

# DATABASE PERFORMANCE AND INDEXES

CS121: Introduction to Relational Database Systems  
Fall 2016 – Lecture 11

# Database Performance

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- Many situations where query performance needs to be improved
  - ▣ e.g. as data size grows, query performance degrades and tuning needs to be performed
  - ▣ Extreme cases: data warehouses with millions or billions of rows to aggregate and summarize
- To optimize queries effectively, we must understand what the database is doing under the hood
  - ▣ e.g. “Why are correlated subqueries slow to evaluate?”
    - Because an inner query must be evaluated *for each row* considered by the outer query. Thus, a good idea to avoid!

# Database Performance (2)

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- Next two lectures will explore how most databases evaluate queries
  - ▣ Specifically, how are relational algebra operations implemented, and what optimizations do they employ?
  - ▣ As usual, there are always exceptions! (e.g. MySQL)
  - ▣ Important to be aware of, so you understand each DBMS' limitations
- Today, will concentrate more on data storage and access methodologies
- Next time, explore relational algebra implementations
  - ▣ These are built on top of topics covered today

# Disk Access!

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- First rule of database performance:  
**Disk access is the most expensive thing databases do!**
- Accessing data in memory can be 10-100ns
- Accessing data on disk can be up to 10s of ms
  - ▣ *That's 5-6 orders of magnitude difference!*
  - ▣ Even solid-state drives are 10s-100s of  $\mu$ s (1000x slower)
- Unfortunately, disk IO is usually unavoidable
  - ▣ Usually the data simply doesn't fit into memory...
  - ▣ Plus, the data needs to be persistent for when the DB is shut down, or when the server crashes, etc.
- DBs work very hard to minimize the amount of disk IO

# Planning and Optimization

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- When the query planner/optimizer gets your query:
  - ▣ It explores many equivalent plans, estimating their cost (primarily IO cost), and chooses the least expensive one
  - ▣ Considers many options in evaluating your query:
    - What access paths does it have to the data you want?
    - What algorithms can it use for selects, joins, sorting, etc?
    - What is the nature of the data itself?
      - i.e. statistics generated by the database, directly from your data
- The planner will do the best it can... 😊
  - ▣ Sometimes it can't find a fast way to run your query
  - ▣ Also depends on sophistication of the planner itself
    - e.g. if planner doesn't know how to optimize certain queries, or if executor doesn't implement very advanced algorithms

# Table Data Storage

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- Databases usually store each table in its own file
- File IO is performed in fixed-size blocks or pages
  - ▣ Common page size is 4KB or 8KB; can often tune this value
  - ▣ Disks can read/write entire pages faster than small amounts of bytes or individual records
  - ▣ Also makes it *much* easier for the database to manage pages of data in memory
    - The buffer manager takes care of this very complicated task
- Each block in the file contains some number of records
- Frequently, individual records can vary in size...
  - ▣ (due to variable-size types: **VARCHAR**, **NUMERIC**, etc.)

# Table Data Storage (2)

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- Individual blocks have internal structure, to manage:
  - ▣ Records that vary in size
  - ▣ Records that are deleted
  - ▣ Where and how to add a new record to the block, if there is space for it
- The table file itself also has internal structure:
  - ▣ Want to make sure common operations are fast!
    - “I want to insert a new row. Which block has space for it, or do I have to allocate a new block at the end of the file?”

# Record Organization

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- Should table records be organized in a specific way?
- Example: records are kept in sorted order, using a key
  - ▣ Called a sequential file organization
  - ▣ Would be much faster to find records based on the key
  - ▣ Would be much faster to do range queries as well
  - ▣ *Definitely* complicates the storage of records!
    - Can't predict order records will be added or deleted
    - Requires periodic reorganization to ensure that records remain physically sorted on the disk
- Could also hash records based on some key
  - ▣ Called a hashing file organization
  - ▣ Again, speeds up access based on specific values
  - ▣ Similar organizational challenges arise over time...



