Categorical databases

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Presented on 2012/01/13

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Purpose of the talk

There is an fundamental connection between databases and categories.

- Category theory can simplify how we think about and use databases.
- We can clearly see all the working parts and how they fit together.
- Powerful theorems can be brought to bear on classical DB problems.

The pros and cons of relational databases

- Relational databases are reliable, scalable, and popular.
- They are provably reliable to the extent that they strictly adhere to the underlying mathematics.
- Make a distinction between
 - the system you know and love, vs.
 - the relational model, as a mathematical foundation for this system.

You're not really using the relational model.

- Current implementations have departed from the strict relational formalism:
 - Tables may not be relational (duplicates, e.g from a query).
 - Nulls (and labeled nulls) are commonly used.
- The theory of relations (150 years old) is not adequate to mathematically describe modern DBMS.
- The relational model does not offer guidance for schema mappings and data migration.
- Databases have been intuitively moving toward what's best described with a more modern mathematical foundation.

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Category theory gives better description

- Category theory (CT) does a better job of describing what's already being done in DBMS.
 - Puts functional dependencies and foreign keys front and center.
 - Allows non-relational tables (e.g. duplicates in a query).
 - Labeled nulls and semi-structured data fit in neatly.
- All columns of a table are the same type of thing. It's simpler.
- CT offers guidance for schema mapping and data migration.
- It offers the opportunity to deeply integrate programming and data.
- Theorems within category theory, and links to other branches of math (e.g. topology), can be used in databases.

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What is category theory?

- Since its invention in the early 1940s, category theory has revolutionized math.
- It's like set theory and logic, except less floppy, more principles-based.
- Category theory has been proposed as a new foundation for mathematics (to replace set theory).
- It was invented to build bridges between disparate branches of math by distilling the essence of mathematical structure.

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Branching out

- Category theory naturally fosters connections between disparate fields.
- It has branched out of math and into physics, linguistics, and materials science.
- It has had much success in the theory of programming languages.
- The pure category-theoretic concept of *monads* has vastly extended the reach of functional programming.
- Can category theory improve how we think about databases?

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Schemas are categories, categories are schemas

- The connection between databases and categories is simple and strong.
- Reason: categories and database schemas do the same thing.
 - A schema gives a framework for modeling a situation;
 - Tables
 - Attributes
 - This is precisely what a category does.
 - Objects
 - Arrows.
 - They both model how entities within a given context interact.
- Schema = Category.
- In this talk, I'll explain these ideas and some consequences.

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Plan of the talk

- Lay out the basic idea of categories and that of databases, and show the tight connection between them.
- Discuss schema evolution and data migration.
- Develop a connection to programming language theory.
- Understand RDF in these terms.

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What is a category?

 Idea: A category models entities of a certain sort and the relationships between them.



- Think of it like a graph: the nodes are entities and the arrows are relationships.
- Some paths can be declared equivalent to others
 - Example: declare that j; $k \simeq i$; i; i and f; $g \simeq f$; h.

Example

• How could one interpret this kind of abstraction?



Such "business rules" can be encoded into the category.

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What is the essence of structure?

- If mathematics is the art of getting organized, what organizes math?
- After thousands of years, people realized that there were some essential features in common throughout much of math.
- These are objects, arrows, paths, and path equivalence.
- Or: things, tasks, processes, and "sameness of outcome".
- Or: primary keys, foreign keys, paths of FKs, and path equations.
- Let's give the definition.

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Definition of a category I: Constituents

A category C consists of the following constituents:

- **1** A set $\mathbf{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$, called the set of objects of \mathcal{C} .
 - (These will be tables.)
 - Objects $x \in \mathbf{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ is often written as \bullet^x .

2 A set Arr(C), called *the set of arrows of* C, and two functions

src, tgt: $\operatorname{Arr}(\mathcal{C}) \to \operatorname{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$,

assigning to each arrow its *source* and its *target* object, respectively.

- (Arrows will be foreign keys from "source" table to "target" table.)
- An arrow $f \in \operatorname{Arr}(\mathcal{C})$ is often written $\bullet^x \xrightarrow{f} \bullet^y$, where x = src(f), y = tgt(f).
- We define a path in C to be a finite "head-to-tail" sequence of arrows in \mathcal{C} , e.g. $\bullet^{x} \xrightarrow{f} \bullet^{y} \xrightarrow{g} \bullet^{z}$.

