Introduction to Database Systems CSE 444

Lecture 15: Data Storage and Indexes

Where We Are

- How to use a DBMS as a:
 - Data analyst: SQL, SQL, SQL,...
 - Application programmer: JDBC, XML,...
 - Database administrator: tuning, triggers, security
 - Massive-scale data analyst: Pig/MapReduce
- How DBMSs work:
 - Transactions
 - Data storage and indexing
 - Query execution
- Databases as a service

Outline

- Storage model
- Index structures (Section 14.1)
 - [Old edition: 13.1 and 13.2]
- B-trees (Section 14.2)
 - [Old edition: 13.3]

Storage Model

- DBMS needs spatial and temporal control over storage
 - Spatial control for performance
 - Temporal control for correctness and performance
 - Solution: Buffer manager inside DBMS (see past lectures)
- For spatial control, two alternatives
 - Use "raw" disk device interface directly
 - Use OS files

Spatial Control Using "Raw" Disk Device Interface

Overview

DBMS issues low-level storage requests directly to disk device

Advantages

- DBMS can ensure that important queries access data sequentially
- Can provide highest performance

Disadvantages

- Requires devoting entire disks to the DBMS
- Reduces portability as low-level disk interfaces are OS specific
- Many devices are in fact "virtual disk devices"

Spatial Control Using OS Files

Overview

DBMS creates one or more very large OS files

Advantages

Allocating large file on empty disk can yield good physical locality

Disadvantages

- OS can limit file size to a single disk
- OS can limit the number of open file descriptors
- But these drawbacks have mostly been overcome by modern OSs

Commercial Systems

- Most commercial systems offer both alternatives
 - Raw device interface for peak performance
 - OS files more commonly used
- In both cases, we end-up with a DBMS file abstraction implemented on top of OS files or raw device interface

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Database File Types

The data file can be one of:

- Heap file
 - Set of records, partitioned into blocks
 - Unsorted
- Sequential file
 - Sorted according to some attribute(s) called <u>key</u>

"key" here means something else than "primary key"

Index

- A (possibly separate) file, that allows fast access to records in the data file given a search key
- The index contains (key, value) pairs:
 - The key = an attribute value
 - The value = either a pointer to the record, or the record itself

"key" (aka "search key") again means something else

Index Classification

Clustered/unclustered

- Clustered = records close in index are close in data
- Unclustered = records close in index may be far in data

Primary/secondary

- Meaning 1:
 - Primary = is over attributes that include the primary key
 - Secondary = otherwise
- Meaning 2: means the same as clustered/unclustered
- Organization: B+ tree or Hash table

Clustered/Unclustered

Clustered

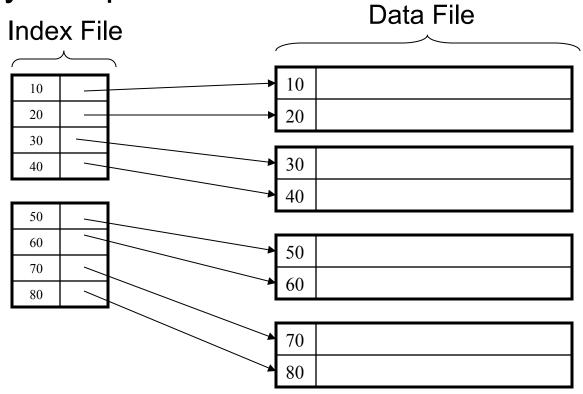
- Index determines the location of indexed records
- Typically, clustered index is one where values are data records (but not necessary)

Unclustered

- Index cannot reorder data, does not determine data location
- In these indexes: value = pointer to data record

