Database Theory

Relational Query Languages



The Relational Model

Setup

The relational database model is essentially first-order structures + names for attributes.

This extra information on attributes can be useful when describing queries.

Sometimes it is unnecessary and we just work on plain first-order structures.

Reminder First-order structures:

Relations R_1, R_2, \ldots, R_n that each have an arity $\#R_i$.

Assigned meaning through an interpretation I over a domain Dom: $I(R_i) \subseteq Dom_n^{\#R_i}$

Schemas

Let **Rel** and **Att** be (countably infinite) vocabularies of relation names and attribute names.

A database schema \mathcal{S} is a partial function $\mathcal{S}: \mathsf{Rel} \to 2^\mathsf{Att}$ such that $\mathsf{Dom}(\mathcal{S})$ is finite and every image under \mathcal{S} is finite.

The arity of $R \in Dom(\mathcal{S})$ is defined as $|\mathcal{S}(R)|$.

Example:

In a database we have a table Student with columns for id, name and birthdate.

Formally, there is a relation name $Student \in Rel$ and we use the schema S(Student) = (id, name, brithdate) where these are names in Att.

Relation Instances

Each attribute $A \in \mathsf{Att}$ has a domain Dom(A).

A tuple for relation name R (under schema \mathcal{S}) is an element of

$$Dom(A_1) \times Dom(A_2) \times \cdots \times Dom(A_n)$$

where $\mathcal{S}(R) = (A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$.

A relation (instance) for R (under \mathcal{S}) is a finite set of tuples for R

A database is a finite set of relations under some schema \mathcal{S} .

Continuing our example:

```
Dom(id) = \mathbb{N}, Dom(name) = \text{all strings} (\Sigma^* \text{ for some alphabet } \Sigma) Dom(birthdate) = \text{e.g., all strings} of certain format
```

Example tuple:

 $(1, Bob, 12-03-4567) \in Dom(id) \times Dom(name) \times Dom(birthdate)$

Some Helpful Notation

1. Relation Names vs. Relation Instances

When we have a database D we use R^D to denote the relation instance for relation name R

2. Attributes of Tuples

For a relation R^D with schema $\mathcal{S}(R) = (A_1, ..., A_k)$, we use $A_i(t)$ to denote the i-th position of tuple $t \in R^D$.

Id	Name	DoB
13	Student A	14.06.19
22	Student B	23.06.19
• • •	• • •	• •



Relational Query Languages

Formal Query Languages

As in any discussion of formal languages, query languages always have two core parts.

Syntax

How do terms of the language look like. Can be analogous to logic or more operational.

Semantics

How are expressions of the languages evaluated. The formal definition of what answers we want from the data.

```
SELECT MIN(s_acctbal), MAX(s_acctbal)
 FROM part, partsupp, supplier,
       nation, region
 WHERE p_partkey = ps_partkey
   AND s_suppkey = ps_suppkey
   AND n_nationkey = s_nationkey
   AND r_regionkey = n_regionkey
                                                    \exists y \ x \xrightarrow{a^*b} y \land x \xrightarrow{(a+b)^*c} y
   AND p_price >
         (SELECT avg (p_price) FROM part)
   AND r_name IN ('Europe', 'Asia')
 \pi_{\{\text{pid,pname}\}}(\text{Person}) - \pi_{\{\text{pid,pname}\}}(\text{Person} \bowtie \text{City})
                                            SELECT ?capital
                                                       ?country
                                            WHERE
(\forall x)(\exists yz)(y \neq z \land E(x,y) \land E(x,z) \land
                                                  ?x ex:cityname
                                                                                     ?capital
                                                         ex:isCapitalOf
                                                                                     ?y
     (\forall w)(E(x, w) \rightarrow (w = y \lor w = z)))
                                                  ?y ex:countryname
                                                                                     ?country
                                                         ex:isInContinent
                                                                                     ex:Africa
          \exists z \mathsf{Drive}(z, x, y) \leftarrow (\Leftrightarrow_{[0,\infty]} \mathsf{Depart}(x, y)) \ \mathcal{U}_{[0,\infty)} \mathsf{Arrive}(x, y),
                Working(z) \leftarrow \text{Drive}(z, x, y),
```

 $\mathsf{Dangerous}(x) \leftarrow \boxminus_{[0,8]} \mathsf{Working}(z) \land \mathsf{Drive}(z,x,y).$

Example Schema & Database

Course

Name	Sem	Lecturer
Logic	W24	L1
Complexity	S24	L2
Logic	W23	L1

Student

Id	Name	DoB	Active
13	Student A	14.06.1903	TRUE
22	Student B	23.06.1912	FALSE
• • •	• • •	• •	• • •