Solution of equivalence for paths, denoted \simeq .

Definition of a category II: Rules

These constituents must satisfy the following requirements:

- If p ~ q are equivalent paths then the sources agree: src(p) = src(q).
 If p ~ q are equivalent paths then the targets agree: tgt(p) = tgt(q).
- Suppose we have two paths (of any lengths) $b \rightarrow c$:



If $p \simeq q$ then for any extensions



and

m; $p \simeq m$; q

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 $p; n \simeq q; n$

What does equivalence of paths mean?

- Arrows represent foreign keys.
- A path $p: \bullet^a \to \bullet^b$ represents "following foreign keys" from table *a* to table b.
- Following a path p, we can take any record in table a and return a record in table b.
- We declare two paths $p, q: \bullet^a \to \bullet^b$ equivalent if they should return the same record in b for any record in a.
- In typical DB practices, equivalent paths are avoided by cutting one of the paths.
 - This is considered good design.
 - However, it often causes pain in ones neck.
 - Category theory has this concept built in.

The power of path equivalences

- Ever wanted two directory paths to contain the same file?
- Example: this "Beamer" presentation belongs in my math talks folder and in my J&J consulting folder.
- My file system does not allow that, because without path equivalences, it is dangerous.
- With commutative diagrams we can declare two paths equivalent:



The category of Sets



- Above we see two sets and a function between them. We would denote this categorically by $\bullet^A \xrightarrow{f} \bullet^B$
 - The objects of **Set** represent sets.
 - The arrows in **Set** represent functions.
 - A path represents a sequence of composable functions.
 - Two paths are equivalent if their compositions are the same.
- Note that b₃ and b₅ have been inserted, and a₁ and a₄ have been merged.

A totally different category: an ordered set

- A ordered set is a set S together with a notion of \leq , satisfying
 - $a \leq a$ for all $a \in S$, and
 - if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq c$, then $a \leq c$.
- Given some ordered set S, we can build a corresponding category S:
 - $\mathbf{Ob}(\mathcal{S}) = S$,
 - One arrow $a \rightarrow b$ if $a \leq b$
 - No arrows $a \rightarrow b$ if $a \not\leq b$.
 - All pairs of paths (having same source and target) are equivalent.
- "Hasse diagram" :



• Think "permissions": $a \le c$ means a has fewer accessors than b.

Functors: mappings between categories

- One way to think of a category is as a directed graph, where certain paths have been declared equivalent.
- A functor is a graph mapping that is required to respect equivalence of paths.
- **Definition**: A functor $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ consists of
 - a function $\boldsymbol{Ob}(\mathcal{C}) \to \boldsymbol{Ob}(\mathcal{D})$ and
 - a function $Arr(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow Path(\mathcal{D})$,

such that F

- respects sources and targets,
- respects equivalences of paths.

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Functors to Set

- A category ${\cal C}$ is a system of objects and arrows, and an equivalence relation on its paths.
- A functor $\mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ is a mapping that preserves these structures.
- **Set** is the category whose objects are sets, whose arrows are functions, and where paths are equivalent if they compose to the same function.
- If C is the category on the left below, then a functor I: C → Set might look like this:



What is a database?

- A database consists of a bunch of tables and relationships between them.
- The rows of a table are called "records" or "tuples."
- The columns are called "attributes."
- An attribute may be "pure data" or may be a "key."
 - A table may have "foreign key columns" that link it to other tables.
 - A foreign key of table A links into the primary key of table B.
- A schema may have "business rules."

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Foreign Keys and business rules

• Example:

| Employee | | | | |
|----------|----------|---------|-----|-----|
| ld | First | Last | Mgr | Dpt |
| 101 | David | Hilbert | 103 | q10 |
| 102 | Bertrand | Russell | 102 | ×02 |
| 103 | Alan | Turing | 103 | q10 |

| Department | | | |
|------------|------------|-----|--|
| ld | Secr | | |
| q10 | Sales | 101 | |
| ×02 | Production | 102 | |

• Note the Id (primary key) columns and the foreign key columns.

