Data on External Storage

- External Storage: offer persistent data storage
 - Unlike physical memory, data saved on a persistent storage is not lost when the system shutdowns or crashes.

Types of External Storage Devices

- Magnetic Disks: Data can be retrieved randomly
- Tapes: Can only read pages in sequence
 - Cheaper than disks
- Other types of persistent storage devices:
 - Optical storage (CD-R, CD-RW, DVD-R, DVD-RW)
 - Flash memory

- A record is a tuple or a row in a table.
 - Fixed-size records or variable-size records
- A page is a fixed length block of data for disk I/O.
 - A data page contains a collection of records.
 - A file consists of pages.
- A file is a collection of records.
 - Store one table per file, or multiple tables in the same file
- Typical page sizes are 4 and 8 KB.

• Search Key: attribute or set of attributes used to look up records in a file

File Organization

- Method of arranging a file of records on external storage.
 - Record id (rid) is used to locate a record on a disk
 - <u>Indexes</u> are data structures to efficiently search rids of given values

Alternative File Organizations and Comparison of File Organizations

- Many alternatives exist, each ideal for some situations, and not so good in others:
 - 1.Heap files: Records are unsorted. Suitable when typical access is a file scan retrieving all records without any order.
 - Fast update (insertions / deletions)
 - 2.Sorted Files: Records are sorted. Best if records must be retrieved in some order, or only a 'range' of records is needed.
 - Examples: employees are sorted by age.
 - Slow update in comparison to heap file.

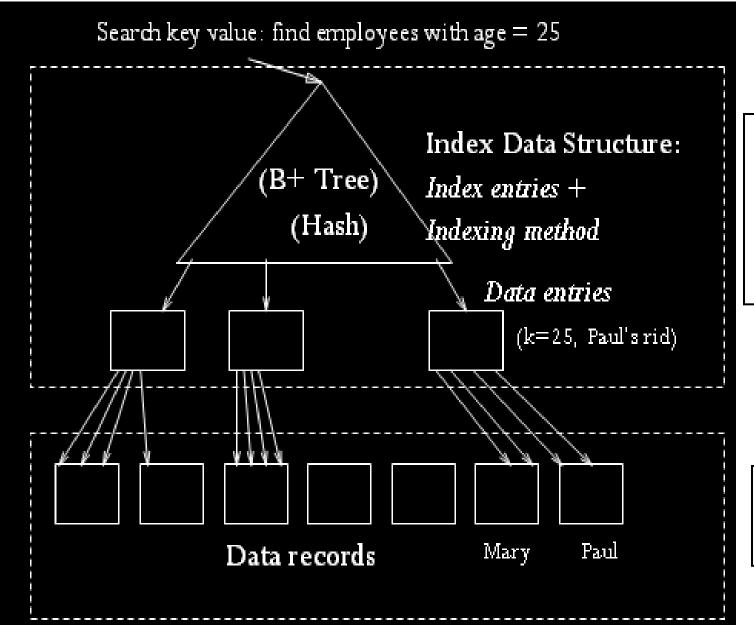
- 3.Indexes: Data structures to organize records via trees or hashing.
 - For example, create an index on employee age.
 - Like sorted files, speed up searches for a subset of records that match values in certain ("search key") fields
 - Updates are much faster than in sorted files.

Indexes

- <u>Indexes</u> are data structures to efficiently search rids of given values
- Any subset of the attributes of a table can be the search key for an index on the relation.
 - Search key does not have to be candidate key
 - Example: employee age is not a candidate key.
- An index file contains a collection of data entries (called k*).
 - Quickly search an index to locate a data entry with a key value k.
 - Example of a data entry: <age, rid>
 - Can use the data entry to find the data record.
 - Example of a data record: <name, age, salary>
 - Can create multiple indexes on the same data records.
 - Example indexes: age, salary, name

- Three alternatives for what to store in a data entry:
 - (Alternative 1): Data record with key value **k**
 - Example data record = data entry: <age, name, salary>
 - (Alternative 2): <k, rid of data record with search key value k>
 - Example data entry: <age, rid>
 - (Alternative 3): <k, list of rids of data records with search key k>
 - Example data entry: <age, rid_1, rid_2, ...>
- Choice of alternative for data entries is independent of the indexing method.
 - Indexing method takes a search key and finds the data entries matching the search key.
 - Examples of indexing methods: B+ trees or hashing.

