

Database Systems I

CMPT 354 Summer 2024

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Announcements (Wed. July 10)

- Update on Exam I solution
 - Grades will also be updated
- Makeup OH slots
 - Thu. July 11, 12:45pm - 1:30pm @TASC I 9407
 - Fri. July 12, 11:15am - 12:00pm @TASC I 9407

Examples of using indexes

- `SELECT * FROM User WHERE name = 'Bart';`
- How is the query processed?
- Without an index on *User.name*: must scan the entire table if we store *User* as a flat file of unordered rows
- With index: go “directly” to rows with name= 'Bart '

Examples of using indexes

- ```
SELECT * FROM User, Member
WHERE User.uid = Member.uid AND Member.gid = 'cks';
```
- How to find relevant *Member* rows directly?
  - With an index on *Member.gid* or (*gid, uid*):
- For each relevant *Member* row, how to directly look up *User* rows with matching *uid*?
  - With an index on *User.uid*
  - Without it: for each *Member* row, scan the entire *User* table for matching *uid*
    - Sorting could help

# Indexes

- An **index** is an auxiliary persistent data structure
  - Search tree (e.g., B<sup>+</sup>-tree), lookup table (e.g., hash table), etc.
- Creating and dropping indexes in SQL:
  - **CREATE [UNIQUE] INDEX *indexname* ON *tablename*(*columnname*<sub>1</sub>, ..., *columnname*<sub>*n*</sub>);**
    - With UNIQUE, the DBMS will also enforce that {*columnname*<sub>1</sub>, ..., *columnname*<sub>*n*</sub>} is a key of *tablename*
  - **DROP INDEX *indexname*;** You will not have to create indices on these columns after using the unique keyword.
  - Typically, the DBMS will automatically create indexes for PRIMARY KEY and UNIQUE constraint declarations
- Can have many indexes for one table

# Indexes

- An index on  $R.A$  can speed up accesses of the form
  - $R.A = value$
  - $R.A > value$  (sometimes; depending on the index type)
- An index on  $(R.A_1, \dots, R.A_n)$  can speed up
  - $R.A_1 = value_1 \wedge \dots \wedge R.A_n = value_n$
  - $(R.A_1, \dots, R.A_n) > (value_1, \dots, value_n)$  (again depends)
- Ordering of index columns is important—is an index on  $(R.A, R.B)$  equivalent to one on  $(R.B, R.A)$ ?

For the first case, if you access the A column it can be obtained easily. However, if you access the B column, accessing the data will not be as fast.
- How about an index on  $R.A$  plus another on  $R.B$ ?

If you are checking that  $R.A$  equals some value and  $R.B$  equals another value, then you can have separate indices.

Ask professor to go over the difference of using separate vs joined indices

# Choosing indexes to create

More indexes = better performance?

- Indexes take space
- Indexes need to be maintained when data is updated
- Indexes have one more level of indirection
- Optimal index selection depends on both query and update workload and the size of tables
  - Automatic index selection is now featured in some commercial DBMS

Automatic index problem is common

# Choosing indexes to create

- Make some attribute K a search key if the WHERE clause contains:
  - An exact match on K
  - A range predicate on K
  - A join on K



# The index selection problem 1

- Your workload is

Since name will have less duplication, the indices will serve more for optimizing the query

100000 queries

```
SELECT uid
FROM User
WHERE name = ?
```

Age will have at most 100 values. So having a index of that would not be as beneficial compared to name

100000 queries

```
SELECT uid
FROM User
WHERE age = ?
```

**Which one is better?**

- A. Index on name
- B. Index on age

# The index selection problem 2

- Your workload is

100000 queries

```
SELECT uid
FROM User
WHERE name = ?
```

100000 queries

```
SELECT uid
FROM User
WHERE name = ? AND age > ?
```

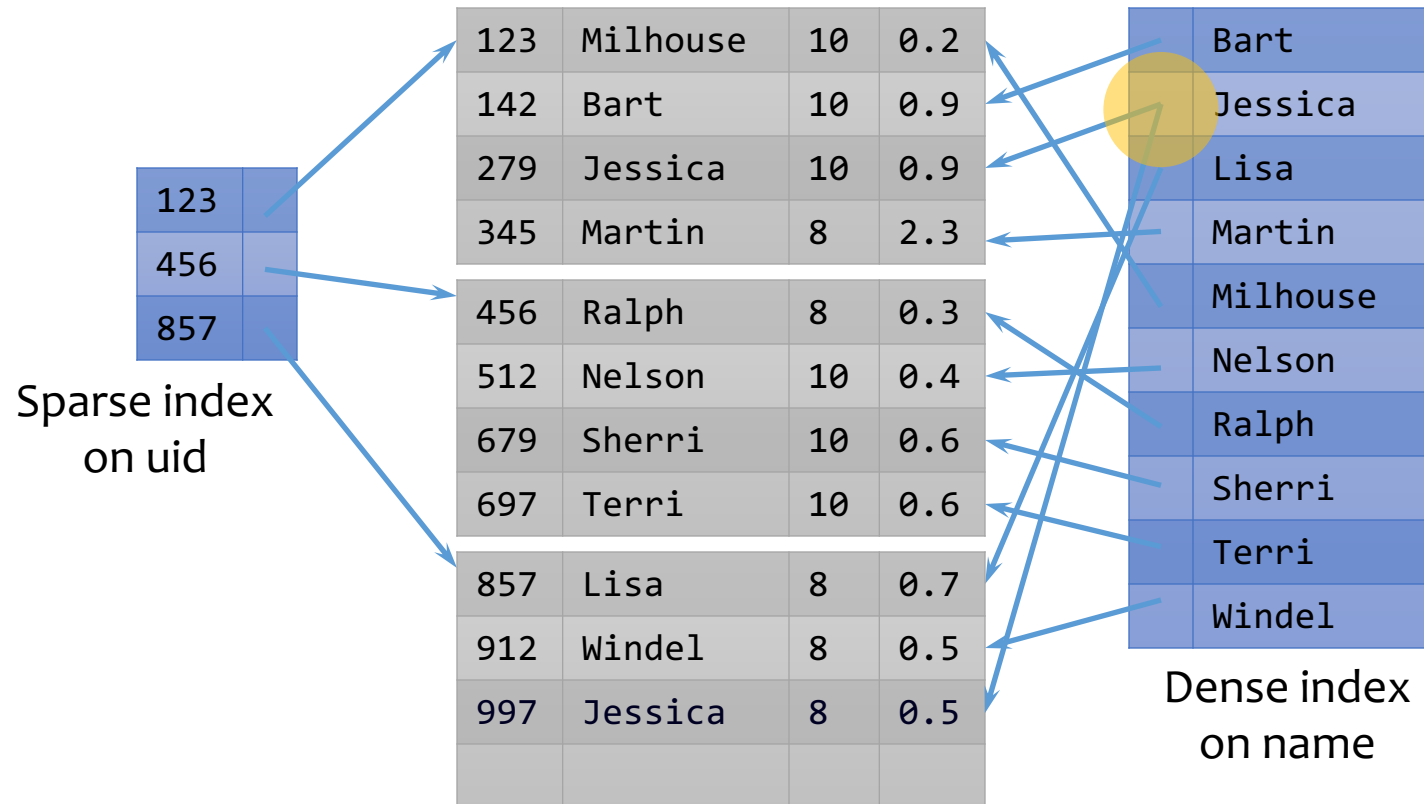
For the first query, the first index is  
better to allow you quick access to the names

**Which one is better?**

- A. Index on (name, age)
- B. Index on (age, name)

# Dense and sparse indexes

- **Dense**: one index entry for each search key value
  - One entry may “point” to multiple records (e.g., two users named Jessica)
- **Sparse**: one index entry for each block
  - Records must be **clustered** according to the search key