- Id column could just be internal "row numbers" or could be typed.
- "Row numbers" (i.e. pointers) are not part of the relational model but they are naturally part of the categorical model.
- Perhaps we should enforce certain integrity constraints (business rules):
 - The manager of an employee E must be in the same department as E,
 - The secretary of a department D must be in D.

Data columns as foreign keys

- Theoretically we can consider a data-type as a 1-column table.
- Examples:

| String | Integer |
|--------|---------|
| а | 0 |
| b | 1 |
| : | : |
| z | 9 |
| аа | 10 |
| ab | 11 |
| | |

- So even data columns can be considered as foreign keys (to respective 1-column tables).
- Conclusion: each column in a table is a key one primary, the rest foreign.

Example again

| Employee | | | | |
|----------|----------|---------|-----|-----|
| ld | First | Last | Mgr | Dpt |
| 101 | David | Hilbert | 103 | q10 |
| 102 | Bertrand | Russell | 102 | ×02 |
| 103 | Alan | Turing | 103 | q10 |

| Department | | | |
|------------|------------|-----|--|
| ld | Secr | | |
| q10 | Sales | 101 | |
| ×02 | Production | 102 | |





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Database schema as a category

- A database schema is a system of tables linked by foreign keys.
- This is just a category!



- Each object x in C is a table (Employee, Departments, String);
- each arrow $x \rightarrow y$ is a column of table x.
- Id column of a table corresponds to the trivial path on that object.
- Declaring business rules (e.g. Mgr;Dpt≃ Dpt) is declaring the path equivalence.

Schema=Category, Instance=Set-valued functor

 $\bullet~$ Let ${\mathcal C}$ be the following category



- A functor $I \colon \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$ consists of
 - $\bullet\,$ A set for each object of ${\mathcal C}$ and
 - $\bullet\,$ a function for each arrow of $\mathcal C,$ such that
 - the declared equations hold.
- In other words, I fills the schema with compatible data.
- Categorical databases could also be called *functional databases*.

Data as a set-valued functor



- A category C is a schema. An object $x \in \mathbf{Ob}(C)$ is a table.
- A functor $I: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ fills the tables with compatible data.
- For each table x, the set I(x) is its set of rows.
- The path equivalences in C are enforced by I as business rules.

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Summary

- The connection between categories and databases is simple.
- A schema is a custom category.
- Functors $I: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ are instances.
- What about functors $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ between schemas?

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Changes

- We've discussed the situation as though static: a single schema and a single instance.
- Next we'll discuss changes.
- Changing the schema (schema mappings).
- Changing the data (updates).

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Changes in schema

- Suppose in our modeling of a given context, we evolve from schema C to schema D.
- We should find a functorial connection between them.
- Over time we may have something like

$$\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_0 \xrightarrow{F_0} \mathcal{C}_1 \xrightarrow{F_1} \cdots \xrightarrow{F_n} \mathcal{C}_n = \mathcal{D}$$

- \bullet We want to be able to migrate data from ${\cal C}$ to ${\cal D}$ and vice versa.
- We want to be able to migrate queries against ${\cal C}$ to queries against ${\cal D}$ and vice versa.
- And we want this all to work as it "should".

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Composing functors

- Suppose $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ and $G: \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{E}$ are functors.
- What is their composition $\mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{E}$?
 - \bullet We have a way to take objects in ${\mathcal C}$ to objects in ${\mathcal E},$
 - Arrows in $\mathcal C$ turn into paths in $\mathcal D$ and arrows in $\mathcal D$ turn into paths in $\mathcal E$.
 - $\bullet\,$ We can concatenate these, thus taking arrows in ${\mathcal C}$ to paths in ${\mathcal E}.$
 - $\bullet\,$ Our rules ensure that the equivalences in ${\cal C}$ will be preserved in ${\cal E}.$
- Composing functors is going to make migrating data more straightforward.

