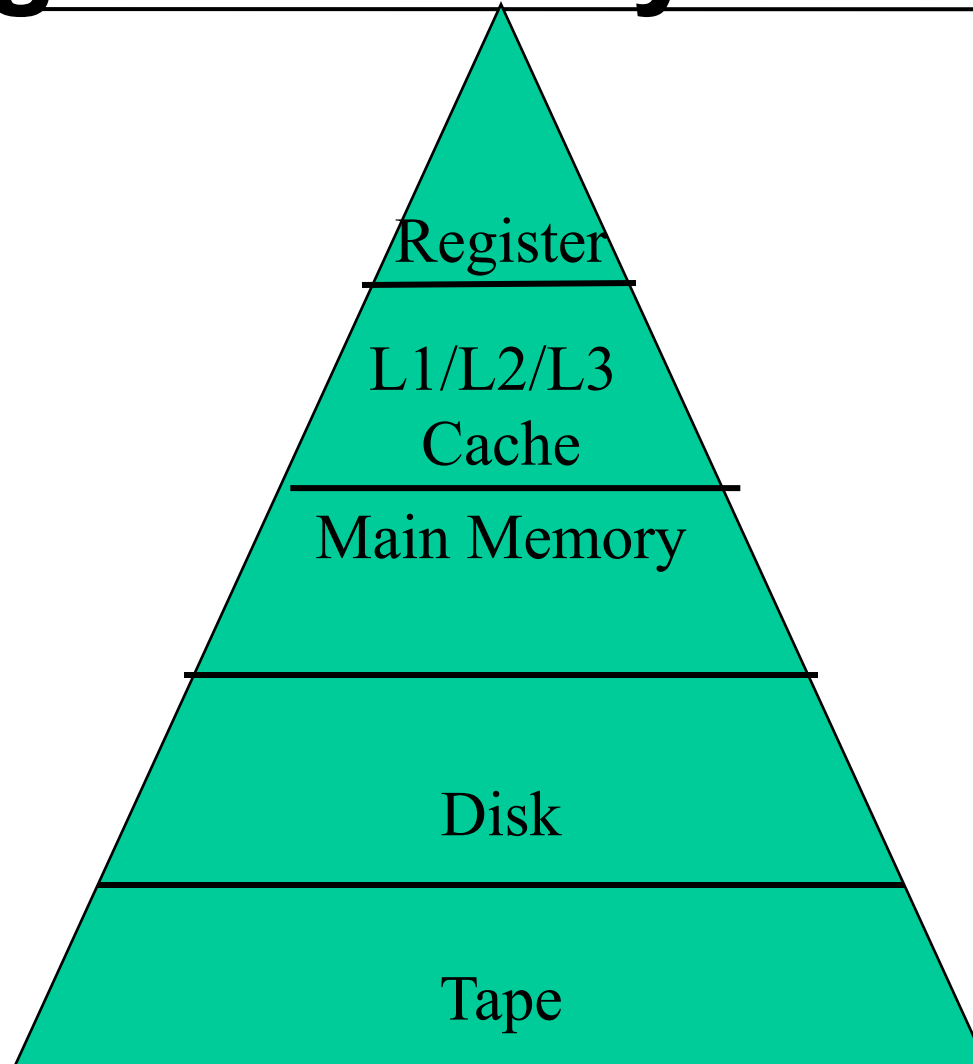


Physical Data Organisation

Topics:

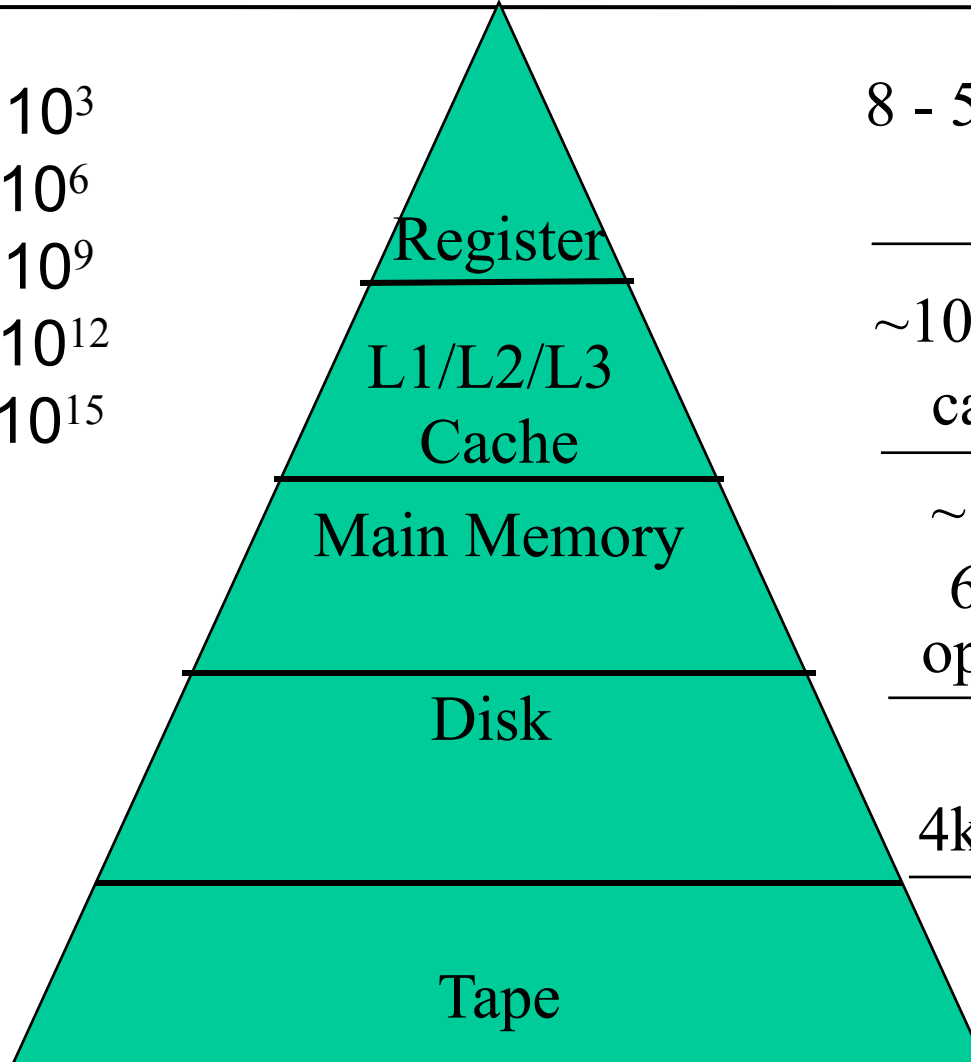
- Storage hierarchy
- Storage structures
- ISAM
- B-Trees
- Hashing
- Clustering