Indexing Example



Index File (Small for efficient search)

Data File (Large)

Index Classification

- *Primary index:* In a sequentially ordered file, the index whose search key specifies the sequential order of the file. Also called *clustered index*
 - ---Order of data records is same as, or close to the order of data entries

• The search key of a primary index is usually but not necessarily the primary key

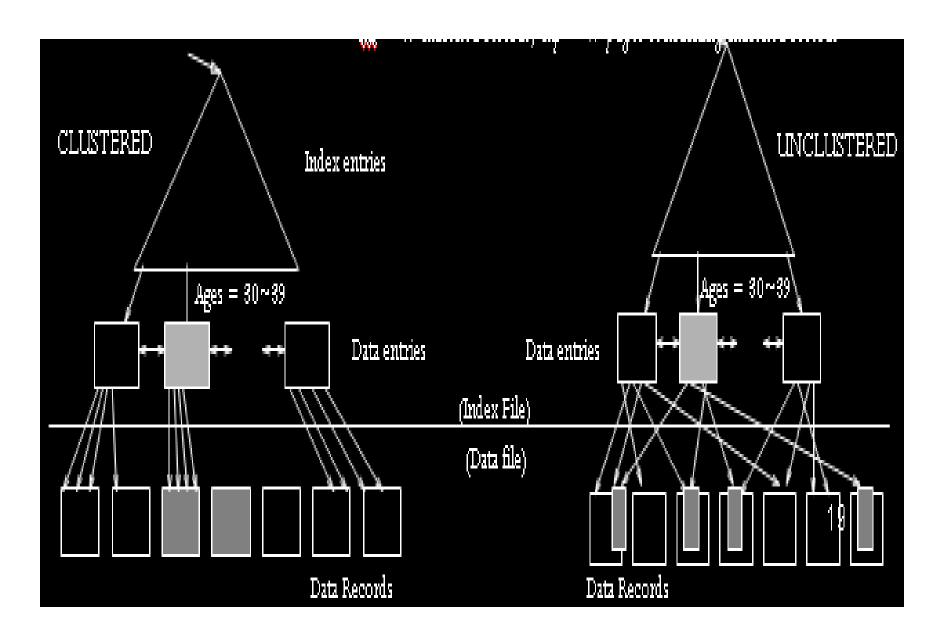
- Secondary index: an index whose search key specifies an order different from the sequential order of the file.
 - --also called *non-clustered index*

Dense index: Index record appears for every search-key value in the file

Sparse Index: contains index records for only some search-key values

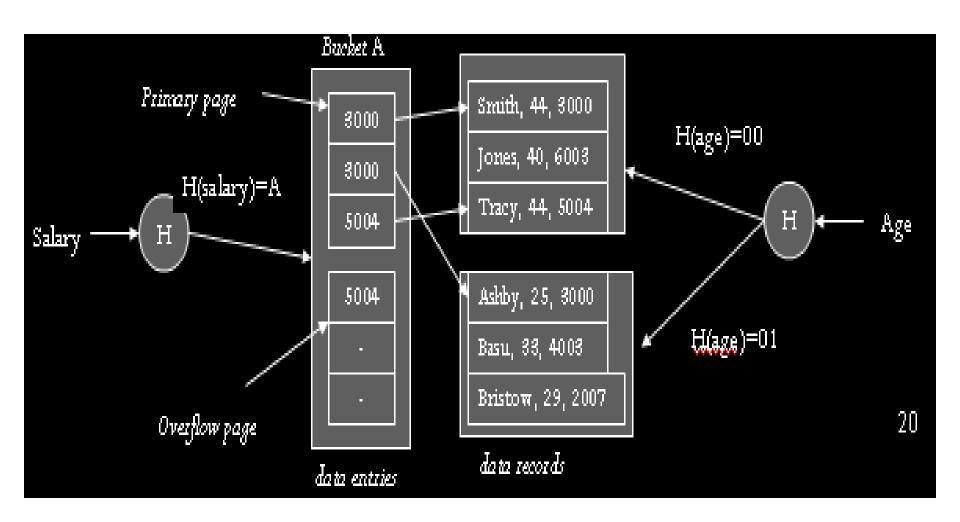
--applicable when records are sequentially ordered on search-key

Unique index: Search key contains a candidate key



Hash-Based Indexing

- Good for <u>equality selections</u>.
 - Data entries (key, rid) are grouped into buckets.
 - Bucket = primary page plus zero or more overflow pages.
 - Hashing function \mathbf{h} : $\mathbf{h}(r)$ = bucket in which record r belongs. \mathbf{h} looks at the search key fields of r.
 - If Alternative (1) is used, the buckets contain the data records.

