## The Relational Algebra and Relational Calculus

5DV119 - Introduction to Database Management
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## The Roots of SQL

- It can scarcely be said that SQL has a clean and simple design.
- Rather, SQL is based upon the blending of many ideas, and has evolved over a long period of time.
- Nevertheless, SQL has its roots in two ideal query languages.

Relational Algebra: A procedural language grounded in basic operations on relations.

- Widely used in algorithms for query optimization.

Relational Calculus: A declarative language grounded in first-order predicate logic.

- To understand better the capabilities and limitations of SQL, as well as for other reasons, it is therefore useful to study these two languages.
- They are part of almost all basic courses on database management given by faculties of science and technology at the university level.


## Overview of the Relational Algebra

- The relational algebra is a procedural query language on relations.
- Its basic operations have one of the following forms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Relation } & \longrightarrow \text { Relation } \\
\text { Relation } \times \text { Relation } & \longrightarrow \text { Relation }
\end{aligned}
$$

- It therefore provides a basic computational model of how queries in SQL may be evaluated by a DBMS.
- It is often used in the internal representation of queries for the query optimizer in real relational DBMSs.
- A basic knowledge of the relational algebra can thus be very helpful in understanding why certain query operations are very expensive (in terms of time and computational resources) relative to others.


## Overview of the Operations of the Relational Algebra

- The relational algebra is defined in terms of three kinds of operations on relations:

Operations specific to relations:
Projection: Relation $\rightarrow$ Relation: Trim some columns from a relation. Selection: Relation $\rightarrow$ Relation: Trim some rows from a relation. Join: Relation $\times$ Relation $\rightarrow$ Relation:

Combine two relations by matching values.
The three fundamental set-theoretic operations:
all Relation $\times$ Relation $\rightarrow$ Relation
Union: $X \cup Y=$ all elements in either $X$ or $Y$.
Intersection: $X \cap Y=$ all elements in both $X$ and $Y$.
Difference: $X \backslash Y$ or $X-Y=$ all elements in $X$ which are not in $Y$.
A special operation of the form Relation $\rightarrow$ Relation:
Attribute renaming: Change the names of some attributes of a relation.

## Projection

- The projection operation takes a "vertical" slice of a relation by dropping some columns while retaining others.
- The projection operator is represented by the lowercase Greek letter $\pi$, with the subscript identifying the columns to be retained.

$$
\pi_{\left\{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}\right\}}(R)
$$

- The semantics of this expression are exactly those of the following SQL query.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { SELECT DISTINCT } A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k} \\
\text { FROM } & R ;
\end{array}
$$

- This is a formal operation on sets; duplicates are not part of the model.
- Often, the set brackets are dropped in the subscript.

$$
\pi_{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}}(R)
$$

- If the attribute names are single letters, even the commas are sometimes dropped.

$$
\pi_{A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{k}}(R)
$$

## Selection

- The selection operation takes a "horizontal" slice of a relation by dropping some rows while retaining others.
- The selection operator is represented by the lowercase Greek letter $\sigma$, with the subscript containing an expression which identifies the rows to be retained.

$$
\sigma_{\varphi}(R)
$$

- The semantics of this expression are exactly those of the following SQL query.

```
SELECT DISTINCT *
FROM R
WHERE \varphi;
```

- The expression $\varphi$ is often written in a more formal, logical style than that used by SQL.
Example:

$$
\sigma_{((\mathrm{DNo}=5) \wedge(\mathrm{Salary} \geq 30000))}(R)
$$

## Combining Expressions in the Relational Algebra

- The operations in the relational algebra themselves produce relations as results.
- Therefore, they may be composed.

Example: $\pi_{A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}}\left(\sigma_{\varphi}(R)\right)$ has the same meaning as
SELECT DISTINCT $A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{k}$
FROM $\quad R$
WHERE $\varphi$;

- Typing rules must be observed, since it is the composition of two distinct operations.

Example: While

$$
\pi_{\text {LName,SSN }}\left(\sigma_{\text {Salary }} \geq 30000(\text { Employee })\right)
$$

makes perfect sense,

$$
\sigma_{\text {Salary }} \geq 30000\left(\pi_{\text {LName,SSN }}(\text { Employee })\right)
$$

does not.

## Assignment Programs in the Relational Algebra

- Instead of composing operations in functional notation, queries in the relational algebra may be expressed as a sequence of assignment statements.