Storage Hierarchy



Storage Hierarchy

1 K (Kilo) = 10^3
1 M (Mega) = 10^6
1 G (Giga) = 10^9
1 T (Tera) = 10^{12}
1 P (Peta) = 10^{15}



8 - 512 Byte/Register
Compiler

~10 MB Byte/Cache
cache-controller

~100 GB-range,
64B block size
operating system

~1 TB-range
4kB blocks | user

PB-range
user

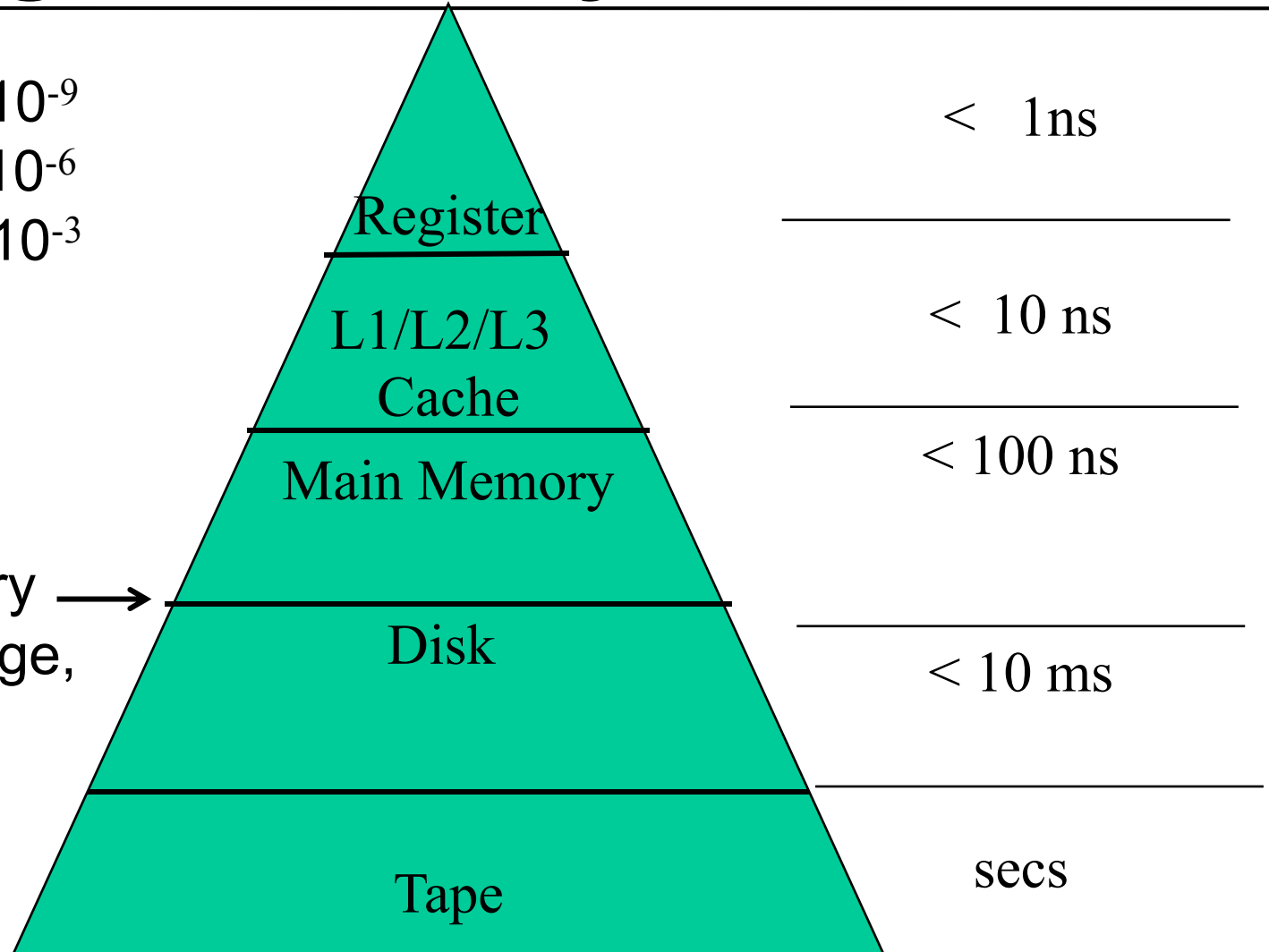
Storage Hierarchy

1 n (nano) = 10^{-9}

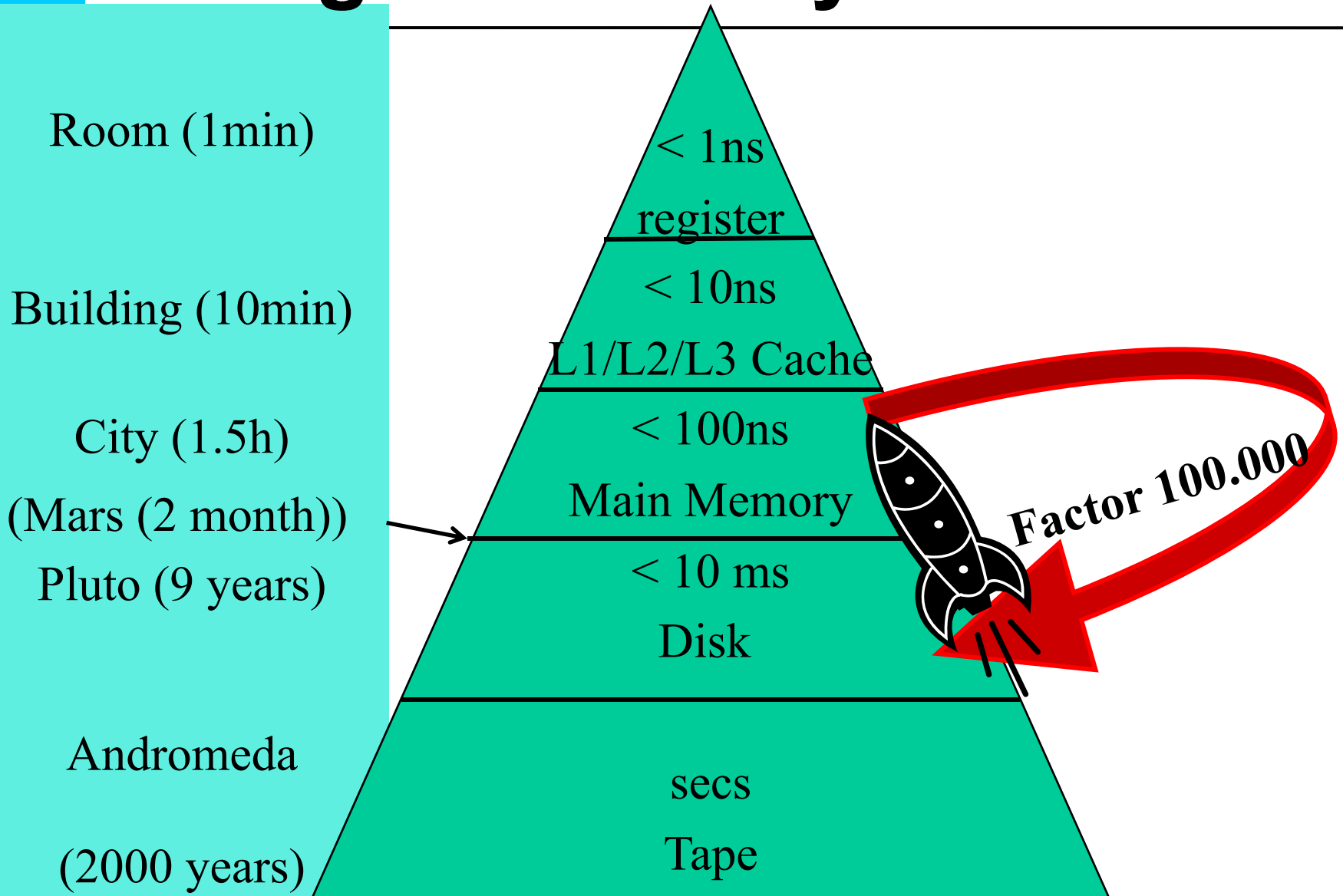
1 μ (micro) = 10^{-6}

1 m (milli) = 10^{-3}

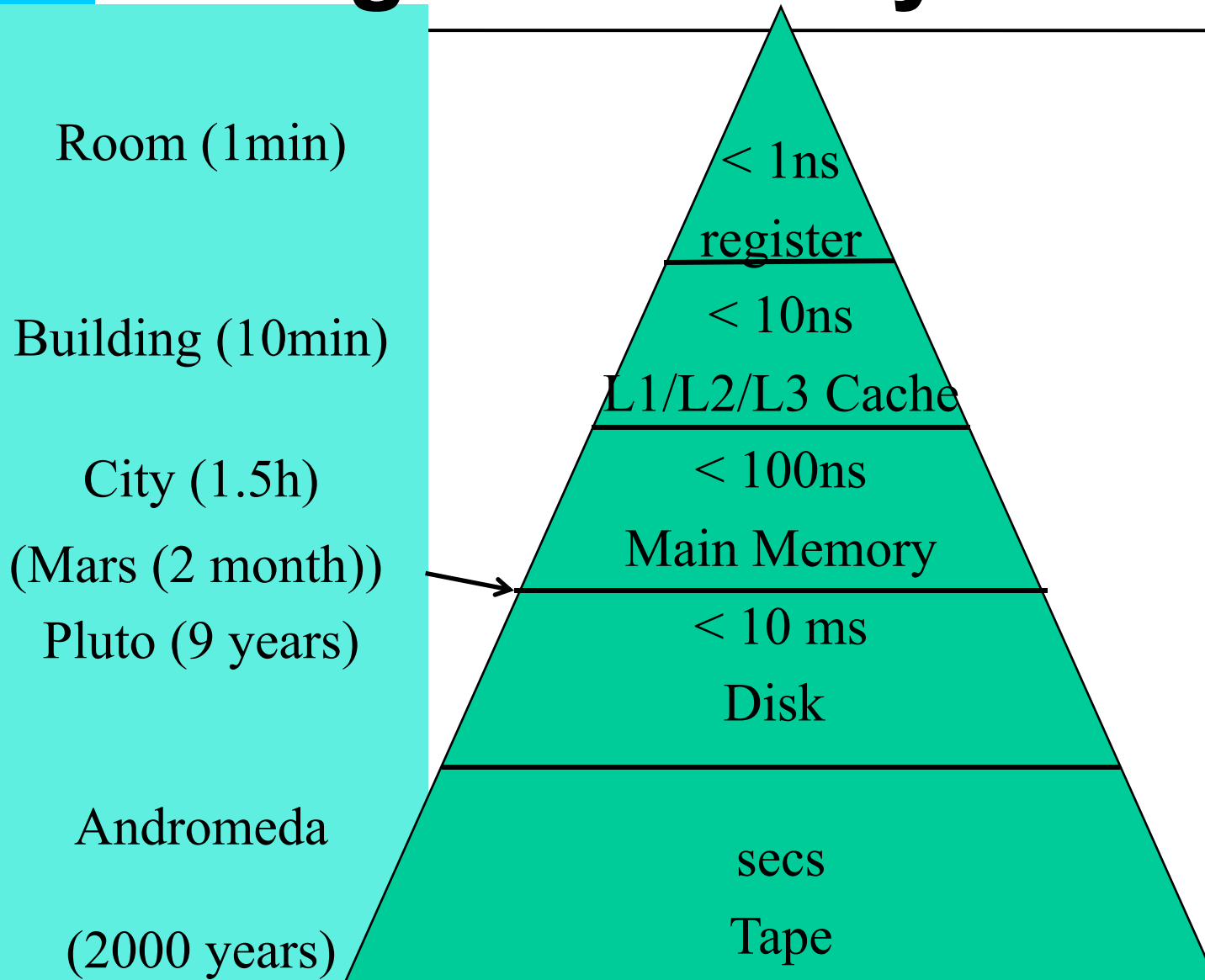
(Flash-Memory →
Lower TB-range,
< 100 μ s)