# Record Organization (2)

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- More advanced commercial DBs support tables with sequential or hashing file organizations...
  - ▣ A few even support very advanced storage layouts, such as multitable clustering file organization
    - If two tables will be joined a lot, interleave their records together in a single file
    - Records that would be equijoin are stored next to each other
- By far, the most common file organization is random! 😊
  - ▣ Called a heap file organization
  - ▣ Every record can be placed anywhere in the table file, wherever there is space for the record
  - ▣ Just about all databases provide heap file organization
  - ▣ Usually perfectly sufficient, except for most demanding tasks

# Heap Files and Queries

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- Given that DBs normally use heap file organization, how does the DB evaluate a query like:

```
SELECT * FROM account
WHERE account_id = 'A-591';
```

- A simple approach:
  - ▣ Search through the entire table file, looking for all rows where value of *account\_id* is A-591
  - ▣ This is called a file scan, for obvious reasons
- This will be slow, but it's all we can do so far...
- Need a way to optimize accesses like this

# Table Indexes

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- Most queries use a small number of rows from a table
  - ▣ Need a faster way to look up those values, besides scanning through entire data file
- Approach: build an index on the table
  - ▣ Each index is associated with a specific column or set of columns in the table, called the search key for the index
  - ▣ Queries involving those columns can often be made *much* faster by using the index on those columns
  - ▣ (Queries not using those columns will still use a file scan ☹)
- Index is always structured in some way, for fast lookups
- Index is much smaller than the actual table itself
  - ▣ Much faster to search within the index (fewer IO operations)

# Index Characteristics

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- Many different varieties of indexes, with different access characteristics
  - ▣ What kind of lookup is most efficient for the kind of index?
  - ▣ How costly is it to find a particular item, or a set of items?
    - e.g. a query retrieving records with a range of values
- Indexes do impose both a time and space overhead
  - ▣ **Indexes must be kept up to date!** Frequently, they *slow down* update operations, while making selects faster.
- Different kinds of indexes impose different overheads:
  - ▣ How much time to add a new item to the index?
  - ▣ How much time to delete an item from the index?
  - ▣ How much additional space does the index take up?

# Index Characteristics (2)

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- Two major categories of indexes:
  - ▣ Ordered indexes keep values in a sorted order
  - ▣ Hash indexes divide values into bins, using a hash function
- Many variations within these two categories!
- Example: dense vs. sparse indexes
  - ▣ A dense index includes every single value from the source column(s). Faster lookups, but a larger space overhead.
  - ▣ A sparse index only includes some of the values. Lookups require searching more records, but index is smaller.
- The indexes we are covering today are dense indexes
  - ▣ Heap files are in random order, so an index won't help us very much unless it includes every value from the table

# Index Implementations

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- Indexes are usually stored in files separate from the actual table data
  - ▣ Indexes are also read/written as blocks
    - (Same reasons as before...)
- Indexes use record pointers to reference specific records in the table file
  - ▣ Simply consists of the block number the record is in, and the offset of the record within that block
- Index records contain values (or hashes), and one or more pointers to table records with those values

# Index Implementations (2)

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- Virtually all databases provide ordered indexes, using some kind of balanced tree structure
  - ▣ B<sup>+</sup>-tree and B-tree indexes, typically referred to as “btree” indexes
- Some databases also provide hash indexes
  - ▣ More complex to manage than ordered indexes, so not very common in open-source databases
- Several other kinds of indexes as well:
  - ▣ Bitmap indexes – to speed up queries on multiple keys
    - Also less common in open-source databases
  - ▣ R-tree indexes – to make spatial queries very fast
    - With ubiquity of geospatial data, quite common these days

# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Indexes

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- A very widely used ordered index storage format
- Manages a balanced tree structure
  - ▣ Every path from root to leaf is the same length
  - ▣ Generally remains efficient for selects, even with inserts and deletes occurring
- Can consume significant space, since individual nodes can be up to half empty!
- Index updates for insert and delete can be slow...
  - ▣ Tree structure must be updated properly
- Performance benefits on queries more than outweigh these costs!



# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Indexes (2)

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- Each tree node has up to  $n$  children
  - ▣ Simplification:  $n$  is fixed for the entire tree
- Each node stores  $n$  pointers and  $n - 1$  values

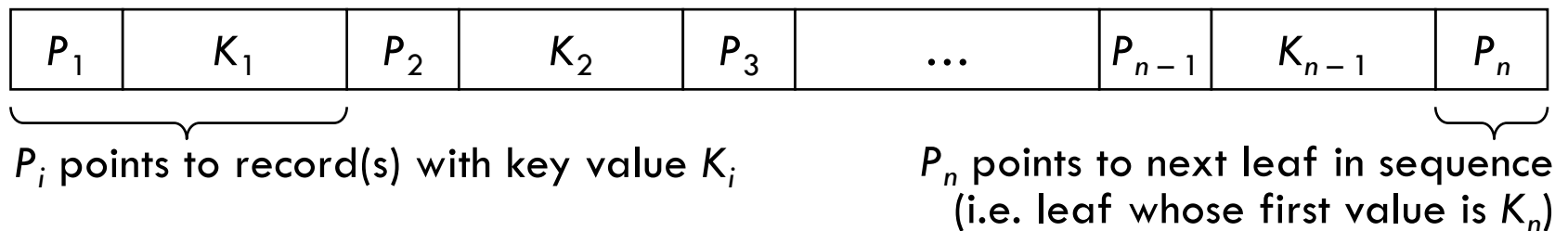
$P_1$	$K_1$	$P_2$	$K_2$	$P_3$	...	$P_{n-1}$	$K_{n-1}$	$P_n$
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- ▣  $K_i$  are search-key values,  $P_i$  are record pointers
  - ▣ Values are kept in sorted order: if  $i < j$  then  $K_i < K_j$
  - ▣ All nodes (except root) must be at least half full
- Size of  $n$  depends on block size, search-key size, and record pointer size, but it is usually large!
  - ▣ Example: 4KB blocks, 4B record pointers, 4B integer keys
  - ▣  $n$  will be  $>500$ ! B<sup>+</sup>-tree indexes are shallow, broad trees.

# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Leaf Nodes

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## □ For leaf nodes:

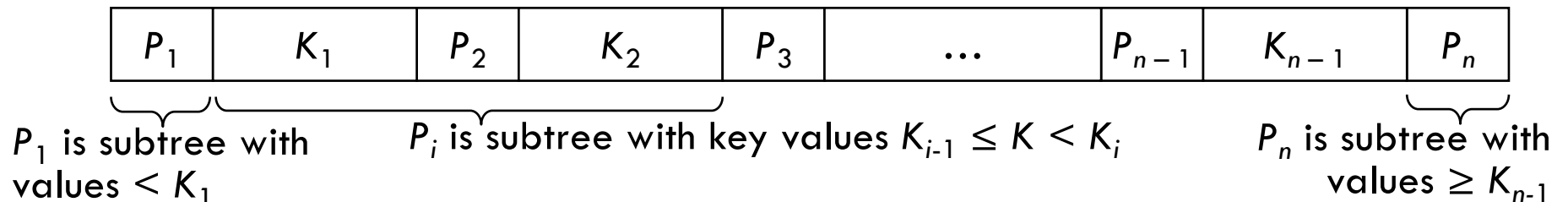


- Pointer  $P_i$  refers to record(s) with search-key value  $K_i$
- If search key is a candidate key,  $P_i$  points to the record with key value  $K_i$
- If search key isn't a candidate key,  $P_i$  points to a collection of pointers to all records with key value  $K_i$
- No two leaves have overlapping ranges
  - Leaves can be arranged in sequential order
  - Pointer  $P_n$  points to the next leaf in sequential order

