DATABASE QUERIES AND CONSTRAINTS VIA LIFTING PROBLEMS

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ABSTRACT. Previous work has demonstrated that categories are useful and expressive models for databases. In the present paper we build on that model, showing that certain queries and constraints correspond to lifting problems, as found in modern approaches to algebraic topology. In our formulation, each so-called SPARQL graph pattern query corresponds to a category-theoretic lifting problem, whereby the set of solutions to the query is precisely the set of lifts. We interpret constraints within the same formalism and then investigate some basic properties of queries and constraints. In particular, to any database π we can associate a certain derived database $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ of queries on π . As an application, we explain how giving users access to certain parts of $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$, rather than direct access to π , improves ones ability to manage the impact of schema evolution.

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1. Introduction

In [DK], [JoM], [JRW], and many others, a tight connection between database schemas and the category-theoretic notion of sketches was presented and investigated. This connection was carried further in [Sp1] where the existence of three data migration functors was shown to follow as a simple consequences of using categories rather than sketches to model schemas. In this paper we shall show that a modern approach to the study of algebraic topology, the so-called *lifting problem* approach (see [Qui]), provides an excellent model for typical queries and constraints (see [PS]).

A database consists of a schema (a layout of tables in which columns connect one table to another) and an instance (the rows of actual data conforming to the chosen layout). One can picture the analogy between databases and topological spaces as follows. Imagine a database instance I and a database schema S, each as an abstract space, and suppose we have a projection from I to S. That is, we have

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some kind of continuous map $\pi\colon I\to S$ from a "data bundle" I to a "base space" S. Points in S represent tables, and paths in S represent foreign key columns (or iterates thereof), which point from one table to another. Over every point $s\in S$ in the base space, we can look at the corresponding fiber $\pi^{-1}(s)\subseteq I$ of the data bundle; this will correspond to the set of rows in table s.

A query on a database instance $\pi\colon I\to S$ is like a system of equations: it includes an organized collection of knowns and unknowns. In our model a query takes the form of a functor $m\colon W\to R$, such that W (standing for WHERE-clause) corresponds to the set of knowns, each of which maps to a specific value in the instance I, and such that the relationship between knowns and unknowns is captured in a schema R. More precisely, a query on the database instance $\pi\colon I\to S$ is presented as a commutative diagram to the left, which would be roughly translated into the pseudo-SQL to the right, in (1):

$$(1) \qquad \begin{array}{c} W \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} I & \text{SELECT } * \\ \downarrow m & \downarrow \pi & \text{FROM } R \stackrel{n}{\longrightarrow} S \\ R \longrightarrow S. & \text{WHERE } R \stackrel{m}{\longleftarrow} W \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} I \end{array}$$

A result to the query is any mapping $\ell \colon R \to I$ making both triangles commute $(\ell \circ m = p, \pi \circ \ell = n)$ in the diagram

(2)
$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$M \downarrow \ell \downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{p} S.$$

The map ℓ is called a *lift*, hence the term *lifting problem*. The idea is that a lift is a way to fill the result schema R with conforming data from the instance I.

We will now give a simple example from algebraic topology to strengthen the image, and then an example database query to ground it.

Consider an empty sphere, defined by the equation $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$; call it I. We project it down onto the (x,y)-coordinate plane; call that plane $S = \mathbb{R}^2$. The sphere I serves as the database instance and the plane S serves as the schema. A query consists of some result schema mapping to the plane S, say a solid disk S (given by S = 0, S + S = 1), together with some constraints, say on the boundary circle S (given by S = 0, S = 1) of the disk. Graphically we have Figure 3 below.

The results of the lifting query from Figure 3 are the mappings $R \to I$ making the diagram commute. Under the guidance of (1) the query would look something like this:

SELECT *

FROM filled_disk inclusion

WHERE empty_circle as boundary = empty_circle as equator

¹A more general SQL query, with a specific SELECT statement will be discussed in Example 4.2.2.

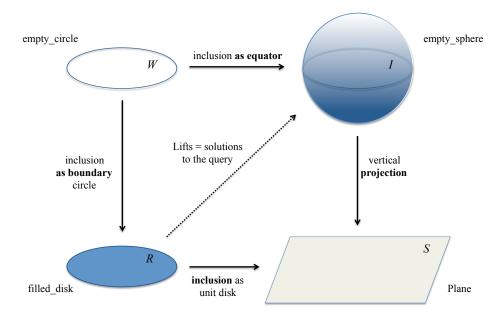


FIGURE 3. A topological lifting problem

Topologically one checks that there are exactly two lifts—the top hemisphere and the bottom hemisphere—so our pseudo-SQL query above would return exactly two results.

1.1. Main example of a lifting query. We now provide an example of a situation in which one may wish to query a database, and we show that this query naturally takes the structure of a lifting problem. We break a single example into three parts for clarity.

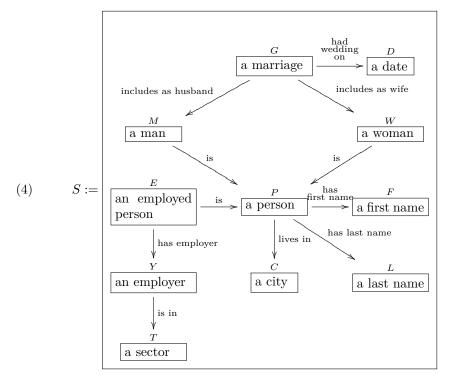
Example 1.1.1 (Main Example 1: Situation, SPARQL, and schema). Suppose you have just come home from a party. There, you met and really hit it off with a married couple; the husband's name is Bob and the wife's name is Sue; they live in Cambridge. From your conversation, you know that Bob works at MIT and Sue works in the financial sector. You'd like to see them again, but you somehow forgot to ask for their contact information; in particular you'd like to know their last names.

This is a typical database query problem. It can be phrased as the following SPARQL graph pattern query (which we arrange in two columns for space and

readability reasons):

```
(?marriage includesAsHusband ?b) (?marriage includesAsWife ?s)
(?b hasFirstName Bob) (?s hasFirstName Sue)
(?b livesIn Cambridge) (?s livesIn Cambridge)
(?employedb is ?b) (?employeds is ?s)
(?employedb hasEmployer MIT) (?sueEmp isIn financial)
(?b hasLastName ?bobLast) (?s hasLastName ?sueLast)
```

The query in (3) might be asked on the following database schema:²

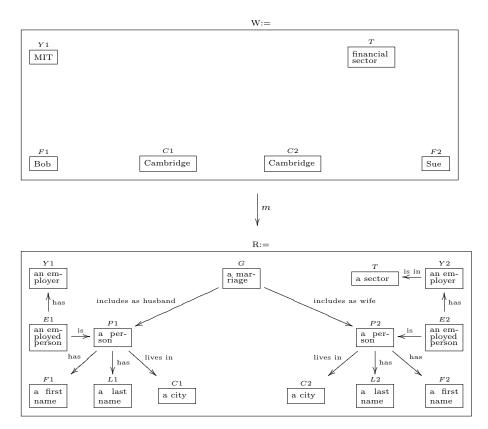


Given that S is instantiated with data $\pi \colon I \to S$, one can hope to find Bob and Sue, and then determine their last name. In the following two examples (Examples 1.1.2 and 1.1.3) we will show that this query corresponds to a lifting problem for π .

Example 1.1.2 (Main Example 2: WHERE-clause and Result schema). Recall the SPARQL query presented as (3) in Example 1.1.1, in which we wanted to find information about our new friends Bob and Sue. We will use a lifting problem to state this query; to do so we need to come up with a result schema R, a constraint schema (a set of knowns) W, and a mapping $m \colon W \to R$ embedding the known objects into the result schema. In this example we will present m, W, and R. In Example 1.1.3 we will explain the lifting diagram for the query and show the results.

²The schema S in (4) deliberately includes a box D and an arrow $G \to D$ that are not part of our query (3).

In order to find our friends Bob and Sue, we will use the following mapping:



The functor $m \colon W \to R$ is indicated by sending each object in W to the object with the same label in R; e.g. $\lceil \text{MIT} \rceil$ in Ob(W) is sent to $\lceil \text{an employer} \rceil$ in Ob(R) because they are both labeled Y1.

To orient oneself, we suggest the following. Count the number of constants in the SPARQL query (3)—there are 6 (such as Bob, Cambridge, etc.); this is precisely the number of objects in W. Count the combined number of constants and variables in the SPARQL query—there are 14 (there are 8 variables, such as ?marriage, ?empoyedb, etc.); this is precisely the number of objects in R. Finally, count the number of triples in the SPARQL query – there are 13; this is precisely the number of arrows in R. These facts are not coincidences.

Example 1.1.3 (Main Example 3: Lifting diagram and result set). In Example 1.1.2 we showed a functor $m\colon W\to R$ corresponding to the SPARQL query stated in (3). In this example we will explain how this query can be formulated as a lifting problem of the form

(5)
$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{p} S$$

which serves to pose our query to the database π . At this point we can ask for the set of solutions ℓ . So far, W, m, R, and S have been presented, I and π have been assumed, and the set of ℓ 's is coming later, so it suffices to present p and n.

One should refer to our presentation of S in Example 1.1.1 (4). The functor $n: R \to S$ should be obvious from our labeling system (for example, the object $E1=\lceil \text{an employed person} \rceil$ in category R is mapped to the object $E=\lceil \text{an employed person} \rceil$ in category S). Note that n is neither injective nor surjective in this case: $n^{-1}(P) = \{P_1, P_2\}$ and $n^{-1}(D) = \emptyset$.

Suppose $\pi\colon I\to S$ is our data bundle, and assume that it contains enough data that the constants in the query have unique referents. There is an obvious functor $p\colon W\to I$ that sends each object in category W to its referent in I. For example, we assume that there is an object in I labelled 「MIT」, which is mapped to by the object Y1=「MIT」 in W.

Thus our query from (3) is finally in the form of a lifting problem as in (5). We will show in Example 4.2.4, after we have built up the requisite theory, that the set of lifts can be collected into a single table, which would look something like this:

(6)

Marriage								
ID		Husband				Wife		
1D	ID	First	Last	City	ID	First	Last	City
G3801	M881-36	Bob	Graf	Cambridge	W913-55	Sue	Graf	Cambridge

This concludes the tour of our main example: we have shown a typical query formulated as a lifting problem. The mathematical basis for the above ideas will be presented in Section 4.

1.2. **Purpose of the paper.** The purpose of this paper is to:

- provide an efficient mathematical formulation of common database queries (modeling both SQL and SPARQL styles),
- attach a geometric image to database queries that can be useful in conceptualization, and
- explore theory and applications of the derived database $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ of queries on a database π .

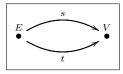
1.3. Plan of the paper. We begin in Section 2 with a review of the categorical approach to databases (see [Sp1] for more details). Roughly this correspondence goes by the following slogan: "schemas are categories, instances are set-valued functors". In Section 2.3 we also discuss the Grothendieck construction, which will be crucial for our approach: a database instance can be converted into a so-called relational fibration, which we will later use extensively to make the parallel with algebraic topology and lifting problems in particular.