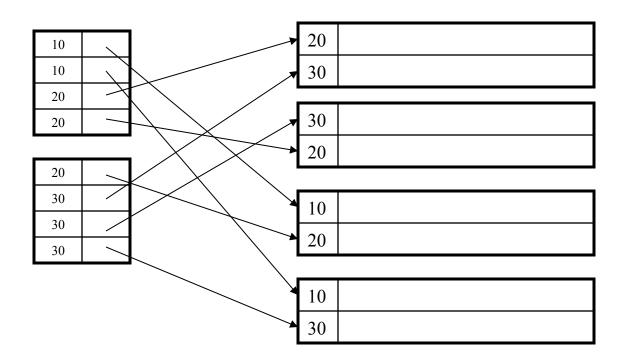
Clustered Index

- File is sorted on the index attribute
- Only one per table

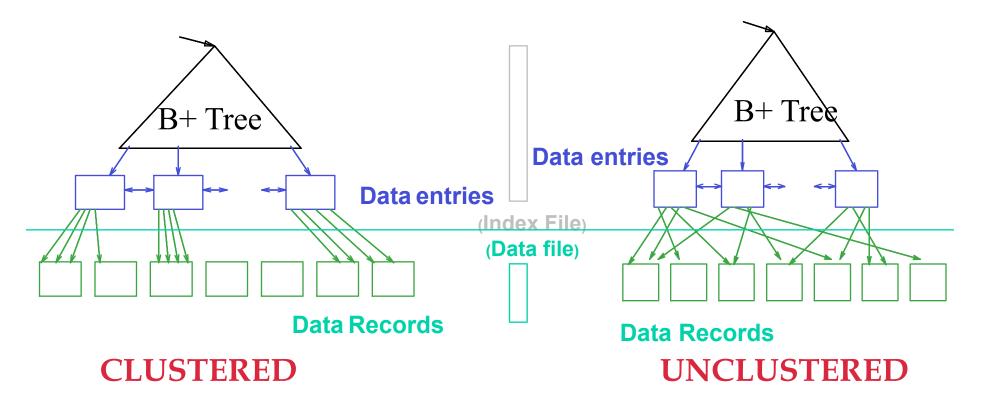


Unclustered Index

Several per table



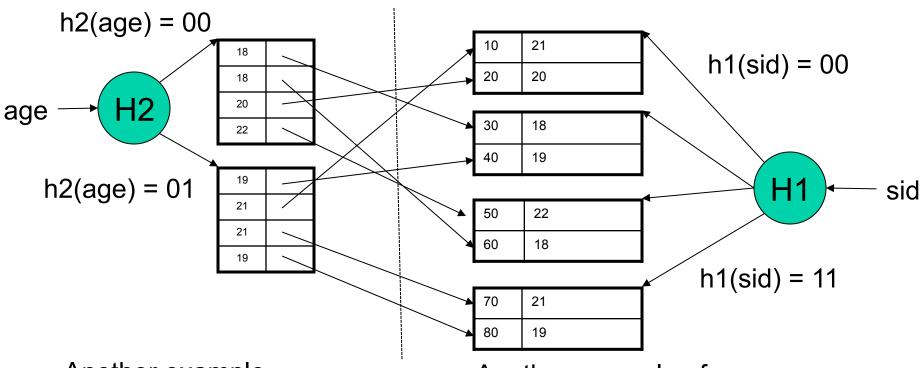
Clustered vs. Unclustered Index



 More commonly, in a clustered B+ Tree index, data entries are data records

Hash-Based Index

Good for point queries but not range queries



Another example of unclustered/secondary index

Another example of clustered/primary index

Outline

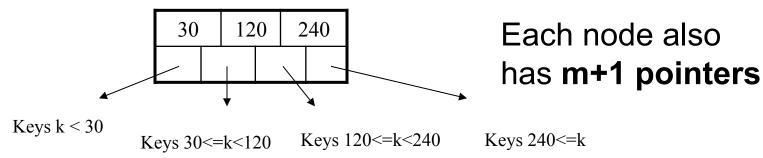
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B+ Trees

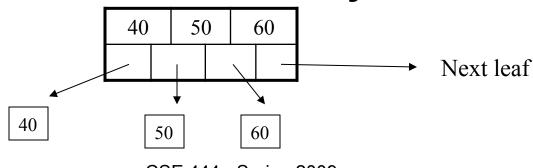
- Search trees
- Idea in B Trees
 - Make 1 node = 1 block
 - Keep tree balanced in height
- Idea in B+ Trees
 - Make leaves into a linked list: facilitates range queries

B+ Trees Basics

- Parameter d = the <u>degree</u>
- Each node has d <= m <= 2d keys (except root)