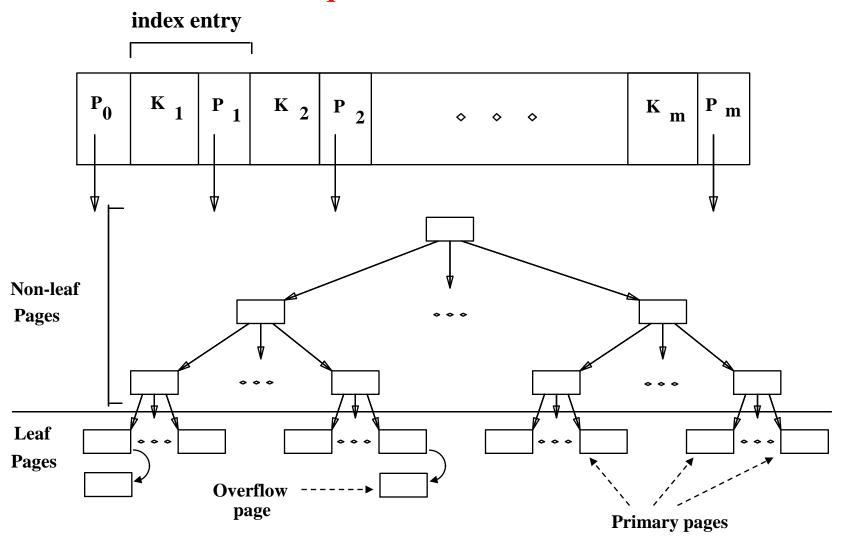


- Search on key value:
 - Apply key value to the hash function -> bucket number
 - Retrieve the primary page of the bucket. Search records in the primary page. If not found, search the overflow pages.
 - Cost of locating rids: # pages in bucket (small)
- Insert a record:
 - Apply key value to the hash function -> bucket number
 - If all (primary & overflow) pages in that bucket are full, allocate a new overflow page.
 - Cost: similar to search.
- Delete a record
 - Cost: Similar to search.

Tree-structured Indexing

- Tree-structured indexing techniques support both <u>range</u> <u>searches</u> and <u>equality searches</u>
- *ISAM*: static structure;
- *B*+ *tree*: dynamic, adjusts gracefully under inserts and deletes.

Indexed Sequential Access Method

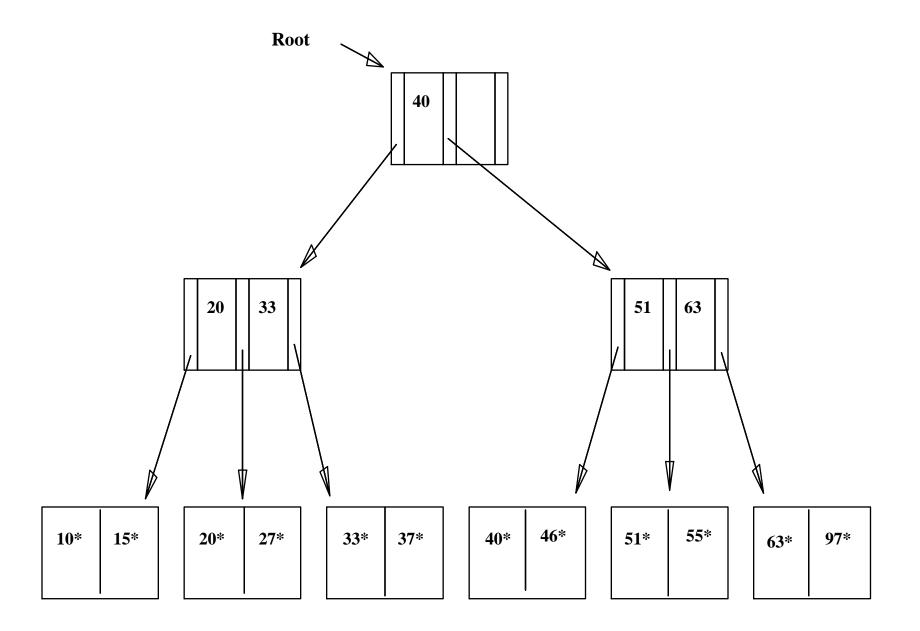


Non leaf nodes contain index entries. Leaf pages contain data entries.