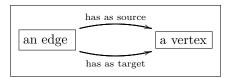
In Section 3 we define constraints on a database in terms of lifting conditions and discuss some constraint implications. We give several examples to show how various common existence and uniqueness constraints (such as the constraint that a given foreign key column is surjective) can be framed in the language of lifting conditions. In Section 4 we discuss queries as lifting problems, and review the paper's main example. In Section 5, we show that the queries on a given database can be collected into a new, derived database. This derived database of queries and their results can be queried, giving rise to nested queries. We explain how this formulation can be useful for managing the impact of schema evolution. Finally

in Section 6 we briefly discuss some possible directions for future work, including tying in to Homotopy Type Theory (in the sense of [Awo] and [Voe]) and other projects.

1.4. **Notation.** We use the notation $\{\star\}$ to denote a set with one element. Given any category \mathcal{C} , we denote the category of all functors $\mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$ by $\mathcal{C}\mathbf{-Set}$. The terminal object in $\mathcal{C}\mathbf{-Set}$ sends each object in \mathcal{C} to $\{\star\}$; we denote it by $\star^{\mathcal{C}}: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$. We use [0] to denote a discrete category with one object. For any category \mathcal{C} , there is a one-to-one correspondence between the objects in \mathcal{C} and the functors $[0] \to \mathcal{C}$. Thus we may denote an object $c \in \mathrm{Ob}(\mathcal{C})$ by a functor $[0] \stackrel{c}{\to} \mathcal{C}$. In particular, we elide the difference between a set and a functor $[0] \to \mathbf{Set}$.

We draw schemas in one of two ways. When trying to save space, we draw our objects as concisely-labeled nodes and our morphisms as concisely-labeled arrows; when trying to be more expressive, we draw our objects as text boxes and put as much text in them (and on each arrow) as is necessary to be clear (see [SK]). For example, we might draw the indexing category for directed graphs in either of the following two ways:





When in the typographical context of inline text we are discussing an object that has been elsewhere displayed as a textbox (such as an edge), we may represent it with corner symbols (e.g. as an edge) to avoid various spacing issues that can arise.

Given two categories, there are generally many functors from one to the other; however, if the objects and arrows are labeled coherently, there are many fewer functors that roughly respect the labelings. We will usually be explicit when defining functors, but we will also take care that our functors respect labeling to the extent possible.

1.5. **Acknowledgments.** I would like to thank Henrik Forssell, Peter Gates, Rich Haney, Eric Prud'hommeaux, and Emily Riehl for many useful discussions.

2. Elementary theory of categorical databases

2.1. Review of the categorical description of databases. The basic mantra is that a database schema is a small category S and an instance is a functor $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$, where \mathbf{Set} is the category of sets.³ To recall these ideas, we take liberally from [Sp1], though more details and clarification are given there. Readers who are familiar with the basic setup and data migration functors can skip to Section 2.3.

In [Sp1] a category **Sch** of categorical schemas and translations is defined and an equivalence of categories

(7)
$$\operatorname{\mathbf{Sch}} \simeq \operatorname{\mathbf{Cat}}$$

is proved, where **Cat** is the category of small categories. The difference between **Sch** and **Cat** is that an object of the former is a *chosen presentation* of a category,

³If one prefers, **Set** can be replaced by the category of finite sets or by the category Types for some λ -calculus.

by generators and relations. Given the equivalence (7), we can and do elide the difference between schemas and small categories.

Roughly, a schema S consists of a graph G together with an equivalence relation on the set of paths of G. Each object $s \in \mathrm{Ob}(S)$ represents a table (or more precisely the ID column of a table), and each arrow $s \to t$ emanating from s represents a column of table s, taking values in the ID column of table t. An example should clarify the ideas.

Example 2.1.1. As a typical database example, consider the bookkeeping necessary to run a department store. We keep track of a set of employees and a set of departments. For each employee e, we keep track of

- E.1 the first name of e, which is a FirstNameString,
- E.2 the last name of e, which is a LastNameString,
- E.3 the **manager** of e, which is an **Employee**, and
- E.4 the department that e works in, which is a Department.

For each department d, we keep track of

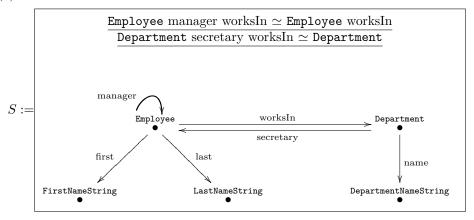
- D.1 the name of d, which is a DepartmentNameString, and
- D.2 the **secretary** of d, which is an Employee.

Suppose further that we make the following two rules.

- Rule 1 For every employee e, the **manager** of e works in the same department that e works in.
- Rule 2 For every department d, the **secretary** of d works in department d.

This is all captured neatly, with nothing left out and nothing else added, by the category presented below:

(8)



The underlined statements at the top indicate pairs of commutative (i.e. equivalent) paths; each path is indicated by its source object followed by the sequence of arrows that composes it. The objects, arrows, and equivalences in S correspond to the tables, columns, and rules laid out at the beginning of this example.

The collection of data on a schema is typically presented in table form. Display (9) shows how a database with schema S might look at a particular moment in

time.

(9)

Employee						
ID	first	last	manager	worksIn		
101	David	Hilbert	103	q10		
102	Bertrand	Russell	102	x02		
103	Alan	Turing	103	q10		

	Department						
ID	name	secretary					
q10	Sales	101					
x02	Production	102					

FirstNameString				
ID				
Alan				
Alice				
Bertrand				
Carl				
David				
•				
:				

LastNameString					
ID					
Arden	1				
Hilbert]				
Jones	1				
Russell	l				
Turing					
•	1				
:					

DepartmentNameString
ID
Marketing
Production
Sales
•
:

Every table has an ID column, and in every table each cell references a cell in the ID column of some table. For example, cells in the secretary column of the Department table refer to cells in the ID column of the Employee table. Finally, one checks that Rule 1 and Rule 2 hold. For example, let e be Employee 101. He works in Department q10 and his manager is Employee 103. Employee 103 works in Department q10 as well, as required. The point is that the data in (9) conform precisely to the schema S from Diagram (8).

A set of tables that conforms to a schema is called an *instance* of that schema. Let us denote the set of tables from (9) by δ ; we noted above that δ conforms with, thus is an instance of, schema S. Mathematically, δ can be modeled as a functor

$$\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}.$$

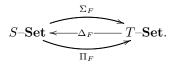
To each object $s \in S$ the instance δ assigns a set of row-IDs, and to each arrow $f: s \to t$ in S it assigns a function, as specified by the cells in the f-column of s.

2.2. Review of data migration functors. Once we realize that a database schema can be captured simply as a category S and each instance on S as a set-valued functor $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$, classical category theory gives ready-made tools for migrating data between different schemas. The first definition we need is that of schema mapping.

Definition 2.2.1. Let S and T be schemas (i.e. small categories). A *schema mapping* is a functor $F: S \to T$.

Thus a schema mapping assigns to each table in S a table in T, to each column in S a column in the corresponding table of T, and all this in such a way that the path equivalence relation is preserved.

Definition 2.2.2. Let $F: S \to T$ be a schema mapping. Three functors on instance categories are induced by F, which we call the data migration functors associated to F and which we denote by Σ_F, Δ_F , and Π_F , displayed here:



The functor $\Delta_F \colon T$ -**Set** $\to S$ -**Set** sends an instance $\delta \colon T \to \mathbf{Set}$ to the instance $\delta \circ F \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$. The functor Σ_F is the left adjoint to Δ_F , and the functor Π_F is the right adjoint to Δ_F . We call Δ_F the pullback along F, we call Σ_F the left pushforward along F, and we call Π_F the right pushforward along F.

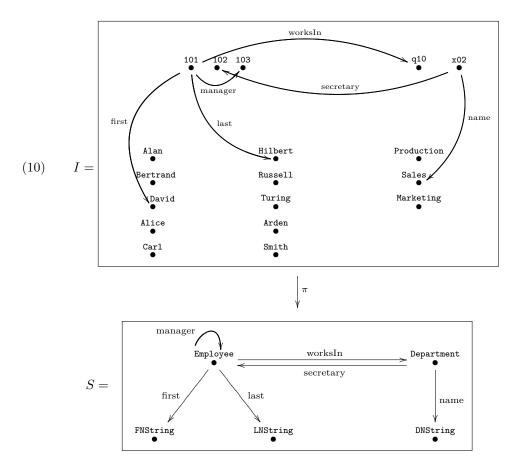
2.3. RDF via the Grothendieck construction. There is a well-known construction that associates to a functor $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$, a pair $(\int(\delta), \pi_{\delta})$ where $\int(\delta) \in \mathbf{Cat}$ is a new category, called the category of elements of δ , and $\pi_{\delta} \colon \int(\delta) \to S$ is a functor. It is often called the Grothendieck construction. The objects and morphisms of $\int(\delta)$ are given as follows

$$\operatorname{Ob}(\int(\delta)) := \left\{ (s, x) \mid s \in \operatorname{Ob}(S), x \in \delta(s) \right\}$$
$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\int(\delta)}((s, x), (s', x')) := \left\{ f \colon s \to s' \mid \delta(f)(x) = x' \right\}$$

The functor $\pi_{\delta} \colon \int(\delta) \to S$ is straightforward: it sends the object (s, x) to s and sends the morphism $f \colon (s, x) \to (s', x')$ to $f \colon s \to s'$.

We call the pair $(\int(\delta), \pi_{\delta})$ the relational fibration associated to δ . We will see in the next section (Definition 3.2.1) that π_{δ} is indeed a kind of fibration of categories. This construction, and in particular the category $\int(\delta)$, is also nicely connected with the resource descriptive framework (see [PS]), in which data is captured in so-called RDF triples. Indeed, the arrows $\stackrel{s}{\bullet} \stackrel{p}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{b}{\bullet}$ of $\int(\delta)$ correspond one-for-one with these RDF triples (subject, predicate, object). Thus we have shown a readymade conversion from relational databases to RDF triple stores via the Grothendieck construction. An example should clarify this discussion.

Example 2.3.1. Recall the database instance $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ given by the tables in Diagram (9), whose schema S was presented as Diagram (8). Applying the Grothendieck construction to $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$, we get a category $I := \int (\delta)$ and a functor $\pi := \pi_{\delta}$ as follows:



The functor $\pi\colon I\to S$ sends objects 101,102,103 in I to the object Employee, in S; it similarly sends the arrow labeled worksIn in $\int(\delta)$ to the arrow labeled worksIn in S, etc.

In the tables in (9), which represents our instance δ , there are 16 non-ID cells, whereas in Display (10), which represents $\int(\delta)$, there are only six arrows drawn. The other ten arrows have been left out of the picture of I (e.g. the arrow $\stackrel{102}{\bullet} \stackrel{\text{Russell}}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{\text{Russell}}{\bullet}$ is not drawn) for readability reasons. The point is that the RDF triple store associated to instance δ is nicely represented using the standard Grothendieck construction. For example, the arrow $\stackrel{101}{\bullet} \stackrel{\text{first}}{\longrightarrow} \stackrel{\text{David}}{\bullet}$ in (10) represents the RDF triple (101 :first David).

In the Introduction (Section 1), we discussed database instances in terms of mappings π , each from a data bundle I to a base space S. We were referring to exactly the above relational fibration picture.