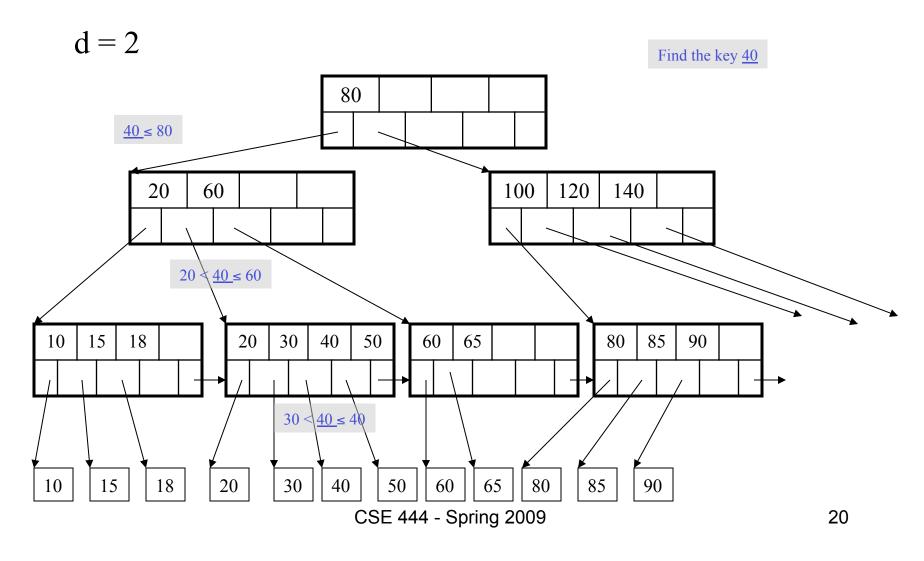


Each leaf has d <= m <= 2d keys



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B+ Tree Example



B+ Tree Design

- How large d?
- Example:
 - Key size = 4 bytes
 - Pointer size = 8 bytes
 - Block size = 4096 bytes
- $2d \times 4 + (2d+1) \times 8 \le 4096$
- d = 170

Searching a B+ Tree

- Exact key values:
 - Start at the root
 - Proceed down, to the leaf

Select name From people Where age = 25

- Range queries:
 - As above
 - Then sequential traversal

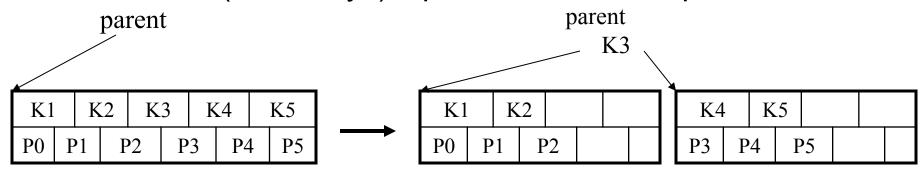
Select name
From people
Where 20 <= age
and age <= 30

B+ Trees in Practice

- Typical order: 100. Typical fill-factor: 67%
 - average fanout = 133
- Typical capacities
 - Height 4: $133^4 = 312,900,700$ records
 - Height 3: 133^3 = 2,352,637 records
- Can often hold top levels in buffer pool
 - Level 1 = 1 page = 8 Kbytes
 - Level 2 = 133 pages = 1 Mbyte
 - Level 3 = 17,689 pages = 133 Mbytes

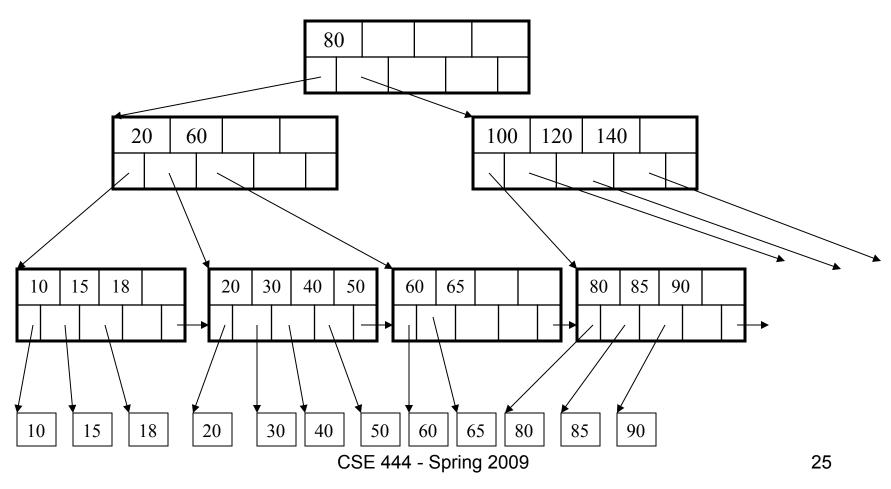
Insert (K, P)