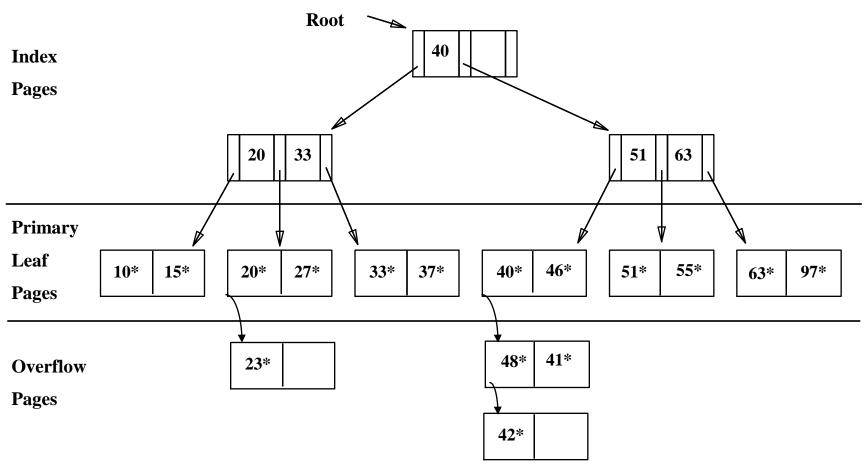
- Index entries: <search key value, page id>;
 `direct' search for data entries, which are in leaf pages.
- <u>Search</u>: Start at root; use key comparisons to go to leaf.
- *Insert*: Find leaf that data entry belongs to, and put it there, which may be in the primary or overflow area.
- <u>Delete</u>: Find and remove from leaf; if overflow page is empty, de-allocate.

Static tree structure: inserts/deletes affect only leaf pages.

- Frequent updates may cause the structure to degrade
 - Index pages never change
 - some range of values may have too many overflow pages
 - e.g., inserting many values between 40 and 51.

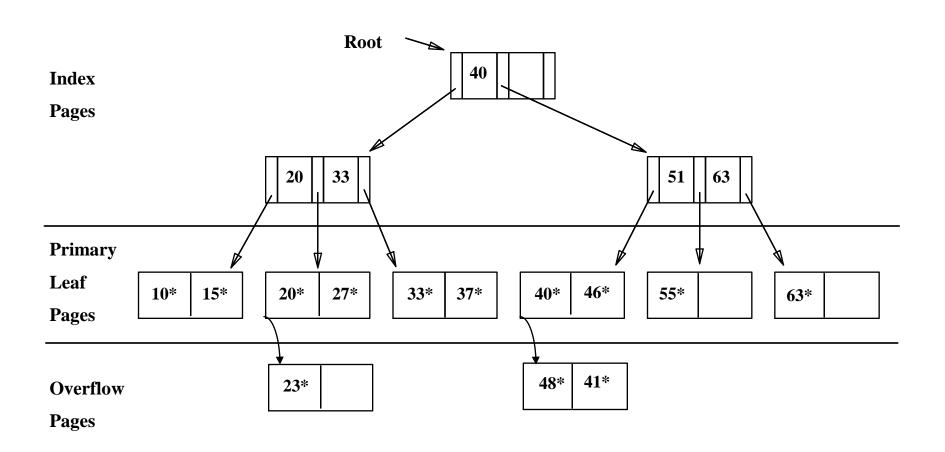


After Inserting 23*, 48*, 41*, 42* ...



Suppose we now delete 42*, 51*, 97*.