We have been calling the map $\pi_{\delta} \colon \int(\delta) \to S$ a "relational fibration", but there is a more common category-theoretic term which, to the author, seemed overly technical for the context of this paper. Namely, a functor $\pi_{\delta} \colon \int(\delta) \to \mathcal{C}$ obtained by applying the Grothendieck construction to a set-valued functor $\delta \colon \mathcal{C} \to \mathbf{Set}$ is usually called a *discrete opfibration* (see [BW]). We use the term relational fibration as a more database friendly synonym for the term discrete opfibration.

In Section 3.2 we will give a definition of relational fibrations in terms of lifting constraints (Definition 3.2.1). First, however, we attempt to understand a relational fibration $\pi \colon I \to S$ by considering its various fibers and their relationships. More precisely, given an object $s \in \text{Ob}(S)$, we consider the fiber $\pi^{-1}(s)$, and given a morphism $f \colon s \to s'$ in S we consider how the fibers $\pi^{-1}(s)$ and $\pi^{-1}(s')$ relate.

If $\pi\colon I\to S$ were not assumed to be a relational fibration but instead just a general functor, then all we would know about these various fibers would be that they are categories. But the first distinctive feature of a relational fibration (or discrete opfibration) is that the fiber $\pi^{-1}(s)$ is a discrete category, i.e. a set, for each object $s\in S$; that is, there are no morphisms between different objects in a chosen fiber (see Proposition 3.2.2). The pre-image $\pi^{-1}(f)$ of $f\colon s\to s'$ is a set of morphisms from objects in $\pi^{-1}(s)$ to objects in $\pi^{-1}(s')$. When π is a relational fibration, there exists a unique morphism in $\pi^{-1}(f)$ emanating from each object in $\pi^{-1}(s)$, so the subcategory $\pi^{-1}(f)\subseteq I$ can be cast as a single function $\pi^{-1}(f)\colon \pi^{-1}(s)\to \pi^{-1}(s')$.

To recap, the relational fibration $\pi_{\delta} \colon \int (\delta) \to S$ of a set-valued functor $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ contains the same information as δ does, but a different perspective. We have

$$\pi_\delta^{-1}(s) \cong \delta(s) \qquad \text{ and } \qquad \pi_\delta^{-1}(f) \cong \delta(f),$$

for any $s, s' \in Ob(S)$ and $f: s \to s'$.

2.3.2. Basic behavior of the Grothendieck construction. Below are some simple results about the Grothendieck construction.

Proposition 2.3.3. Let $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be a functor. Then the Grothendieck construction $\int (\delta) \xrightarrow{\pi_{\delta}} S$ of δ can be described as a pullback in the diagram of categories

$$\int_{\pi_{\delta}} (\delta) \longrightarrow \mathbf{Set}_{*}$$

$$\downarrow_{\pi_{\delta}} \downarrow_{\pi}$$

$$S \longrightarrow_{\delta} \mathbf{Set},$$

where \mathbf{Set}_* is the category of pointed sets and π is the functor that sends a pointed set $(X, x \in X)$ to its underlying set X.

Proof. This follows directly from definitions.

Lemma 2.3.4. Let S be a category. The functor $\int: S\operatorname{-Set} \to \operatorname{Cat}_{/S}$ is fully faithful. That is, given two instances, $\delta, \epsilon: S \to \operatorname{Set}$, there is a natural bijection,

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{S-\mathbf{Set}}(\delta,\epsilon) \xrightarrow{\cong} \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}}(\int(\delta),\int(\epsilon)).$$

Proof. This follows directly from definitions.

Proposition 2.3.5. Let $F: S \to T$ be a functor. Let $\delta: S \to \mathbf{Set}$ and $\epsilon: T \to \mathbf{Set}$ be instances, and suppose we have a commutative diagram

Then diagram (11) is a pullback, i.e. $\int (\delta) \cong S \times_T \int (\epsilon)$, if and only if $\delta \cong \Delta_F \epsilon$.

Proof. This is checked easily by comparing the set of objects and the set of morphisms in $\int (\delta)$ with the respective sets in $S \times_T \int (\epsilon)$.

2.3.6. Examples from algebraic topology. In algebraic topology (see [May]), one associates to every topological space X a fundamental groupoid Gpd(X). It is a category whose objects are the points of X and whose set of morphisms between two objects is the set of continuous paths in X from one point to the other. Two paths in X are considered equivalent if one can be deformed to the other (without any part of it leaving X). Composition of morphisms is given by concatenation of paths.

One can reduce some of the study of a space X to the study of this algebraic object G = Gpd(X), and the latter is well-suited for translation to the language of this paper.

Example 2.3.7. Suppose that G is a groupoid. Then a covering of groupoids in the sense of [May, Section 4.3] is precisely the same as a surjective relational fibration with schema G.

Let $G = Gpd(S^1)$ denote the fundamental groupoid of the circle with circumference 1. Explicitly we have $Ob(G) = \{\theta \in \mathbb{R}\}/\sim$, where $\theta \sim \theta'$ if $\theta - \theta' \in \mathbb{Z}$; and we have

$$\operatorname{Hom}_G(\theta, \theta') = \{ x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x + \theta \sim \theta' \}.$$

Think of G as the category whose objects are positions of a clock hand and whose morphisms are arbitrary durations of time (rotating the hands from one clock position around and around to another). Consider the functor $T: G \to \mathbf{Set}$ such that $T(\theta) = \{t \in \mathbb{R} \mid t - \theta \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and such that for $x \in \mathrm{Hom}_G(\theta, \theta')$ we put T(x)(t) = x + t. So, for a clock position θ , the functor T returns all points in time at which the clock is in position θ .

Applying the Grothendieck construction to T, we get a covering $\pi \colon \int (T) \to G$, which corresponds to the universal cover of the circle S^1 . One can think of it as a helix (modeling the time line) mapping down to the circle (modeling the clock).

A much more sophisticated example relating databases to classical questions in algebraic topology may be found in [Mor].

3. Constraints via lifting conditions

In this section we introduce the lifting problem approach to database constraints. Roughly the same model will apply in the next section to database queries, the idea being that a lifting constraint is a lifting query that is guaranteed to have a result.

3.1. Basic definitions.

Definition 3.1.1. Let $S \in \mathbf{Cat}$ be a database schema. A (lifting) constraint on S is a pair (m, n) of functors

$$W \xrightarrow{m} R \xrightarrow{n} S$$
.

A functor $\pi: I \to S$ is said to satisfy the constraint (m,n) if, for all solid arrow commutative diagrams of the form

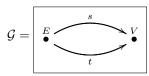
(12)
$$W \longrightarrow I \\ \downarrow \\ m \\ \downarrow \\ \pi \\ R \xrightarrow{\pi} S,$$

there exists a dotted arrow lift making the diagram commute. A (lifting) constraint set is a set $\xi := \{W_\alpha \xrightarrow{m_\alpha} R_\alpha \xrightarrow{n_\alpha} S \mid \alpha \in A\}$, for some set A. A functor $\pi\colon I\to S$ is said to satisfy the constraint set ξ if it satisfies each constraint (m_{α}, n_{α}) in ξ .

Given a constraint set ξ on S, we say that a constraint $W \xrightarrow{m} R \xrightarrow{n} S$ is implied by ξ if, whenever a functor $\pi: I \to S$ satisfies ξ it also satisfies (m, n).

Remark 3.1.2. While not all constraints on databases are lifting constraints (for example, declaring a table to be the union of two others is not expressible by a lifting constraint), lifting constraints are the only type of constraint we will be considering in this paper. For that reason, we often leave off the word "lifting," as suggested by the parentheses in Definition 3.1.1.

Example 3.1.3. Consider the schema



The category \mathcal{G} -Set is precisely the category of (directed) graphs. Given a graph $X: \mathcal{G} \to \mathbf{Set}$, we have a function $X(s): X(E) \to X(V)$ assigning to every edge its source vertex. Suppose we want to declare this function to be surjective, meaning that every vertex in X is the source of some edge. We can do that with the following lifting constraint

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
V \\
\bullet \\
\end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c}
M \\
\bullet \\
\end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c}
V \\
\bullet \\
\end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}$$

where m and n respect labeling. A graph $\delta \colon \mathcal{G} \to \mathbf{Set}$ has the desired property, that every vertex is a source, iff $\int (\delta)$ satisfies the lifting constraint (m, n).

Definition 3.1.4. Let $S \in \mathbf{Cat}$ be a schema. Given a functor $m: W \to R$, define a set [m] of lifting constraints as follows:

$$[m] = \left\{ W \xrightarrow{m} R \xrightarrow{n} S \mid n \in \mathrm{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}}(R,S) \right\}.$$

Given a set of functors $M = \{m_j : W_j \to R_j \mid j \in J\}$, the union

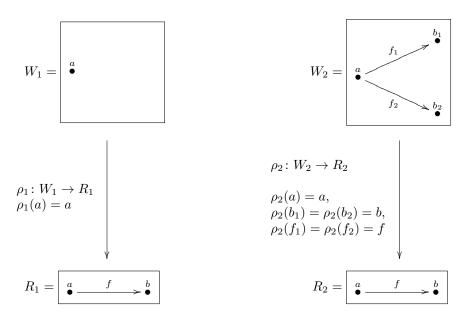
$$[M] := \bigcup_{j \in J} [m_j]$$

is a constraint set, which we call the universal constraint set generated by M. A functor $\pi\colon I\to S$ satisfying the constraint set [M] is called an M-fibration. We say that elements of M are generating constraints for M-fibrations.

Remark 3.1.5. Universal constraints seem to be more important in traditional mathematical contexts than in "informational" or database contexts. For example, in the world of simplicial sets, the Kan fibrations are M-fibrations for some universal constraint set [M], called the set of generating acyclic cofibrations (see [Hir]).

3.2. Relational fibrations via lifting constraints. Our goal now is to express the notion of relational fibrations in terms of lifting constraints. In other words, we will exhibit a finite set of functors $\{m_{\alpha} \colon W_{\alpha} \to R_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in A}$ that serve to "check" whether an arbitrary functor $\pi \colon I \to S$ is a relational fibration. In fact, Definition 3.2.1 will define π to be a relational fibration if and only if it is a $\{\rho_1, \rho_2\}$ fibration, where $\rho_1 \colon W_1 \to R_1$ and $\rho_2 \colon W_2 \to R_2$ are functors displayed in Figure 4.

FIGURE 4. The generating constraints, ρ_1 and ρ_2 , for relational fibrations



Definition 3.2.1. Let I and S be categories and let $\pi: I \to S$ be a functor. Then I is a *relational fibration* if, for each solid-arrow commutative diagram of the form



where ρ_{α} is one of the generating constraints for relational fibrations (see Figure 4), there exists a dotted arrow functor, as shown, such that the full diagram commutes.

Again, a relational fibration is also known as a discrete opfibration, and one can find it in the literature (e.g. [BW]), but we spell it out using lifting conditions. Let $\pi\colon I\to S$ be a $\{\rho_1,\rho_2\}$ -fibration. Then for any functor $R_1=R_2\to S$, i.e. for any arrow $f\colon s\to s'$ in S, we have two lifting conditions. The conditions are that for any object $x\in\pi^{-1}(s)$ in the fiber over s,

- (1) there exists at least one arrow in I, emanating from x, whose image under π is f, and
- (2) there exists at most one arrow in I, emanating from x, whose image under π is f.