Enrolled

Course	Graded	Student
Logic	FALSE	13
Logic	TRUE	22
Complexity	TRUE	13

Relational Algebra

Overview

Syntax:

Relational Algebra (RA) expressions \boldsymbol{e} are formed inductively:

- every relation name ${\it R}$ is an RA expression
- If e_1, e_2 is an RA expressions, so are:

$$\sigma_{\theta}(e_1)$$
 $\pi_{\alpha}(e_1)$ $\rho_{A \to B}(e_1)$
 $e_1 \times e_2$ $e_1 \cup e_2$ $e_1 - e_2$

Semantics:

An expression e applied to a database D evaluates to a new relation, we write e(D).

If e is relation name R, then $e(D) = R^D$.

Semantics of other operators are defined on the following slides.

Selection

Syntax:

$$e = \sigma_{\theta}(e_1)$$
 where

- e_1 is a RA expression of sort $oldsymbol{U}$
- θ is a propositional formula over attributes in U, =, and constants.

Semantics:

$$e(D) = \{t \in e_1(D) \mid \theta(t) \text{ is true } \}$$
 with schema $\mathcal{S}(e) = \mathcal{S}(e_1)$

Selection

$$\sigma_{Sem='W24'}(Course) \longrightarrow$$

Name	Sem	Lecturer
Logic	W24	L1
Complexity	S24	L2
Logic	W23	L1

Projection

Syntax:

$$e=\pi_{\alpha}(e_1)$$
 where

- e_1 is a RA expression of sort $oldsymbol{U}$
- lpha is sequence of attributes in U

Semantics:

$$e(D) =$$

$$\{(\alpha_1(t),\alpha_2(t),...,\alpha_{|\alpha|}) \mid t \in e_1(D)\}$$
 with schema $\mathcal{S}(e) = \alpha$

Projection

 $\pi_{Active,ID}(Student) \longrightarrow$

Active	Id
TRUE	13
FALSE	22
• • •	•••



Syntax:

 $e = \rho_{A \to B}(e_1)$ where

- e_1 is a RA expression of sort $oldsymbol{U}$
- $-A \in U$, and $B \in \mathrm{Att} \backslash U$

Semantics:

$$e(D) = e_1(D)$$

with schema $\mathcal{S}(e) = \mathcal{S}(e_1)[A/B]$





 $\rho_{Course \to CID,Student \to SID}(Enrolled) \longrightarrow$

CID	Graded	SID
Logic	FALSE	13
Logic	TRUE	22
Complexity	TRUE	13



Syntax:

 $e = e_1 \times e_2$ where

- e_1, e_2 are RA expressions with schema (A_1, \ldots, A_n) and (B_1, \ldots, B_m) , respectively.

Semantics:

$$e_1(D) = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n, b_1, \dots, b_m)$$

$$| (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in R, (b_1, \dots, b_m) \in S\}$$
 with schema $\mathcal{S}(e) = (A_1, \dots, A_n, B_1, \dots, B_n)$



 $Enrolled \times \pi_{ID,Name}(Student) \longrightarrow$

Course	Graded	Student	ID	Name
Logic	FALSE	13	13	Student A
Logic	FALSE	13	22	Student B
Logic	TRUE	22	13	Student A
Logic	TRUE	22	22	Student B
Complexity	TRUE	13	13	Student A
Complexity	TRUE	13	22	Student B
• • •	• • •	•••	•••	•••

Difference

Syntax:

 $e=e_1-e_2$ where $-e_1,e_2$ are RA expressions of sort U

Semantics:

$$e(D) = e_1(D) \backslash e_2(D)$$



Syntax:

 $e = e_1 \cup e_2 \text{ where}$ $-e_1, e_2 \text{ are RA expressions of sort } U$

Semantics:

$$e(D) = e_1(D) \cup e_2(D)$$



Very common in database queries.

Can be expressed via other operators:

$$e_1 \bowtie e_2 := \sigma_{A=A'}(e_1 \times \rho_{A\to A'}(e_2))$$

Where A is the only shared attribute between e_1, e_2 . (generalisation to more shared attributes is straightforward)

Example Query

List lectures together with the students that attend them in WS24:

Keep only the two attributes that we want

The natural database theory question: Do we need all of these operators?

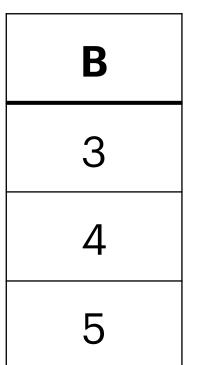
Yes _ but how do we show this?