- Find leaf where K belongs, insert
- If no overflow (2d keys or less), halt
- If overflow (2d+1 keys), split node, insert in parent:

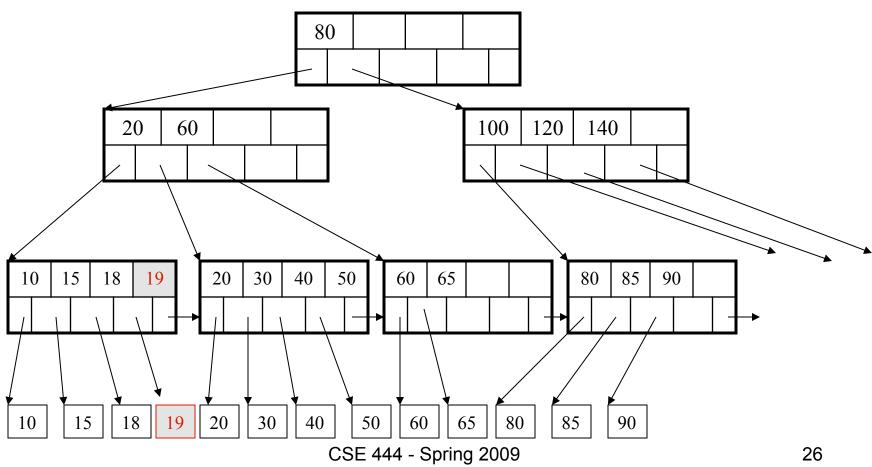


- If leaf, keep K3 too in right node
- When root splits, new root has 1 key only