# Dense versus sparse indexes

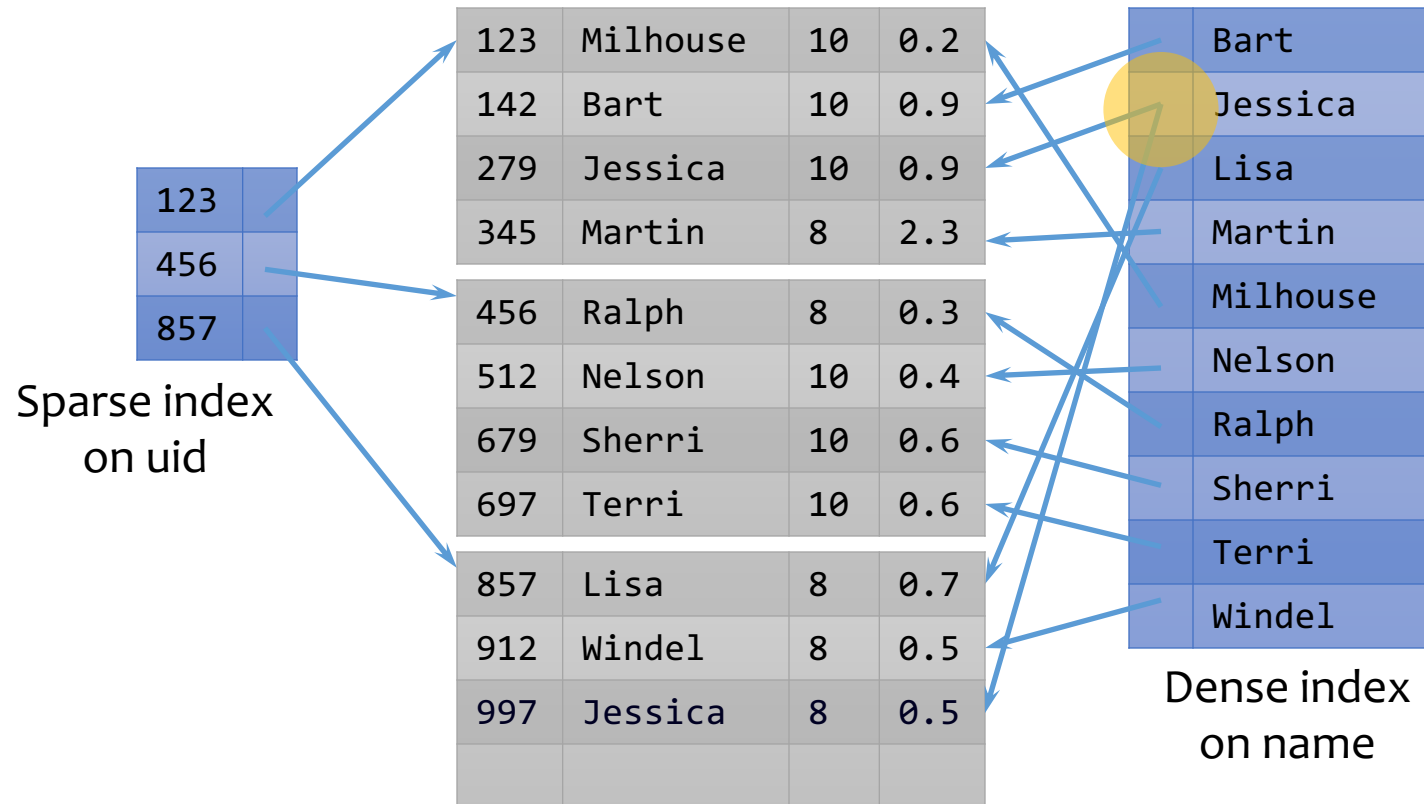
- Index size
  - Sparse index is smaller One entry corresponds to one block
- Requirement on records
  - Records must be clustered for sparse index
- Lookup
  - Sparse index is smaller and may fit in memory
  - Dense index can directly tell if a record exists
- Update
  - Easier for sparse index

# Primary and secondary indexes

- **Primary index**
  - Created for the **primary key** of a table
  - Records are usually clustered by the primary key
  - Can be sparse
- **Secondary index**
  - Usually dense
- In SQL
  - PRIMARY KEY declaration automatically creates a primary index, UNIQUE key automatically creates a secondary index
  - Additional secondary index can be created on non-key attribute(s) too
    - `CREATE INDEX UserPopIndex ON User(pop);`

# What if the index is too big as well?

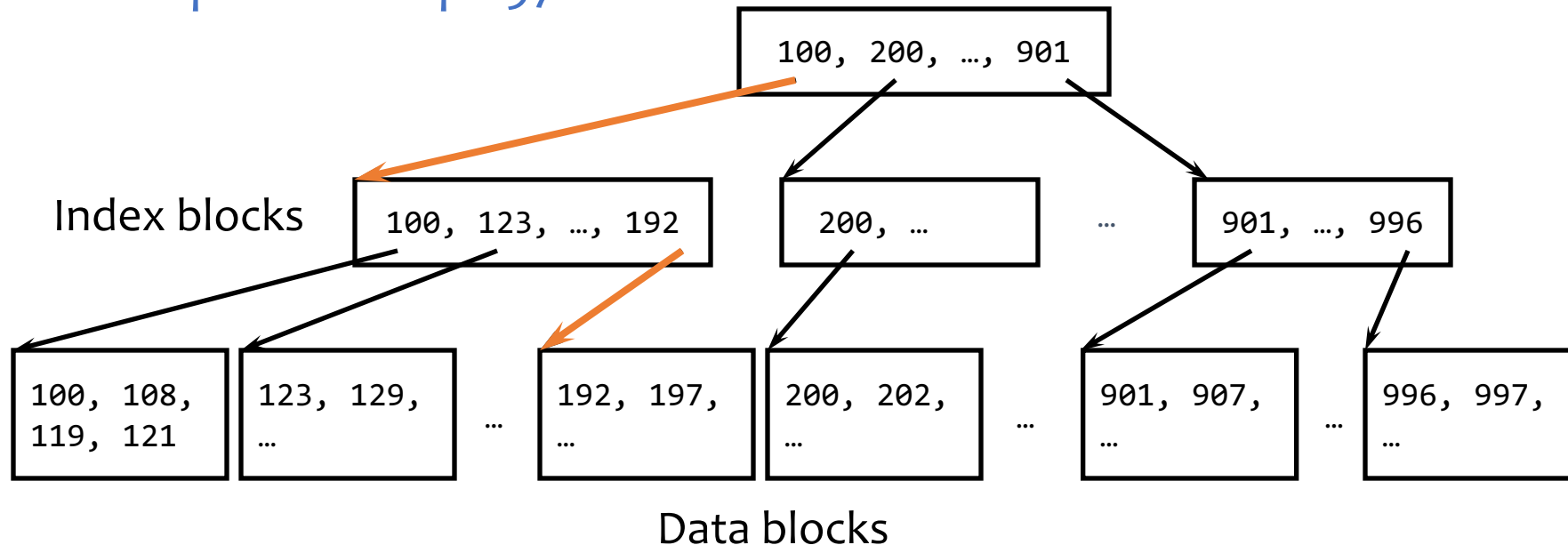
- Put a another (sparse) index on top of that!



# ISAM

- What if an index is still too big?
  - Put a another (sparse) index on top of that!
  - **ISAM** (Index Sequential Access Method), more or less