(Except for ⋈ of course)

Example: Renaming

Relation R

1 2 3 Relation S



Consider the expression

$$R \cup \rho_{B \to A}(S)$$

Α	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

We can show that ρ is necessary by showing that in RA without renaming there is no expression that gives the same output on these inputs!

Relational Domain Calculus

= First-Order Queries

Queries from Logic

Let φ be a formula with free variables $x_1, \ldots, x_{k'}$ then

$$\{(x_1, x_2, ..., x_k) \in \mathsf{Dom}^k \mid D \models \varphi(x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)\}$$

is a k-ary query. It returns a set of k-tuples that represent "solutions" for φ on database D.

Logics can be seen as query languages!

Relational Domain Calculus

The query language induced by first-order logic is called relational (domain) calculus.

Quick reminder — satisfaction of first-order sentences:

$$\begin{split} I \models R(t_1, \dots, t_n) &\iff R(t_1, \dots, t_n) \in I \\ I \models t_1 = t_2 &\iff t_1 \text{ and } t_2 \text{ are the same object.} \\ I \models \neg \phi &\iff I \not\models \phi \\ I \models \phi_1 \land \phi_2 &\iff I \models \phi_1 \text{ and } \phi_2 \\ I \models \exists x \, . \, \phi &\iff I \models \phi[x/c] \text{ for some } c \in Dom \end{split}$$

with
$$\forall x. \phi := \neg \exists x. \neg \phi$$
 and $\phi_1 \lor \phi_2 := \neg (\neg \phi_1 \land \neg \phi_2)$

Example Query

Recall our example query:

list lectures together with the students that attend them in WS24.

```
\{(c, sname) \mid \exists sem, grade, sid, l, dob, active .
Enrolled(c, grade, sid) \land Course(c, sem, z) \land
sem = WS24 \land Student(sid, sname, dob, active)\}
```

Course

Name	Sem	Lecturer
Logic	W24	L1
Complexity	S24	L2
Logic	W23	L1

Id	Name	DoB	Active
13	Student A	14.06.1903	TRUE
22	Student B	23.06.1912	FALSE
•••	• • •	••	•••

Enrolled

Course	Graded	Student
Logic	FALSE	13
Logic	TRUE	22
Complexity	TRUE	13

$$\{(c, sname) \mid \exists sem, grade, sid, l, dob, active .$$

$$Enrolled(c, grade, sid) \land Course(c, sem, z) \land$$

$$sem = WS24 \land Student(sid, sname, dob, active)\}$$

(Logic, Student A) is an answer to the query:

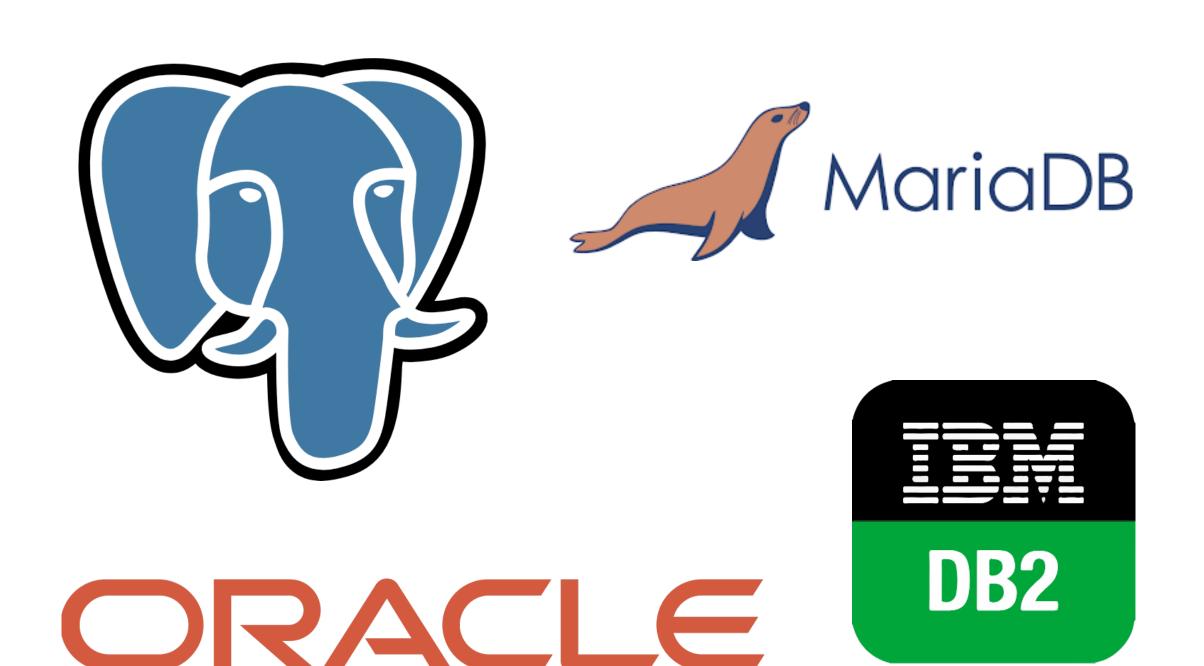
$$sem \mapsto W24, \quad sid \mapsto 13, \quad dob \mapsto 14.06.1903$$
 $grade \mapsto \mathsf{TRUE}, \quad l \mapsto L1, \quad active \mapsto \mathsf{TRUE}$