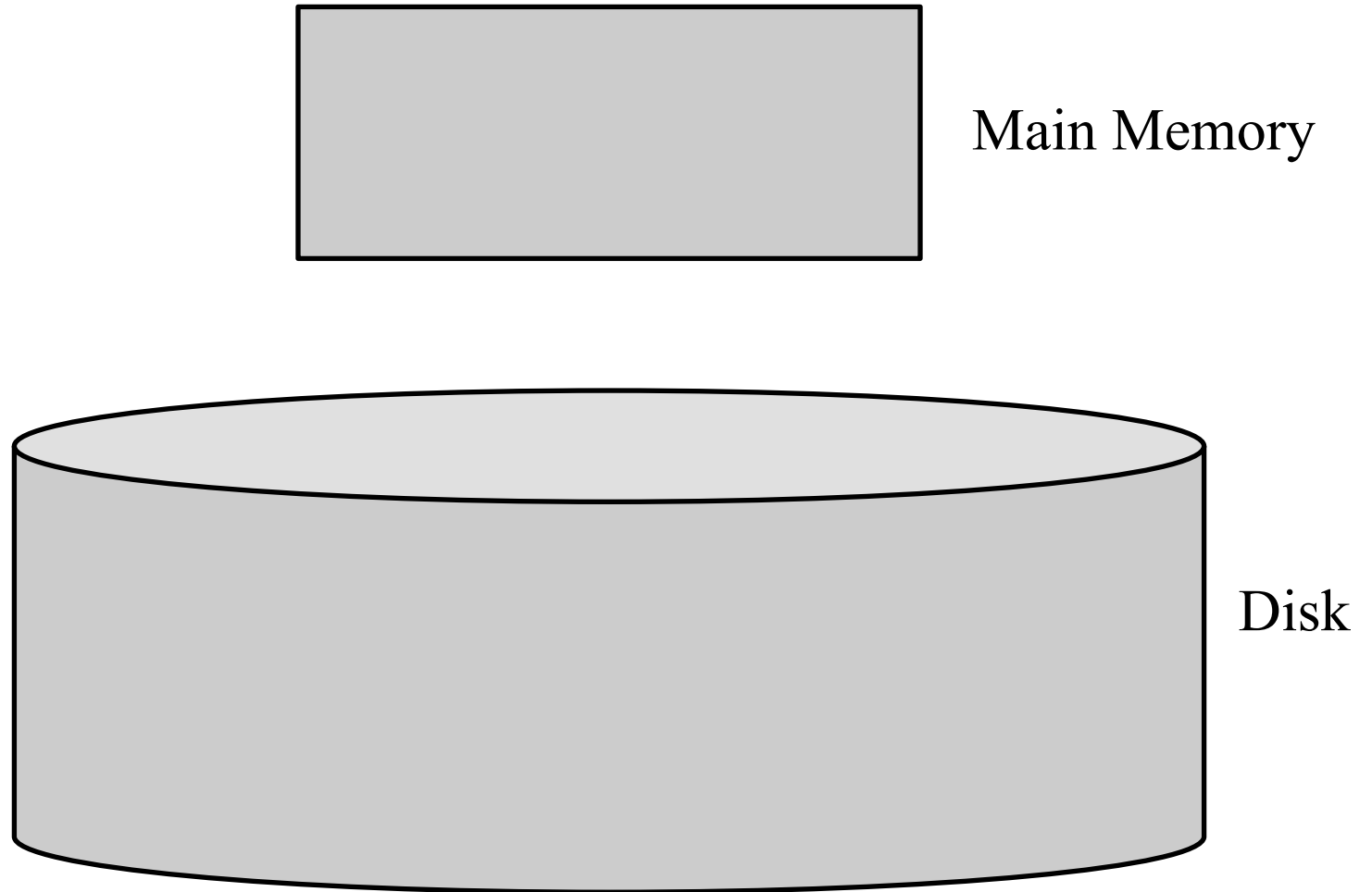
Storage Hierarchy



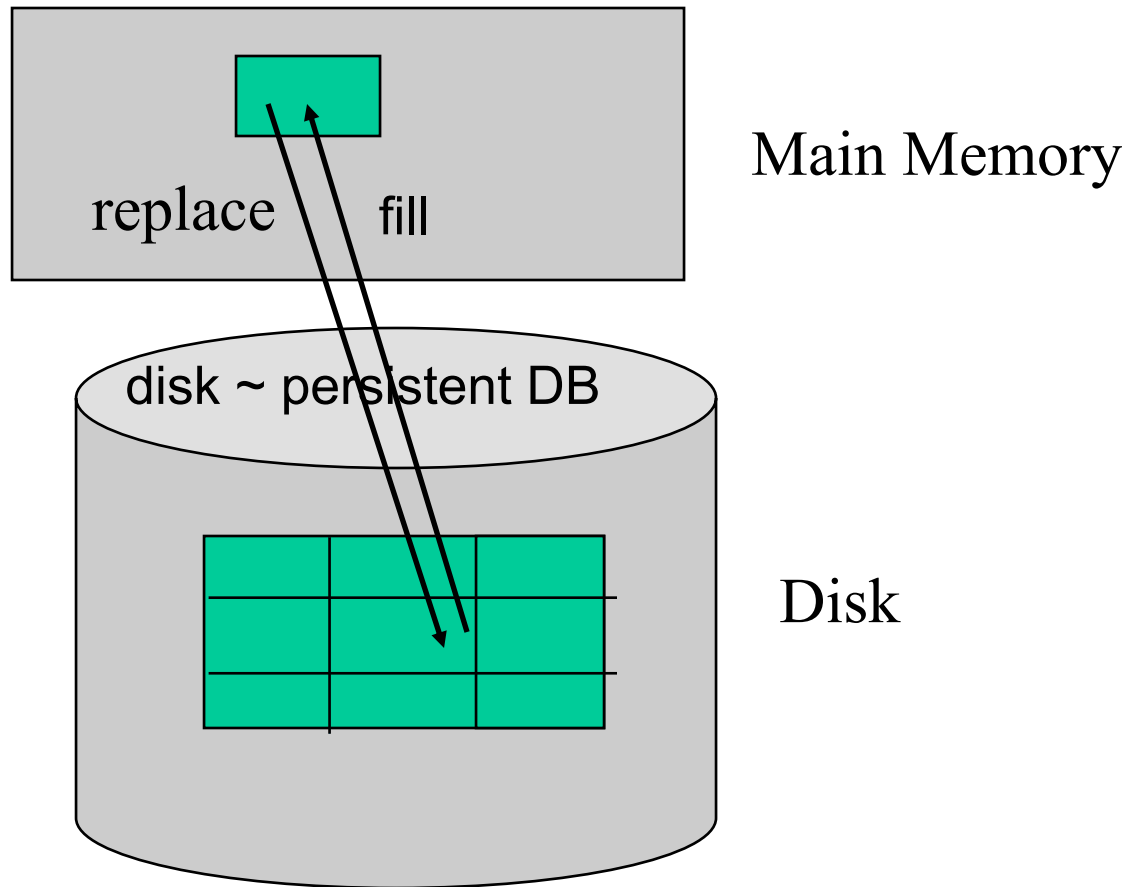
Storage Hierarchy



Buffer Management



Buffer Management



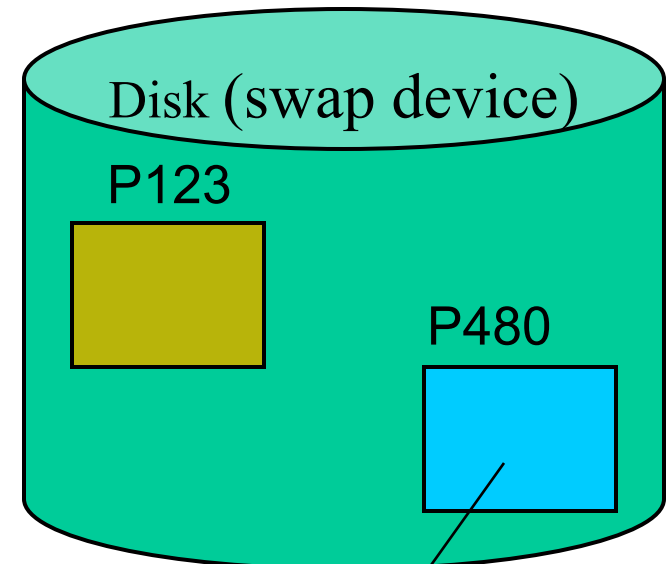
Fill and replace pages

- System buffer is divided in frames of equal size
- A frame can be filled with one page
- Overflow pages are swapped on disk

Main Memory

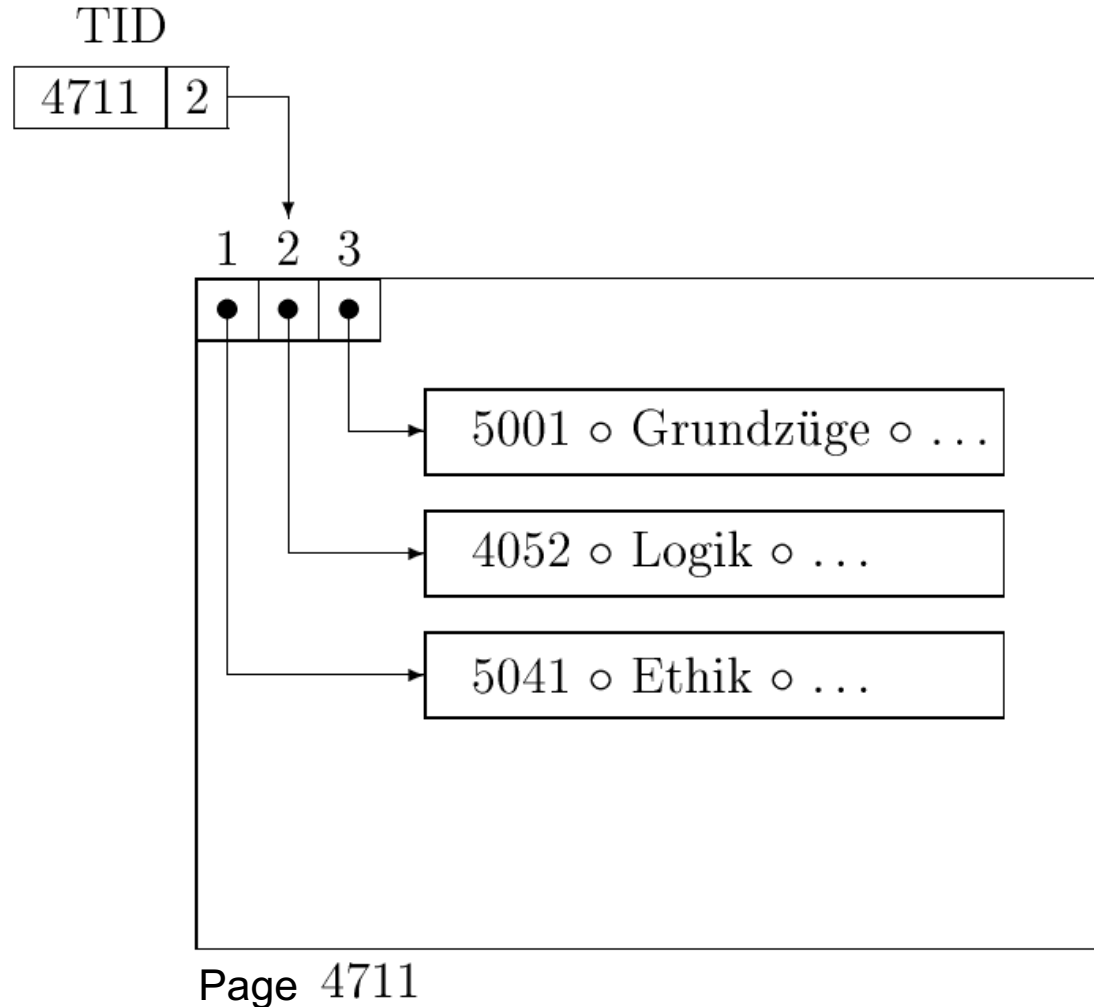
0	4K	8K	12K
16K	20K	24K	28K
32K	36K	40K	44K
48K	52K	56K	60K