Example: The functional composition

$$
\pi_{\mathrm{LName}, \mathrm{SSN}}\left(\sigma_{\text {Salary }} \geq 30000(\text { Employee })\right)
$$

may also be expressed as the program of assignments

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1} \longleftarrow \sigma_{\text {Salary } \geq 30000}(\text { Employee }) \\
& X_{2} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {LName }, \mathrm{SSN}}\left(X_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with $X_{2}$ as the final result.

- It is often easier to read and follow such sequence of assignments than to read and follow a complex functional composition.


## Join

- The join is a binary operation represented by the "bowtie" symbol $\bowtie$.
- It is basically the inner join of SQL.
- There are, however, a number of variants depending upon the subscript (or lack thereof).
- The expression

$$
R_{1} \bowtie_{\varphi} R_{2}
$$

has the semantics of the SQL expression

```
SELECT *
FROM R_1 JOIN R_2 ON (\varphi);
```

provided $\varphi$ is represented in the correct way.
Example: Employee $\bowtie_{\text {(DNo=DNumber) }}$ Department
has the meaning of

```
SELECT *
FROM Employee JOIN Department ON (DNo=DNumber);
```


## Further Join Conventions

- Multiple conditions may be shown in various ways:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Employee } \bowtie_{(\text {DNo=DNumber }) \wedge(\text { Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN })} & \text { Department } \\
\text { Employee } \bowtie_{\{(\text {DNo=DNumber }),(\text { Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN })\}} & \text { Department } \\
\text { Employee } \bowtie_{(\text {DNo=DNumber),(Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN) }} & \text { Department }
\end{aligned}
$$

- These all have the meaning of


## SELECT *

FROM Employee JOIN Department
ON ((DNo=DNumber) AND (Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN));

- Other logical connectives:

Employee $\bowtie_{(\text {DNo=DNumber }) \vee(\text { Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN)) }}$ Department
has the meaning of

```
SELECT *
```

FROM Employee JOIN Department ON ((DNo=DNumber) OR (Super_SSN=Mgr_SSN));
but is not a construction which occurs often in practice.

## Natural and Cross Joins

- The natural join is indicated by the absence of any subscripts on $\bowtie$.
() The textbook uses the symbol $*$ for natural join, although this notation is rather dated (and was used to denote inner join in early literature).
- Thus, the following two expressions are equivalent.

> Department $\bowtie$ Dept_Locations
> Department $*$ Dept_Locations
with the same meaning as

```
SELECT *
FROM Department NATURAL JOIN Dept_Locations;
```

- Note that $\bowtie_{\emptyset}$ is the cross join, with no matches. ( $\emptyset=\{ \}=$ empty set.)
- Thus, Department $\bowtie_{\emptyset}$ Dept_Locations has the meaning of

```
SELECT *
FROM Department JOIN Dept_Locations ON (TRUE);
```

- This cross join (or Cartesian product) is also denoted

Department $\times$ Dept_Locations.

## Theta Join

- Theta joins may be specified in the relational algebra in the obvious way.

Query: Find those employees who have an older dependent.

## Employee $\bowtie_{(S S N=E S S N)} \wedge($ Employee.BDate $>$ Dependent.BDate) Dependent

is equivalent to:

```
SELECT DISTINCT LName, FName, MInit, SSN
FROM Employee JOIN Dependent
    ON ((SSN=ESSN)
    AND (Employee.BDate > Dependent.BDate));
```

- which is equivalent to:

```
SELECT DISTINCT LName, FName, MInit, SSN
FROM Employee JOIN Dependent ON (SSN=ESSN)
WHERE (Employee.BDate > Dependent.BDate);
```


## Renaming

- Recall that it is sometimes necessary to have multiple copies of the same relation.

Query: Find the name of the supervisor of each employee.

```
SELECT E.LName, E.FName, E.MInit, S.LName, S.FName, S.MInit
FROM Employee AS E JOIN Employee AS S
    ON (E.Super_SSN=S.SSN);
```

- In the relational algebra, there is a rename operation for this.
- There are two main formats:
- $\rho_{R^{\prime}}(R)$ returns a copy of $R$ named $R^{\prime}$, with the same attribute names.
- $\rho_{R^{\prime}\left(A_{1}^{\prime}, A_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, A_{k}^{\prime}\right)}(R)$ returns a copy of $R$ named $R^{\prime}$, with the the attributes renamed to $A_{1}^{\prime}, A_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, A_{k}^{\prime}$.
- Name qualifiers are used as in SQL.
- However, the original relation does not require a qualifier.