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Changes in data

- Let \mathcal{C} be a schema and let $I, J: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$ be two instances.
- A natural transformation $u: I \rightarrow J$ consists of the following:
 - For each object (table) $T \in \mathbf{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ we get a map of record sets

 $u_T \colon I(T) \to J(T).$

• For each arrow (foreign key) $f: T \to T'$, we get data consistency; formally,

$$J(f)\circ u_T=u_{T'}\circ I(f).$$

• If J is the result of an insert or merge (a progressive update) to I then

$$u\colon I\to J.$$

• Same thing if I is the result of a delete or a split (a regressive update) to J.

The category of instances

- Given a schema C, the *category of instances* on C is denoted C-**Set**.
 - The objects of $\mathcal{C}\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$ are functors (instances) $I:\mathcal{C}\to\mathbf{Set}$.
 - The arrows are natural transformations (progressive updates).
 - The paths are sequences of progressive updates.
 - Two paths are equivalent if they result in the same mapping.
- The category *C*-**Set** is a topos; it has an internal language and logic supporting the *typed lambda calculus*.
- That means, it works well with the theory of programming languages.

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Data migration

- Let ${\mathcal C}$ and ${\mathcal D}$ be different schemas.
- We call a functor between them, $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$, a schema mapping.
- Given such a mapping, we want to be able to canonically transfer instances on C to instances on D and vice versa.
- That means, given $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$ we want functors

$$\mathcal{C}\text{-}\mathsf{Set}\to\mathcal{D}\text{-}\mathsf{Set}$$

and

$$\mathcal{D}$$
-Set $\rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ -Set.

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What a functor \mathcal{C} -**Set** $\rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ -**Set** means.

- A functor C-**Set** $\rightarrow D$ -**Set** means:
 - **Objects:** To every instance on C we associate an instance on D.
 - Arrows: For every progressive update on a C-instance there is a corresponding progressive update on the associated \mathcal{D} -instance.
 - Path equivalences: If two different sequences of progressive updates on C-instances result in the same mapping, then the same will hold of the corresponding sequences on \mathcal{D} -instances.

The "easy" migration functor, Δ

• Given a schema mapping (i.e. a functor)

$$F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D},$$

we can transform instances on ${\mathcal D}$ to instances on ${\mathcal C}$ as follows:

Given
$$I: \mathcal{D} \to \mathsf{Set}$$
 $\mathcal{C} \xrightarrow{F} \mathcal{D} \xrightarrow{I} \mathsf{Set}$ $get F; I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathsf{Set}$
 $F; I$

• This process will preserve updates: given an update on *I* on schema \mathcal{D} , it will spit out a corresponding update of (*F*; *I*) on schema \mathcal{C} .

• Thus we have a functor $\Delta_F \colon \mathcal{D}$ -Set $\to \mathcal{C}$ -Set.

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How Δ_F works

Consider the schema mapping



- We get $\Delta_F \colon \mathcal{D}\text{-}\mathbf{Set} \to \mathcal{C}\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$
- Given an instance on \mathcal{D} we get one on \mathcal{C} .
- Given an update on \mathcal{D} we get one on \mathcal{C} .

Compare the Informatica picture





So many kinds of functors ..

• Functors in three different contexts.

- We started with functors as instances, $I \colon \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$.
- Then we introduced functors as schema mappings, $F: \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$.
- In the last slide we showed a functor on instance categories

$$\Delta_F : \mathcal{D}$$
-Set $\rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ -Set.

- Recall the simple definition of functor we gave at the beginning: it holds in each case.
- Functors provide a powerful and reusable abstraction because of the simplicity of their definition.

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Adjoints

- Some functors $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ have a "special partner" $\mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{X}$ called an *adjoint*.
- What it will mean to us is that we can always "invert" a data migration *D*−Set → *C*−Set in two universal ways.
 - Roughly, our first inversion will be universal for progressive updates.
 - Our second inversion will be universal for regressive updates.
- These migration functors will provide something like updatable views.
- The important thing is to note is that these aren't made up; they are "canonical" or "universal". They're part of the mathematics they come with the package.