(Buffer) Frames

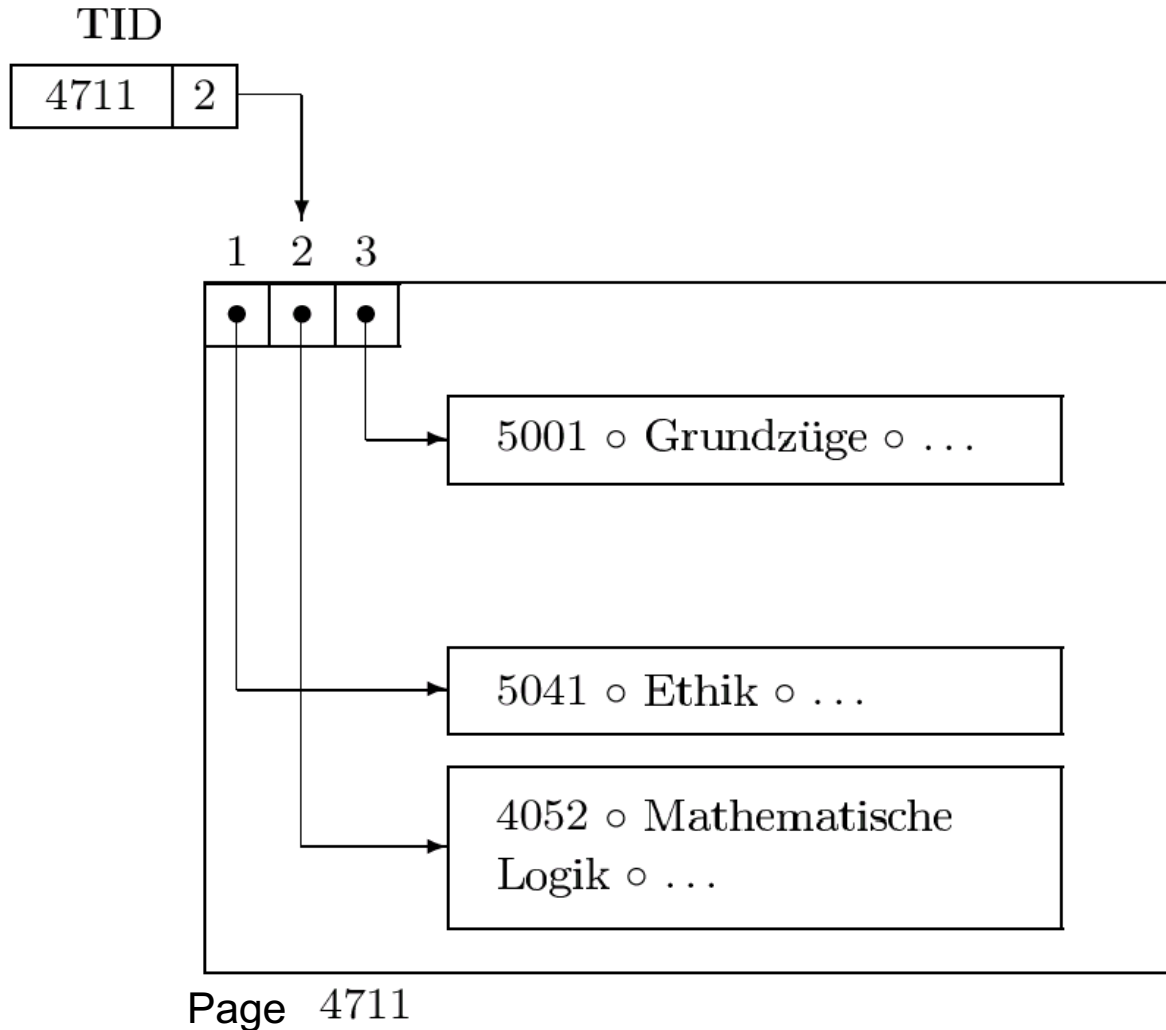


Page

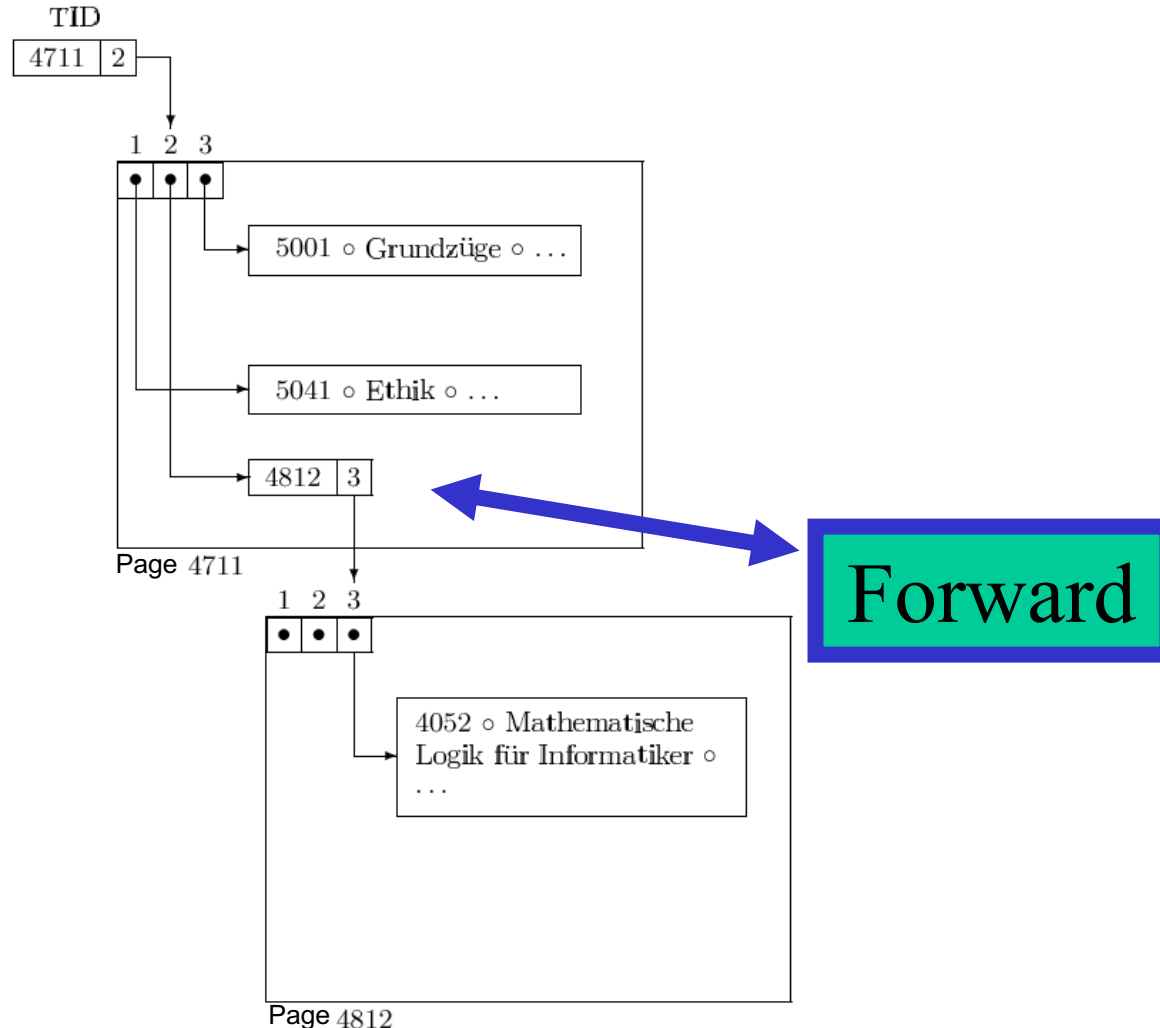
Addressing tuples on disk



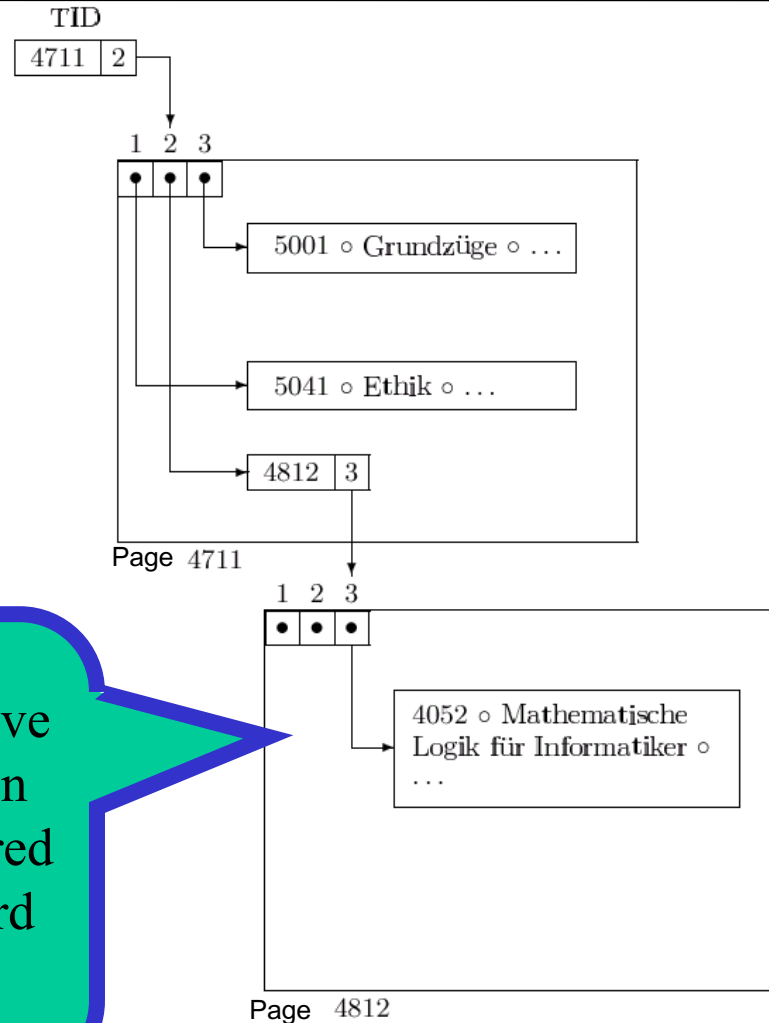
Moving within a page



Moving from one page to another

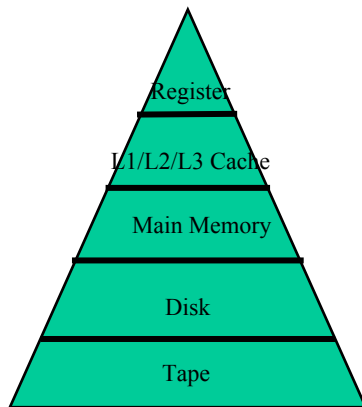


Moving from one page to another



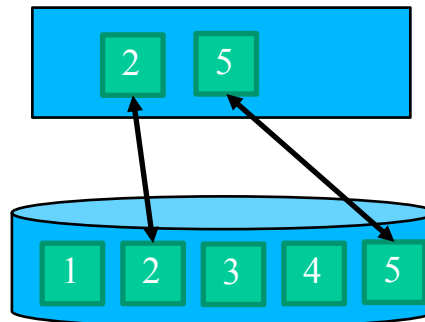
With the next move the „Forward“ on page 4711 is altered (no more Forward to page 4812)

Storage Summary



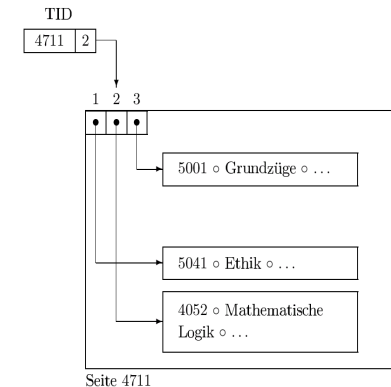
Storage Hierarchy

- Huge/slow storage vs small/fast memory
- Very important for DBMSs design
- Algorithms need to be aware of performance difference and place data optimally



Buffer Management

- A component of the database
- Migrates pages between disc and main memory
- Keeps hot pages in DRAM and cold ones on disc



Tuple IDs

- Used to locate a tuple
- Composed of page identifier and a page-local record identifier

Storage Operations

Full table scan: Retrieve all tuples from a table

```
select * from students;
```

Point query: Find one specific tuple

```
select * from students  
    where studNr =26120;
```

Range query: Find one specific tuple

```
select * from students  
    where 26000 <= studNr  
        and studNr < 27000;
```


Index Motivation



RAM

Disk

2755 Schopenhauer
29120 Theophrastos

Page 1

26830 Aristoxenos
29555 Feuerbach
28106 Carnap

Page 2

24002 Xenokrate
26120 Fichte
25403 Jonas

Page 3

Index Motivation

Full table scan: Load all pages from disk, one by one.

Point query: When we sort the data, we can find a key more easily. Compare to a dictionary: You can look at the page in the middle to determine in which half the word you are looking for is and then continue this process with the new found half. This way you need to look at much less pages then reading it front to back.

Range query: When the data is stored in a sorted fashion, a range query can be processed as a combination of a point query (to find the starting point) and then a scan.

Index Motivation



RAM

Disk

24002 Xenokrate
25403 Jonas
26120 Fichte

Page 1

26830 Aristoxenos
2755 Schopenhauer

Page 2

28106 Carnap
29120 Theophrastos
29555 Feuerbach

Page 3

Data Transfer

Simple query execution:

```
select * from students where studNr=26120;
```

Get one tuple/page after the other to the main memory and evaluate predicates.