## Renaming Examples

Query: Find the name of the supervisor of each employee.

- The above query as a sequence of steps in the relational algebra, with $X_{3}$ the answer, using each of the renaming conventions:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X_{1} \longleftarrow \rho_{\mathrm{E}}(\text { Employee }) \\
& X_{2} \longleftarrow \rho_{\mathrm{S}}(\text { Employee }) \\
& X_{3} \longleftarrow X_{1} \bowtie_{(\text {E.Super_SSN=S.SSN })} X_{2} \\
& X_{4} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {E.LName,E.FName,E.MInit,S.LName,S.FName,S.MInit }}\left(X_{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$X_{1} \longleftarrow \rho_{\mathrm{S}\left(\mathrm{FName}^{\prime}, \text { MInit }^{\prime} . \text { LName }^{\prime}, \text { SSN }^{\prime}, \text { BDate }^{\prime}, \text { Address }^{\prime}, \text { Sex }^{\prime}, \text { Salary }^{\prime}, \text { Super_SSN }^{\prime}, \mathrm{DNo}^{\prime}\right)}($ Employee $)$ $X_{2} \longleftarrow$ Employee $\bowtie_{(\text {Super_SSN=SSN }}{ }^{\prime} X_{1}$
$X_{3} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {LName, }}$ FName,MInit,LName ${ }^{\prime}$, FName $^{\prime}$,MInit ${ }^{\prime}(X 2)$

## Another Renaming Example

Query: Find the Name and SSN of those employees who work on exactly one project.

- The above query as a sequence of steps in the relational algebra, with $X_{7}$ the answer:
$X_{1} \longleftarrow \rho_{\mathrm{w}}($ Works_On $)$
$X_{2} \longleftarrow$ Works_On $\bowtie_{(\text {PNo } \neq W . P N O) \wedge(E S S N=W . E S S N) ~} X_{1}$
$X_{3} \leftarrow \rho_{X_{2}(S S N)}\left(\pi_{\text {ESSN }}\left(X_{2}\right)\right)$
$X_{4} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {SSN }}($ Employee $) \backslash \rho_{X_{b}(S S N)}\left(\pi_{\text {ESSN }}(\right.$ Works_On) $)$
$X_{5} \longleftarrow \pi$ ssN $($ Employee $) \backslash\left(X_{3} \cup X_{4}\right)$
$X_{6} \longleftarrow X_{5} \bowtie$ Employee
$X_{7} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {LName, }}$ FName, Mnit, SSN $\left(X_{6}\right)$
-- Copy of Works_On
-- Employees who work on $>1$ projects
-- Employees who work on $<1$ projects
-- Employees who work on $=1$ project
-- Add the names


## Set Operations

- The following set operations are considered part of the relational algebra:

Union: $X \cup Y=$ all elements in either $X$ or $Y$.
Intersection: $X \cap Y=$ all elements in both $X$ and $Y$.
Difference: $X \backslash Y$ or $X-Y=$ all elements in $X$ which are not in $Y$.

- They may only be applied when the elements in each set are of the same type.
- If they are tuples, they have the same number of columns.
- The attributes for matching columns must be of the same type.


## Recall Division in SQL

- The division operation has already been seen in the following SQL example:

Query: Find all employees who work on every project which Alicia Zeyala (999887777) also works on. Exclude Alicia herself.

Recall the strategy: Find all employees $E$ for which there is no project $P$ which Alicia works on but E does not work on.

```
SELECT DISTINCT LName, FName, MInit, SSN
FROM Employee JOIN Works_On ON (SSN=ESSN)
WHERE NOT EXISTS (SELECT PNo
            FROM Works_On
            WHERE (ESSN='999887777')
                        EXCEPT (SELECT PNo
                                    FROM Works_On
                                    WHERE (SSN=ESSN)))
    AND (SSN <>'999887777');
```

- This operation may be formalized within the relational algebra.


## Formalization of Division via Example

- Consider the schema as shown to the right.
Works_On

| ESSN | PNo |
| :--- | :--- |

Query: Find the SSNs of those employees in Works_On who work on every project in PList.