The "adjoint" migration functors, Σ and Π

Given a schema mapping (i.e. a functor) $F : \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{D}$,

- We have a functor $\Delta_F \colon \mathcal{D}\text{-}\mathbf{Set} \to \mathcal{C}\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$ given by composition.
- It has two adjoints:
 - a "sum-oriented" adjoint $\Sigma_{\textit{F}} \colon \mathcal{C}\text{-}\textbf{Set} \to \mathcal{D}\text{-}\textbf{Set},$ and
 - a "product-oriented" adjoint $\Pi_F : \mathcal{C}$ -Set $\rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ -Set.
- Thus, given a schema mapping *F*, three functors emerge for the instance categories,

$$\Delta_F, \Sigma_F, \text{ and } \Pi_F$$

come with the package.

- Roughly, these correspond to project (Δ), union (Σ), and join (Π).
- \bullet They allow one to move data back and forth between ${\cal C}$ and ${\cal D}$ in canonical ways.

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The "product-oriented" push-forward Π_F makes joins



- Given any instance $I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$, get an instance $\Pi_F(I): \mathcal{D} \to \mathbf{Set}$.
- The rows in table \bullet^U will be the join of the rows in \bullet^{T1} and \bullet^{T2} over \bullet^{First} and $\bullet^{\mathsf{Last}}.$

The "sum-oriented" push-forward Σ_F makes unions



• Given any instance $I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$, get an instance $\Sigma_F(I): \mathcal{D} \to \mathbf{Set}$.

- The rows in table \bullet^{U} will be the union of the rows in \bullet^{T1} and \bullet^{T2} .
- It will automatically use labeled nulls for the unknown cells.

Views

- These functors can be arbitrarily composed to create views.
- We can think of any series of functors

$$\mathcal{C}_1 \stackrel{F_1}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{D}_1 \stackrel{G_1}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{E}_1 \stackrel{H_1}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{C}_2 \stackrel{F_2}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{D}_2 \stackrel{G_2}{\longrightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{H_n}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{C}_n$$

as a view.

• The view is the functor

$$V := \Sigma_{H_n} \circ \cdots \circ \Pi_{G_1} \circ \Delta_{F_1} \colon \mathcal{C}_1 \text{-} \mathbf{Set} \to \mathcal{C}_n \text{-} \mathbf{Set}.$$

- We can export data from C_1 into C_n through V.
- Note that C_n is a schema: not just one table, but possibly many, with foreign keys.
- It's no problem to create views that have foreign keys (unsupported in DBMS).

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Views

A simple "SELECT" query using views

SELECT title, isbn FROM book WHERE price > 100



- $V := \Delta_G \circ \Pi_F$ is the appropriate view.
- For any $I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$, we materialize the view as V(I).
- Views with foreign keys are easy.

One more slide about views

- Views can look complex.
 - We can think of any series of functors

$$\mathcal{C}_1 \stackrel{F_1}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{D}_1 \stackrel{G_1}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{E}_1 \stackrel{H_1}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{C}_2 \stackrel{F_2}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{D}_2 \stackrel{G_2}{\longrightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{H_n}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{C}_n$$

as describing a view.

• In actuality, the view is the functor

$$V := \Sigma_{H_n} \circ \cdots \circ \Pi_{G_1} \circ \Delta_{F_1} \colon \mathcal{C}_1 \text{-}\mathbf{Set} \to \mathcal{C}_n \text{-}\mathbf{Set}.$$

• We can materialize the view for any $I: \mathcal{C}_1 \to \mathbf{Set}$ as $V(I): \mathcal{C}_n \to \mathbf{Set}$.

• But a theorem says we can accomplish the same thing in three steps:

$$\mathcal{C}_1 \stackrel{\mathsf{F}}{\longleftrightarrow} \mathcal{D} \stackrel{\mathsf{G}}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{E} \stackrel{\mathsf{H}}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{C}_r$$

Project – Join – Union.

Interfacing between schemas

- We are often interested in taking data from one enterprise model *C* and transferring it to another enterprise model *D*.
- Such transfers can also be accomplished using our notion of views.
- Queries on the old schema translate directly to queries on the new schema.
- We might need to perform calculations such as concatenation, addition, comparison, conversion of units, etc. in order to interface these schemas.
- To do this we'll need an underlying "typing category."

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Incorporating data types and functions

In the example:



how do we know that •String is what it says it is?

That is, given *I*: C → Set, how do we specify that *I*(•^{String}) ∈ Set is some pre-defined data type like String.