→ Most expensive way ☹️

→ Mostly only a small fraction of the tuples fulfills the query

Index Structures

- Index structures are used to keep the data volume to be transferred from disk to main memory small
- Only that part of the data which is really needed to answer the query is transferred
- Two main indexing methods:
 - Hierarchical (trees)
 - Partitioning (Hashing)

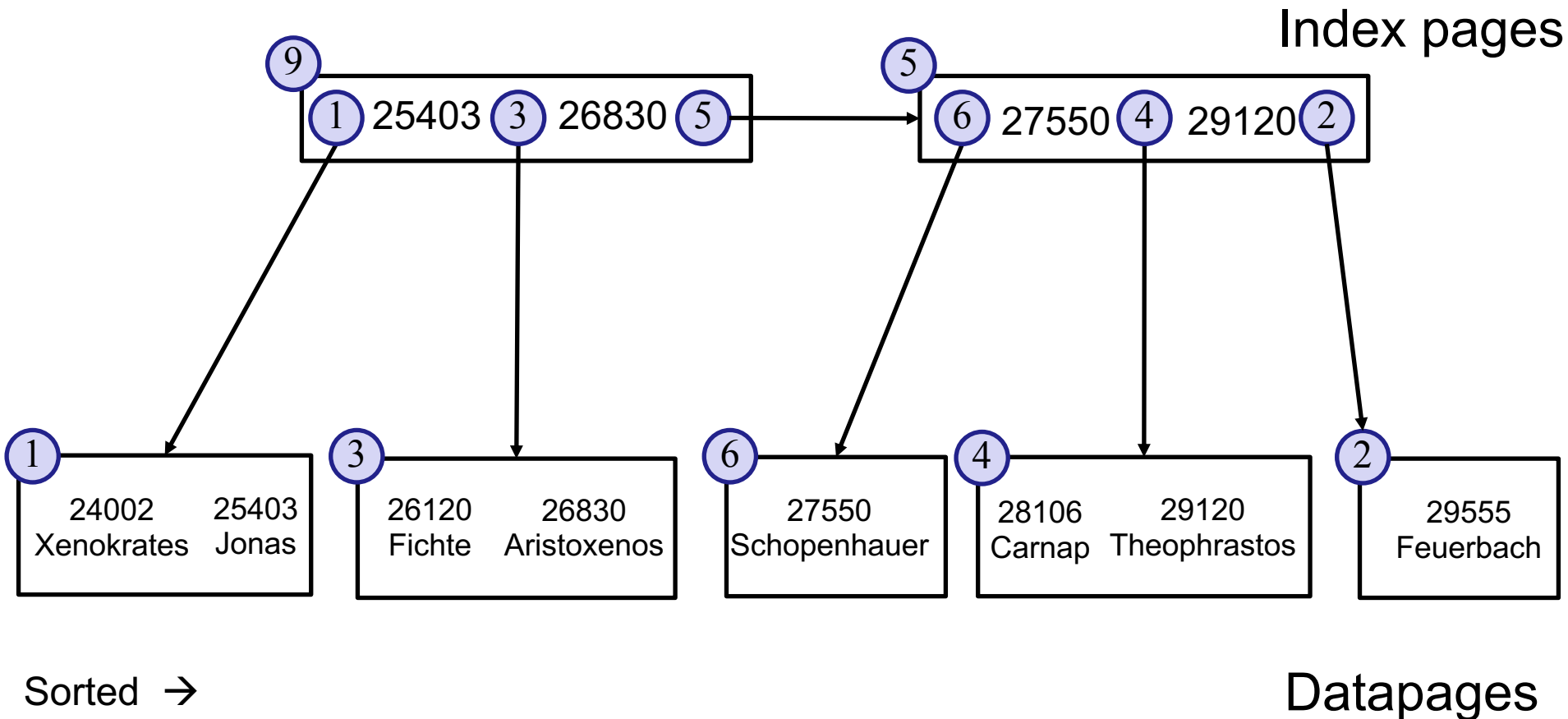
Hierarchical Indexes

We consider two hierarchical index structures:

- ISAM (Index-Sequential Access Method)
- B-Trees
- ISAM is the predecessor of B-Trees
- Main idea: sort tuples on the indexed attribute and create an index file on it
- Similar to a thumb index in a book



ISAM Example



Example cont.

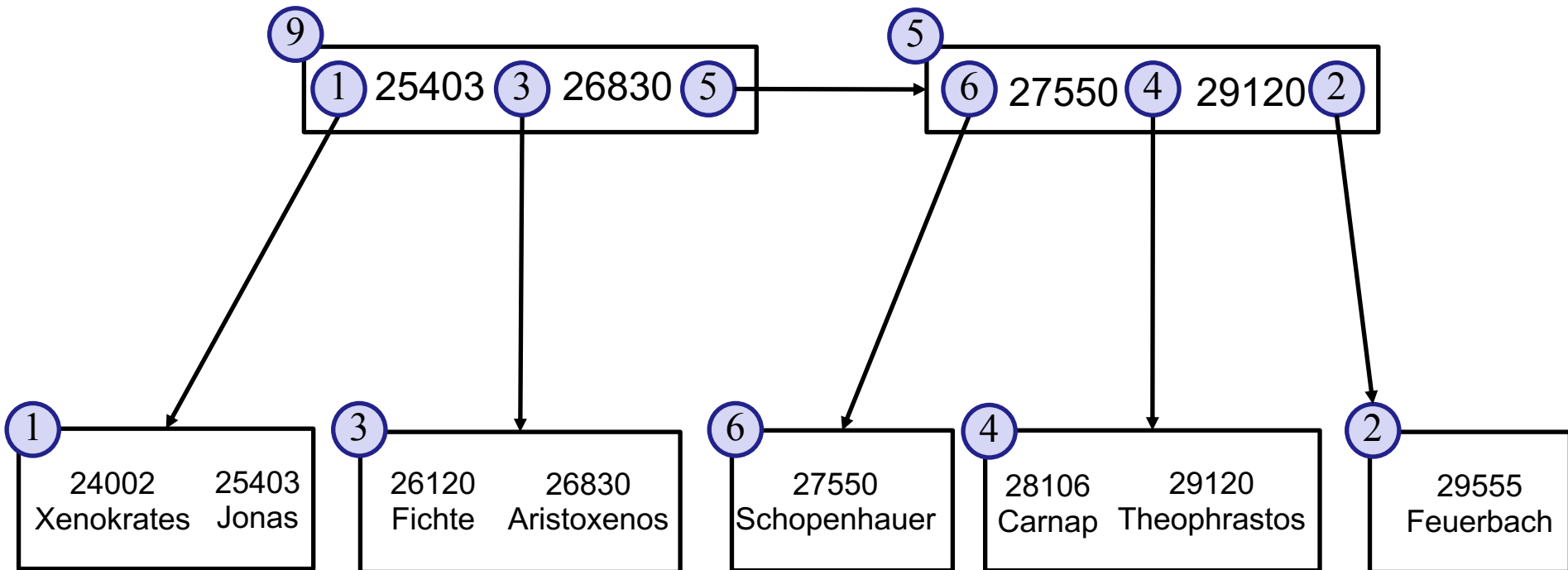
- Student with student number 28106 is searched
- Go through the **index pages** (starting at ⑨) and look where 28106 fits => the first larger (or equal) key is 29120 (on page ⑤)
- From there you get the referenced **data page** => ④
- **Advantage:** Number of index pages is **much** less than number of data pages, i.e. you save I/O
- You can also answer **range queries**, e.g. all StudNr between 26830 and 29120 : find as a start the first fitting data page for 26830 and from there on you can go **sequentially** through the data pages until StudNr 29120

Problems with ISAM

Simple and fast search but **maintenance of index** is expensive:

- Inserting a tuple in a full data page: need to make room in **dividing data page into two** (because we need to keep the tuples sorted)
- This creates a **new entry** on an **index page**
- Inserting an entry in a full index page leads to **shifting the entries** to make room
- Although the number of index pages is smaller than the number of data pages **going through the index pages** can nevertheless **take a long time**

Exercise 1



Exercise 2

Advancement

Idea:

Why not have **index pages for the index pages?**

→ This is in principle the idea of a **B-Tree**

Trees

All trees in computer science

... have nodes

... have edges

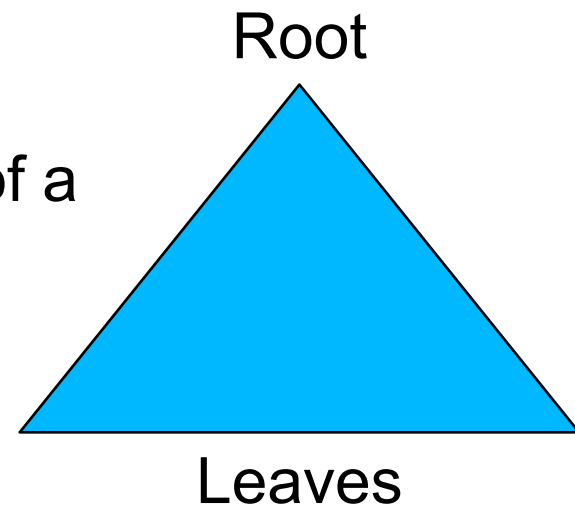
... have a root (at the top!)

... have leaves (at the bottom!)

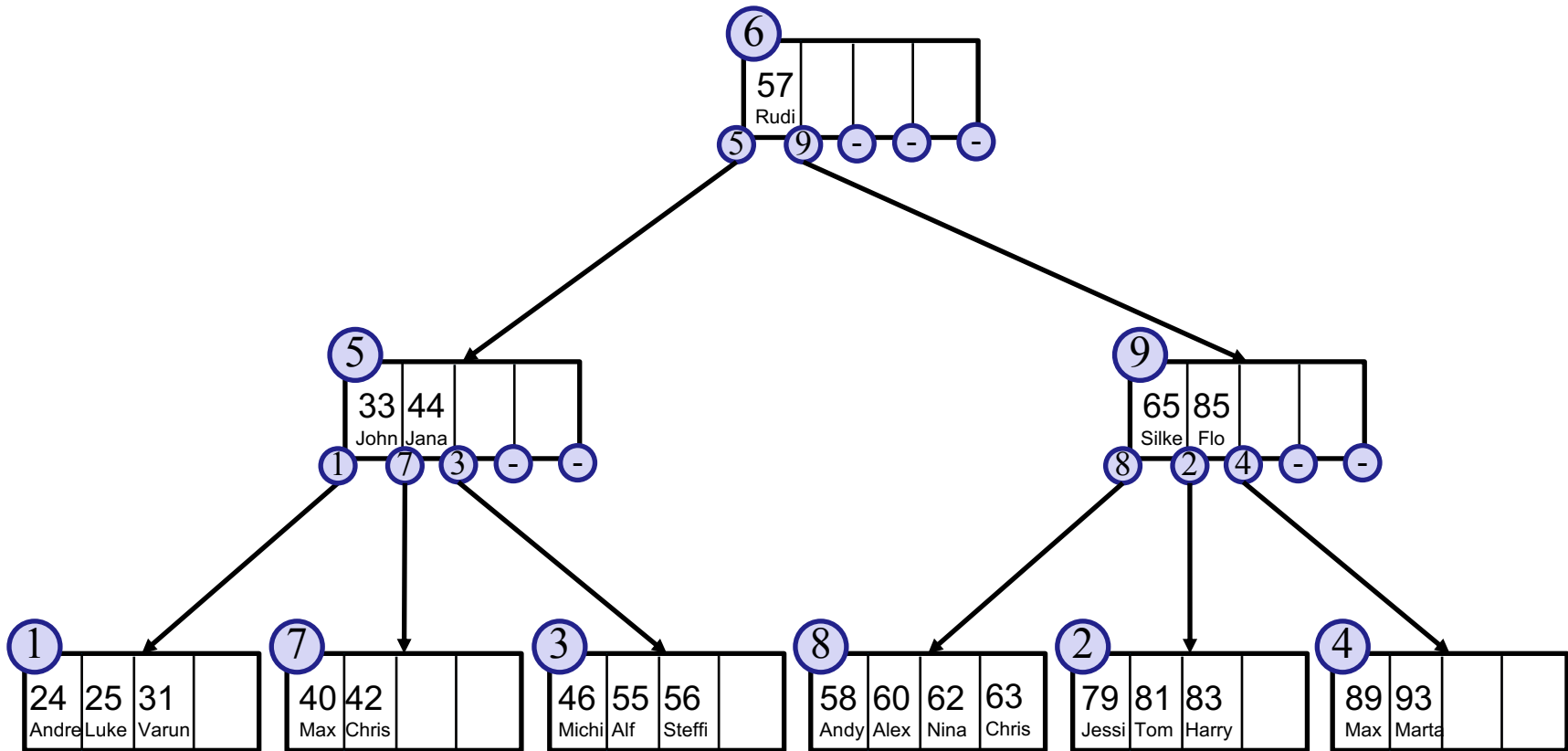
... are often balanced

(otherwise in extreme cases rather a chain)