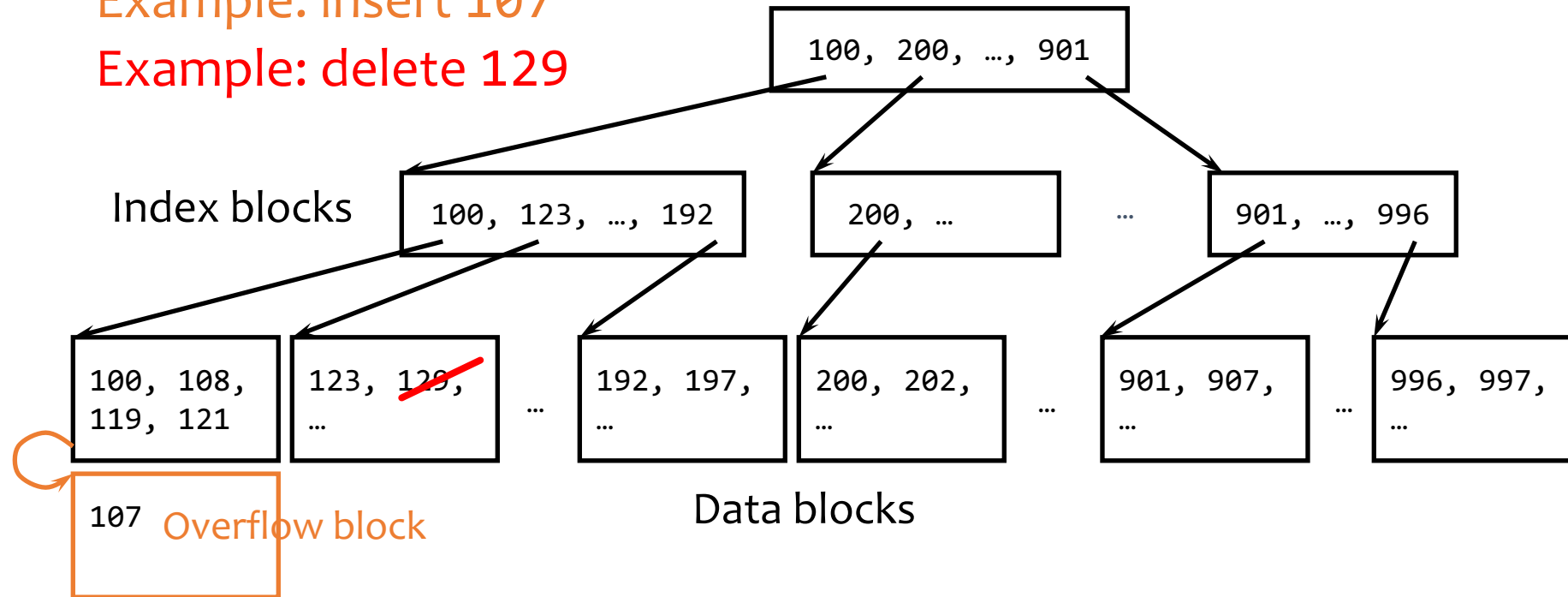
Example: look up 197



# Updates with ISAM

Example: insert 107

Example: delete 129

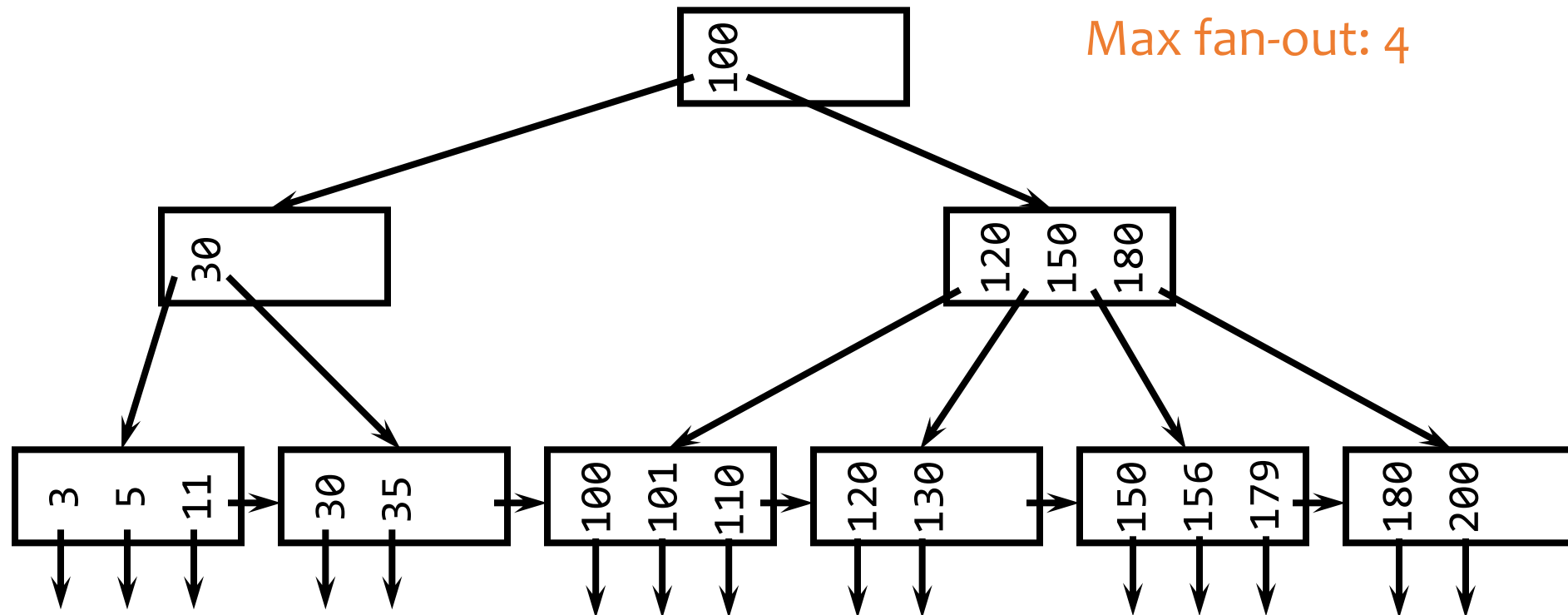


- Overflow chains and empty data blocks degrade performance
  - Worst case: most records go into one long chain, so lookups require scanning all data!



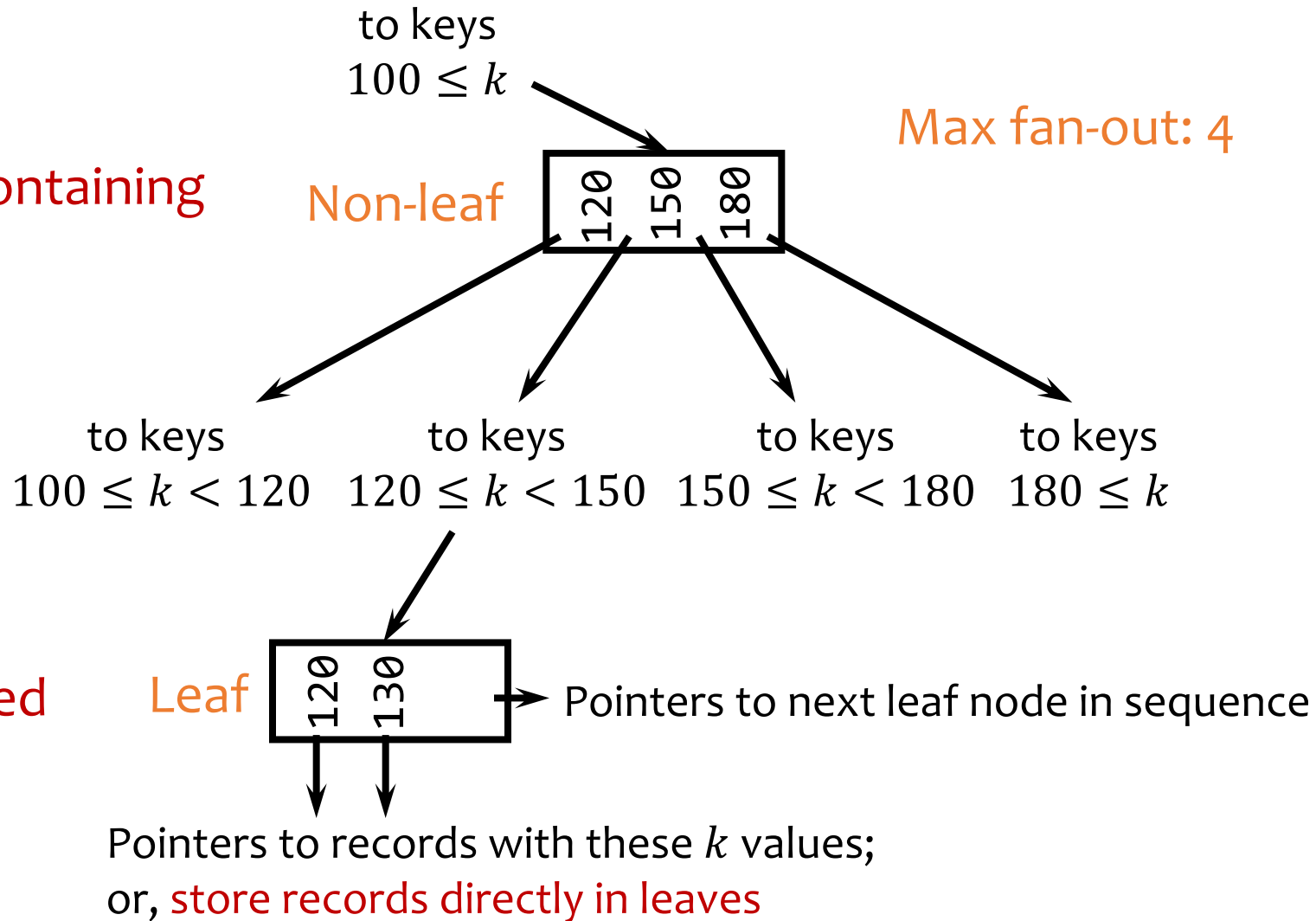
# B<sup>+</sup>-tree

- A hierarchy of nodes with intervals
- **Balanced** (more or less): good performance guarantee
- **Disk-based**: one node per block; large fan-out