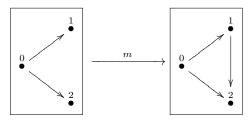
In the remainder of this section we give some consequences of Definition 3.2.1. The proofs may be challenging for beginners and may be skipped on a first reading.

Proposition 3.2.2. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration. Then for each object $s \in \text{Ob}(S)$ the fiber $\pi^{-1}(s)$ is a discrete category.

Proof. Let $s \in \text{Ob}(S)$ be an object, and let $g \colon x \to y$ be a morphism in the fiber $\pi^{-1}(s) \subseteq I$; we will show that x = y and that $g = \text{id}_x$ is the identity morphism. Consider the map $\rho_2 \colon W_2 \to R_2$ from Figure 4. Let $n \colon R_2 \to S$ be the functor sending f to id_s . Let $p \colon W_2 \to I$ send f_1 to id_x and send f_2 to g. We have a lifting diagram as in Definition 3.2.1, so a lift is guaranteed. This lift equates id_x and g.

The following proposition is useful in the theory of computation.

Proposition 3.2.3. Let $\Lambda_0^{\{0,1,2\}}$ and $\Delta^{\{0,1,2\}}$ denote the categories pictured as the source and target of the arrow m below



 $(\Delta^{\{0,1,2\}} \text{ is just a commutative triangle})$ and let m be the unique functor that preserves our labeling of objects, 0,1,2. If $\pi\colon I\to S$ is a relational fibration then it is an $\{m\}$ -fibration.

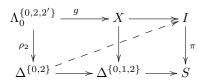
Proof. We will use notation from [DS, Section 1.8]. Suppose that $\pi: I \to S$ is a relational fibration. We extend our lifting problem to the solid arrow diagram

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
\Delta^{\{1\}} & \longrightarrow & \Lambda_0^{\{0,1,2\}} & \longrightarrow & I \\
\rho_1 & & & & \downarrow & \\
\rho_2 & & & & \downarrow & \\
\Delta^{\{1,2'\}} & \longrightarrow & \Delta^{\{0,1,2\}} & \longrightarrow & S
\end{array}$$

where the right-hand square is the diagram for which we want a lift. By Definition 3.2.1 (applicable since the left-hand map ρ_1 is a generating constraint for relational fibrations), there exists a dotted arrow lift making the diagrams commute. If we let $X = \text{colim}(\Delta^{\{1,2'\}} \xleftarrow{\rho_1} \Delta^{\{1\}} \to \Lambda_0^{\{0,1,2\}})$ then it suffices to find a lift for the induced diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
X & \longrightarrow I \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow_{\pi} \\
\Delta^{\{0,1,2\}} & \longrightarrow S.
\end{array}$$

We again extend to get the solid arrow diagram



where g sends the two generating arrows to the paths $0 \to 2$ and $0 \to 2'$, respectively, in X. Again by Definition 3.2.1 (applicable since the left-hand map ρ_2 is a generating constraint functor for relational fibrations), we have a dotted arrow lift making the diagrams commute. Setting $Y = \text{colim}(\Delta^{\{0,2\}} \stackrel{\rho_2}{\longleftarrow} \Lambda_0^{\{0,2,2'\}} \stackrel{g}{\longrightarrow} X)$, it suffices to find a lift for the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} Y & \longrightarrow I \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \pi \\ \Delta^{\{0,1,2\}} & \longrightarrow S. \end{array}$$

But now one can check that the left-hand map $Y \to \Delta^{\{0,1,2\}}$ is an isomorphism of categories, so we are done.

Proposition 3.2.4. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration. Then π is faithful. In other words, for any two objects $i, j \in Ob(I)$ the function

$$\pi \colon \operatorname{Hom}_I(i,j) \to \operatorname{Hom}_S(\pi(i),\pi(j))$$

is injective.

Proof. To prove that π is faithful, we need only find a solution to each lifting diagram of the form:

$$W := \begin{bmatrix} i & & j \\ & & & \\ & &$$

We can extend this diagram on the left with either surjective map from the relational constraint functor ρ_2 (see Figure 4) to m, as indicated in the diagram:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} W_2 \longrightarrow W \longrightarrow I \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \uparrow \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \uparrow \\ R_2 & \longleftarrow R \longrightarrow S \end{array}$$

The result follows by noticing that the left-hand square is a pushout.

Let S be a category. We define a functor $\partial: \mathbf{Cat}_{/S} \to S$ —**Set** as follows. For any $F \colon X \to S$, let $\star^X \colon X \to \mathbf{Set}$ denote the terminal object of X—**Set** (see Notation 1.4), and note that $\int (\star^X) \cong X$ in $\mathbf{Cat}_{/X}$. Define $\partial(F) \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ as

$$\partial(F) := \Sigma_F(\star^X).$$

We have the following proposition.

Proposition 3.2.5. (i) The functor ∂ is left adjoint to \int :

$$\operatorname{Cat}_{/S} \xrightarrow{\partial} S$$
-Set.

(ii) For any $\gamma \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ the counit map is an isomorphism

$$\partial \circ \int (\gamma) \xrightarrow{\cong} \gamma.$$

(iii) An object $X \xrightarrow{F} S$ in $\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}$ is a relational fibration if and only if $F \cong \int \partial (F)$ in $\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}$.

Proof. Let $F: X \to S$ be an object of $\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}$ and let $\gamma: S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be an object of S- \mathbf{Set} . By Proposition 2.3.5 we have a pullback diagram:

$$\int (\Delta_F \gamma) \longrightarrow \int (\gamma)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$X \xrightarrow{F} S$$

which implies the first isomorphism in the following chain:

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}/S}(F, \int(\gamma)) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}/X}(\operatorname{id}_X, \int(\Delta_F \gamma))$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{X-\mathbf{Set}}(\star^X, \Delta_F \gamma)$$

$$\cong \operatorname{Hom}_{S-\mathbf{Set}}(\Sigma_F(\star^X), \gamma) = \operatorname{Hom}_{S-\mathbf{Set}}(\partial F, \gamma).$$

The second isomorphism follows from Lemma 2.3.4 and the third is adjointness; this proves Statement (i). Statement (ii) follows from the same lemma.

By construction, $\pi \colon \int(\delta) \to S$ is a relational fibration for any $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$, so if $X \xrightarrow{F} S$ is not a relational fibration then $X \ncong \int \partial(F)$. Thus, it remains to show that if F is a relational fibration then $X \cong \int \partial(F)$. To see this, notice that for each $s \in \mathrm{Ob}(S)$ the set $F^{-1}(s)$ is final in $(F \downarrow s)$, so

$$\partial(F)(s) = \Sigma_F(\star^X)(s) = \underset{(F\downarrow s)}{\operatorname{colim}} \star^X \cong F^{-1}(s).$$

This shows that the object structure in F is the same as that in $\int \partial (F)$. Similar analyses can be carried out for arrows and path equivalences.

- 3.3. **Examples.** In this section we will show how to use lifting constraints (see Definition 3.1.1) to declare a number of different properties for tables in a database. Our examples include
 - declaring a table to be non-empty,
 - declaring a table to have exactly one row,
 - declaring a foreign key to be injective,
 - declaring a foreign key to be surjective,

- declaring a binary relation to be reflexive, symmetric, and/or transitive,
- declaring a table to be a product or a general limit of other tables, and
- declaring that there are no nontrivial cycles in a discrete dynamical system.

We will discuss these in order.

Example 3.3.1 (Nonempty). Let S be a schema, and let $T \in Ob(S)$ be a table, which we want to declare non-empty. We use the constraint drawn as follows

where n(A) = T. In other words, we set $W_1 = \emptyset$ to be the empty category, and we set $R = \{A\}$ to be the discrete category with one object, A. To say that the lifting problem

$$W_1 \longrightarrow I$$

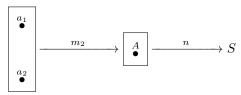
$$m_1 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{n} S$$

has a solution is to say that there exists an object in the instance category I whose image under π is T. In other words, there exists a row in table T. Here, the commutativity of the upper-left triangle does nothing, and the commutativity of the lower-right triangle does all the work.

Example 3.3.2 (Cardinality=1). Let S be a schema, and $T \in \text{Ob}(S)$ a table, which we want to declare to have exactly one row. We know a constraint guaranteeing the existence of a row in T from Example 3.3.1; in Section 3.4 we will give a general method for transforming existence constraints into uniqueness constraints, but here we will just give the result of that method.

To declare T to have at most one row, we use the constraint drawn as follows:



where $m_2(a_1) = m_2(a_2) = A$ and where n(A) = T. In other words, we set $W_2 = \{a_1, a_2\}$ to be a discrete category with two objects, and we set $R = \{A\}$ to be a discrete category with one object. The lifting problem

$$\begin{array}{c|c} W_2 \longrightarrow I \\ \downarrow m_2 & \uparrow \\ R \longrightarrow S \end{array}$$

has a solution iff both triangles commute. We know already that the image of a and b in I consists of two rows in table T, because the square commutes. The commutativity of the upper-left triangle implies that a and b are the same, as desired. The commutativity of the lower-right triangle is implied by the surjectivity of m_2 and the commutativity of the square.

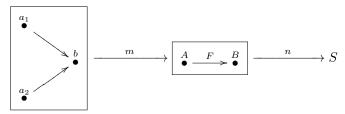
The set $\{(m_1, n), (m_2, n)\}$ is a constraint set on S that is satisfied by a relational fibration I if and only if the set I(T) of rows in T has exactly one element.

We will be more brief from here on out. The following constraint is exactly what was used in Example 3.1.3.

Example 3.3.3 (Surjective foreign key). The declaration that a foreign key $f: T \to T'$ be surjective is achieved by the constraint:

where m(b) = B, n(A) = T, n(B) = T', and n(F) = f.

Example 3.3.4 (Injective foreign key). The declaration that a foreign key $f: T \to T'$ be injective is achieved by the constraint:



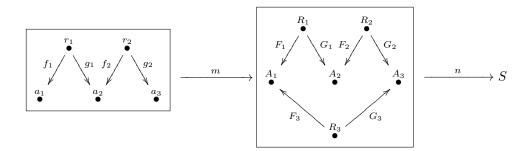
where $m(a_1) = m(a_2) = A$ and m(b) = B, and where n(F) = f.

There exist constraints that ensure a relation binary relation $R \subseteq A \times A$ is transitive, which we give in Example 3.3.5. There is another constraint to ensure it is symmetric, and another to ensure it is reflexive; we leave these as exercises.

Example 3.3.5 (Transitive binary relation). The declaration that a relation

$$R \xrightarrow{f} A$$

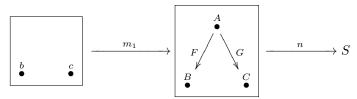
in S be transitive is achieved by the constraint



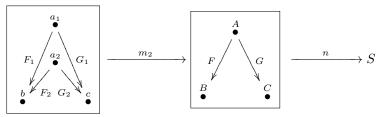
where the functors m and n should be clear by our labeling.