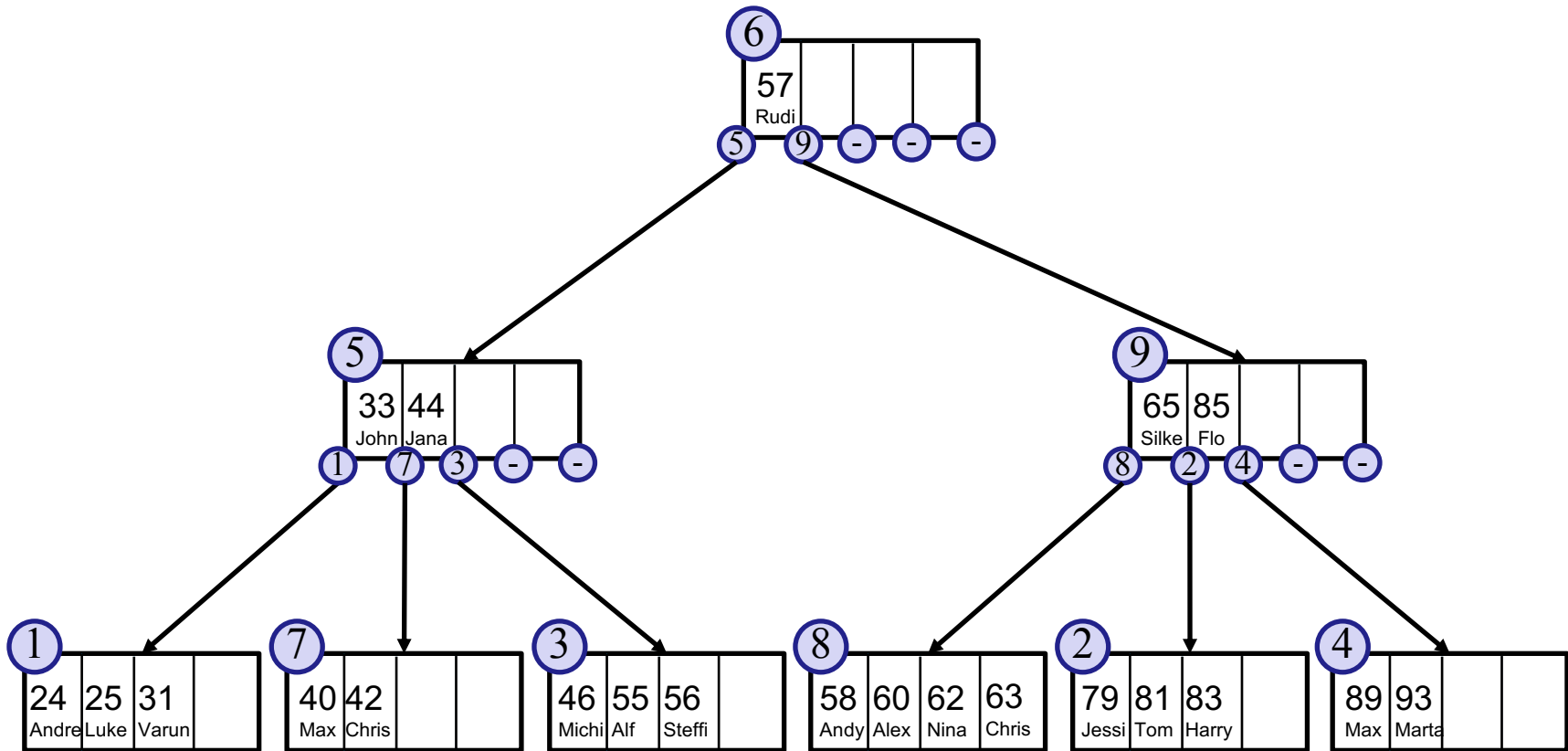
Schematic depiction of a
balanced tree:



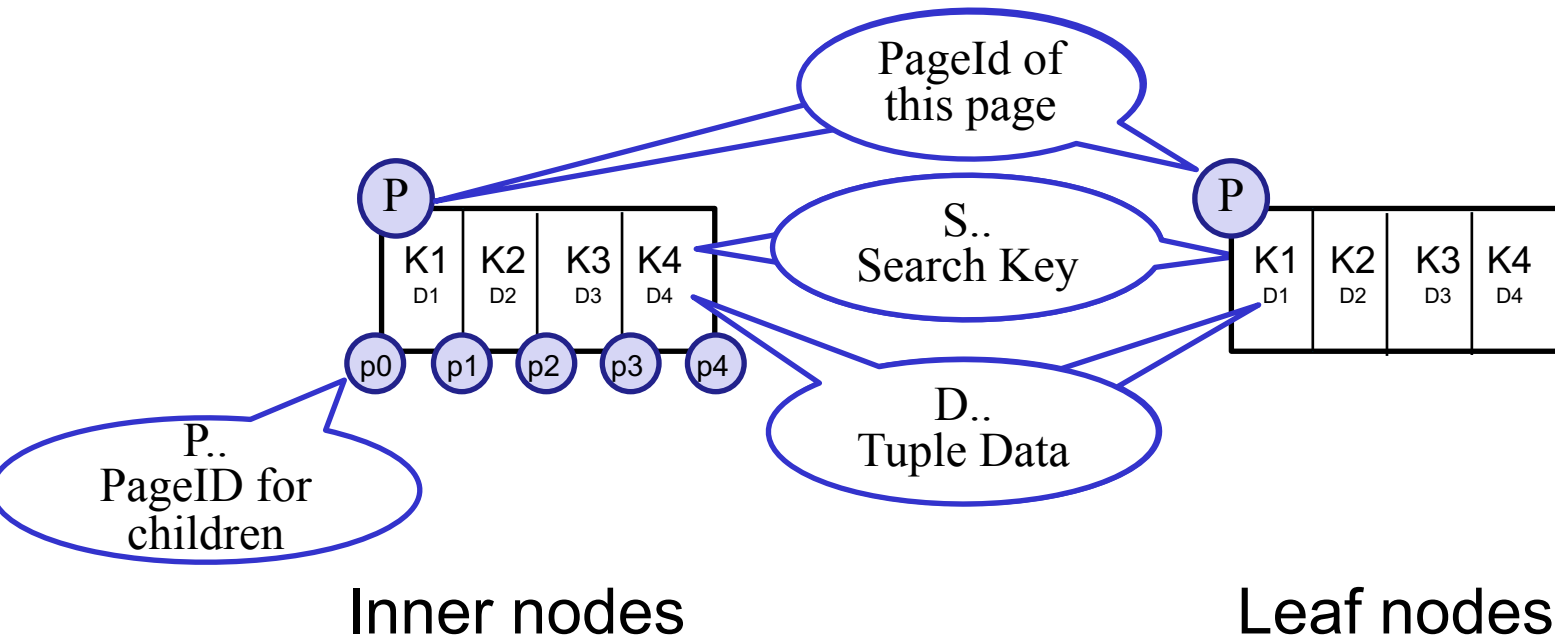
B-Tree (degree = 2)



B-Tree (degree = 2)



Node Structure



Tree properties:

- One node is one page
- Tree is balanced
- Node utilization at least 50%

Properties of a B-Tree

B-Tree of degree i has following properties:

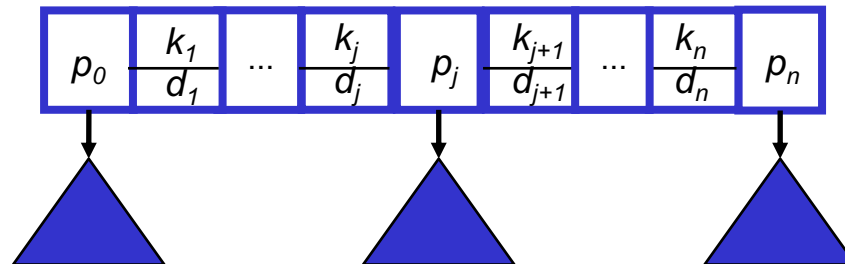
- Every path from the root to a leaf has the same length
- Every node – except the root – has at least i and at most $2i$ entries (in the example above $i=2$)
- Entries in every node are sorted
- Every node – except the leaves – with n entries has $n+1$ children

Properties of a B-Tree

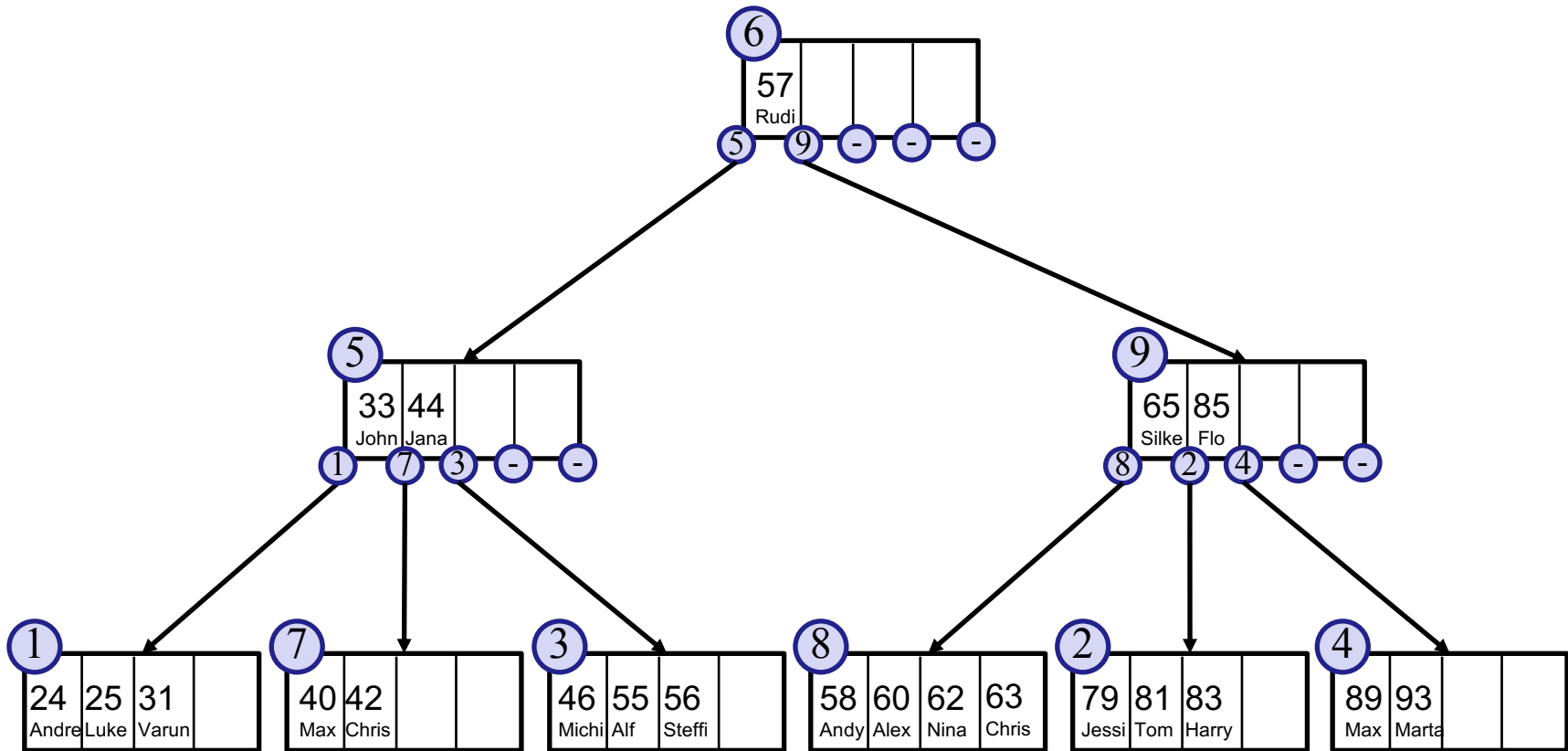
- Let $p_0, k_1, p_1, k_2, \dots, k_n, p_n$ be entries in a node (p_j are page identifier, k_j keys)