SQL

SQL Overview

The standard language for relational database systems.

Originally developed in the 1970s inspired by the relational model and especially relational algebra.









SQL Query Syntax...

We are not going to formally define SQL.

- Syntax changes between implementations.
- Contains constructs that specify details of the actual execution of the query, e.g.,

WITH ... AS MATERIALIZED

which makes it challenging to specify formal semantics.

```
[ WITH [ RECURSIVE ] with_query [, ...] ]
SELECT [ ALL | DISTINCT [ ON ( expression [, ...] ) ] ]
    [ { * | expression [ [ AS ] output_name ] } [, ...] ]
    [ FROM from_item [, ...] ]
    [ WHERE condition ]
    [ GROUP BY [ ALL | DISTINCT ] grouping_element [, ...] ]
    [ HAVING condition ]
    [ WINDOW window_name AS ( window_definition ) [, ...] ]
    [ { UNION | INTERSECT | EXCEPT } [ ALL | DISTINCT ] select ]
    [ ORDER BY expression [ ASC | DESC | USING operator ] [ NULLS { FIRST | LAST } ] [, ...] ]
    [ LIMIT { count | ALL } ]
    [ OFFSET start [ ROW | ROWS ] ]
    [ FETCH { FIRST | NEXT } [ count ] { ROW | ROWS } { ONLY | WITH TIES } ]
    [ FOR { UPDATE | NO KEY UPDATE | SHARE | KEY SHARE } [ OF from_reference [, ...] ] [ NOWAIT | SKIP LOCKED ] [.
where from_item can be one of:
    [ ONLY ] table_name [ * ] [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
                [ TABLESAMPLE sampling_method ( argument [, ...] ) [ REPEATABLE ( seed ) ] ]
    [ LATERAL ] ( select ) [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
    with_query_name [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
    [ LATERAL ] function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] )
                [ WITH ORDINALITY ] [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
    [ LATERAL ] function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] ) [ AS ] alias ( column_definition [, ...] )
    [ LATERAL ] function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] ) AS ( column_definition [, ...] )
    [ LATERAL ] ROWS FROM( function_name ( [ argument [, ...] ] ) [ AS ( column_definition [, ...] ) ] [, ...] )
                [ WITH ORDINALITY ] [ [ AS ] alias [ ( column_alias [, ...] ) ] ]
    from_item join_type from_item { ON join_condition | USING ( join_column [, ...] ) [ AS join_using_alias ] }
    from_item NATURAL join_type from_item
    from_item CROSS JOIN from_item
and grouping_element can be one of:
    ( )
    expression
    ( expression [, ...] )
    ROLLUP ( { expression | ( expression [, ...] ) } [, ...] )
    CUBE ( { expression | ( expression [, ...] ) } [, ...] )
    GROUPING SETS ( grouping_element [, ...] )
and with_query is:
    with_query_name [ ( column_name [, ...] ) ] AS [ [ NOT ] MATERIALIZED ] ( select | values | insert | update |
        [ SEARCH { BREADTH | DEPTH } FIRST BY column_name [, ...] SET search_seq_col_name ]
        [ CYCLE column_name [, ...] SET cycle_mark_col_name [ TO cycle_mark_value DEFAULT cycle_mark_default ] USI
TABLE [ ONLY ] table_name [ * ]
```

```
Q_1, Q_2 := SELECT < select_list > FROM < from_list > WHERE < condition >
```