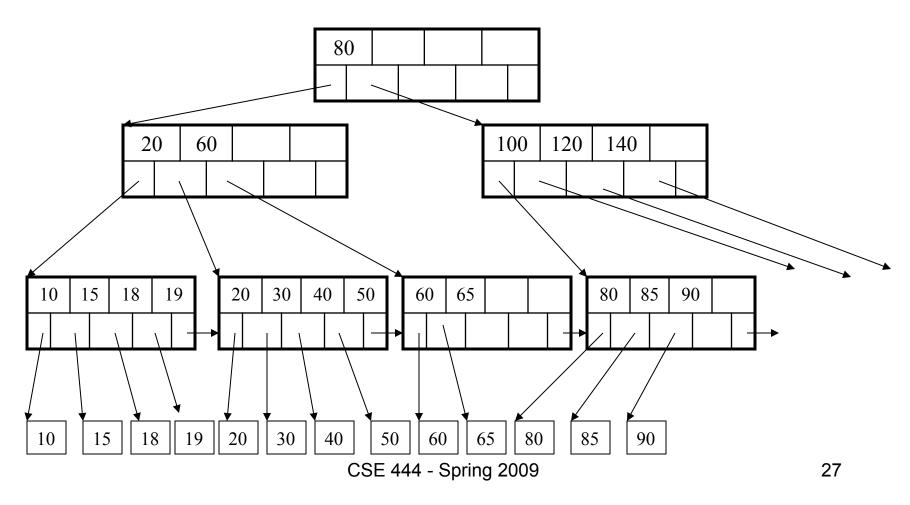
Insert K=19



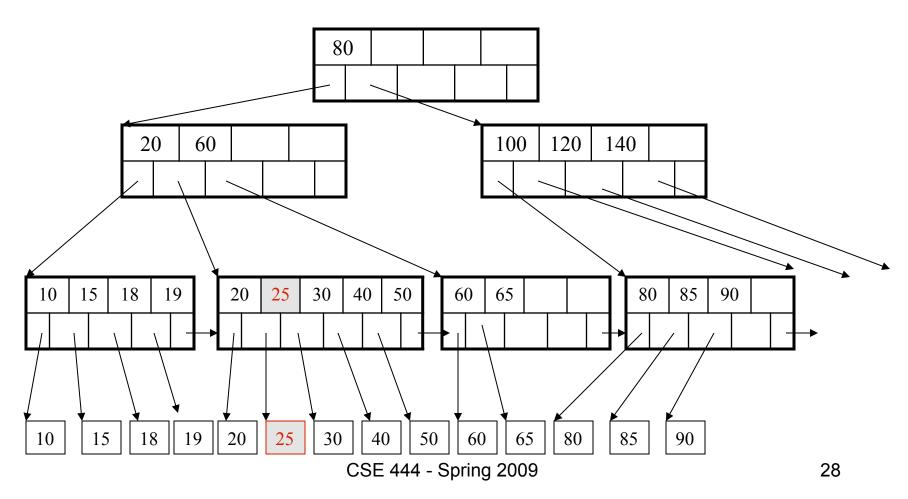
After insertion



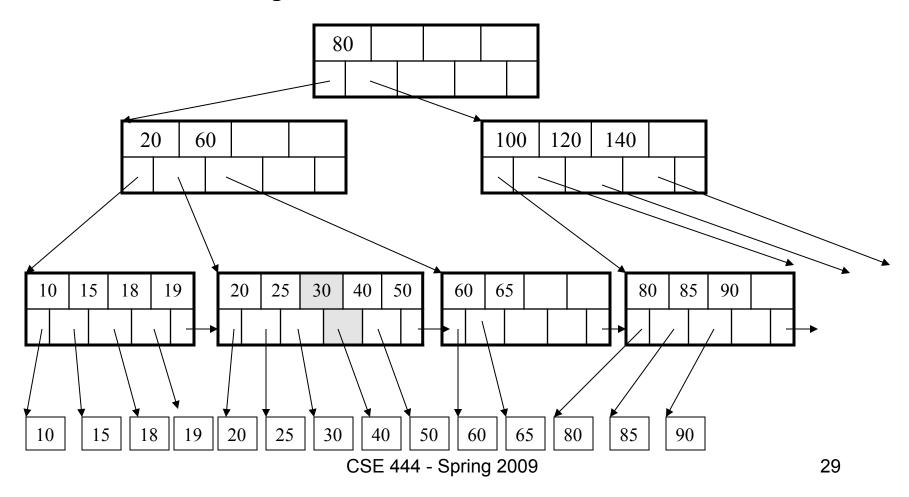
Now insert 25



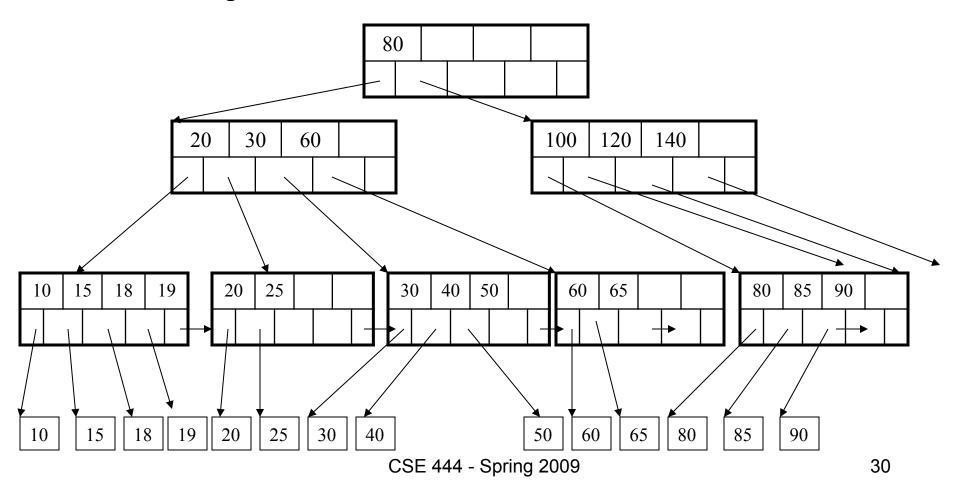
After insertion



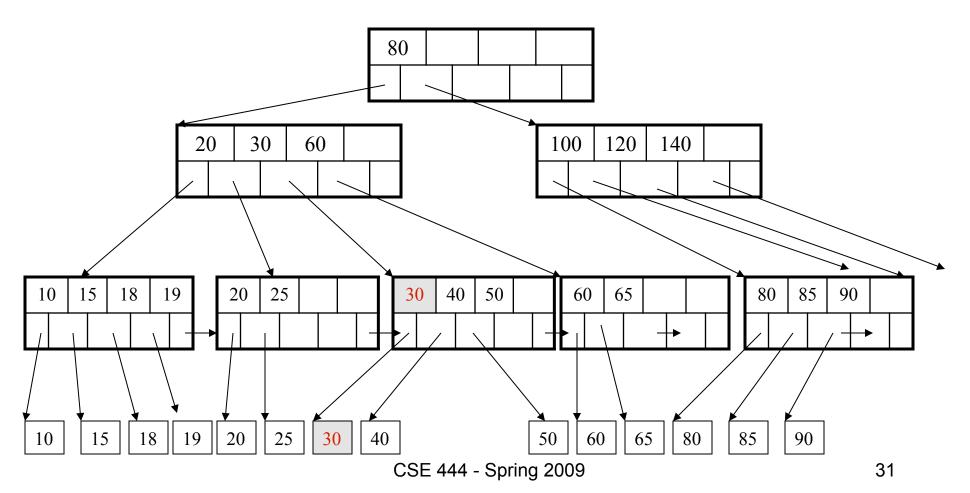
But now have to split!