Then the following holds:

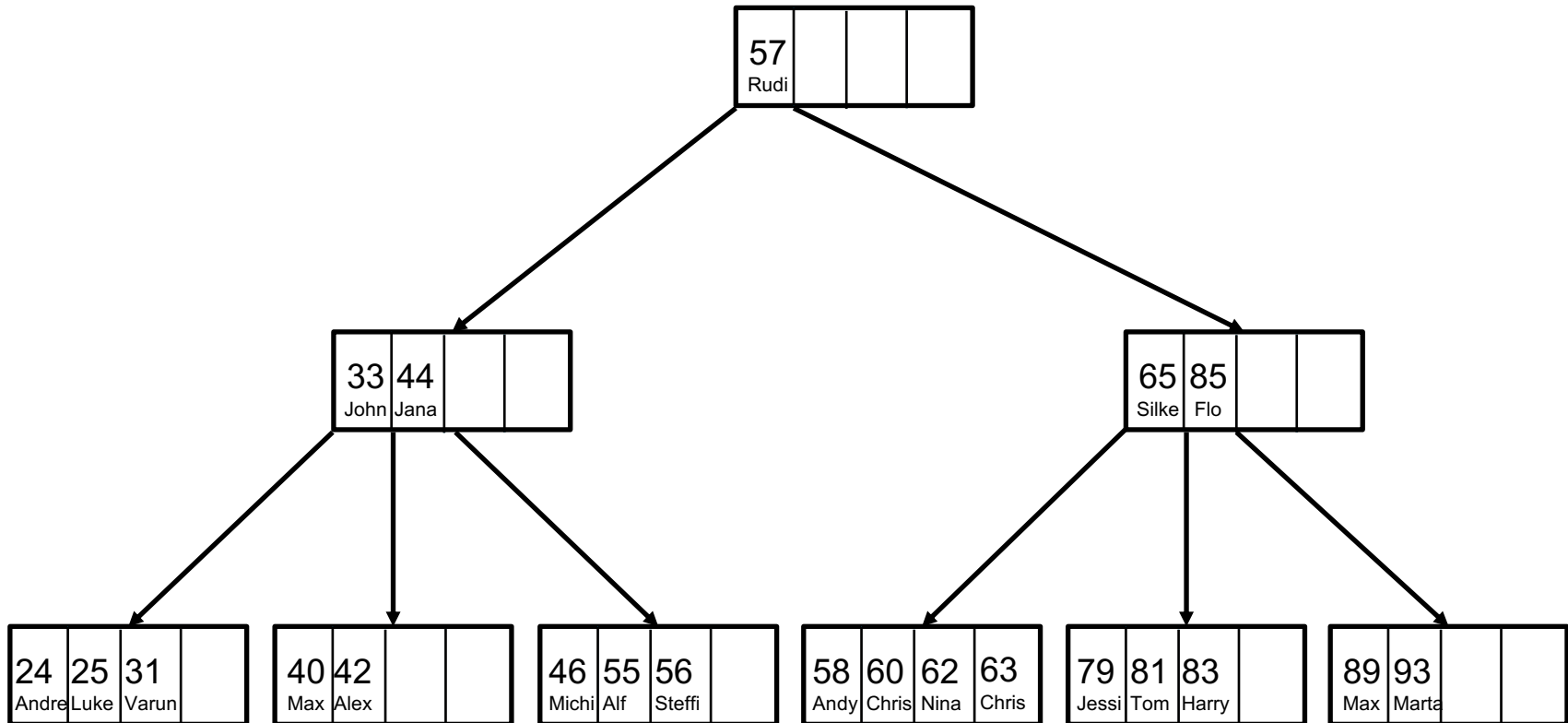
1. Sub-tree in p_0 contains only keys smaller than k_1
2. p_j has a sub-tree with keys between k_j and k_{j+1}
3. Sub-tree being referenced by p_n contains only keys greater than k_n



B-Tree (degree = 2)



B-Tree (degree = 2)

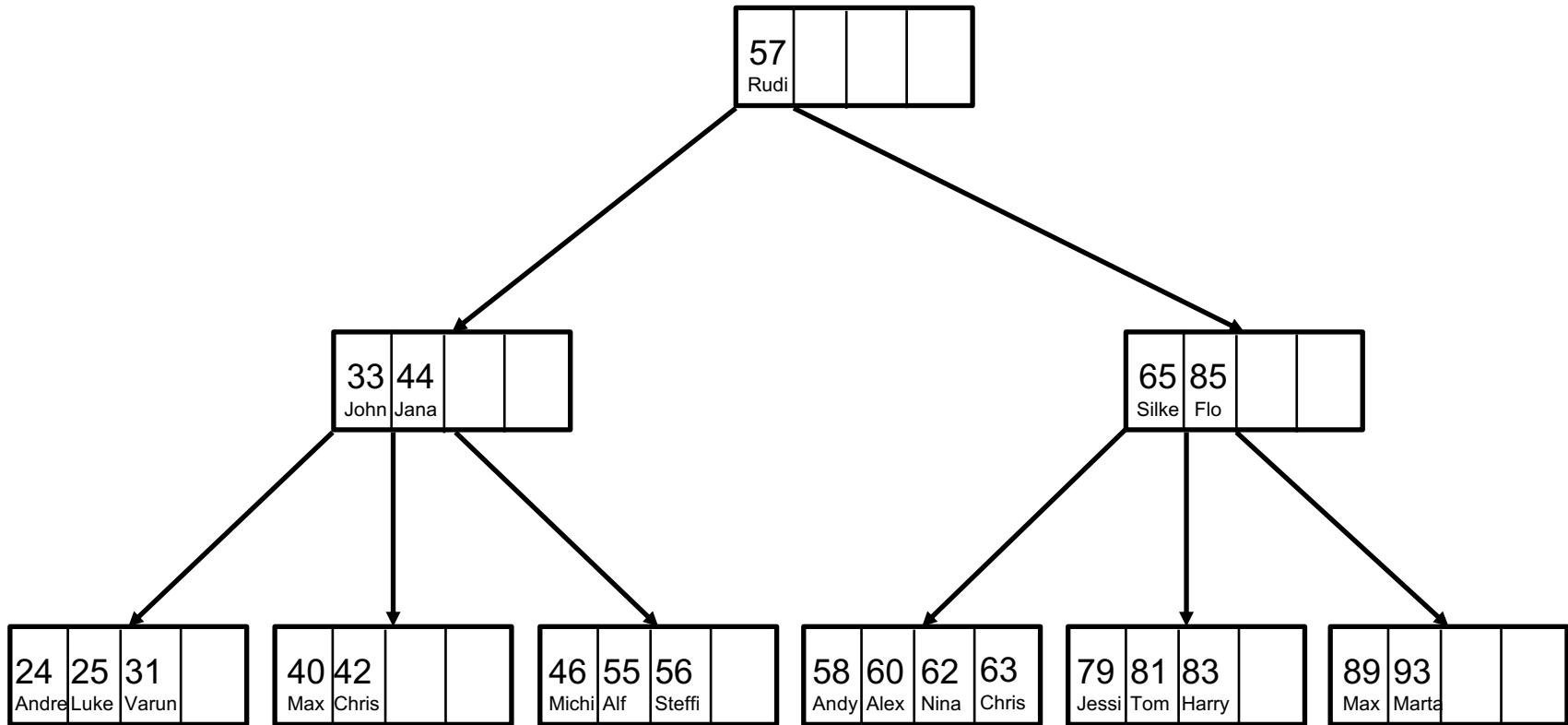


B-Tree Size

Insert Algorithm

1. Find the proper leaf node to insert new key
2. Insert key there
3. If node full
 - i. Divide node into two and extract median
 - ii. Insert all keys smaller than median into left node, all keys greater than median into right node
 - iii. Insert median in parent node and adapt pointers
4. If parent node full
 - i. If root node then create new root node, insert median, and adapt pointers
 - ii. Otherwise repeat 3. with parent node

B-Tree (degree = 2)



Gradual Assembly of a B-Tree of Degree $i=2$

See:

<https://db.in.tum.de/teaching/ws1819/DBSandere/BTreeExample.pdf>

In the internet there are a number of animation programs for B-Trees – **no warranty!**

<https://www.cs.usfca.edu/~galles/visualization/BTree.html>

looks quite good, but uses a different notation for the maximal node size and does not handle node underflows.