# B<sup>+</sup>-Tree Non-Leaf Nodes

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## □ For non-leaf nodes:



- All pointers  $P_i$  refer to other B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

## □ For $1 < i < n$ :

- Pointer  $P_i$  points to subtree containing search-key values of at least  $K_{i-1}$ , but less than  $K_i$

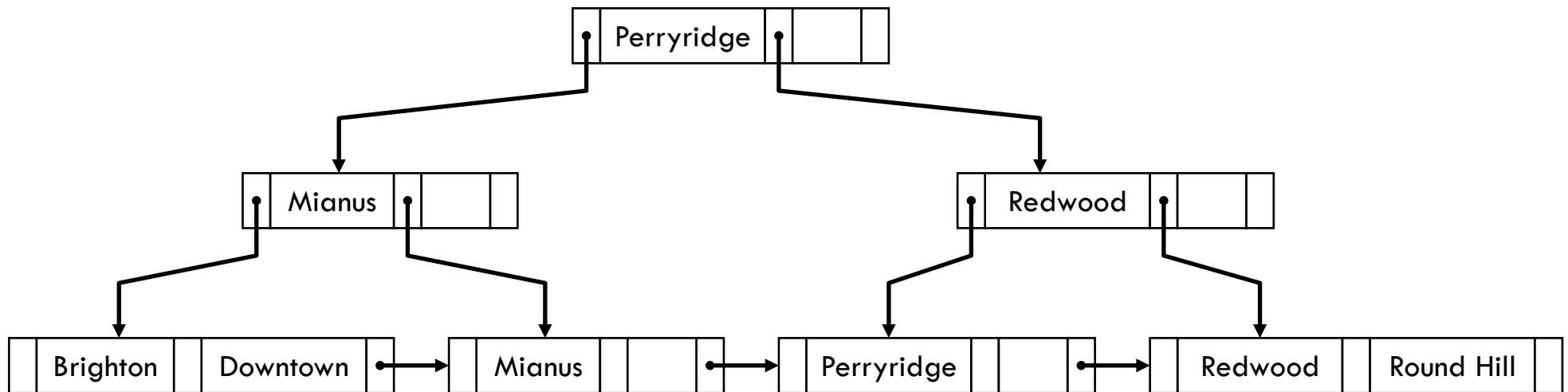
## □ For $i = 1$ or $i = n$ :

- Pointer  $P_1$  points to subtree containing search-key values less than  $K_1$
- Pointer  $P_n$  points to subtree containing search-key values at least  $K_{n-1}$

# Example B<sup>+</sup>-Tree

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- A simple B<sup>+</sup>-tree, with  $n = 3$



- Queries are straightforward
- Inserts may require a node to be split
- Deletes may require nodes to be merged