# Sample B<sup>+</sup>-tree nodes

Index Nodes Containing  
Index entries



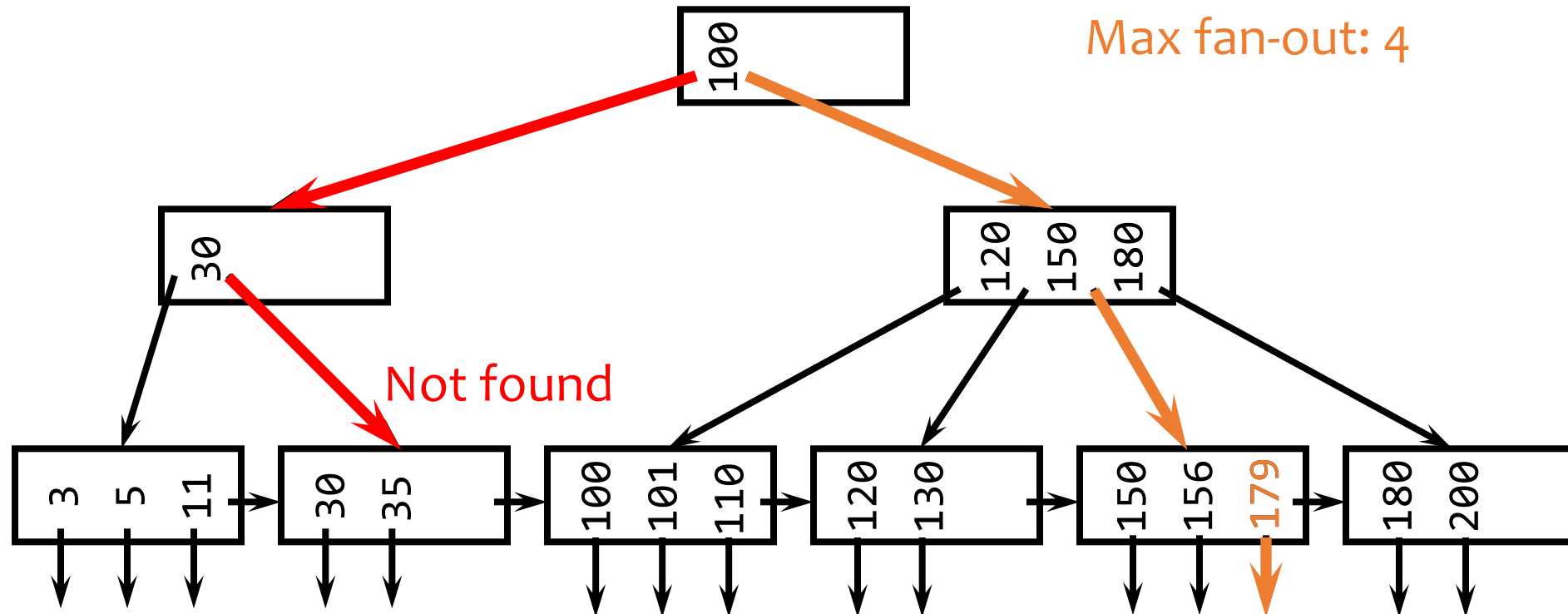
# B<sup>+</sup>-tree balancing properties

- Height constraint: all leaves at the same lowest level
- Fan-out constraint: all nodes at least half full (except root)

|          | Max #<br>pointers | Max #<br>keys | Min #<br>active pointers | Min #<br>keys           |
|----------|-------------------|---------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Non-leaf | $f$               | $f - 1$       | $\lceil f/2 \rceil$      | $\lceil f/2 \rceil - 1$ |
| Root     | $f$               | $f - 1$       | 2                        | 1                       |
| Leaf     | $f$               | $f - 1$       | $\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$    | $\lfloor f/2 \rfloor$   |

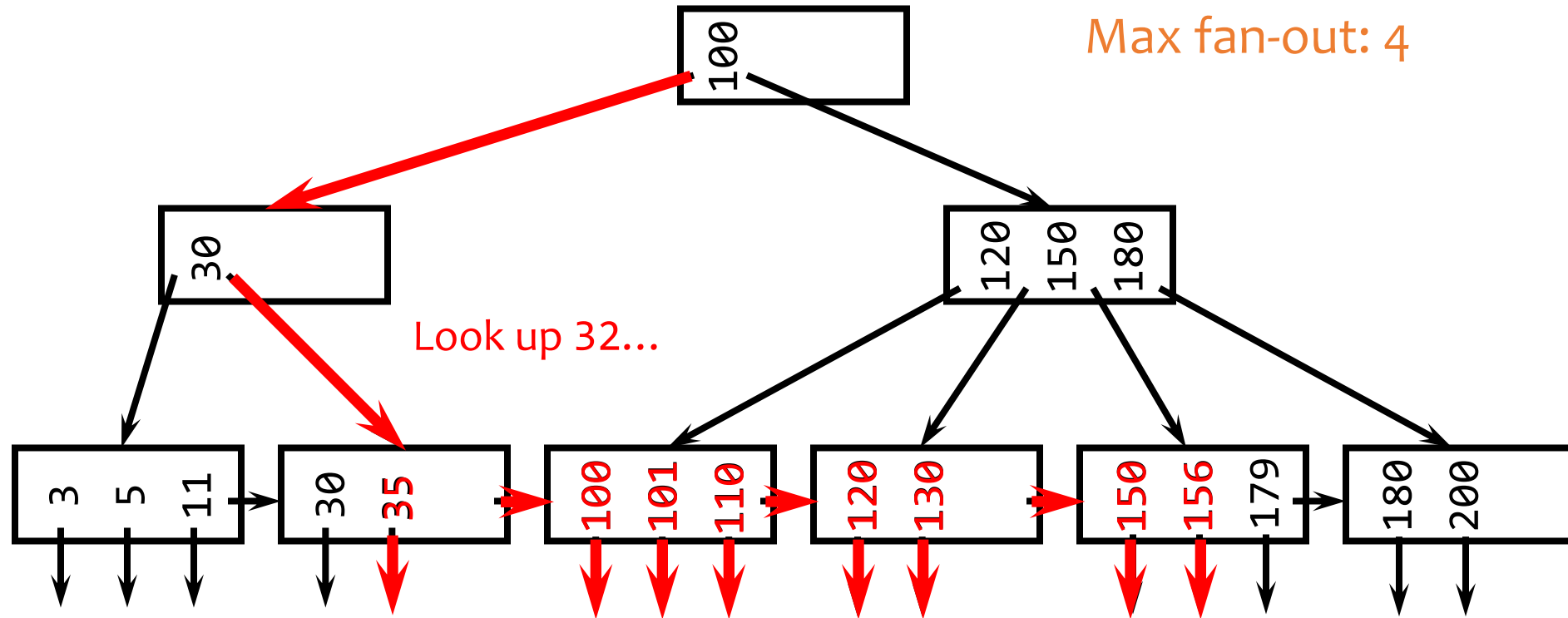
# Lookups

- SELECT \* FROM R WHERE  $k = 179$ ;
- SELECT \* FROM R WHERE  $k = 32$ ;