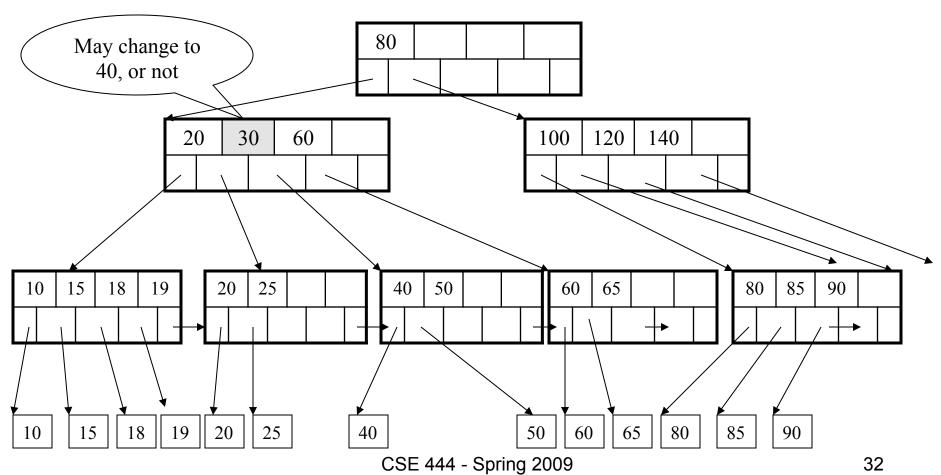
After the split



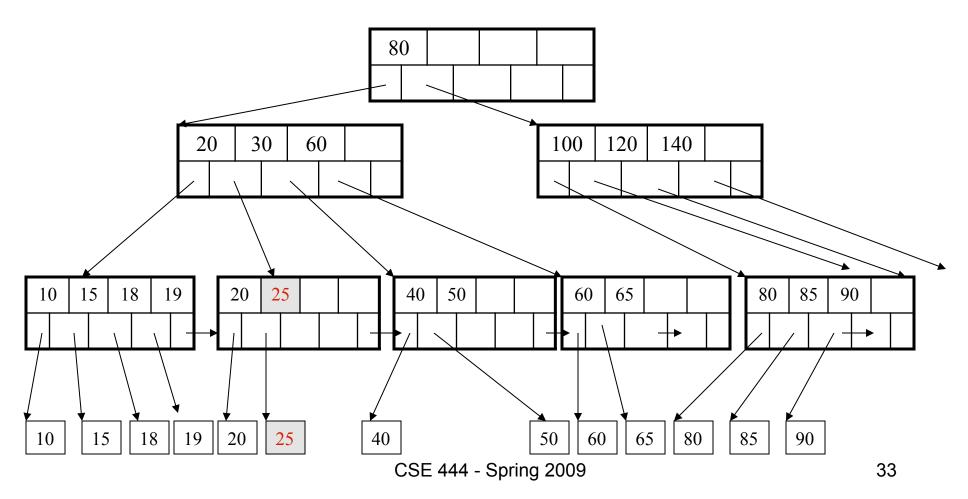
Delete 30

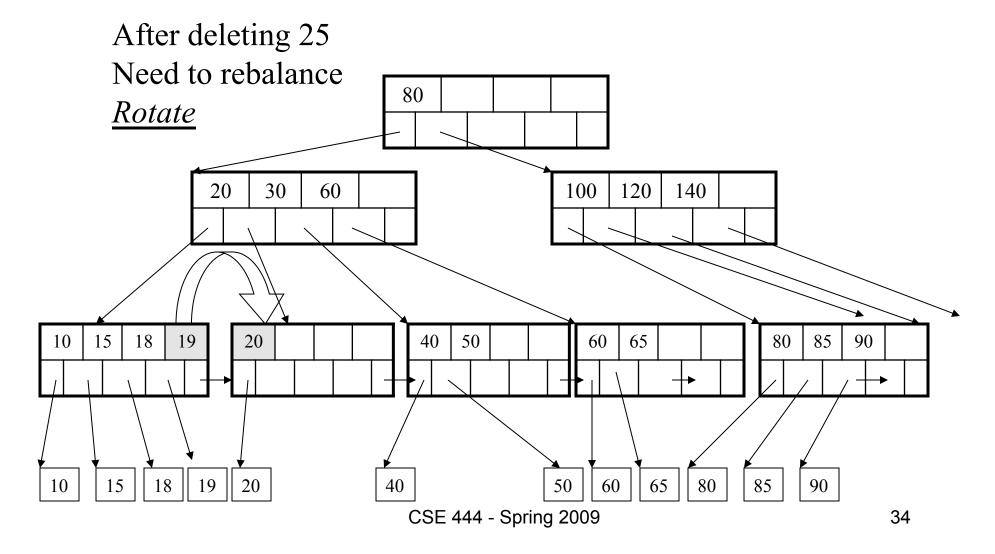


After deleting 30

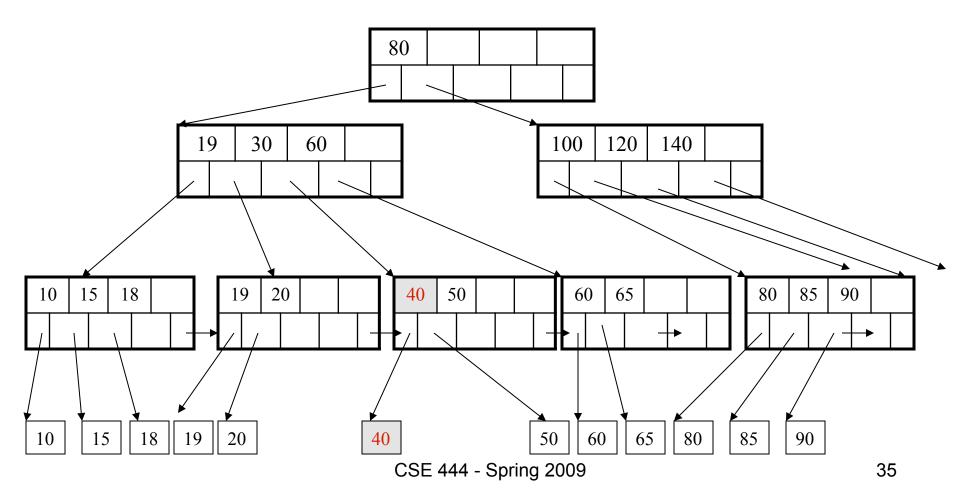


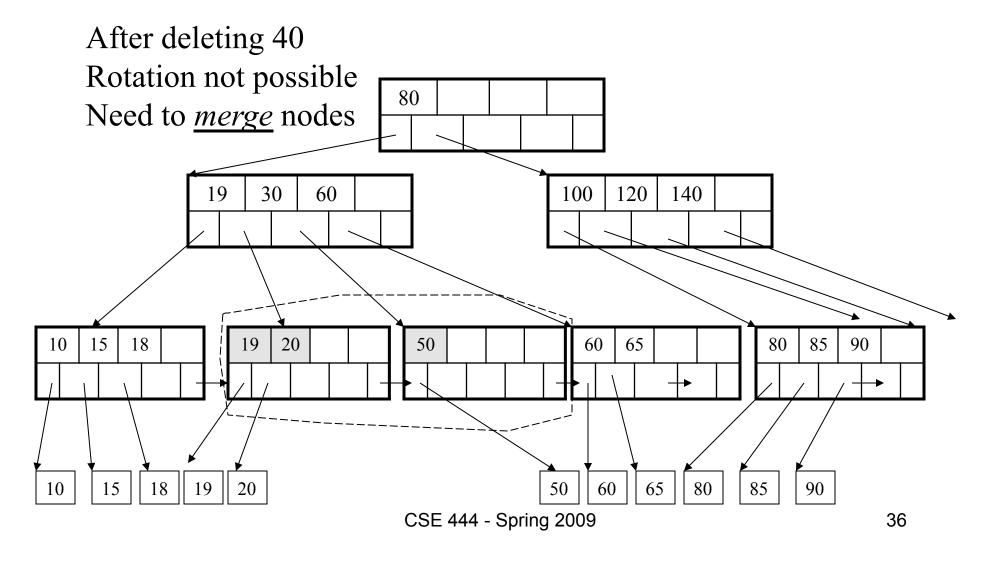
Now delete 25