# B<sup>+</sup>-Trees and String Keys

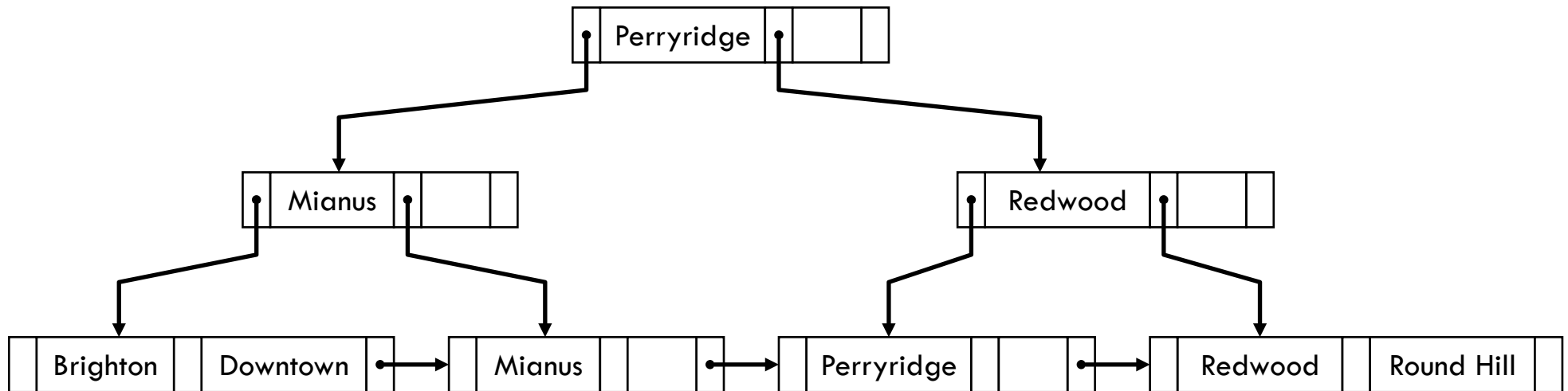
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- String columns are problematic for indexing
  - ▣ Frequently specified to have large/variable-size values
  - ▣ Large keys reduce branching factor of each node, increasing tree depth and access cost
  - ▣ Large keys can also interfere with tree restructuring
- Simple solution: don't use the entire string! 😊
  - ▣ Can use prefix compression technique
  - ▣ Non-leaf nodes only store a prefix of the search string
  - ▣ Size of prefix must be large enough to distinguish reasonably well between values in each subtree
    - Otherwise, can't effectively narrow down records to consider

# B<sup>+</sup>-Trees and B-Trees

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- In B<sup>+</sup>-trees, key values appear in multiple nodes



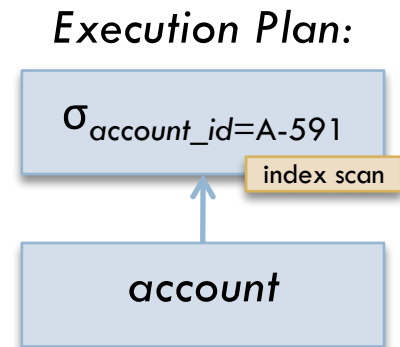
- B-tree indexes have a slightly different structure
  - ▣ Each key value only appears once in the hierarchy
  - ▣ Non-leaf nodes must also refer to records with each key value, as well as to subtrees
  - ▣ Slightly more complex structure, but saves space

# Indexes and Queries

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- Indexes provide an alternate access path to specific records in a table
  - ▣ If looking for a specific value or range of values, use the index to find where to start looking in the table file
- Query planner looks for indexes on relevant columns when optimizing your query
- Query from before:  

```
SELECT * FROM account  
WHERE account_id='A-591' ;
```
- If there is an index on *account\_id* column, planner can use an index scan instead of a file scan
  - ▣ Execution plan is annotated with these kinds of details



# Keys and Indexes

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- Databases create many indexes automatically
  - ▣ DB will create an index on the primary key columns, and sometimes on foreign key columns too
  - ▣ Makes it much faster for DB to enforce key and referential integrity constraints
- Many of your queries already use these indexes!
  - ▣ Lookups on primary keys, and joins on primary/foreign key columns
- Sometimes queries use columns that don't have indexes
  - ▣ e.g. `SELECT * FROM account WHERE balance >= 3000;`
- How do we tell what indexes the DB uses for a query?
- How do we create additional indexes on our tables?