A limit (in the sense of category theory) can be declared using lifting constraints. For conciseness, we only include the example of binary products. The case for other limits is just as easy, but since people with an interest in databases see product tables more often than other limit (e.g. fiber product) tables, it seemed preferable to explore that case. An interested reader might try formulating the fiber product constraint for him- or her-self.

Example 3.3.6 (Product). Suppose we have a table T and two of its columns are $f: T \to U$ and $g: T \to V$. The declaration that (the set of rows in) table T is the product of (the sets of rows in) tables U and V is achieved by two constraints, an existence constraint and a uniqueness constraint. The existence constraint is



where $m_1(b) = B$, $m_1(c) = C$, and n(F) = f, n(G) = g. The uniqueness constraint is

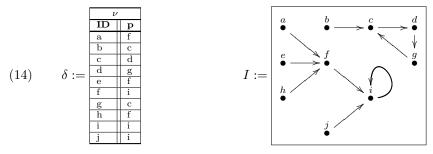


where $m_2(F_1) = m_2(F_2) = F$, $m_2(G_1) = m_2(G_2) = G$, and n(F) = f, n(G) = g. Thus the constraint set for (T, f, g) to be a product is $\{(m_1, n), (m_2, n)\}$.

Example 3.3.7 (Forests). Let S be the free category generated by the graph with one object and one arrow, pictured here:

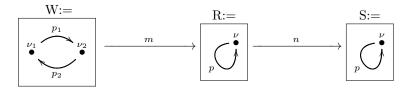
$$S := \boxed{ p \qquad \qquad }$$

An instance $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ is called a discrete dynamical system or DDS. The set $\delta(\nu)$ will be called the set of nodes of δ and given a node $x \in \delta(\nu)$, the node $\delta(p)(x)$ is called the parent of x. Here is a picture of a such an instance δ and its Grothendieck construction $I = \int (\delta)$.



Notice that a DDS looks like a forest (collection of trees) except that it may have cycles. These cycles can only occur at the root of a tree, and indeed each tree in the forest has a root cycle. In (14) we see that the tree containing a has a root cycle of length 1, and the tree containing b has a root cycle of length 3. Forests are a useful notion in computer science; we consider a DDS a forest if and only if each root cycle has length 1. This can be achieved by the following lifting constraint.

Let R = S be the schema in (14), and let $n = \text{id}: R \to S$. Let W be the free category on the graph below, and let $m: W \to R$ denote the functor sending p_1 and p_2 to p.



3.4. **Encoding uniqueness constraints.** Suppose given a constraint $W \xrightarrow{m} R \xrightarrow{n} S$. According to Definition 3.1.1 a functor $\pi: I \to S$ satisfies (m,n) if for every solid arrow diagram

(12)
$$W \longrightarrow I \\ \downarrow \\ m \\ \downarrow \\ R \xrightarrow{\pi} S,$$

there exists a dotted arrow lift making it commute. Thus it appears that all constraints are existence declarations. However, we can always turn such an existence declaration into a uniqueness declaration using a related lifting diagram. In fact this was done a couple times (see Examples 3.3.2, 3.3.6) above. The uniqueness constraint corresponding to (m, n) is

(15)
$$R \coprod_{W} R \xrightarrow{(\mathrm{id}_{R} \coprod \mathrm{id}_{R})} R \xrightarrow{n} S.$$

In other words, π satisfies (id_R II id_R, n) if and only if there exists at most dotted arrow lift making diagram (12) commute.

3.5. Constraint implications. Propositions 3.5.2 and 3.5.3 below are constraint implication results. That is, they show that instances satisfying one lifting constraint automatically satisfy another. These two constraint implications are not exhaustive, they merely give the idea.

Definition 3.5.1. Suppose that one has a diagram of the form

$$W \xrightarrow{s_1} W' \xrightarrow{p_1} W$$

$$\downarrow^m \qquad \downarrow^{m'} \qquad \downarrow^m$$

$$R \xrightarrow{s_2} R' \xrightarrow{p_2} R$$

such that the top and bottom compositions are identity,

$$p_1 \circ s_1 = \mathrm{id}_W$$
 and $p_2 \circ s_2 = \mathrm{id}_R$.

In this case we say that m is a retract of m'.

Proposition 3.5.2. Suppose that (m,n) is a constraint for a schema S and that m is a retract of some m', part of which is shown to the left in the diagram

$$W' \xrightarrow{p_1} W \qquad \qquad \downarrow m \qquad \qquad \downarrow m \qquad \qquad R' \xrightarrow{p_2} R \xrightarrow{n} S.$$

Then any relational fibration $\pi: I \to S$ satisfying $(m', n \circ p_2)$ also satisfies (m, n).

Proof. The proof is straightforward but we include it for pedagogical reasons. Suppose given a lifting problem

(16)
$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{p} S.$$

We assume by hypothesis that the dotted arrow lift f exists making the solid arrow diagram

$$W \xrightarrow{s_1} W' \xrightarrow{p_1} W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow^m \qquad \downarrow^{m'} \qquad \uparrow^f \qquad \downarrow^{\pi}$$

$$R \xrightarrow{s_2} R' \xrightarrow{p_2} R \xrightarrow{n} S$$

commute. But then one checks that $\ell = f \circ s_2 \colon R \to I$ is a lift as in (16).

Proposition 3.5.3. Suppose that the square to the left in the diagram

$$W' \longrightarrow W$$

$$\downarrow^{m'} \qquad \downarrow^{m}$$

$$R' \xrightarrow{q} R \xrightarrow{n} S$$

is a pushout (as indicated by the corner symbol \ulcorner). If $\pi\colon I\to S$ satisfies the constraint $(m',n\circ q)$ then it satisfies (m,n).

Proof. Obvious.

4. Queries as lifting problems

In this section we will show a correspondence between queries and lifting problems, under which the set of results for a query corresponds to the set of solutions (i.e. lifts) for the associated lifting problem. The main example of this was discussed in Example 1.1.1. There we were interested in learning more about a married couple, given certain known information about them. After building up the necessary theory in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 we will apply it to the case of the married couple in Example 4.2.4.

In the Introduction, more specifically in (1), we alluded to a dictionary between certain SQL statements and lifting problems. In this section we will extend this

a bit to include more specificity in the SELECT clause. Namely, we have this correspondence

(17)
$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$
 SELECT $X \xrightarrow{q} R$ FROM $R \xrightarrow{n} S$ WHERE $R \xleftarrow{m} W \xrightarrow{p} I$

The map q can be composed with any lift $\ell\colon R\to I$ to restrict our attention to a certain segment of the result. We explain these ideas in Example 4.2.2. However, before getting to this general kind of query, we will discuss queries that do not include the WHERE-clause, i.e. the collection $W\to I$ of knowns.

4.1. **WHERE-less queries.** In this section we study queries as in Diagram (17) in which the where-clause W is empty, $W = \emptyset$. In this case the two maps $R \stackrel{m}{\leftarrow} W \stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} I$ contain no information, so Diagram (17) reduces to the following:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} I & & & \\ & \downarrow^{\pi} & & & \text{SELECT} & X \xrightarrow{q} R \\ X \xrightarrow{\qquad \qquad } R \xrightarrow{\qquad \qquad } S & & \text{FROM} & R \xrightarrow{n} S \end{array}$$

We call these WHERE-less queries.

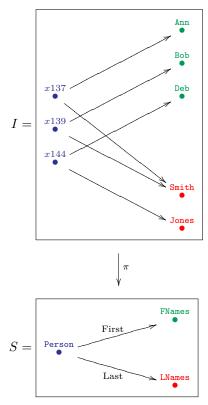
Definition 4.1.1. Let S be a schema. A probe on S is a functor $n: R \to S$; the category R is called the result schema for the probe. Given a relational fibration $\pi: I \to S$ the probe n is said to set up the lifting problem

$$R \xrightarrow{n} S.$$

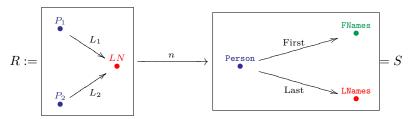
In the presence of a relational fibration π , we may refer to the probe n as a whereless query. We define the set of solutions to the query, denoted $\Gamma(n,\pi)$ as

$$\Gamma(n,\pi) := \{\ell \colon R \to I \mid \pi \circ \ell = n\}.$$

Example 4.1.2. Consider the relational fibration $\pi\colon I\to S$ given here:



To find two people with the same last name, we find lifts of the where-less query



where both $n(L_1) = n(L_2) = (\overset{\mathsf{Person}}{\bullet} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{Last}} \overset{\mathsf{LNames}}{\bullet})$. There are two people (Ann Smith, Bob Smith) with the same last name, so we may hope to get as our result set $\{(x137, \mathsf{Smith}, x139)\}$.

Here is how to compute the result set for our query. We are looking for functors $\ell\colon R\to I$ that make the diagram

(18)
$$R \xrightarrow{\ell} \int_{\tau}^{\tau} \int_{\tau}^{\tau}$$

commute. Since L_1 and L_2 in R are sent to Last in S, we need to choose two "downward sloping" arrows in I with the same target. Doing so, we indeed find all pairs of persons in I that have the same last name. Unfortunately, this query

would return five results, which we can abbreviate as

(19)
$$(x137, \text{Smith}, x139)$$
, $(x139, \text{Smith}, x137)$, $(x137, \text{Smith}, x137)$, $(x139, \text{Smith}, x139)$, $(x144, \text{Jones}, x144)$.

The first two are what we are looking for, but they are redundant; the last three are degenerate (e.g. Deb Jones has the same last name as Deb Jones). We will deal with these issues in Example 4.1.5, after we discuss morphisms of queries.

Definition 4.1.3. Let S be a schema. Given two probes $n_1: R_1 \to S$ and $n_2: R_2 \to S$, we define a *strict morphism* from n_1 to n_2 , denoted $f: n_1 \to n_2$, to be a functor $f: R_1 \to R_2$ such that $n_2 \circ f = n_1$. Let $\widetilde{\mathbf{Prb}}(S)$ denote the category whose objects are probes and whose morphisms are strict morphisms. In the presence of a relational fibration $\pi: I \to S$, we may refer to f as a *strict morphism of where-less queries* (as in Definition 4.1.1).

Given a strict morphism $f: n_1 \to n_2$, one obtains a function $\Gamma(f, \pi): \Gamma(n_2, \pi) \to \Gamma(n_1, \pi)$, because any lift ℓ_2 in the diagram

(20)
$$R_{1} \xrightarrow{f} R_{2} \xrightarrow{n_{2}} S,$$

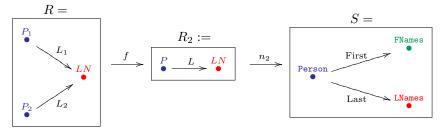
i.e. with $n_2 = \pi \circ \ell_2$, induces a lift $\ell_1 := \ell_2 \circ f : R_1 \to I$ with $n_1 = \pi \circ \ell_1$. We thus have produced a functor $\Gamma(-,\pi) : \widehat{\mathbf{Prb}}(S)^{\mathrm{op}} \to \mathbf{Set}$.