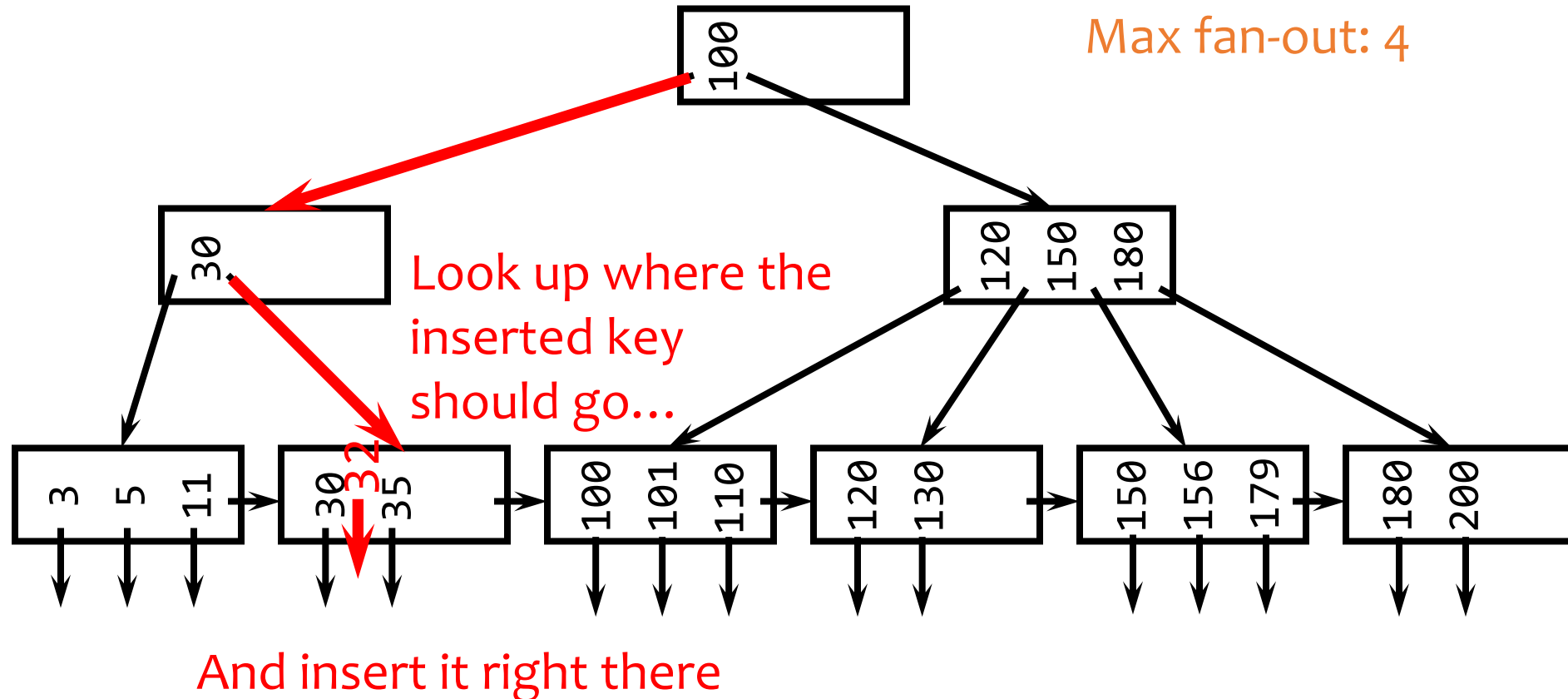
# Range query

- `SELECT * FROM R WHERE  $k > 32$  AND  $k < 179$ ;`



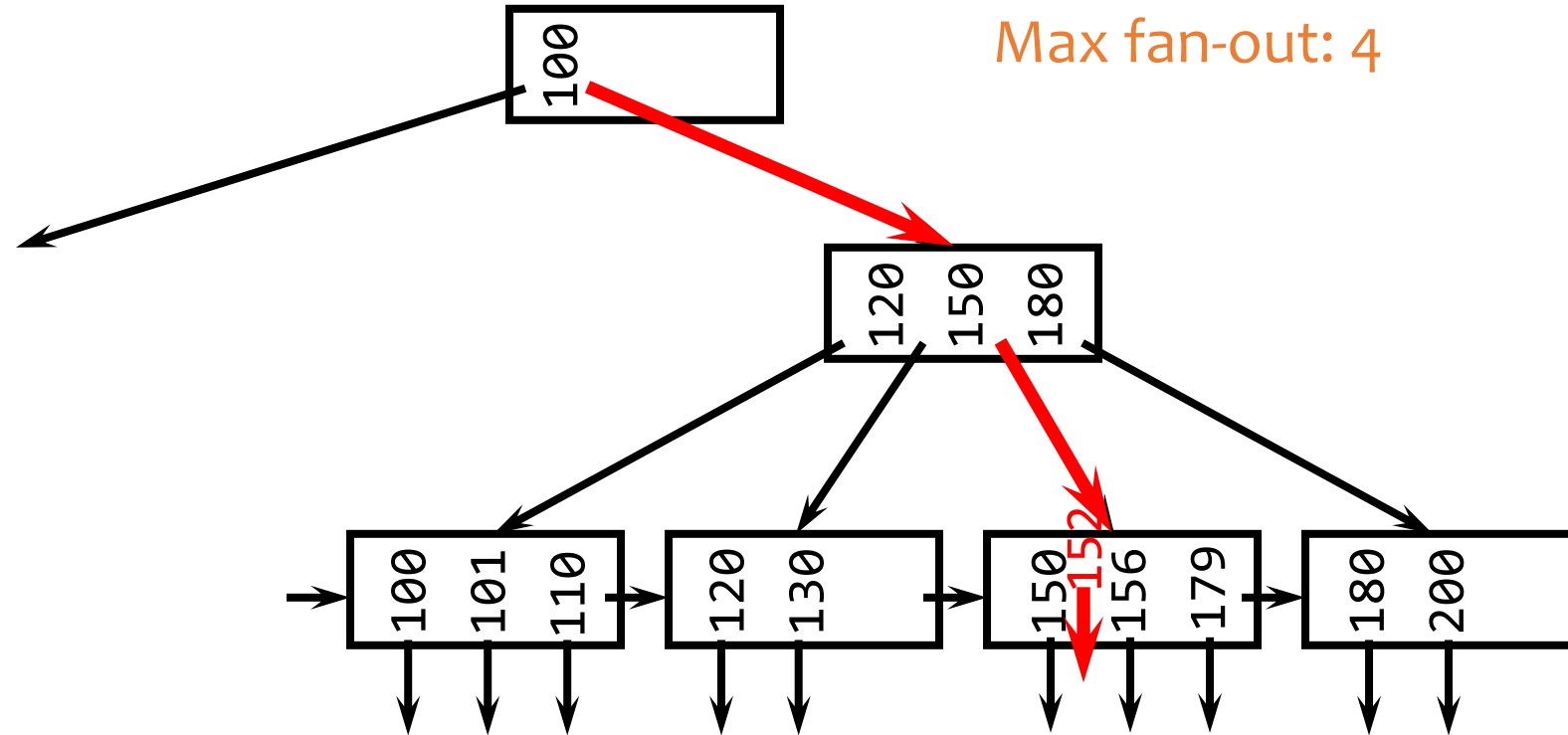
# Insertion

- Insert a record with search key value 32



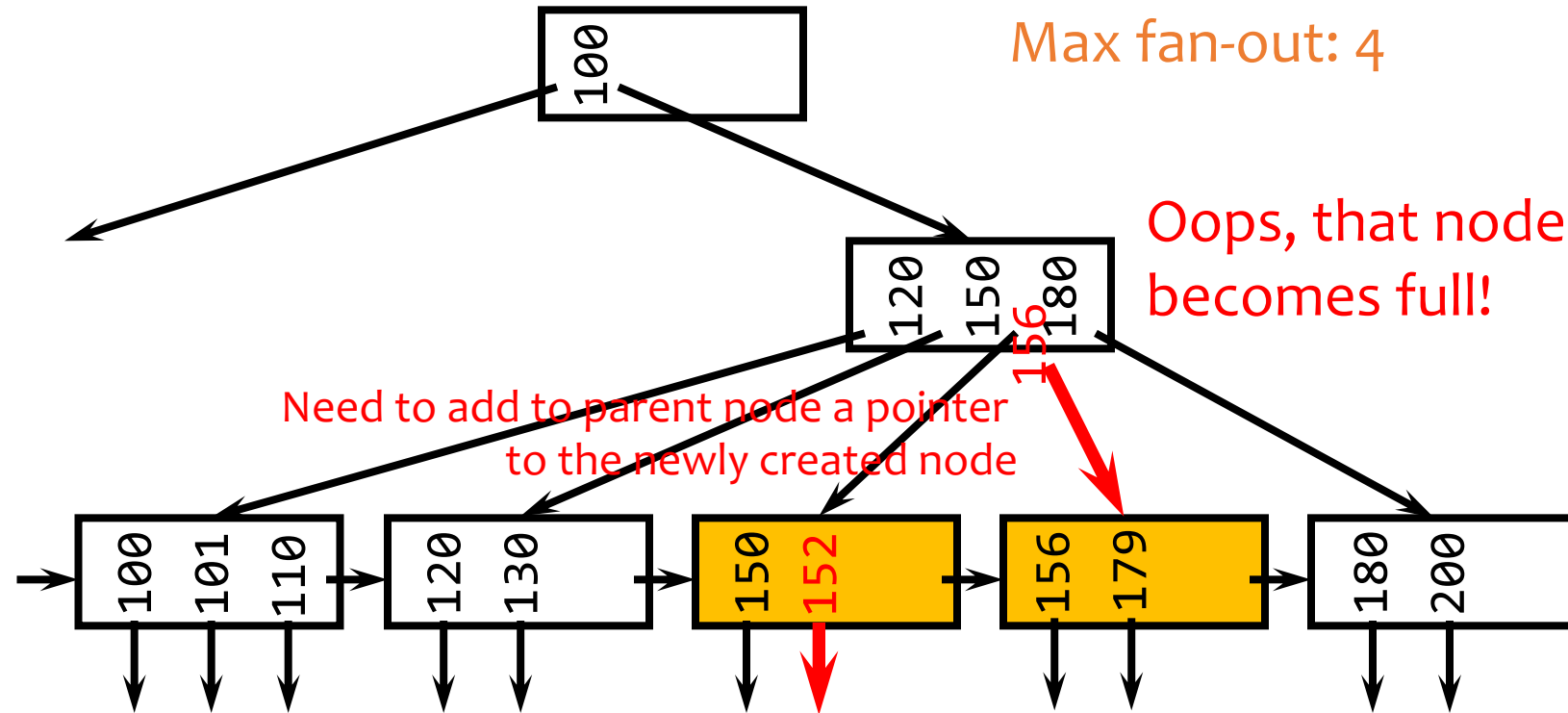
# Another insertion example

- Insert a record with search key value 152



Oops, node is already full!