- Q_1 UNION Q_2
- Q_1 EXCEPT Q_2

 $Q_1, Q_2 := SELECT < select_list > FROM < from_list > WHERE < condition >$

Constants or attributes of relation names from the <from_list>

 Q_1 UNION Q_2

 Q_1 EXCEPT Q_2

 $Q_1, Q_2 := SELECT < select_list > FROM < from_list > Here < condition > WHERE < condition >$

 Q_1 UNION Q_2

 Q_1 EXCEPT Q_2

List of relation names and (core SQL) subqueries. Can be aliased (renamed) to use relation repeatedly.

$$Q_1, Q_2 := SELECT < select_list > FROM < from_list > WHERE < condition >$$

 Q_1 UNION Q_2

 Q_1 EXCEPT Q_2

An expression consisting of:

- Equalities between attributes, e.g., R.a = S.a.
- Equalities between attributes and constants, e.g., R.a = 7
- Combinations of expressions using AND, OR, and NOT.

Core SQL Queries

Theorem

For every Core SQL query q, there exists an RA query q' such that q(D)=q'(D) for every database D, and vice versa.

For details, see Arenas, et al. "Database Theory.", Section 5.

Informally, this means that we can focus our theoretical analysis only on one of these languages!

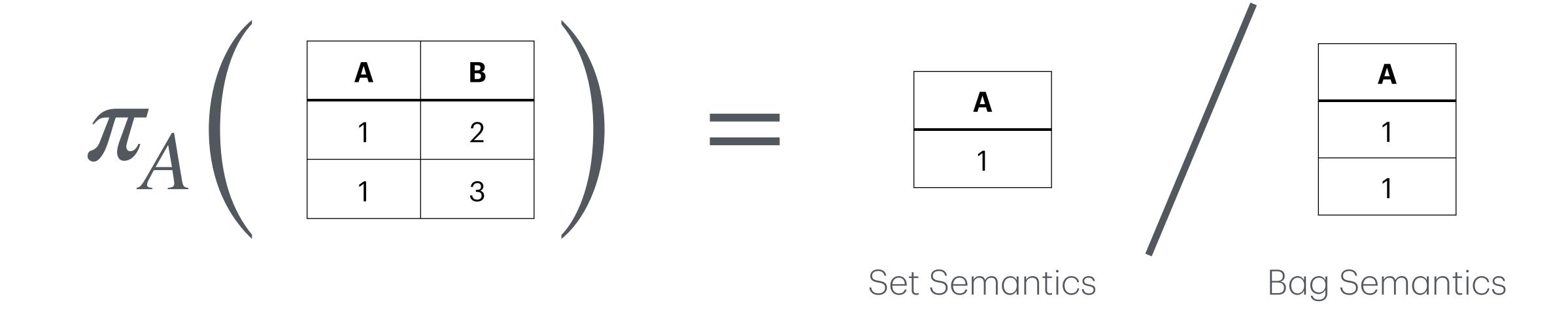
SQL — Example

List lectures together with the students that attend them in WS24:

Warning: Bag vs. Set Semantics

Set Semantics: Answers to queries are *sets* of tuples. That is, there is no repetition in answers and operations ignore repeating tuples.

Bag Semantics: Answers to queries are bags (or multisets) of tuples. Repetition matters!



Warning: Bag vs. Set Semantics

Set Semantics: Answers to queries are *sets* of tuples. That is, there is no repetition in answers and operations ignore repeating tuples.

Bag Semantics: Answers to queries are bags (or multisets) of tuples. Repetition matters!

Our definition of relational algebra and relational calculus uses set semantics. In the statement on the previous slide we assume set semantics for core SQL queries. However, SQL in practical systems usually uses bag semantics.

Not a problem, it is also straightforward to define relational algebra with bag semantics. But it is important to always keep in mind which type of semantics we are talking about.

SQL is More than SELECT

Data Description

CREATE: To create new tables, databases, views, or indexes.

ALTER: To modify existing database objects (e.g., add columns to a table).

Data Manipulation

GRANT: To provide specific privileges (e.g., SELECT, INSERT) to users or roles.

REVOKE: To remove previously granted privileges.

Data Control

INSERT: Adds new rows (records) to a table.

UPDATE: Modifies existing rows in a table based on certain conditions.

DELETE: Removes rows from a table based on specified conditions.

Which is Best?

How can we compare query languages?

Two Proposals

For two query languages ${\mathscr L}$ and ${\mathscr M}$:

Are there more efficient algorithms to answer queries in language $\mathcal L$ than for queries in $\mathcal M$?

Complexity
later lectures

Are there queries in language $\mathscr L$ that I cannot equivalently write in language $\mathscr M$?