Remark 4.1.4. We use the term strict morphism of probes in Definition 4.1.3 because a more lax version of morphism will be defined later, in Definition 5.1.2. Whereas above we consider commutative triangles of categories (e.g. $n_2 \circ f = n_1$ in (20)) and call the resulting category $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$, the lax version will allow for natural transformations (e.g. $n_2 \circ f \Rightarrow n_1$) and will be denoted $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$. The functor $\Gamma(-,\pi) \colon \mathbf{Prb}(S) \to \mathbf{Set}$ defined in Definition 4.1.3 can be extended to a functor (which we give the same name), $\Gamma(-,\pi) \colon \mathbf{Prb}(S) \to \mathbf{Set}$. This will all be discussed in Section 5.1.

Example 4.1.5. We again consider the situation from Example 4.1.2, where we were using the query $n: R \to S$ to look for pairs of people who had the same last name. The solution set in (19) had two problems:

- we were getting degenerate answers because every person has the same last name as him- or her-self, and
- we were getting order-redundancy because, given two people with the same last name, we can reverse the order and get another such pair.

In order to deal with the first issue, consider the strict morphism f of queries



where $f(L_1) = f(L_2) = L$, and note that indeed $n = n_2 \circ f$. By Definition 4.1.3 this induces a function between the solution sets; i.e. we get a function

$$\Gamma(f,\pi)\colon \Gamma(n_2,\pi)\to \Gamma(n,\pi).$$

In our example (19), the image of this function is precisely the set of duplicates. In other words, if we delete the elements in the image of $\Gamma(f, \pi)$ we get

$$\Gamma(n,\pi) - \Gamma(n_2,\pi) = \{(x137, \text{Smith}, x139), (x139, \text{Smith}, x137)\}.$$

In order to deal with the remaining redundancy issue, consider the swap map $s \colon R \to R$ given by $s(L_1) = L_2$ and $s(L_2) = L_1$. Note that $n \circ s = n$. Thus we have a strict morphism of probes $s \colon n \to n$, which induces a function $\Gamma(s,\pi) \colon \Gamma(n,\pi) \to \Gamma(n,\pi)$. By taking the orbits of this function, we effectively quotient out by order-swapping. In fact our swap map acts not just on (R,n) but on (R_2,n_2) as well, and so we can combine this method with the one above to obtain the desired answer, the one element set consisting of (x137, Smith, x139), in unspecified order.

Proposition 4.1.6. Let $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be an instance and $\pi_{\delta} \colon I \to S$ the induced relational fibration. Given any probe $n \colon R \to S$, there is an isomorphism

$$\Gamma(n, \pi_{\delta}) \xrightarrow{\cong} \lim_{R} (\delta \circ n).$$

Proof. Consider the diagram

$$\begin{array}{c|c} I & \longrightarrow \mathbf{Set}_* \\ & \downarrow^{\pi_\delta} & \downarrow^{\pi} \\ R & \xrightarrow[n]{} S & \xrightarrow[\delta]{} \mathbf{Set} \end{array}$$

where the right-hand square is a pullback, as shown in Proposition 2.3.3. We have a bijection

$$\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}}(n,\pi_{\delta}) \cong \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbf{Cat}_{/\mathbf{Set}}}(\delta \circ n,\pi).$$

The left-hand side is $\Gamma(n, \pi_{\delta})$ and the right-hand side is a standard formula for the limit of a set-valued functor, in this case for $\lim_{R} (\delta \circ n)$.

4.2. **General lifting queries.** In this section we tackle the more general lifting query. These closely resemble graph pattern queries, as used in SPARQL (see [PS]). We will show how to perform queries like (and including) the one suggested in Example 1.1.1, where we hoped to find the last names of our new acquaintances, Bob and Sue. We begin with the definition.

Definition 4.2.1. Let S be a schema and $\pi: I \to S$ a relational fibration. A query on π is a solid-arrow commutative diagram of the form

The categories W and R are called the where-category and the result schema, respectively. We define the set of solutions to the query, denoted $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)$, to be the set of lifts ℓ making the diagram commute. Precisely,

$$\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) := \{\ell \colon R \to I \mid \pi \circ \ell = n \text{ and } \ell \circ m = p\}.$$

Example 4.2.2. By this point, we have developed the theory necessary to make sense of the following dictionary.

$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow \pi$$

$$X \xrightarrow{q} R \xrightarrow{n} S$$
SELECT $X \xrightarrow{q} R$

$$\downarrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \pi$$
FROM $R \xrightarrow{n} S$
WHERE $R \xleftarrow{m} W \xrightarrow{p} I$

Each lift ℓ in the commutative square is a solution to the SELECT * statement, and composing ℓ with q projects to schema X.

The following proposition says that for any query on a dataset δ , there is a canonical embedding of the query result back into δ .

Proposition 4.2.3. Let $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be a instance on a schema and $\pi \colon I \to S$ the associated relational fibration. Suppose given a query (lifting problem)

$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow m \qquad \qquad \downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{n} S$$

with solution set $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) \in \mathbf{Set}$. Considering this set as a constant functor $\Gamma \colon R \to \mathbf{Set}$ (given by $\Gamma(r) = \Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)$ for all $r \in \mathrm{Ob}(R)$), there is an induced map of R-sets,

Res:
$$\Gamma \to \Delta_n \delta$$
.

Proof. Let $\Gamma(n,\pi) = \{\ell \colon R \to I \mid \pi \circ \ell = n\}$ denote the set of solutions to the where-less query $n \colon R \to S$. Clearly, we have an inclusion $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) \hookrightarrow \Gamma(n,\pi)$. By Proposition 4.1.6, there is an isomorphism $\Gamma(n,\pi) \cong \lim_{R} (\delta \circ n)$.

Let $t: R \to [0]$ denote the terminal functor. It follows from definitions that for any functor $G: R \to \mathbf{Set}$, there is an isomorphism of [0]-Sets, $\lim_R (G) \cong \Pi_t(G)$, so in particular we have an inclusion $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) \to \Pi_t(\delta \circ n)$. By the (Δ_t, Π_t) -adjunction, there is an induced map

$$\Delta_t(\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)) \to (\delta \circ n)$$

of R-sets. The result follows, since $\Delta_t(\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)) = \Gamma$ and $\delta \circ n = \Delta_n \delta$.

Example 4.2.4 (Bob and Sue, revisited). The motivating example for this paper was presented in Section 1.1. In particular, we provided a SPARQL query to find all instances of married couples with the requisite characteristics (e.g. the husband's and wife's first names being Bob and Sue respectively). We showed that this SPARQL query could be straightforwardly transformed into a lifting problem of the form

$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow \pi$$

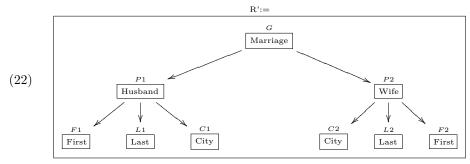
$$R \xrightarrow{p} S$$

as in (5), and we specified the two functors $W \xrightarrow{m} R \xrightarrow{n} S$. We did not specify the relational fibration $I \xrightarrow{\pi} S$ or the inclusion of the known data $p: W \to I$, because writing out a convincing possibility for I would necessitate too much space to be worthwhile in this document.

The lifting diagram (5) was presumed to have only one solution, because it was presumed that we knew enough about Bob and Sue that no one else fit the description. In the language of Definition 4.2.1, the set $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,q)$ has one element. By Proposition 4.2.3, this element can be written as a database state on R. We output the result as a two-level table with one row in (6), repeated here,

Marriage								
ID		Husband				Wife		
ID	ID	First	Last	City	ID	First	Last	City
G3801	M881-36	Bob	Graf	Cambridge	W913-55	Sue	Graf	Cambridge

which in fact was a state on a schema $R' \to R$, where R' is the schema



While we have not discussed two-level tables before, we hope the idea is straightforward.

4.3. SPARQL queries involving predicate variables. In Example 1.1.1 our SPARQL query (3) only has variables in subject and object positions (the nodes of the schema). It seems that most SPARQL queries used in practice also only have variables in the subject and object positions (see, e.g. [DZS]); still, general SPARQL queries can involve variables in any position including in predicate positions, which correspond to the arrows of the schema. For example, we may use (John ?x Mary) to find all known relationships between John and Mary. To deal with this type of query, one may proceed as follows.

If S is a graph (thought of as a schema with trivial path equivalences, which is in keeping with RDF schemas), then S itself is in fact a database instance on the

schema \mathcal{G} from Example 3.1.3. A relational fibration $\pi\colon I\to S$ can be considered simply as a map of graphs, i.e. a map of instances on \mathcal{G} . Taking its Grothendieck construction yields a map $\int(I)\to\int(S)$, whereby each arrow from S (representing a foreign key column) and each arrow from I (representing a cell in a foreign key column) have become a node. We can perform the original SPARQL query to this derived form of the database because our original predicate can now be accessed as a subject or object. For example our statement (John ?x Mary) would become the pair of statements (?x subject John) (?x object Mary).

5. The category of queries on a database

In this section we will discuss some formal properties of the machinery developed in earlier sections. For example we will show that the queries on a given database can be arranged into a database of their own and subsequently queried. This process is commonly known as nesting queries. To this end, we define a category of queries and prove that the process of finding solutions is functorial. We do this in Sections 5.1 and 5.2. In Section 5.3 we extend some results from Section 3.5, giving more detail on the interaction between data migration functors, on the one hand, and query containment and constraint implication on the other.

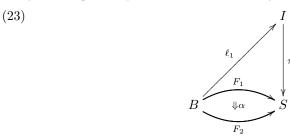
This section is technical, but it may have fruitful applications. Given any database π , the category $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ organizes the queries (or views) on π into a schema of their own. There is a canonical instance on $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ populating each table (corresponding to a query) with its set of results. In typical applications, users of a database π are often better served by interacting with $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ rather than with π . It is important to understand how schema evolution affects different parts of $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$; this is briefly discussed in Section 5.3.

5.1. New relational fibrations from old.

Theorem 5.1.1. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration and let B be a category. Then the induced functor $\pi^B: I^B \to S^B$ is a relational fibration. If $\delta^B = \partial (\pi^B): S^B \to \mathbf{Set}$ is the associated instance, then for any $F: B \to S$ in $\mathrm{Ob}(S^B)$, there is a bijection

$$\delta^B(F)\cong \Gamma(F,\pi).$$

Proof. We begin our proof of the first claim by drawing a figure for reference:



To see that π^B is a relational fibration, suppose that $F_1, F_2 \colon B \to S$ are functors and $\alpha \colon F_1 \to F_2$ is a natural transformation. Given a functor $\ell_1 \colon B \to I$ with $\pi \circ \ell_1 = F_1$, we must show that there exists a unique functor $\ell_2 \colon B \to I$ and natural transformation $\beta \colon \ell_1 \to \ell_2$ such that $\pi \circ \ell_2 = F_2$ and $\pi \circ \beta = \alpha$. For any object $b \in \mathrm{Ob}(B)$, the map $\alpha_b \colon F_1(b) \to F_2(b)$ in S together with the object $\ell_1(b) \in I$, such that $\pi(\ell_1(b)) = F_1(b)$, induces a unique arrow $\beta_b \colon \ell_1(b) \to i_b$ in I for some

 $i_b \in \mathrm{Ob}(I)$, because π is a relational fibration. Define $\ell_2(b) = i_b$. This defines $\ell_2 \colon B \to I$ on objects.