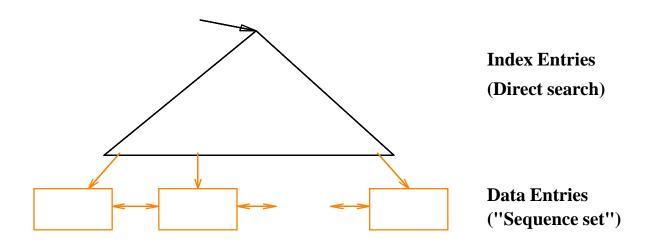
...Then Deleting 42*, 51*, 97*



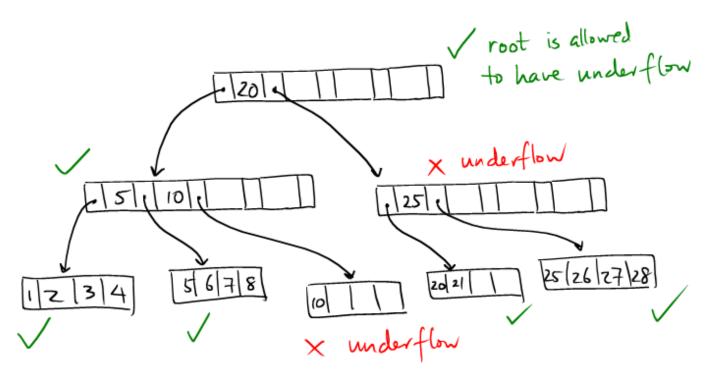
note that 51 still appears in the index page!

B+ Tree: The Most Widely Used Index

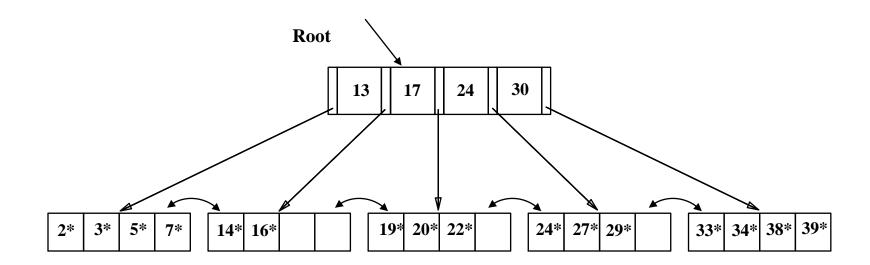
- Dynamic structure can be updated without using overflow pages!
- Balanced tree in which internal nodes direct the search
 - Index entries same as ISAM
 - Data entries one of the 3 alternatives.
- Main characteristics:
 - Minimum 50% occupancy (except for root)
 - All paths from root to leaf are of the same length
 - All nodes (except root) has between ceil(n/2) and n children.
 - .[Order 5 means that a node can have a maximum of 5 children and 4 keys]
 - Supports equality and range-searches efficiently.
- Leaf pages are organized into doubly linked lists



Example:



- Search begins at root, and key comparisons direct it to a leaf.
- Search for 5^* , 15^* , all data entries $\Rightarrow 24^*$...