# Node splitting

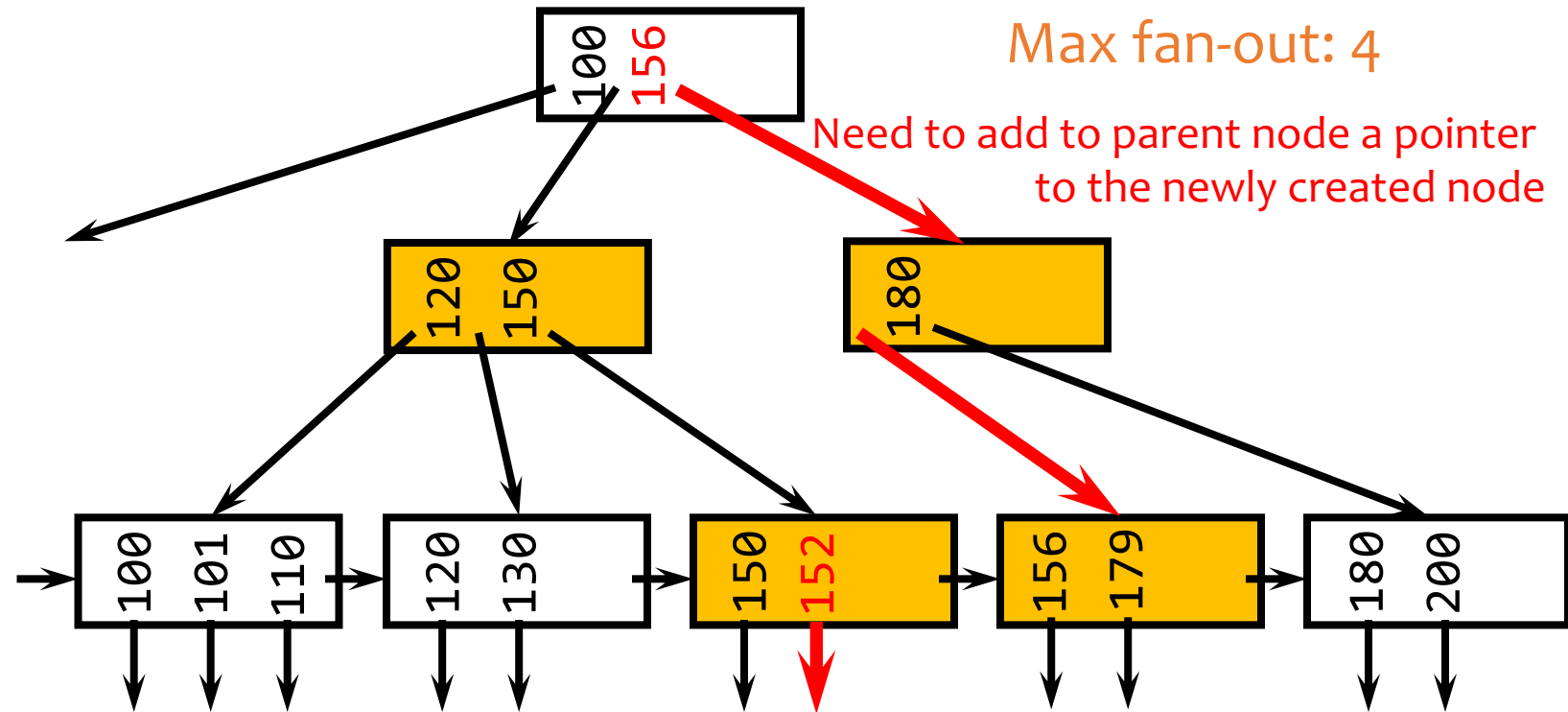


1. we “copy up” while splitting leaves – Insertion both at leaf and parent
2. the value inserted at parent may \*not\* be the new value we are inserting



# More node splitting

We “push up” while splitting non-leaves, insertion ONLY at the parent node (from the middle)  
so that we do not have a dangling pointer at non-leaves



- In the worst case, node splitting can “propagate” all the way up to the root of the tree (not illustrated here)
  - Splitting the root introduces a new root of fan-out 2 and causes the tree to grow “up” by one level

# Performance analysis

- How many I/O's are required for each operation?
  - $h$ , the **height of the tree** (more or less)
  - Plus one or two to manipulate actual records
  - Plus  $O(h)$  for reorganization (rare if  $f$  is large)
  - Minus one if we cache the root in memory
- How big is  $h$ ?
  - Roughly  **$\log_{\text{fanout}} N$** , where  $N$  is the number of records
  - B<sup>+</sup>-tree properties guarantee that fan-out is least  $f/2$  for all non-root nodes
  - Fan-out is typically large (in hundreds)—many keys and pointers can fit into one block
  - A 4-level B<sup>+</sup>-tree is enough for “typical” tables

# B<sup>+</sup>-tree in practice

- Complex reorganization for deletion often is not implemented (e.g., Oracle)
  - Leave nodes less than half full and periodically reorganize
- Most commercial DBMS use B<sup>+</sup>-tree instead of hashing-based indexes **because B<sup>+</sup>-tree handles range queries**
  - A key difference between hash and tree indexes!

# The Halloween Problem

- Story from the early days of System R...

```
UPDATE Payroll
SET salary = salary * 1.1
WHERE salary >= 100000;
```

- There is a B<sup>+</sup>-tree index on *Payroll(salary)*
  - The update never stopped (why?)
- Solutions?
  - Scan index in reverse, or
  - Before update, scan index to create a “to-do” list, or
  - During update, maintain a “done” list, or
  - Tag every row with transaction/statement id

# B<sup>+</sup>-tree versus ISAM

- ISAM is more **static**; B<sup>+</sup>-tree is more **dynamic**
- ISAM can be more compact (at least initially)
  - Fewer levels and I/O's than B<sup>+</sup>-tree
- Overtime, ISAM may not be balanced
  - Cannot provide guaranteed performance as B<sup>+</sup>-tree does

# B<sup>+</sup>-tree versus B-tree

- B-tree: why not store records (or record pointers) in non-leaf nodes?
  - These records can be accessed with fewer I/O's
- Problems?
  - Storing more data in a node decreases fan-out and increases  $h$
  - Records in leaves require more I/O's to access
  - Vast majority of the records live in leaves!

# Beyond ISAM, B-, and B<sup>+</sup>-trees (skip)

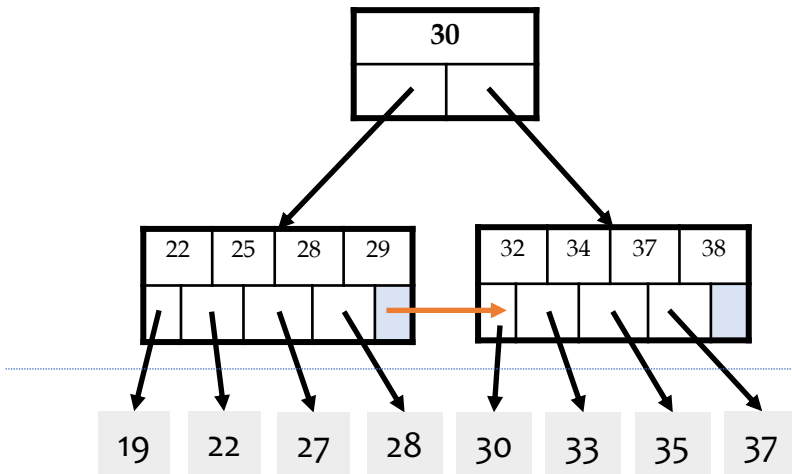
- Other tree-based indexes: R-trees, GiST, etc.
  - How about binary tree?



