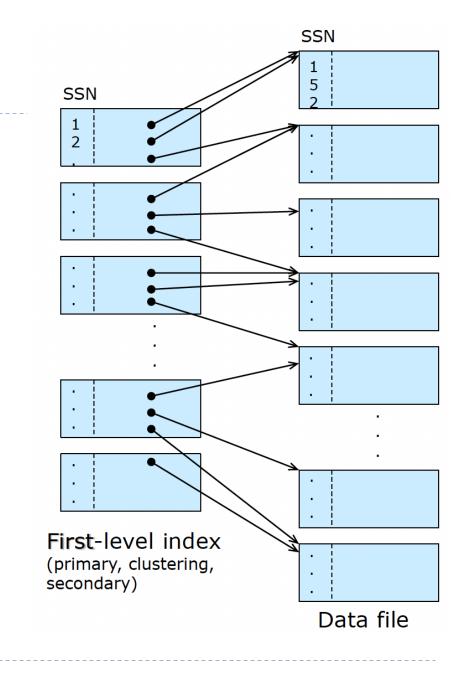
- Such a multi-level index is a form of search tree.
- However, insertion and deletion of new index entries is a severe problem because every level of the index is an ordered file.

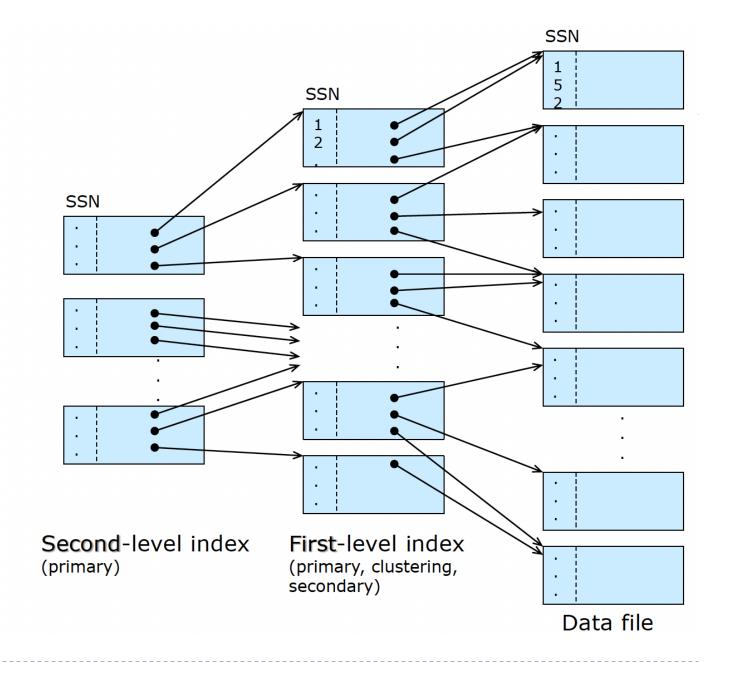


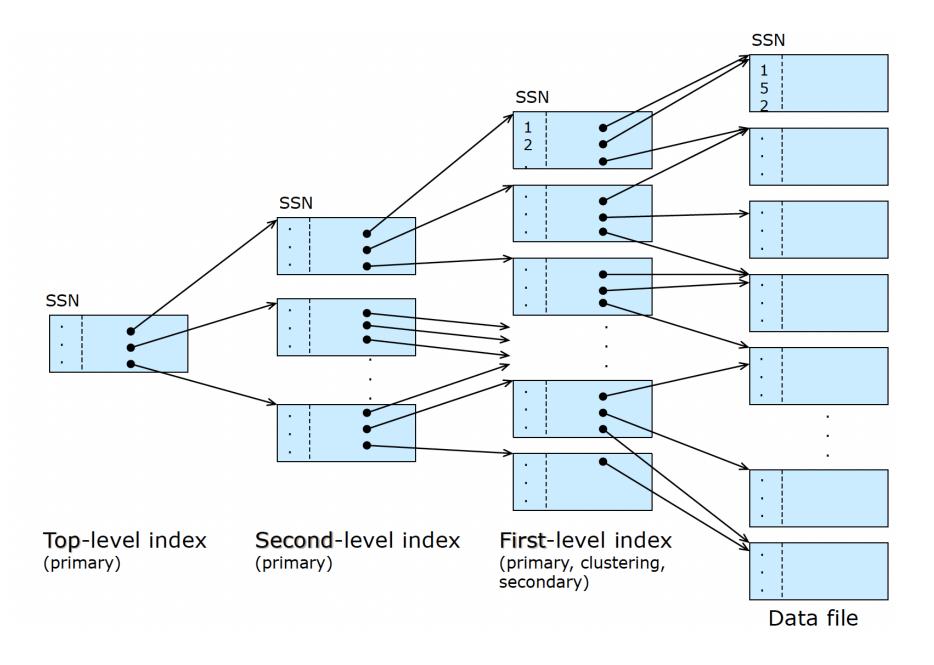
A two-level primary index resembling ISAM (Indexed Sequential Access Method) organization.