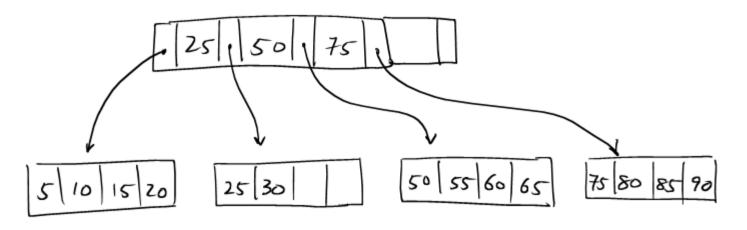


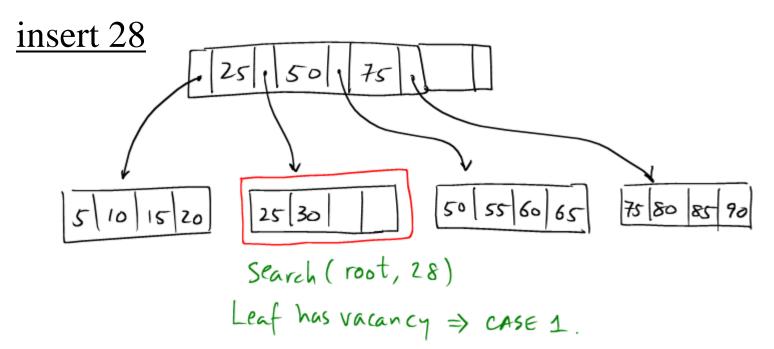
Inserting a Data Entry into a B+ Tree

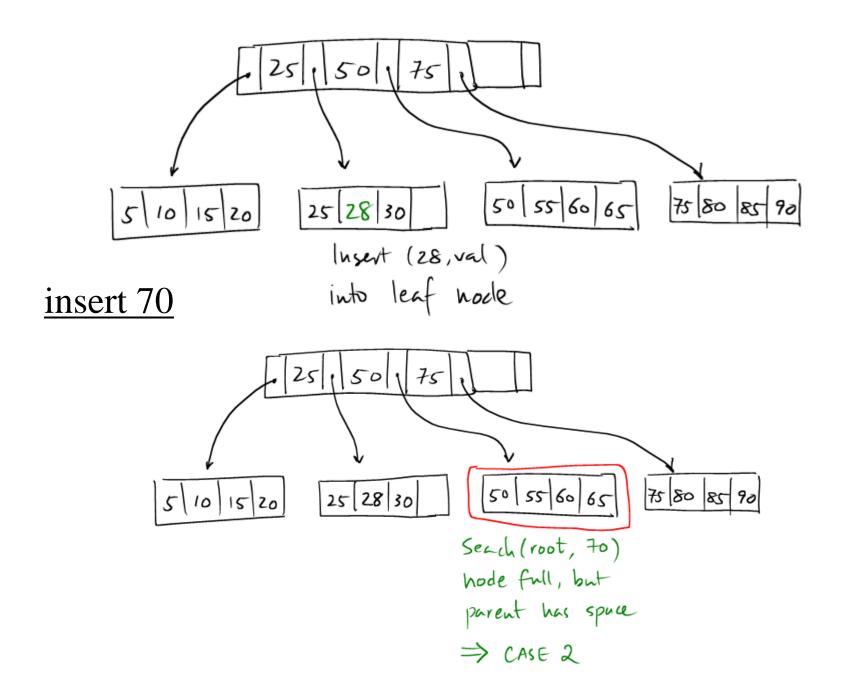
- Find correct leaf L.
- Put data entry onto *L*.
 - If *L* has enough space, *done*!
 - Else, must <u>split</u> L (into L and a new node L2)
 - Redistribute entries evenly, <u>copy up</u> middle key.
 - Insert index entry pointing to L2 into parent of L.
- This can happen recursively
 - To split index node, redistribute entries evenly, but <u>push up</u> middle key. (Contrast with leaf splits.)
- Splits "grow" tree; root split increases height.
 - Tree growth: gets <u>wider</u> or <u>one level taller at top.</u>

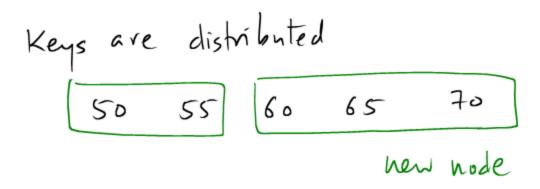
The tree distinct cases are:

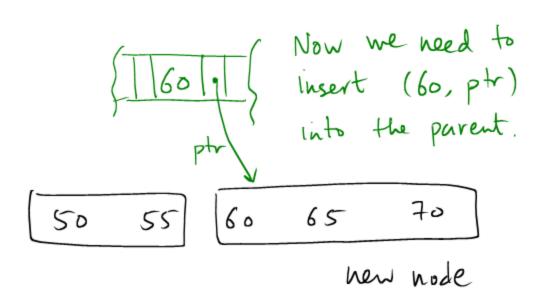
- 1. the target node has available space for one more key
- 2. the target node is full, but its parent has space for one more key
- 3. the target node and its parent are both full.