Expressivity of Query Languages

We say that $\mathscr L$ can be **expressed by** $\mathscr M$ if for every query $\phi \in \mathscr L$, there is a query $\psi \in \mathscr M$ such that $\phi(D) = \psi(D)$ on every database D

Easy example — Core SQL can be expressed by RA

SELECT $A_1, ..., A_\ell$ FROM $T_1, ..., T_k$ WHERE C



$$\pi_{A_1,\ldots,A_\ell}$$
 σ_C $(T_1 \times \cdots \times T_k)$

Expressivity of Query Languages

We say that $\mathscr L$ can be expressed by $\mathscr M$ if for every query $\phi \in \mathscr L$, there is a query $\psi \in \mathscr M$ such that $\phi(D) = \psi(D)$ on every database D

We say that $\mathscr L$ and $\mathscr M$ have the same expressive power if $\mathscr L$ can be expressed by $\mathscr M$ and vice versa. Intuitively, you can write the exact same queries in both languages.

Codd's Theorem

Theorem (Codd 1972, informal)

Relational algebra, relational domain calculus, and Core SQL Queries have the same expressive power.

Technical caveat: relational calculus queries have to be "safe"

Overview of Proof Idea

Explore the details in a theory exercise!

RC where every variable tied to some relation.

Relational Algebra

Range-restricted

Calculus

(Domain-Indep.)
Relational Calculus

Active Domain Relational Calculus

RC where quantifiers range only over values in the database.

We move through multiple languages to get back to RA!

Qualitative Comparison

As a consequence of the languages being equivalent we can switch between them depending on the task.

Relational Algebra

Operational semantics are well suited for topics where we care about the steps taken to execute a query.

Well-suited for the study of query optimisation and execution.

Relational Calculus

Declarative language with cleanest semantics. Direct connection to extensive body of work on logic.

Well-suited for theoretical study of complexity and expressivity.

SQL

"User-friendly" language aimed at end-users of actual systems. Extremely wide-spread in the real world.

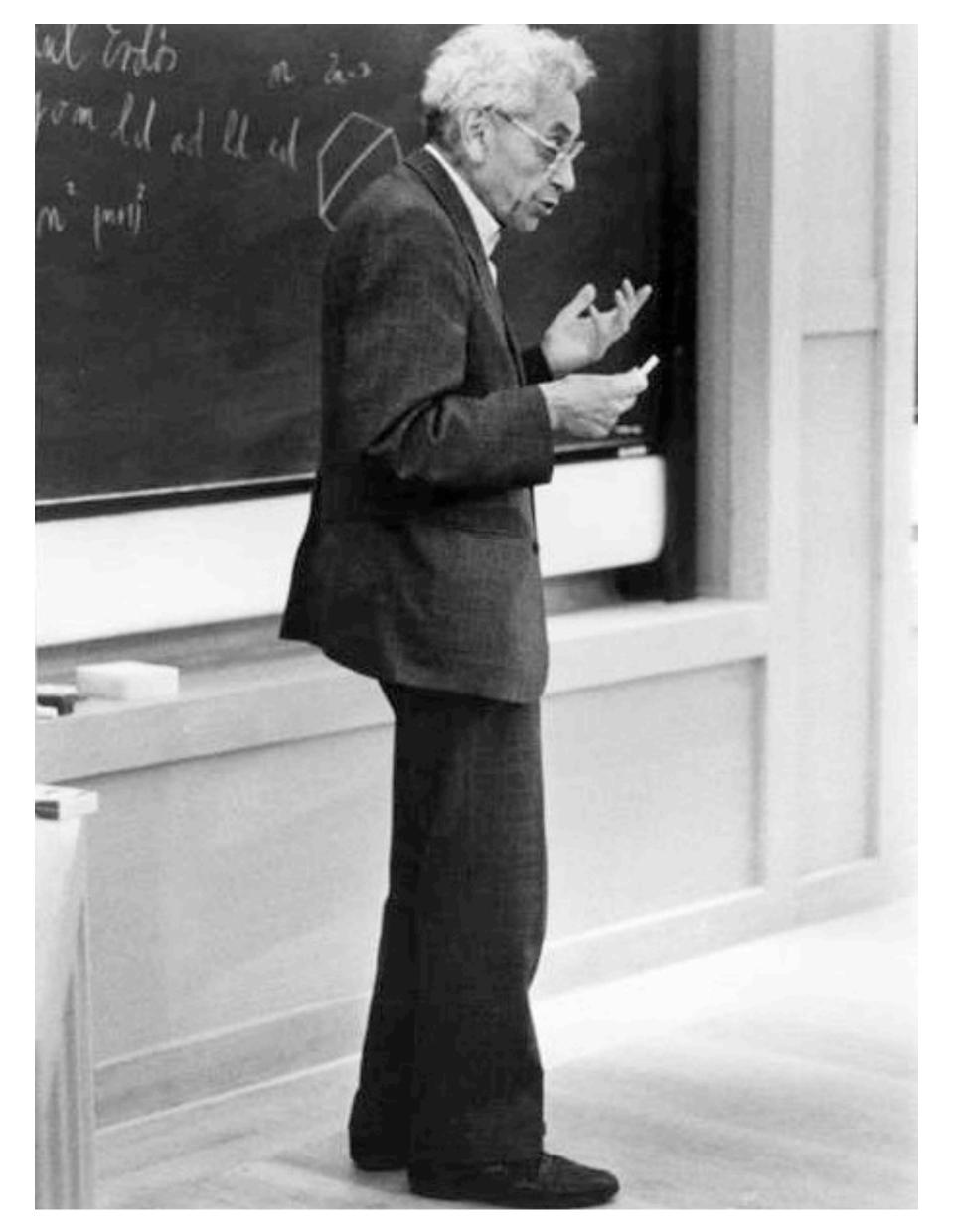
Can these languages do everything?