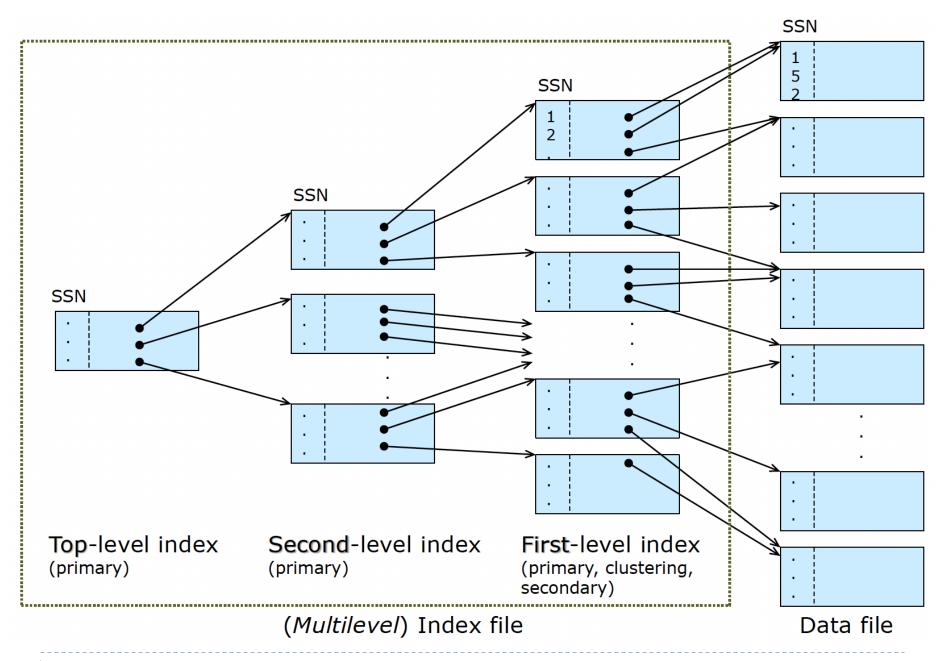


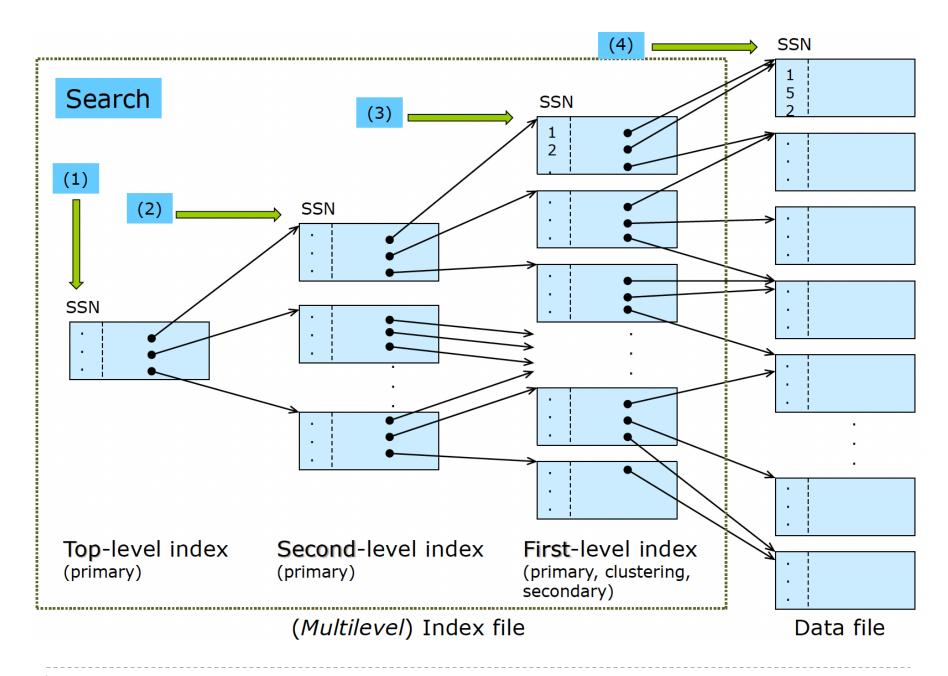
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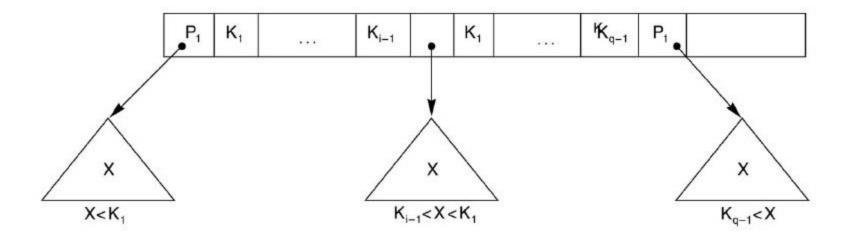




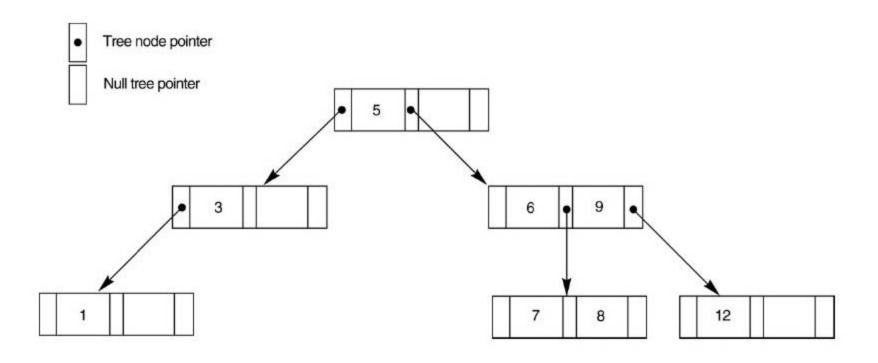




A Node in a Search Tree with Pointers to Subtrees below It



A search tree of order p = 3



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1.5	RAID Technology and Storage Area Networks
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2.3 78	Dynamic Multilevel Indexes Using B-Trees and B+- Trees

Dynamic Multilevel Indexes Using B-Trees and B+-Trees

- Most multi-level indexes use B-tree or B+-tree data structures because of the insertion and deletion problem.
 - This leaves space in each tree node (disk block) to allow for new index entries
- These data structures are variations of search trees that allow efficient insertion and deletion of new search values.
- In B-Tree and B+-Tree data structures, each node corresponds to a disk block.
- Each node is kept between half-full and completely full.

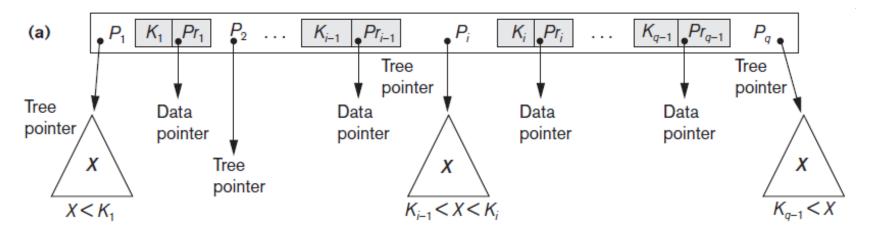
Dynamic Multilevel Indexes Using B-Trees and B+-Trees (cont.)