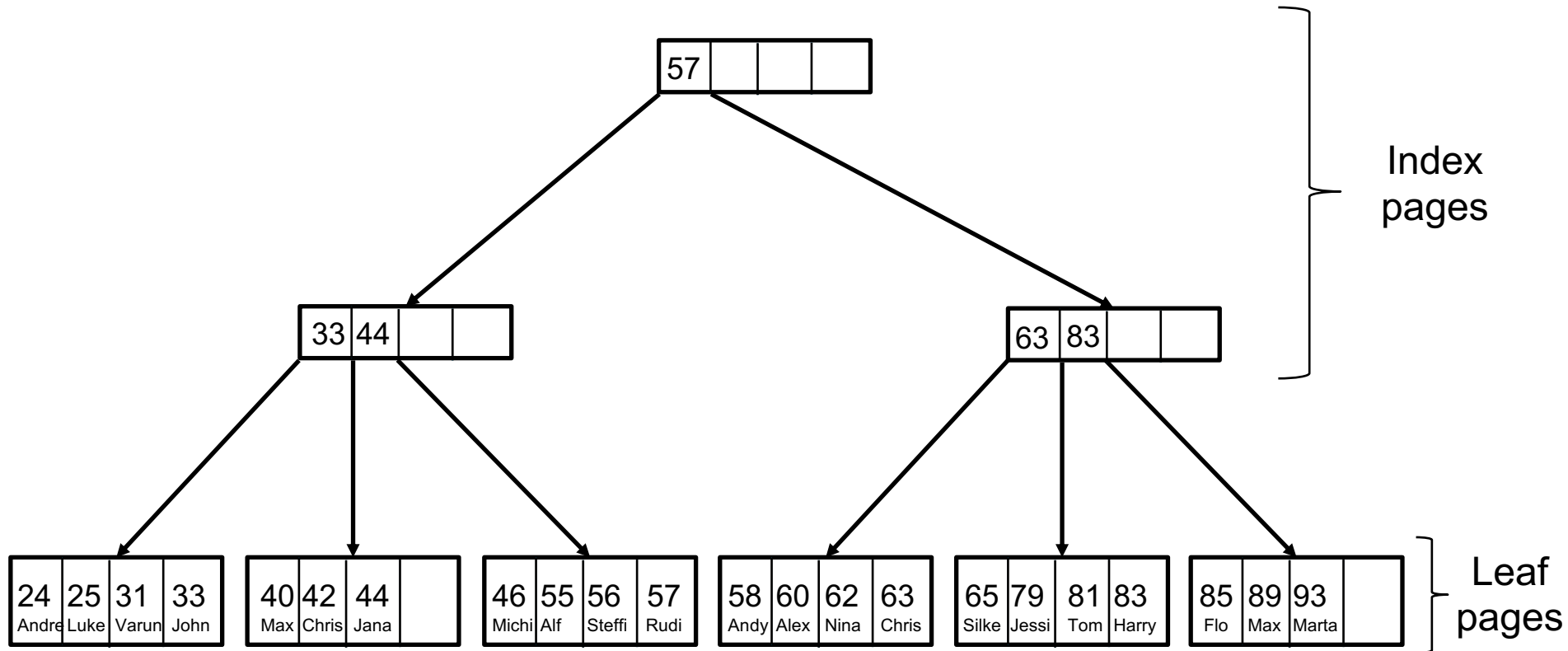
Delete Algorithm

Read the literature or example on
lecture website

B+-Trees

- Performance of a B-Tree heavily depends on height: on average $\log_k(n)$ page accesses to read one data element
(k =degree of branching, n =number of indexed data elements)
→ preferably high degree of branching of the inner nodes
- Storing data in the inner nodes reduces branching degree
- B+-Trees only store reference keys in inner nodes – data itself is stored in leaf nodes
- Usually leaf nodes are bidirectionally linked in order to enable fast sequential search

B+-Tree



Prefix B+-Trees

- Further Improvement by use of prefixes of reference keys, e.g. with long strings as keys
- You only have to find a reference key which separates the left and the right sub-tree:
 - Disestablishment $\leq E < \text{Incomprehensibility}$
 - Systemprogram $\leq ? < \text{Systemprogrammer}$

Several Indexes on the same Data

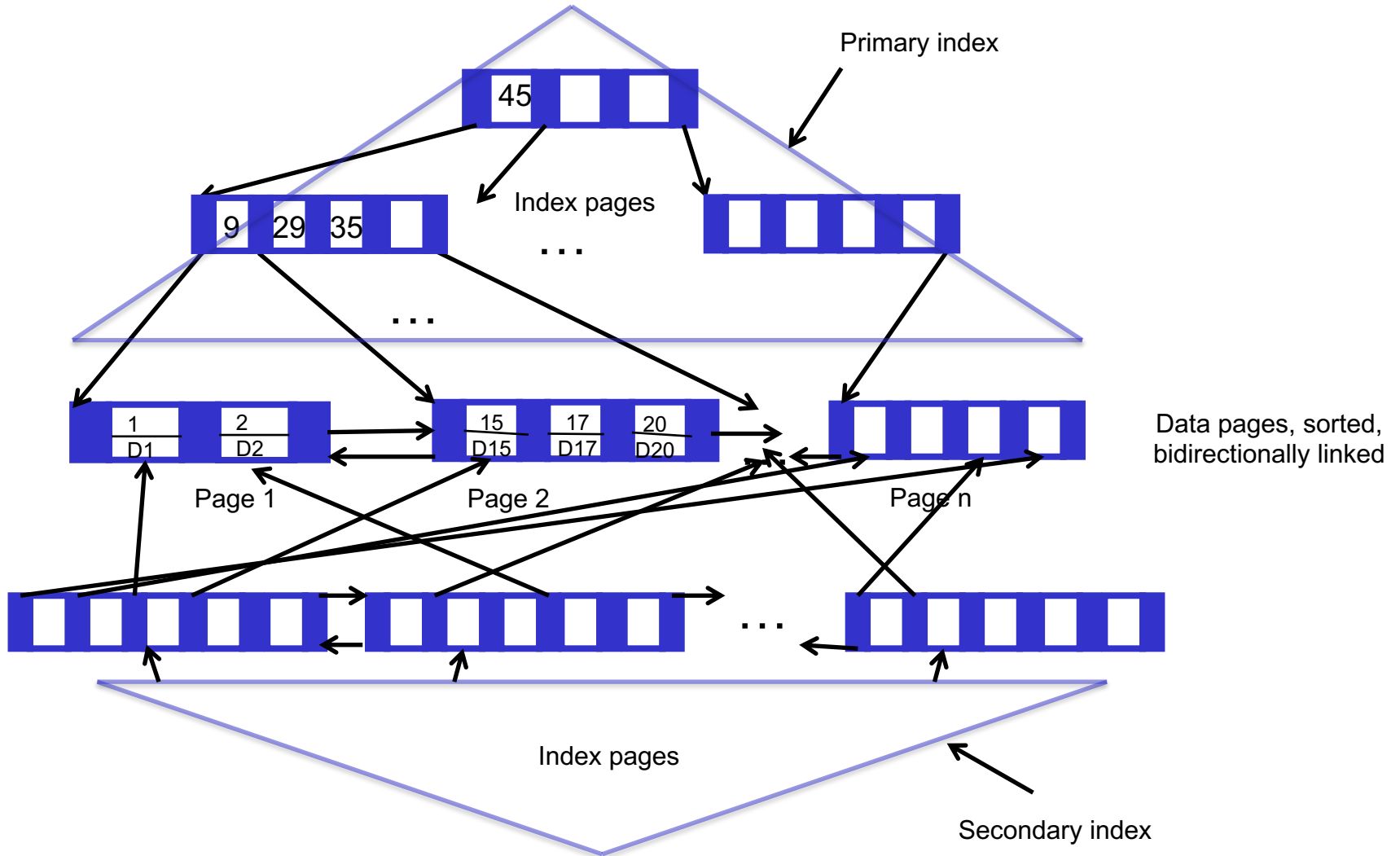
Primary index – Secondary index

Students		
StudNr	Name	Semester
25403	Jonas	12
29120	Theophrastos	2
29555	Feuerbach	2
27550	Schopenhauer	6
⋮	⋮	⋮

When

- Index on StudNr?
- Index on Name?
- Index on Semester?

Secondary indexes



DDL: Create Index

```
CREATE [UNIQUE] INDEX index_name  
ON table_name (column_name1 [, column_name2, ...])
```

Example:

```
CREATE INDEX full_name  
ON Person (Last_Name, First_Name)
```

Partitioning

What is Hashing?

- (to hash = zerhacken)
- Storing tuples in a defined memory area
- Hash function: mapping tuples (key values) to a fixed set of function values (memory area)
- Optimal hash function:
 - injective (no identical function values for different arguments)
 - surjective (no waste of memory)
- Typical hash function h : $h(x) = x \bmod N$
set of function values thereby $\{0, \dots, N-1\}$

Hashing Example

$$\text{hash}(x) = x \bmod 3$$

25403, 'Jonas', 12

27550, 'Schopenhauer', 3

26120, 'Fichte', 10

pid=0	
pid=1	
pid=2	

Hashing Example

$$\text{hash}(x) = x \bmod 3$$

25403, 'Jonas', 12

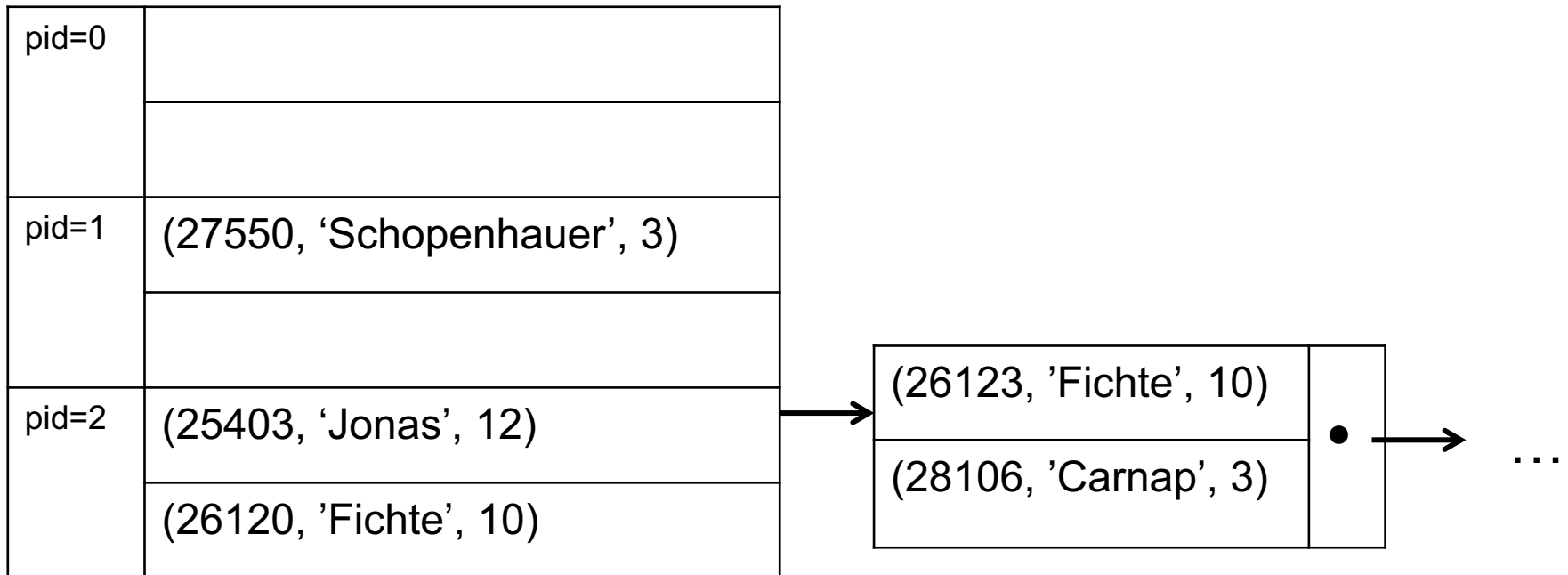
27550, 'Schopenhauer', 3

26120, 'Fichte', 10

pid=0	
pid=1	(27550, 'Schopenhauer', 3)
pid=2	(25403, 'Jonas', 12)
	(26120, 'Fichte', 10)

Collisions

Collision handling



Could be inefficiently: hash table is too small, a bad hash function is used, unlucky, adversary input
Way out: extensible (dynamic) Hashing

Advantages / Disadvantages Hashing

- + Few accesses to external storage
constant cost: $O(1)$, generally 1-2
- + Simple implementation

- Collision handling necessary
- Pre-allocation of memory area
- Not dynamic resp. only with adjustment
- **No range queries, only point queries**