Limitations?

 Paul Erdős was one of the most prolific mathematicians of all time. He wrote over 1500 articles, many of them highly influential.

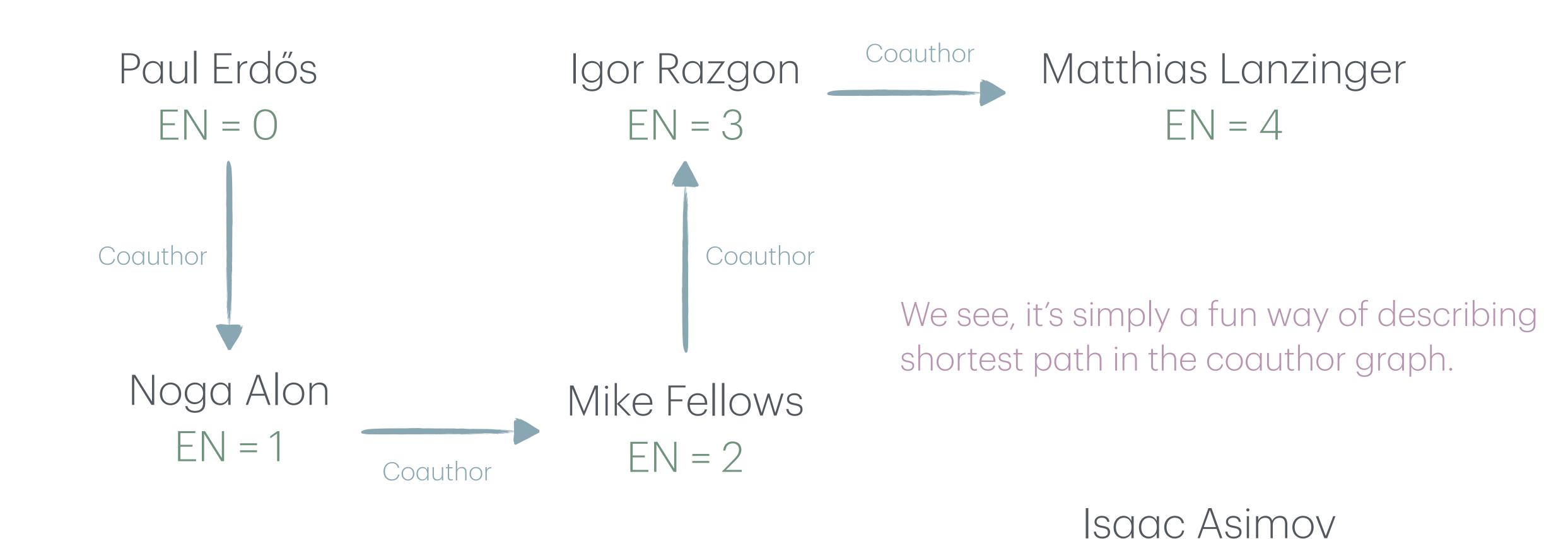
He had 509 direct collaborators!