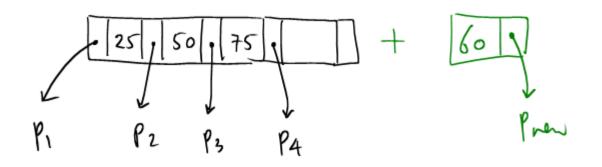


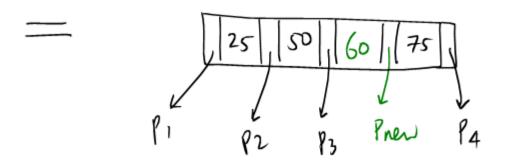


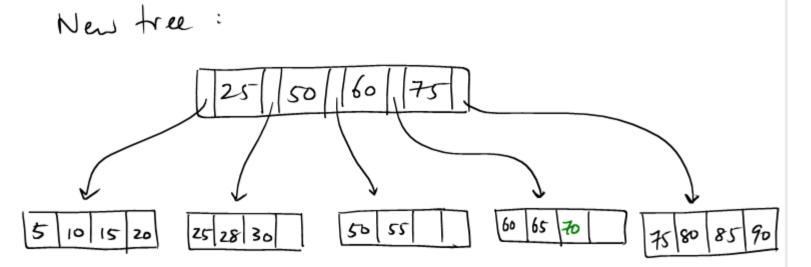


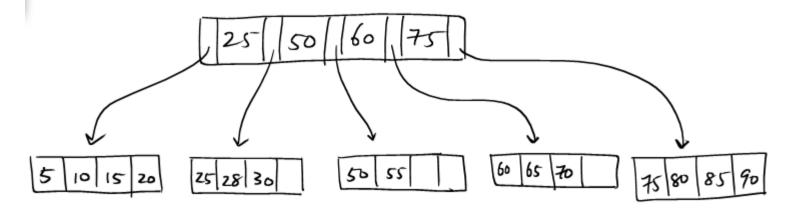




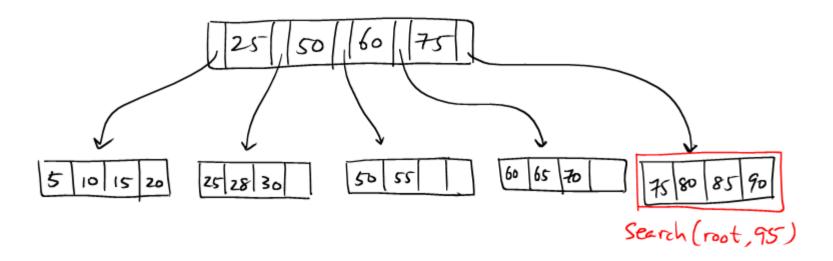


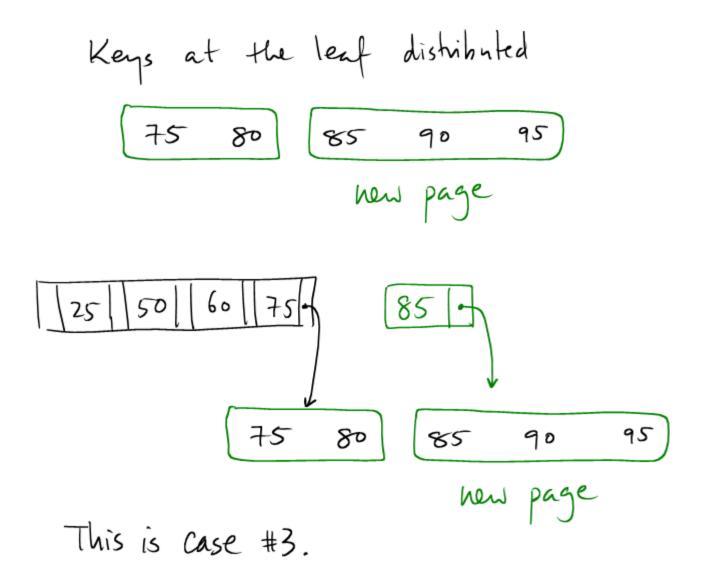






insert 95

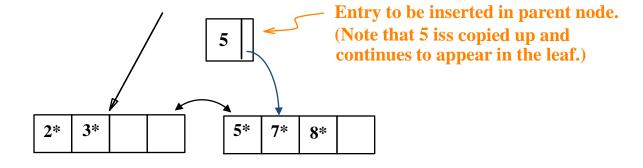




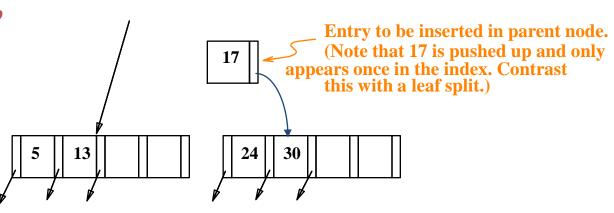
all_Keys: 85 25 50 60 75 distribute middle new node, to left key distribute to right 60 75 | 85 25 ,50 60 65 70 10 15 85 90 75 80