- Hashing-based indexes: extensible hashing, linear hashing, etc.
- Text indexes: inverted-list index, suffix arrays, etc.
- Other tricks: bitmap index, bit-sliced index, vector database index, etc.

# Clustered vs. Unclustered Index

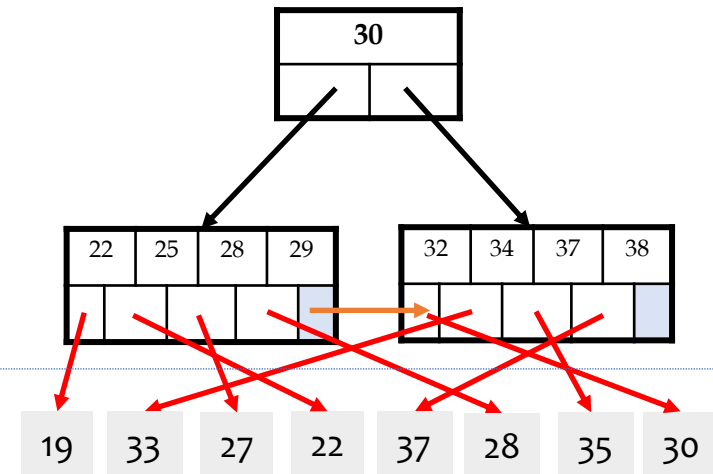
Clustered



Unclustered

Index File

Data file



How does it affect # of page accesses?

Recall that for a disk with block access, sequential IO is much faster than random IO



Data is sorted on search key

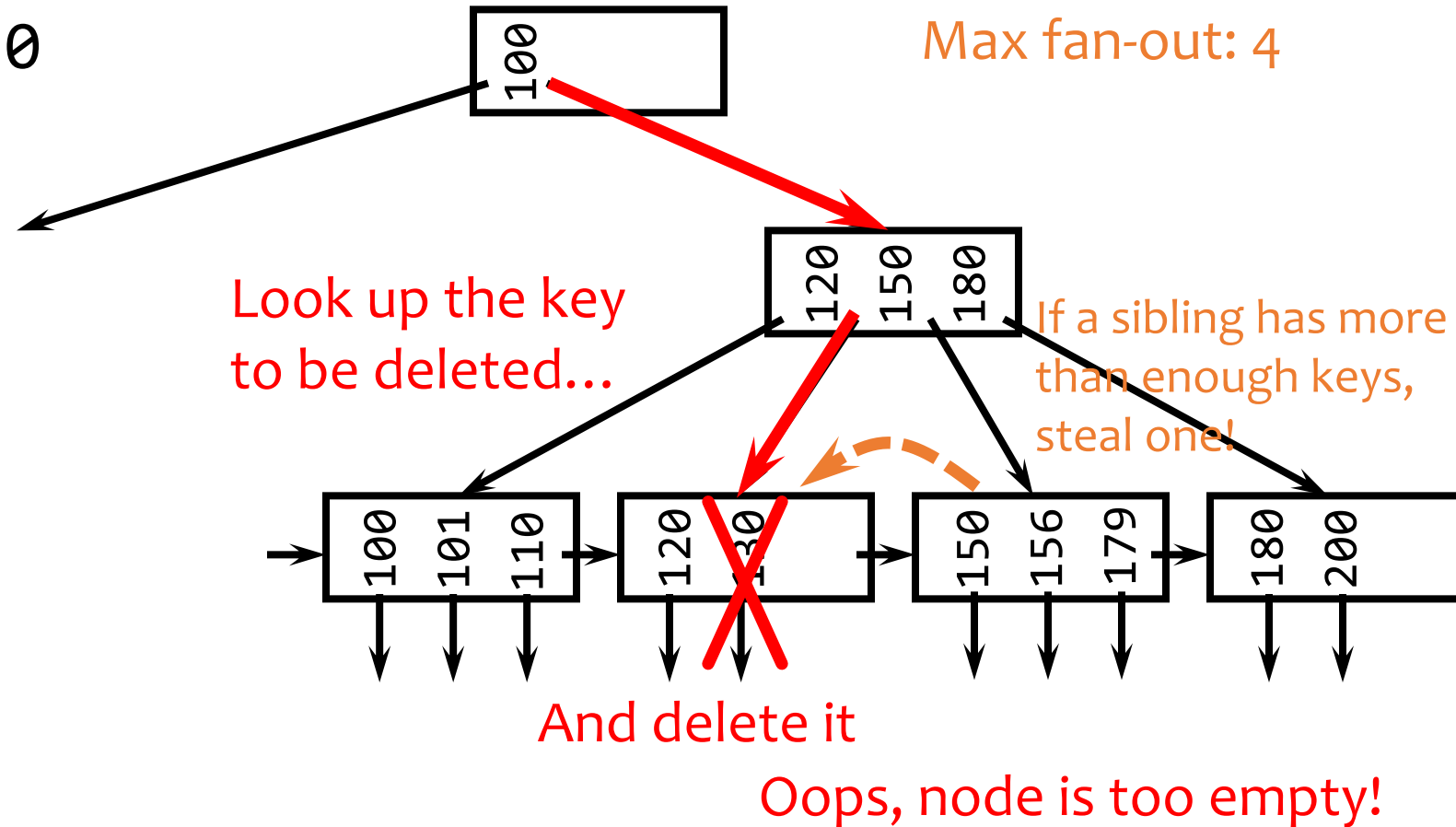
Data can be in any order

# Clustered vs. Unclustered Index

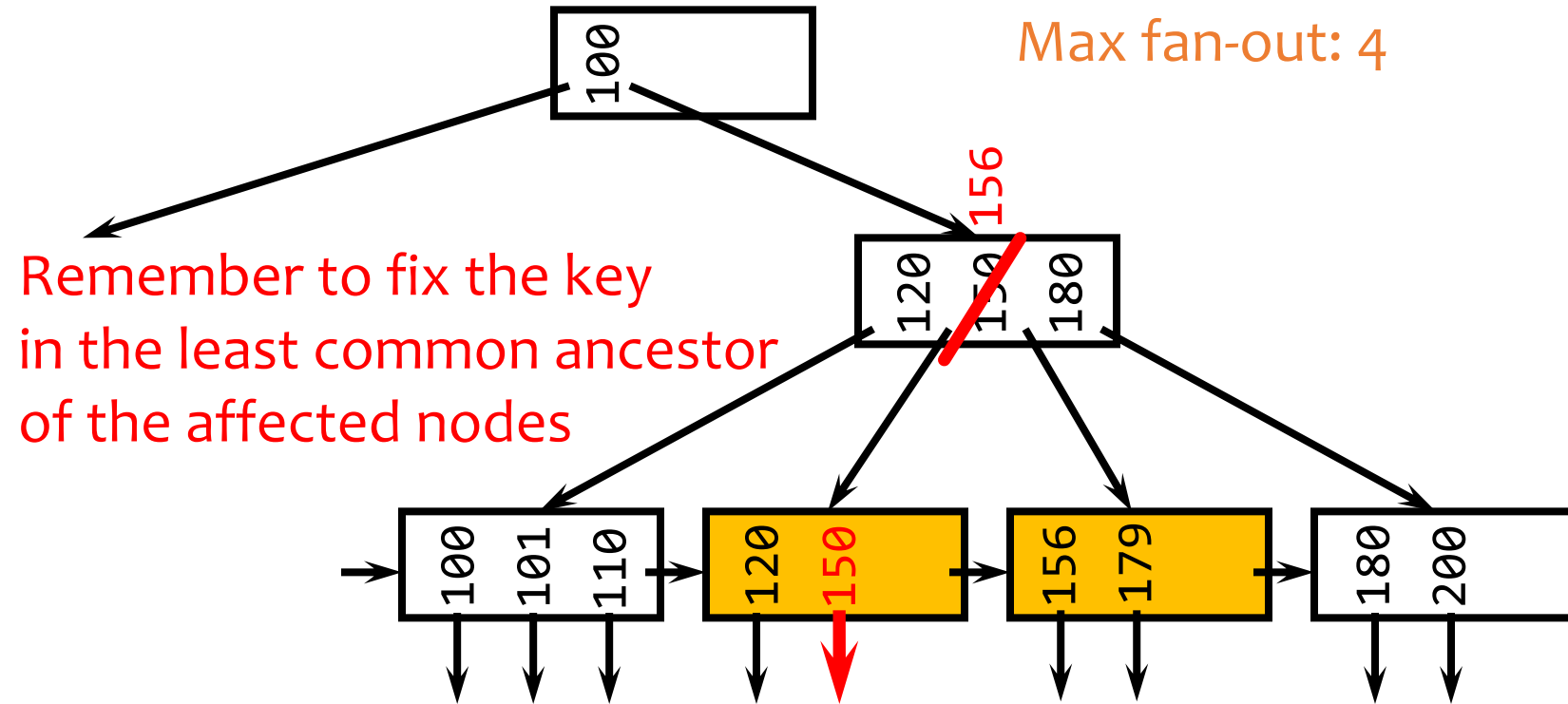
- For range search over  $n$  values:
  - 1 random IO +  $n$  sequential IO vs.  $n$  random IO
- `SELECT * FROM USER WHERE age = 50`
  - Assume 12 users with age = 50
  - Assume one data page can hold 4 User tuples
  - Suppose searching for a data entry requires 3 IOs in a B+-tree, which contain pointers to the data records (assume all matching pointers = data entries are in the same node of B+-tree)
  - What happens if the index is unclustered? (cost =  $3+12$ )
  - What happens if the index is clustered? (cost  $\leq 3 + (3 + 1)$ )