- The Erdős Number is a way of describing the "collaboration distance" Paul Erdős.
 - Erdős has an Erdős number of O
 - The Erdős Number of author M is the minimum among the Erdős Numbers of all the coauthors of M, plus 1



https://sites.math.rutgers.edu/~sg1108/People/Math/Erdos

Example



 $EN = \infty$

Assume a database with schema:

Author(aid, name), Paper(pid, title), Wrote(aid, pid)

We can query the authors with EN ≤ 1 easily:

$$P:=\pi_{pid}\left(\sigma_{name='Paul\ Erdos'}(Author)\bowtie Write
ight)$$
 get the ids of Erdős' papers
$$Q:=\pi_{aid}(P\bowtie Author)$$
 get the authors of those papers

Can we also get the authors with EN = 1?

Assume a database with schema:

Author(aid, name), Paper(pid, title), Wrote(aid, pid)

We can query the authors with EN ≤ 1 easily:

$$P:=\pi_{pid}\left(\sigma_{name='Paul\ Erdos'}(Author)\bowtie Write
ight)$$
 get the ids of Erdős' papers
$$Q:=\pi_{aid}(P\bowtie Author)$$
 get the authors of those papers

Can we also get the authors with EN = 1?

Yes:
$$Q - \pi_{aid} \sigma_{name='Paul Erdos'}(Author)$$

Assume a database with schema:

Author(aid, name), Paper(pid, title), Wrote(aid, pid)

We can query the authors with EN \leq 2 just as easily:

$$P_0 := \pi_{pid} \left(\sigma_{name='Paul\ Erdos'}(Author) \bowtie Write
ight)$$
 get the ids of Erdős' papers
$$Q_1 := \pi_{aid}(P_0 \bowtie Author) \qquad \qquad \text{get the authors with EN at most 1}$$

$$P_1 := \pi_{pid}(Q_1 \bowtie Author) \qquad \qquad \text{get their papers}$$

$$Q_2 := \pi_{aid}(P_1 \bowtie Author) \qquad \qquad \text{and get those papers' coauthors}$$

Assume a database with schema:

Author(aid, name), Paper(pid, title), Wrote(aid, pid)

Let's be more ambitious. Can we write RA queries for the following questions:

- AIDs of authors with EN $< \infty$, i.e., those with finite EN?
- AIDs of authors with no EN?

Assume a database with schema:

Author(aid, name), Paper(pid, title), Wrote(aid, pid)

Let's be more ambitious. Can we write RA queries for the following questions:

- AIDs of authors with EN $< \infty$, i.e., those with finite EN?
- AIDs of authors with no EN?



Equal expressive power also means that all languages that we've discussed so far share the same limitations!



Looking Forward

How do we know this?

How can we prove that there cannot be a RA query for these questions?

We use Codd's Theorem in combination with results from logic, e.g., Ehrenfeucht-Fraïsse Games or the Compactness Theorem.

Solutions

Are there query languages that can answer these queries?

Yes! Datalog, a prominent example of such languages will be the topic of a future lecture.

More Bad News

Finite Satisfiability

One natural piece of information for query optimization and automated query analysis is to know whether it is impossible for part of the query to have an answer. In other words, is part of the query always empty over any database?

Formally we say, that query ϕ is finitely satisfiable if there exists a (finite) database D such that $\phi(D) \neq \emptyset$.

Remember, databases are always finite by defintion!

Finite Satisfiability — Example

$$Q(x) := \neg \exists y \, E(y, x) \land$$

$$x \text{ has no predecessor}$$

$$\forall z \, \exists w \, (E(z, w) \land \forall w' (E(z, w') \to w' = w)) \land$$

is every node has exactly 1 successor

$$\forall w \, \forall z_1 \, \forall z_2 \, ((F(z_1, w) \wedge F(z_2, w)) \rightarrow z_1 = z_2).$$

every node has at most 1 predecessor

Ideally a query optimizer would notice this and instantly answer with Ø!

Intuitively, Q asks for those nodes x that are the start of an infinite chain. It is therefore empty for every finite database.

Trakhtenbrot's Theorem

Explore the details in a theory exercise!

Theorem (Trakhtenbrot 1950)

Finite satisfiability of first-order logic is undecidable. That is, given a FO query ϕ , it is undecidable whether $\phi(D) \neq \emptyset$ for some database D.

Two important consequences for us:

- Perfect query optimisation is impossible for FO queries!
- Via Codd's Theorem this applies just as well to RA or even core SQL.

Summary

We have learned how to define relational databases as mathematical objects. This will form the basis for future mathematical arguments about their properties.

Query languages can be defined in many ways. Operational and declarative languages are both important and have their individual strengths. Interestingly, the natural languages of relational algebra and first-order logic turn out to be equivalent (and the same as the core of SQL).

Finally, we saw some first discussion about the limitations of query languages. Both in terms of model decidability and expressivity.