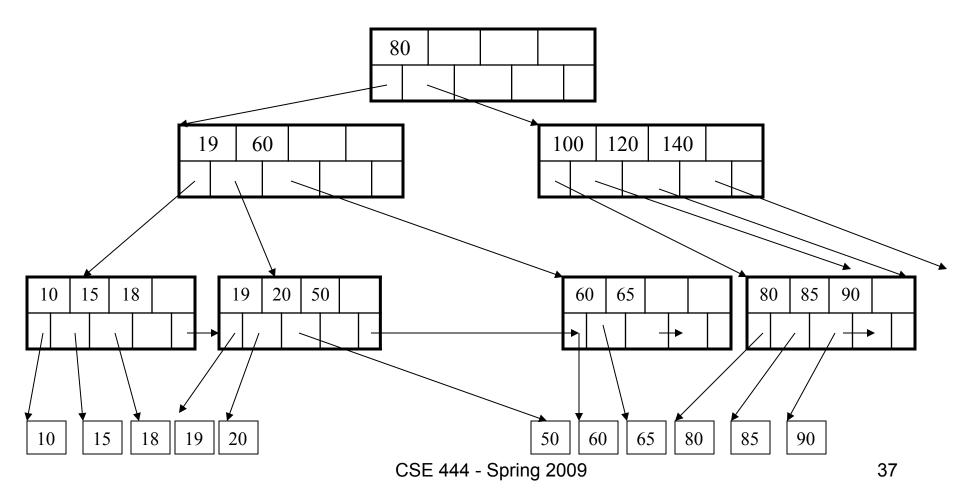


Now delete 40





Final tree



Summary of B+ Trees

- Default index structure on most DBMS
- Very effective at answering 'point' queries: productName = 'gizmo'
- Effective for range queries:
 50 < price AND price < 100
- Less effective for multirange:
 50 < price < 100 AND 2 < quant < 20

Indexes in PostgreSQL

CREATE TABLE V(M int, N varchar(20), P int);

CREATE INDEX V1_N ON V(N)

CREATE INDEX V2 ON V(P, M)

CREATE INDEX VVV ON V(M, N)

CLUSTER V USING V2

Makes V2 clustered