# Deletion (skip)

- Delete a record with search key value 130

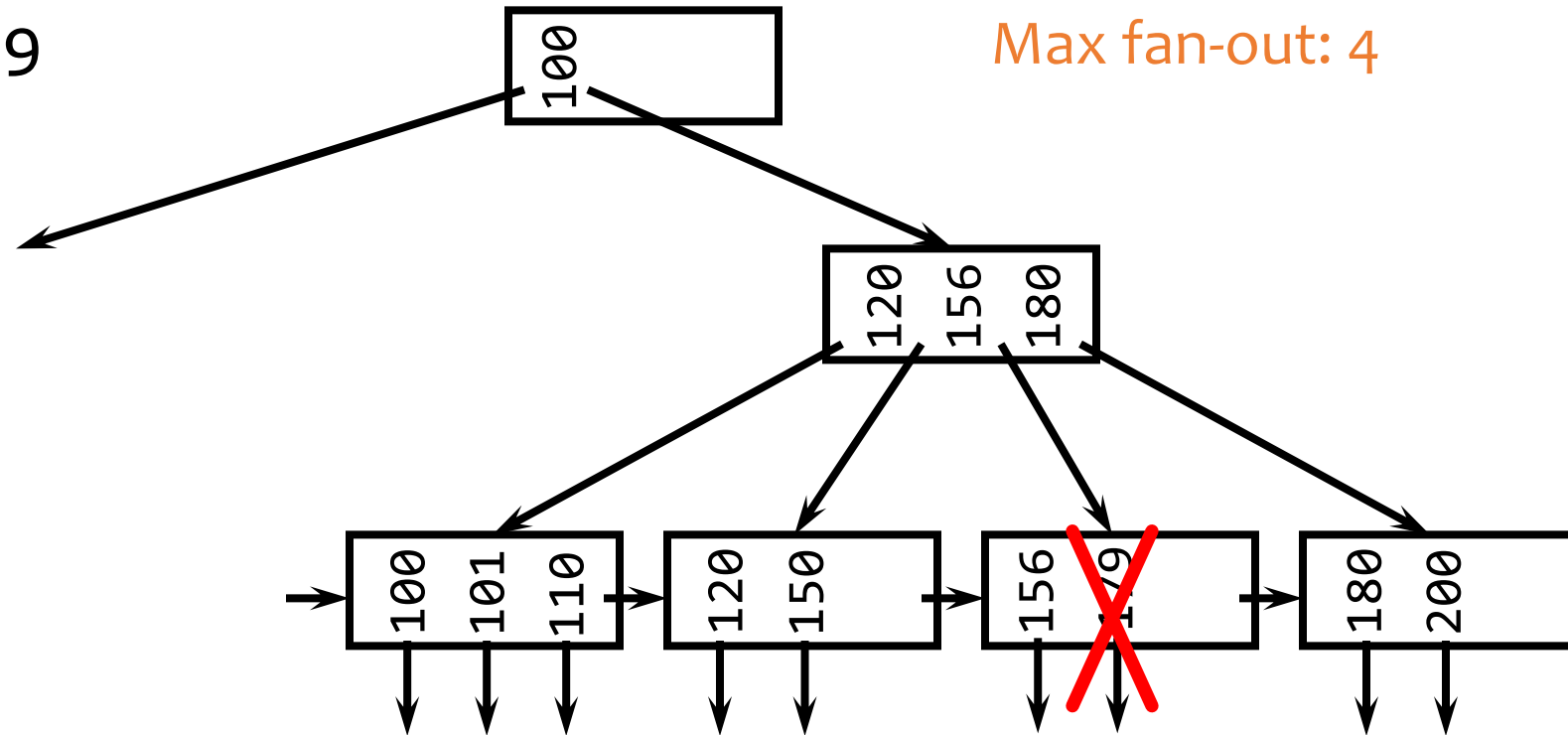


# Stealing from a sibling (skip)



# Another deletion example (skip)

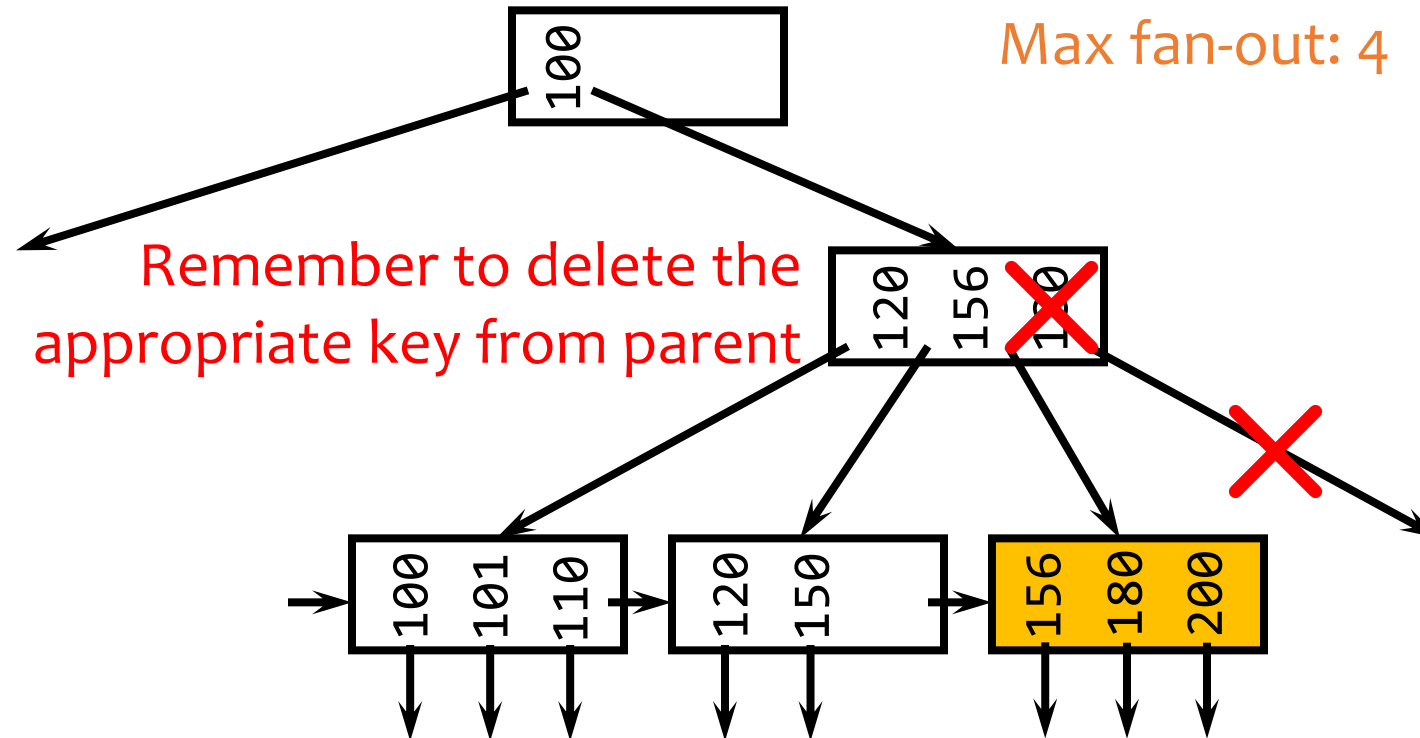
- Delete a record with search key value 179



Cannot steal from siblings

Then coalesce (merge) with a sibling!

# Coalescing (skip)



- Deletion can “propagate” all the way up to the root of the tree (not illustrated here)
  - When the root becomes empty, the tree “shrinks” by one level