- An insertion into a node that is not full is quite efficient.
 - If a node is full, the insertion causes a split into two nodes.
- Splitting may propagate to other tree levels.
- ▶ A deletion is quite efficient if a node does not become less than half full.
- If a deletion causes a node to become less than half full, it must be merged with neighboring nodes.

Difference between B-tree and B+-tree

- In a B-Tree, pointers to data records exist at all levels of the tree.
- ▶ In a B+-Tree, all pointers to data records exist at the leaf-level nodes.
- ▶ A B+-Tree can have less levels (or higher capacity of search values) than the corresponding B-tree.

B-tree Structures



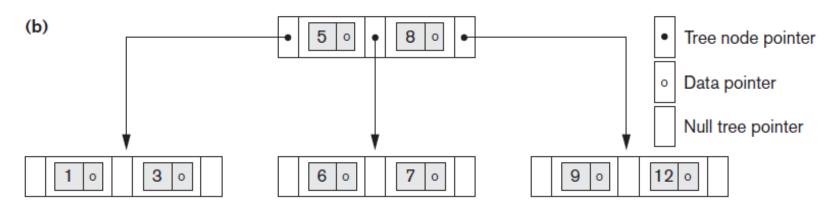


Figure 18.10

B-tree structures. (a) A node in a B-tree with q-1 search values. (b) A B-tree of order p=3. The values were inserted in the order 8, 5, 1, 7, 3, 12, 9, 6.

The Nodes of a B*-Tree

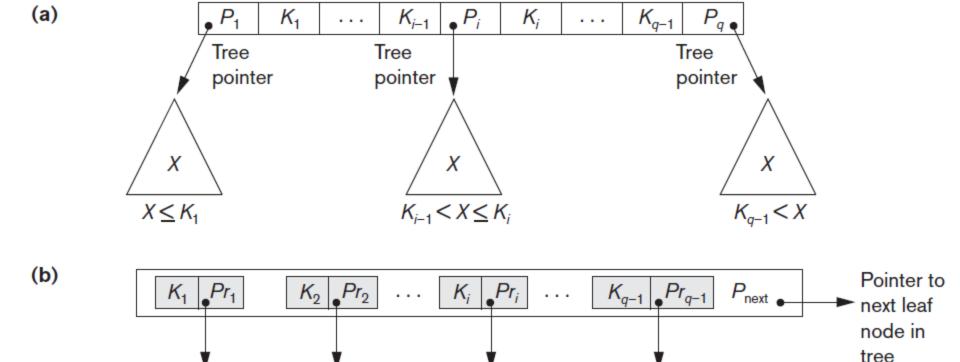


Figure 18.11

pointer

Data

Data

pointer

The nodes of a B⁺-tree. (a) Internal node of a B⁺-tree with q - 1 search values. (b) Leaf node of a B⁺-tree with q - 1 search values and q - 1 data pointers.

Data

pointer

Data

pointer

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Exercise

- ▶ A file has r = 30,000 EMPLOYEE records of fixed length.
- ▶ Each record has the following fields: Name (30 bytes), SSN (9 bytes), Department_code (9 bytes), Address (40 bytes), Phone (10 bytes), Birth_date (8 bytes), Sex (1 byte), Job_code (4 bytes), and Salary (4 bytes). An additional byte is used as a deletion marker.
- ▶ Block size B = 512 bytes, block pointer P = 6 bytes, record pointer PR = 7 bytes.
- 1. Calculate the *record size* R in bytes.
- 2. Calculate the *blocking factor bfr* and the *number of file blocks b*, assuming an unspanned organization.

- 1. Calculate the *record size* R in bytes.
 - R = 30 + 9 + 9 + 40 + 10 + 8 + 1 + 4 + 4 + 1 = 116 bytes.
- 2. Calculate the *blocking factor bfr* and the *number of file blocks b*, assuming an unspanned organization.
 - ▶ $bfr = \lfloor B/R \rfloor = \lfloor 512/116 \rfloor = 4$ (records/blocks)
 - $b = \lceil r/bfr \rceil = \lceil 30000/4 \rceil = 7500 \text{ (blocks)}$

- ▶ A file has r = 30,000 EMPLOYEE records of fixed length.
- ▶ Each record has the following fields: Name (30 bytes), SSN (9 bytes), Department_code (9 bytes), Address (40 bytes), Phone (10 bytes), Birth_date (8 bytes), Sex (1 byte), Job_code (4 bytes), and Salary (4 bytes). An additional byte is used as a deletion marker.
- ▶ Block size B = 512 bytes, block pointer P = 6 bytes, record pointer PR = 7 bytes.
- 3. This file is *ordered by* the key field SSN. Calculate the *number of block accesses* needed to search for and retrieve a record from the file given its SSN value.