Inserting 8* into Example B+ Tree

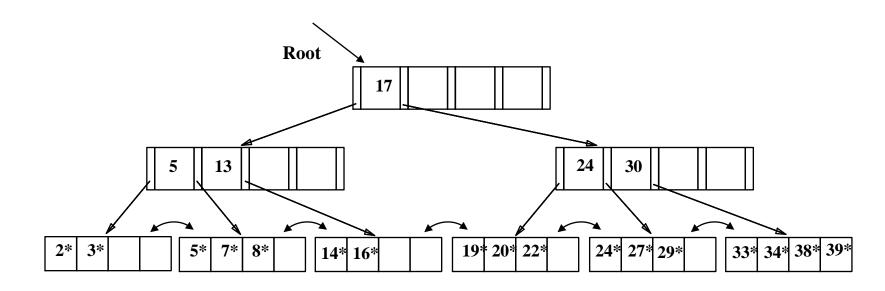
 Observe how minimum occupancy is guaranteed in both leaf and index pg splits.



• Note difference between *copy-up* and *push-up*; be sure you understand the reasons for this.



Example B+ Tree After Inserting 8*

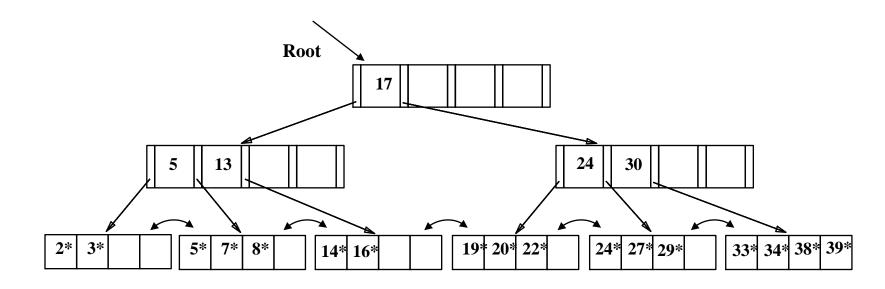


❖ Notice that root was split, leading to increase in height.

Deleting a Data Entry from a B+ Tree

- Start at root, find leaf L where entry belongs.
- Remove the entry.
 - If L is at least half-full, done!
 - If L has only **few** entries (less than half),
 - Try to re-distribute, borrowing from <u>sibling</u> (adjacent node with same parent as L).
 - If re-distribution fails, <u>merge</u> L and sibling.
- If merge occurred, must delete entry (pointing to *L* or sibling) from parent of *L*.
- Merge could propagate to root, decreasing height.

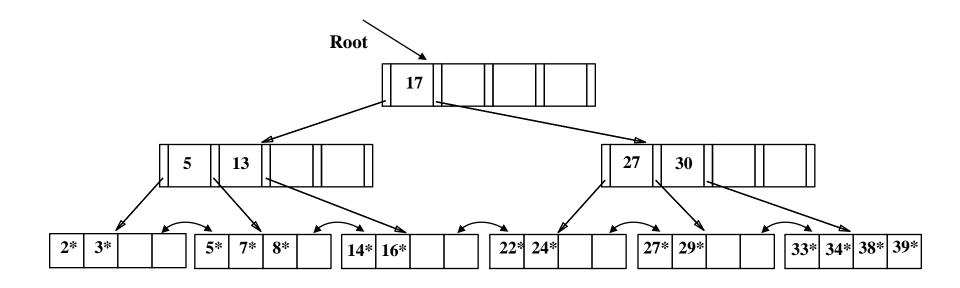
Deleting 19* and then 20*



Deletion of $19^* \rightarrow$ leaf node is not below the minimum number of entries after the deletion of 19^* . No re-adjustments needed.

Deletion of $20^* \rightarrow$ leaf node falls below minimum number of entries

- re-distribute entries
- copy-up low key value of the second node



- Deleting 19* is easy.
- Deleting 20* is done with re-distribution. Notice how middle key is *copied up*.

... And Then Deleting 24*

- Must merge.
- Observe 'toss' of index entry (on right), and 'pull down' of index entry (below).