# EXPLAIN Yourself

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- Most databases have an **EXPLAIN**-type command
  - ▣ Performs query planning and optimization phases, then outputs details about the execution plan
  - ▣ Reports, among other things, what indexes are used

- MySQL **EXPLAIN** command:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM account  
WHERE account_id = 'A-591';
```

id	select_type	table	type	possible_keys	key	key_len	ref	rows	Extra
1	SIMPLE	account	const	PRIMARY	PRIMARY	17	const	1	

- ▣ This query uses primary key index to look up the record
- ▣ MySQL knows that the result will be one row, or no rows

# MySQL EXPLAIN (2)

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- More interesting result with a different account ID:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM account
WHERE account_id = 'A-000';
```

id	select_type	table	...	Extra
1	SIMPLE	NULL	...	Impossible WHERE noticed after reading const tables

- MySQL planner uses the primary key index to discern that the specified ID doesn't appear in the *account* table!

- Another query against *account*:

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM account
WHERE balance >= 3000;
```

id	select_type	table	type	possible_keys	key	key_len	ref	rows	Extra
1	SIMPLE	account	ALL	NULL	NULL	NULL	NULL	60	Using where

- No index available to use for this column ☹️

# Adding Indexes to Tables

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- If many queries reference columns that don't have indexes, and performance becomes an issue:
  - ▣ Create additional indexes on a table to help the DB
- Usually specified with **CREATE INDEX** commands
- To speed up queries on account balances:  
`CREATE INDEX idx_balance ON account (balance);`
  - ▣ Database will create the index file and populate it from the current contents of the *account* relation
    - *(this could take some time for really large tables...)*
- Can also create multi-column indexes
- Can specify many options, such as the index type
  - ▣ Virtually all databases create **BTREE** indexes by default

# Adding Indexes to Tables (2)

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- MySQL allows you to specify indexes in the **CREATE TABLE** command itself...
  - ▣ *...not many other DBs support this, so it's not portable.*
- Any drawbacks to putting an index on account balances?
  - ▣ It's a bank. Account balances change all the time.
  - ▣ Will definitely incur a performance penalty on updates (*but, it probably won't be terribly substantial...*)

# Verifying Index Usage

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- Very important to verify that your new index is actually being used!
- ▣ If your query doesn't use the index, best to get rid of it!

```
EXPLAIN SELECT * FROM account
WHERE balance >= 3000;
```

id	select_type	table	type	possible_keys	key	key_len	ref	rows	Extra
1	SIMPLE	account	ALL	idx_balance	NULL	NULL	NULL	60	Using where

- Hmm, MySQL doesn't use the index for this query. ☹
- ▣ If other expensive queries use it, makes sense to keep it (e.g. the rank query would use this index)
- ▣ Otherwise, just get rid of it and keep your updates fast

# Indexes on Large Values

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- Large keys seriously degrade index performance
- Example: B-trees and B<sup>+</sup>-trees
  - ▣ Biggest benefit is very large branching factor of each node
  - ▣ Large key-values will dramatically reduce the branching factor, deepening the tree and increasing IO costs
- Can specify indexes on only the first *N* characters/bytes of a string/LOB value

```
CREATE INDEX idx_name ON customer (cust_name(5)) ;
```

  - ▣ Only uses first five characters for customer-name index
  - ▣ If most values differ in first *N* bytes, index will be much smaller and faster for both updates and queries
  - ▣ If values don't differ much, index won't do much good

# Indexes and Performance Tuning

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- Adding indexes to a schema is a common task in many database projects
- As a performance-tuning task, usually occurs after DB contains some data, and queries are slow
  - ▣ **Always avoid premature optimization!**
  - ▣ **Always find out what the DB is doing first!**
- Indexes impose an overhead in both space and time
  - ▣ Speeds up selects, but slows down all modifications
- Always need to verify that a new index is actually being used by the database. *If not, get rid of it!*

# Administrivia

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- Next time: SQL Query Evaluation II
  - ▣ Overview of how most relational algebra operators are implemented, including common-case optimizations
  
- Midterm time is a-comin'...
  - ▣ Next Monday, October 26, is midterm review
  - ▣ Come to class, watch the video, get the slides, whatever.
  - ▣ Midterm will be available towards end of next week
  - ▣ No assignment due the week of the midterm