- This file is *ordered by* the key field SSN. Calculate the *number of block accesses* needed to search for and retrieve a record from the file given its SSN value.
 - Binary search
 - Number of blocks accesses: $\lceil \log_2 b \rceil = \lceil \log_2 7500 \rceil = 13$

- ▶ A file has r = 30,000 EMPLOYEE records of fixed length.
- Each record has the following fields: Name (30 bytes), SSN (9 bytes), Department_code (9 bytes), Address (40 bytes), Phone (10 bytes), Birth_date (8 bytes), Sex (1 byte), Job_code (4 bytes), and Salary (4 bytes). An additional byte is used as a deletion marker.
- Block size B = 512 bytes, block pointer P = 6 bytes, record pointer PR = 7 bytes.
- 4. This file is *ordered by* the key field SSN and we want to construct a primary index on SSN. Calculate:
 - a) the index blocking factor bfr_i
 - b) the *number of index entries* and the *number of index blocks*

- 4. This file is *ordered by* the key field SSN and we want to construct a primary index on SSN. Calculate:
 - a) the index blocking factor bfr_i
 - Index entry size: $R_i = 9 + 6 = 15$ (bytes)
 - Index blocking factor $bfr_i = \lfloor B/R_i \rfloor = \lfloor 512/15 \rfloor = 34$
 - b) the **number of index entries** and the **number of index blocks**
 - Number of index entries: $r_i = 7500$
 - Number of index blocks: $b_i = \lceil 7500/34 \rceil = 221$

- ▶ A file has r = 30,000 EMPLOYEE records of fixed length.
- Each record has the following fields: Name (30 bytes), SSN (9 bytes), Department_code (9 bytes), Address (40 bytes), Phone (10 bytes), Birth_date (8 bytes), Sex (1 byte), Job_code (4 bytes), and Salary (4 bytes). An additional byte is used as a deletion marker.
- ▶ Block size B = 512 bytes, block pointer P = 6 bytes, record pointer PR = 7 bytes.
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- 4. This file is ordered by the key field SSN and we want to construct a primary index on SSN. Calculate:
 - the *number of block accesses* needed to search for and retrieve a record from the file given its SSN value.
 - Binary search on index file and 1 more blocks access to data file

- ▶ A file has r = 30,000 EMPLOYEE records of fixed length.
- Each record has the following fields: Name (30 bytes), SSN (9 bytes), Department_code (9 bytes), Address (40 bytes), Phone (10 bytes), Birth_date (8 bytes), Sex (1 byte), Job_code (4 bytes), and Salary (4 bytes). An additional byte is used as a deletion marker.
- ▶ Block size B = 512 bytes, block pointer P = 6 bytes, record pointer PR = 7 bytes.
 - 5. If we make it into a multilevel index (two levels).
 - a) Calculate the *total number of blocks* required by the second index
 - the *number of block accesses* needed to search for and retrieve a record from the file given its SSN value

- 5. If we make it into a multilevel index (two levels).
 - a) Calculate the *total number of blocks* required by the second index
 - Number of 1st level index entries: $r_{i_1} = 7500$
 - Number of 1st level index blocks: $b_{i_1} = 221$
 - Number of 2^{nd} level index entries: $r_{i_2} = 221$
 - Number of 2nd level index blocks: $b_{i_2} = \lceil 221/34 \rceil = 7$
 - the *number of block accesses* needed to search for and retrieve a record from the file given its SSN value
 - $\lceil \log_2 b_{i_2} \rceil + 1 + 1 = \lceil \log_2 7 \rceil + 1 + 1 = 5 \text{ blocks}$