Now suppose that $f : b \to b'$ is any morphism in B. Applying what we have so far, we get a functor $X \to Y$, where X is the solid-arrow portion of the category to the left and Y is the commutative square category to the right,

(24)
$$X := \begin{bmatrix} \ell_1(b) & \xrightarrow{\beta_b} \ell_2(b) \\ \ell_1(f) \downarrow & & \vdots \\ \ell_1(b') & \xrightarrow{\beta_{b'}} \ell_2(b') \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} F_1(b) & \xrightarrow{\alpha_b} F_2(b) \\ F_1(f) \downarrow & & \downarrow F_2(f) \\ F_1(b') & \xrightarrow{\alpha_{b'}} F_2(b') \end{bmatrix} =: Y$$

and we get a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
X & \longrightarrow I \\
\downarrow & & \downarrow \pi \\
Y & \longrightarrow S
\end{array}$$

In order to complete our definition of ℓ_2 , our goal is to fill in the missing side (the dotted arrow labeled "?") in square X.

The map $F_2(f) \colon F_2(b) \to F_2(b')$ in S together with the object $\ell_2(b) \in \operatorname{Ob}(I)$ with $\pi(\ell_2(b)) = F_2(b)$ induces a unique arrow $h_{b'} \colon \ell_2(b) \to j_{b'}$ for some $j_{b'} \in \operatorname{Ob}(I)$ with $\pi(j_b) = b'$. But now we have two maps in I over the composite $F_1(b) \to F_2(b')$ both with source $\ell_1(b) \in \operatorname{Ob}(I)$, namely $\beta_{b'} \circ \ell_1(f) \colon \ell_1(b) \to \ell_2(b')$ and $h_{b'} \circ \beta_b \colon \ell_1(b) \to j_{b'}$. Since π is a relational fibration, their codomains must be equal, so we have a map $\ell_2(f) := h_{b'} \colon \ell_2(b) \to \ell_2(b') = j_{b'}$, and we have completed the commutative square X in Diagram (24). We have now defined our functor $\ell_2 \colon B \to I$ and natural transformation $\beta \colon \ell_1 \to \ell_2$ over α , and they are unique: we made no choices in their constructions. We have shown that $\pi^B \colon I^B \to S^B$ is a relational fibration.

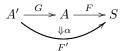
Let $\delta^B := \partial(\pi^B) \colon S^B \to \mathbf{Set}$ be the instance associated to π^B and let $F \in \mathrm{Ob}(S^B)$ be an object. We can consider F as a map $[0] \xrightarrow{F} S^B$, and $\delta^B(F)$ is isomorphic to the set of lifts in the left-hand diagram

which by adjointness is in bijection with the set of lifts $\Gamma(F,\pi)$ in the right-hand diagram. Therefore we have $\delta^B(F) \cong \Gamma(F,\pi)$, completing the proof.

The following definition of $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$ extends the notion of $\widetilde{\mathbf{Prb}}(S)$ from Definition 4.1.3: $\widetilde{\mathbf{Prb}}(S) \subseteq \mathbf{Prb}(S)$ is a subcategory with the same set of objects.

Definition 5.1.2. Let S be a category. We define the *category of probes on* S, denoted $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$, as follows.

$$Ob(\mathbf{Prb}(S)) = \{(A, F) \mid A \in Ob(\mathbf{Cat}), F \colon A \to S \text{ a functor}\}$$
$$Hom_{\mathbf{Prb}(S)}((A, F), (A', F')) = \{G, \alpha) \mid G \colon A' \to A, \ \alpha \colon F \circ G \to F'\}$$



Remark 5.1.3. In the presence of a relational fibration $\pi\colon I\to S$, a probe $F\colon A\to S$ sets up a where-less query on π for which the results are the lifts $\ell\in\Gamma(F,\pi)$ for the diagram



We call these where-less queries to emphasize that the where-category (upper left of the diagram) is empty.

For any category B, there is an obvious functor $S^B \to \mathbf{Prb}(S)$. The following corollary extends Theorem 5.1.1 in the obvious sense. One way to understand its content is that we can query over where-less queries. In other words, this is a formalization of nested queries. For example, we can create a join graph of where-less queries and look for a set of coherent results. Corollary 5.1.4 implies that given a morphism between two where-less queries on S and given a result for the first query, there is an induced result for the second query. We will deal with the general case of nested queries (those having non-trivial where-categories) in Proposition 5.2.2.

Corollary 5.1.4. Let $\pi\colon I\to S$ be a relational fibration. Then the induced functor

$$\overline{\pi} = \mathbf{Prb}(\pi)) \colon \mathbf{Prb}(I) \to \mathbf{Prb}(S)$$

is a relational fibration. The instance associated to π is

$$\Gamma(-,\pi) = \partial(\overline{\pi}) \colon \mathbf{Prb}(S) \to \mathbf{Set}.$$

Proof. Proving this corollary is really just a matter of writing down the appropriate diagram. In order to show that $\overline{\pi}$ is a relational fibration, we choose an object $\ell \colon A \to I$ in $\mathbf{Prb}(I)$ with $\overline{\pi}(\ell) = F \colon A \to S$, we choose a morphism $(G, \alpha) \colon (A, F) \to (A', F')$ in $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$, and we show that there exists a unique morphism $(G, \beta) \colon (A, \ell) \to (A', \ell')$ in $\mathbf{Prb}(I)$, for some $\ell' \colon A' \to I$, such that $\pi \circ \beta = \alpha$. In diagrams, we begin with the solid-arrow diagram

(25)
$$\begin{pmatrix} \ell' & - & \Rightarrow I \\ \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ A' & \xrightarrow{G} & A & \xrightarrow{F} & S \\ \downarrow \alpha & & \downarrow \alpha & & \\ \downarrow \alpha & & & \downarrow \alpha & & \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

and hope to find such an $\ell' \colon A' \to I$ and $\beta \colon \ell \circ G \to \ell'$.

We have $\pi \circ (\ell \circ G) = F \circ G$. Applying Theorem 5.1.1, there is a unique induced functor $\ell' \colon A' \to I$ and natural transformation $\beta \colon \ell \to \ell'$ such that $\pi \circ \beta = \alpha$, having the required properties. This completes the proof.

Remark 5.1.5. There is a way to express the set of solutions to a lifting problem using limits. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration, and consider the query

$$W \xrightarrow{p} I$$

$$\downarrow \pi$$

$$R \xrightarrow{n} S.$$

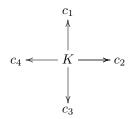
We can consider m as a strict morphism of probes on S, so it induces a function $\Gamma(m,\pi)\colon \Gamma(n,\pi)\to \Gamma(nm,\pi)$, and we can consider $p\in \Gamma(nm,\pi)$ as an element in the codomain. There is a bijection

(26)
$$\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) \cong \Gamma(n,\pi) \times_{\Gamma(nm,\pi)} \{p\}.$$

expressing the set $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)$ of solutions to the lifting problem as the fiber of $\Gamma(m,\pi)$ over p. This idea may be useful when one has disjunctions in the WHERE-clause of a query, as one could replace $\{p\}$ with the set of disjuncts.

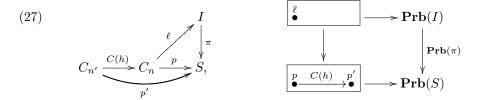
Next we present examples of two types of morphisms of where-less queries, namely projection and indirection. These types generate all morphisms of where-less queries.

Example 5.1.6 (Projection). Let $\delta \colon S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be an instance and let $\pi \colon I \to S$ be the associated relational fibration. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be a natural number. The *n*-column table schema, here denoted C_n , is the category with an initial object K, precisely n other objects, and precisely n non-identity arrows; it follows that C_n looks like an asterisk (or "star schema"), e.g. C_4 is drawn:



A functor $p: C_n \to S$ is called an n-column table schema in S. For each object $x \in C_n$, we call $p(x) \in \mathrm{Ob}(S)$ a column of p and we call p(K) the primary key column of p. In fact, p is a probe or where-less query. The result set $\Gamma(p,\pi)$ can be thought of as the set of records for instance δ in table p; indeed $\Gamma(p,\pi)$ is isomorphic to $\delta(p)$ as sets.

For any injection $h: \{1, 2, ..., n'\} \hookrightarrow \{1, 2, ..., n\}$, there is an induced functor $C(h): C_{n'} \to C_n$, which we can compose with p to get a new morphism $p' := p \circ C(h): C_{n'} \to S$ and a strict morphism of probes $p \to p'$. A record in table p is given by a lift ℓ as shown to the left:



and composing ℓ with C(h) gives its projection as a record in table p'. Thus h induces a function $\Gamma(p,\pi) \to \Gamma(p',\pi)$, and its image is the associated projection. The righthand diagram in (27) is another way of viewing the lefthand diagram.

Remark 5.1.7. In Example 5.1.6, we did not really need to assume that the function h was injective. If h were not injective, then the morphism of queries C(h) would result in some duplication of columns rather than a pure projection.

In Example 5.1.6 we changed the shape of the result schema and used a strict morphism of probes (the natural transformation $p \circ C(h) \to p'$ was the identity). In Example 5.1.8 we will keep the result schema fixed but allow a non-strict morphism.

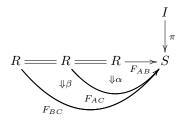
Example 5.1.8 (Indirection). Let $R = [1] = \underbrace{\bullet^0 \xrightarrow{f} \bullet^1}$ and let S be the schema

$$S := \boxed{ \begin{array}{c} A \\ \hline \text{a person} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\text{lives at}} \begin{array}{c} B \\ \hline \text{an address} \end{array} } \xrightarrow{\text{is in}} \begin{array}{c} C \\ \hline \text{a city} \end{array} }$$

There are three non-constant functors $R \to S$, which we denote F_{AB}, F_{AC} , and F_{BC} ; there is a natural transformation $\alpha \colon F_{AB} \to F_{AC}$ and a natural transformation $\beta \colon F_{AC} \to F_{BC}$. Thus we get two morphisms in $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$, namely

$$(\mathrm{id}_R, \alpha) \colon (R, F_{AB}) \to (R, F_{AC})$$
 and $(\mathrm{id}_R, \beta) \colon (R, F_{AC}) \to (R, F_{BC}).$

Suppose $\pi: I \to S$ is an instance. We can draw the setup as



We can take global sections $\Gamma(-,\pi)$ for each of these three probes and obtain maps between the result sets by Theorem 5.1.1:

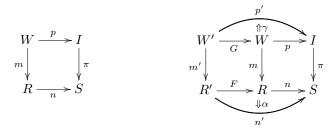
$$\Gamma(F_{AB}, \pi) \xrightarrow{\alpha} \Gamma(F_{AC}, \pi) \xrightarrow{\beta} \Gamma(F_{BC}, \pi).$$

In other words, the morphism of queries induces a morphism of result sets. Simply, given some person and her address we can return a person and the city she lives in; given some person and his city we can return an address and the city it is in.

5.2. The category of queries. We are now ready to generalize the category $\mathbf{Prb}(S)$ of where-less queries on S to a category of all (lifting) queries on S.