Power of category theory: connection to PL is easy

- In programming language theory, they consider the category **Type**.
 - Objects of Type are data types, and
 - arrows are functions.
 - Theoretically, there exists a functor $V: \mathbf{Type} \to \mathbf{Set}.$
- So **Type** is (in our definition) a database schema and V is a "canonical instance"!
- Since database schemas are categories and **Type** is a category, we can integrate the two.

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Example

- Lets make a category $\mathcal{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \bullet^{St1} & \bullet^{St2} & \bullet^{St3} \end{bmatrix}$ and a functor $F : \mathcal{B} \to \mathbf{Type}$, sending each object to $\mathbf{String} \in \mathbf{Ob}(\mathbf{Type})$.
- The composition $\mathcal{B} \xrightarrow{F} \mathbf{Type} \xrightarrow{V} \mathbf{Set}$ yields an instance

$$V' := \Delta_F(V) = V \circ F \colon \mathcal{B} \to \mathbf{Set}.$$

• There is also an obvious functor



• A typed instance $I: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$ is one for which we have a map $\Delta_G(I) \to V'$.

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Takeaway

- Databases are custom categories.
- The datatypes in a programming language form a category.
- The whole point of category theory is to allow us to connect different categories.
- Unifying database and program could be very beneficial.

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The Grothendieck construction

- Let \mathcal{C} be a category and let $I: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ be a functor.
- We can convert I into a category Gr(I) in a canonical way:
 - Example:



• Gr(1) is also known as the category of elements of I:



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Grothendieck construction applied to database instances

• Suppose given the following instance, considered as $I: \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \textbf{Set}$

| Employee | | | | |
|----------|------------|---------|-----|-----|
| ld | First | Last | Mgr | Dpt |
| 101 | David | Hilbert | 103 | q10 |
| 102 | Bertrand | Russell | 102 | ×02 |
| 103 | Alan | Turing | 103 | q10 |
| | Departmer | | | |
| ld | Name | Secr'y | | |
| q10 | Sales | 101 | | |
| ×02 | Production | 102 | | |



Here is Gr(I), the category of elements of I:



A different perspective on data

In fact, the Grothendieck construction of $I: C \rightarrow \mathbf{Set}$ always yields not only a category Gr(I) but a functor

 $\pi\colon Gr(I)\to \mathcal{C}.$



The fiber over (inverse image of) every object $X \in C$ is a set of objects $\pi^{-1}(X) \subseteq Gr(I)$. That set is I(X).

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RDF schema and stores



- The relation to RDF triples is clear: each arrow f: x → y in Gr(I) is a triple with subject x, predicate f, and object y.
- For example (101 department q10), (x02 name Production), etc..
- C is the RDF schema and Gr(I) is the triple store.
- SPARQL queries (graph patterns) are easily expressible in this model.

Allowing for semi-structured data

- We can think of any functor $\pi \colon \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{C}$ as a "semi-instance" on \mathcal{C} .
- Such a functor π can encode incomplete, non-atomic, or bad data.



- Row 103 has no data in the f cell, and row 104 has too much.
- Bad data (data not conforming to declared path equivalences) can also occur in a functor π: D → C.
- Any semi-instance on C can be functorially "corrected" to an instance if necessary.
- For example "labeled nulls" will be created for any incomplete data.

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Summary

- There's a well-known connection between relational databases and RDF.
- This connection is born out in a most natural way with category theory.
- The model gracefully extends what should work works.

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Summary of the talk

• I hope the connection between databases and categories is clear.

| Employee | | | | |
|------------|------------|---------|-----|-----|
| ld | First | Last | Mgr | Dpt |
| 101 | David | Hilbert | 103 | q10 |
| 102 | Bertrand | Russell | 102 | ×02 |
| 103 | Alan | Turing | 103 | q10 |
| Department | | | | |
| ld | Name | Secr | | |
| q10 | Sales | 101 | | |
| ×02 | Production | 102 | | |



- I discussed how one can use this connection to facilitate:
 - schema mapping and data migration;
 - formalizing views;
 - merging database and programming language theory;
 - merging relational and RDF outlooks;
- The main point is that basic category theory provides a self-contained, unified, and profitable approach to databases.

Thanks for the invitation to speak!

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Categorical databases