Definition 5.2.1. Let $\pi: I \to S$ denote a relational fibration. We define the category of (lifting) queries on π , denoted $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ as follows. The objects of $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$

are commutative diagrams as to the left

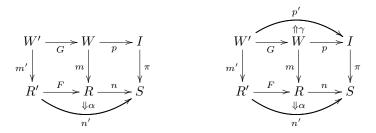


and the morphisms $(F,G,\alpha,\gamma)\colon (R,W,n,p)\to (R',W',n',p')$ are diagrams as to the right, where

$$\pi\circ\gamma=\alpha\circ m',\ \ \text{so, in particular},$$

$$\pi\circ p\circ G=n\circ F\circ m'\qquad\text{and}\qquad \pi\circ p'=n'\circ m'.$$

Proposition 5.2.2. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration, and suppose given the diagram to the left:

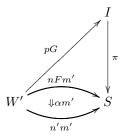


Then there exists a unique morphism of queries

$$(F, G, \alpha, \gamma) \colon (R, W, n, p) \to (R', W', n', p')$$

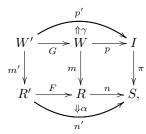
as to the right.

Proof. This is a direct application of Theorem 5.1.1. Indeed, in place of Diagram (23), we draw



The unique functor and transformation labeled ℓ_2 and β given by the theorem serve as p' and γ here.

Theorem 5.2.3. Let $\pi: I \to S$ be a relational fibration. Then $\Gamma^{-,-}(-,\pi): \mathbf{Qry}(\pi) \to \mathbf{Set}$ is functorial. That is, given a morphism of queries



there is an induced function, natural in $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$,

$$\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi) \longrightarrow \Gamma^{m',p'}(n',\pi).$$

Sketch of proof. Suppose given a lift $\ell \colon R \to I$ in $\Gamma^{m,p}(n,\pi)$. By Corollary 5.1.4 we have a map $\ell' \colon R' \to I$, with $\pi \circ \ell' = n'$, and a natural transformation $\beta \colon \ell \circ F \to \ell'$, with $\pi \circ \beta = \alpha$. We need to show that $\ell' \circ m' = p'$ and $\beta \circ m' = \gamma$. But using the proof technique from Proposition 5.2.2, this follows from Theorem 5.1.1 and the definition of relational fibration.

Remark 5.2.4. Given a relational fibration $\pi: I \to S$, we sometimes denote the functor $\Gamma^{-,-}(-,\pi)$ simply by

$$\Gamma(\pi) \colon \mathbf{Qry}(\pi) \to \mathbf{Set}.$$

5.3. Data migration functors. Recall (from Definition 2.2.2) that, given a functor $F \colon S \to T$, three data migration functors are induced between the categories S-Set and T-Set. The most straightforward is denoted $\Delta_F \colon T$ -Set $\to S$ -Set. It has both a left adjoint, denoted $\Sigma_F \colon S$ -Set $\to T$ -Set, and a right adjoint, denoted $\Pi_F \colon S$ -Set $\to T$ -Set.

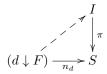
In standard database contexts, schemas evolve over time. We model these schema evolutions as zigzags of functors from one schema to another, along which one can migrate data using a data migration functor. It is useful to know how this will affect queries. Typically, users of a database $\pi\colon I\to S$ are given access to a subset of $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ —they do not see the whole database, but instead some collection of queries. As the schema evolves it is important to understand how $\mathbf{Qry}(\pi)$ evolves. In this section we describe some results; for example under a pullback query results are unchanged.

Let us begin by giving a description of Π_F in terms of where-less queries (see Section 4.1). Recall that for any object $d \in \text{Ob}(T)$ the "comma" category $(d \downarrow F)$ is defined as follows:

$$\label{eq:obdef} \begin{split} \operatorname{Ob}(d\downarrow F) &= \{(c,f) \mid c \in \operatorname{Ob}(S), f \colon d \to F(c)\} \\ \operatorname{Hom}_{(d\downarrow F)}((c,f),(c',f')) &= \{g \colon c \to c' \mid f' \circ F(g) = f\}. \end{split}$$

There is a natural functor $n_d: (d \downarrow F) \to S$, and given a morphism $h: d \to d'$ in T we have a morphism $(d' \downarrow F) \to (d \downarrow F)$, or more precisely $n_{d'} \to n_d$, in $\mathbf{Cat}_{/S}$.

Proposition 5.3.1. Let $F: S \to T$ be a functor and $\gamma: S \to \mathbf{Set}$ an instance of S with associated relational fibration $\pi: I \to S$. Given any object $d \in \mathrm{Ob}(T)$, there is an associated where-less query



and we have $\Pi_F(\gamma)(d) \cong \Gamma(n_d, \pi)$. Moreover, a morphism $d \to d'$ in T induces a strict morphism of where-less queries $n_{d'} \to n_d$; thus we have a functor $T \to \operatorname{\mathbf{Prb}}(\pi)^{\operatorname{op}}$. Then $\Pi_F(\gamma) \colon T \to \operatorname{\mathbf{Set}}$ is the composition

$$T \xrightarrow{d \mapsto n_d} \widetilde{\mathbf{Prb}}(\pi)^{\mathrm{op}} \xrightarrow{\Gamma(-,\pi)} \mathbf{Set}.$$

Proof. Let F, γ, π, d , and $n_d: (d \downarrow F) \to S$ be as in the proposition statement. By Proposition 4.1.6, we have $\Gamma(n_d, \pi) \cong \lim_R (\gamma \circ n_d)$. This is exactly the formula for $\Pi_F(\gamma)(d)$ by [Mac, Theorem X.3.1], since Π_F is a right Kan extension. The statement for morphisms follows similarly.

While Proposition 5.3.1 provides an interesting relationship between right pushforwards and queries, it does not allow us to relate queries on a database with queries on its right pushforward. In the following paragraphs, we will show briefly that graph pattern queries do transform nicely with respect to data migration functors Σ_F and Δ_F .

We begin by discussing the left pushforward functor. Given a functor $F: S \to T$, we have a migration functor $\Sigma_F: S\text{-}\mathbf{Set} \to T\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$. If $\delta \in S\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$ and $\epsilon \in T\text{-}\mathbf{Set}$ are instances, then there is a bijection between the set of natural transformations $\Sigma_F \delta \to \epsilon$ and the set of commutative diagrams

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\int(\delta) & \longrightarrow & \int(\epsilon) \\
\pi_{\delta} \downarrow & & & \downarrow \pi_{\epsilon} \\
S & \longrightarrow & T.
\end{array}$$

Given a query on π_{δ} , we clearly obtain an induced query on π_{ϵ} , and a solution to the former yields a solution to the latter:

$$W \xrightarrow{p} \int (\delta) \longrightarrow \int (\epsilon)$$

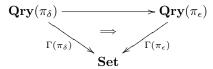
$$\downarrow \pi_{\delta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow \pi_{\epsilon}$$

$$R \xrightarrow{n} S \xrightarrow{E} T.$$

We state this precisely in the following proposition.

Proposition 5.3.2. Let $F: S \to T$ be a functor, $\delta \in S$ -Set and $\epsilon \in T$ -Set instances, and $\Sigma_F \delta \to \epsilon$ a map of T-sets. There exists an induced functor of query

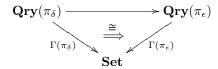
categories and a natural transformation diagram:



Proof. The proof follows from the discussion above.

We now consider the case that $\delta \cong \Delta_F \epsilon$.

Proposition 5.3.3. Let $F: S \to T$ be a functor, let $\epsilon: T \to \mathbf{Set}$ be a functor, let $\delta = \Delta_F \epsilon: S \to \mathbf{Set}$ be its pullback, and let π_δ and π_ϵ be as in Diagram (28) below. Then the results of any query on π_δ are the same as the results of the induced query on π_ϵ . That is, we have a natural isomorphism diagram



Proof. Consider the diagram

(28)
$$\int (\delta) \longrightarrow \int (\epsilon)$$

$$\downarrow^{\pi_{\delta}} \qquad \qquad \downarrow^{\pi_{\epsilon}}$$

$$S \longrightarrow_{F} T,$$

which is a pullback by Proposition 2.3.5. Given a query on π_{δ} , we obtain a query on π_{ϵ} as in Proposition 5.3.2, but now the function from solutions for π_{δ} to solutions for π_{ϵ} is a bijection by the universal property of pullbacks:

$$W \xrightarrow{p} \int (\delta) \longrightarrow \int (\epsilon)$$

$$\downarrow m \qquad \qquad \downarrow \pi_{\delta} \qquad \qquad \downarrow \pi_{\epsilon}$$

$$R \xrightarrow{r} S \xrightarrow{p} T.$$

6. Future work

This paper has set up an analogy between database queries and constraints on the one hand, and a now classical approach to algebraic topology—the lifting problem—on the other. Data on a schema is analogous to a covering space or fibration: the local quality of this fibration is determined by constraints, and the locating of sections that satisfy a set of properties is the posing of a query.

There are a few interesting directions for future research. The first is to make a connection to the relatively new field of homotopy type theory (HoTT) (see [Awo],[Voe]). The idea is that instead of two paths through a database schema being equal, one could declare them merely equivalent; if paths are declared equivalent in more than one way, these equivalences may also be declared as equivalent (or not). In this context, two observations on data may not be definitionally equal,

but provably equal, and we consider the proofs and the differences between proofs as part of the data. To make this connection, the schema of a database should be a quasi-category ([Jo2],[Lur]) \mathcal{X} rather than an ordinary category. Each higher simplex encodes a proof that different paths (or paths of paths, etc.) through the schema are equivalent. We might replace the instance data by a functor (map of quasi-categories) $\mathcal{X} \to \mathbf{Type}$, where \mathbf{Type} is the quasi-category of homotopy types. In this context, classical homotopical questions, e.g. from the theory of model categories ([Hir]) may be even more applicable.

Another direction for future research is to use topological tools to investigate or "mine" data. For example, given a functor $\delta\colon S\to \mathbf{Set}$, we can compose with the functor $i\colon \mathbf{Set}\to \mathbf{Top}$ which sends each set to the corresponding discrete topological space. The homotopy colimit of $i\circ \delta$ is a topological space, of possibly any dimension and homotopy type, that encodes the connection pattern of the data. This space is homotopy equivalent to the nerve of the data bundle,

$$hocolim(i \circ \delta) \simeq N(\int \delta)$$

(see [Dug]). Thus we could report homotopy invariants of the data δ , such as connected components, loops, etc. The question is whether these invariants would be meaningful and useful. For schemas of classical mathematical interest, such as the simplicial indexing category $S = \Delta^{\text{op}}$, the homotopy colimit of $i \circ \delta$ is exactly what we want; it is the geometric realization of δ . It remains to be seen whether such homotopy invariants may be useful in other contexts; e.g. there may be some connection to the analysis given by persistent homology (see [Ghr], [Car]).

A third and fairly straightforward project would be to adapt Garner's small object argument (see [Gar]) to our notion of constraints. Garner's argument works, and provides nice universal properties, in the case of what we have called "universal constraint sets" (see Section 3.2). The question is, if we apply his techniques to local constraints, such as those in Example 3.3.6 used to declare that one table is the product of two others, does his procedure still result in a relational fibration with all the nice universal properties enjoyed in the universal case? We conjecture that it will. One should also check whether the results obtained from that procedure agree with those from the so-called universal chase procedure (see [DNR]). Indeed, they should provide equivalent results, since both claim to be universal in the same way.

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