- Here is an assignment program in the relational algebra which provides a solution:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
X_{1} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {ESSN }}(\text { Works_On }) & \text {-- Workers: employees who work on some project } \\
X_{2} \longleftarrow X_{1} \times \text { PList } & \text {-- Every worker works on every project in PList } \\
X_{3} \longleftarrow X_{2} \backslash \text { Works_On } & \text {-- The "Does_Not_Work_On" relation } \\
X_{4} \longleftarrow \pi_{\text {ESSN }}\left(X_{3}\right) & \text {-- Workers who do not work on some project in PList } \\
X_{5} \longleftarrow X_{1} \backslash X_{4} & \text {-- Employees who work on every project in PList }
\end{array}
$$

- As a single expression:

$$
\pi_{\mathrm{ESSN}}(\text { Works_On }) \backslash\left(\pi_{\mathrm{ESSN}}\left(\pi_{\mathrm{ESSN}}(\text { Works_On }) \times \text { PList }\right) \backslash \text { Works_On }\right)
$$

## Formalization of Division



Query: Find the $A$ 's in $R$ which are associated with every $B$ in $S$.

- Here is an assignment program in the relational algebra which provides a solution:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} \longleftarrow \pi_{A}(R) & -- \text { all } A^{\prime} \mathrm{s} \\
X_{2} \longleftarrow X_{1} \bowtie S & --A \times B \\
X_{3} \longleftarrow X_{2} \backslash R & --(A \times B) \backslash R \\
X_{4} \longleftarrow \pi_{A}\left(X_{3}\right) & --A^{\prime} \text { s not associated with some } B \\
X_{5} \longleftarrow X_{1} \backslash X_{4} & --A^{\prime} \mathrm{s} \text { associated with every } B
\end{array}
$$

- As a single expression:

$$
\pi_{A}(R) \backslash\left(\pi_{A}\left(\pi_{A}(R) \bowtie S\right) \backslash R\right)
$$

- This division is written $R \div S$.
- This extends easily to $R[\mathbf{A}], S[\mathbf{B}]$, with sets $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}$ of attributes satisfying $\mathbf{B} \subseteq \mathbf{A}$.


## Additional Operations of the Relational Algebra

- Many additional operations may be added to the relational algebra to make it as powerful as SQL, including:
- Aggregation and grouping operators
- Outer join
- Recursive closure operations
- These are relatively straightforward to define, but will not be pursued further in this course.


## Declarative Query Languages

Procedural: A query language is procedural if it indicates explicitly how to compute its result.

- The relational algebra is a procedural query language.

Declarative: A query language is declarative if it indicates what to compute without requiring any indication of how.

- A great advantage of the relational model of data is that it admits a fully declarative query language.
- This means that the query language may be decoupled completely from the procedural model of computation.
- This is particularly important for the support of non-technical users.
- For other data models, including object-oriented models, such a decoupling is difficult, if possible at all.
- The declarative query language for the relational model is called the relational calculus, and will be examined briefly.


## Propositional Logic

- The relational calculus is based upon first-order mathematical logic, which in turn is based upon propositional logic.
- Familiarity with propositional logic is assumed, including:

Connectives: $\vee, \wedge, \neg, \Rightarrow$.

- $(A \Rightarrow B)$ is defined to mean $((\neg A) \vee B)$.

Well-formed formulas (WFFs): $(A \wedge((\neg B) \vee C) \Rightarrow(D \vee E))$
DeMorgan's Laws: $\quad(\neg(A \wedge B))=((\neg A) \vee(\neg B))$

$$
(\neg(A \vee B))=((\neg A) \wedge(\neg B))
$$

## The Tuple Relational Calculus

- The specific relational calculus presented here is called the tuple relational calculus.

Tuple variables: The tuple relational calculus works with tuple variables.

- Each tuple variable has a type which is one of the relations in the schema.
- $R(t)$ declares tuple $t$ to be of type $R$.

Example: Employee(e).

- The value for a specific attribute is retrieved using standard notation.
- t.A retrieves the $A$-value of tuple variable $t$.

Example: e.Salary.

- Call an expression such as $t . A$ a tuple-field variable.
- For those familiar with first-order predicate logic, each t.A corresponds (roughly) to a variable.


## The Tuple Relational Calculus - 2

Quantifiers: Quantifiers are used in expressions in the calculus.
$\forall$ : For all.
$\exists$ : There exists.

- Queries are of the form

$$
\left\{t_{1} \cdot A_{1}, t_{2} \cdot A_{2}, \ldots, t_{k} \cdot A_{k} \mid \varphi\right\}
$$

in which:

- Each $t_{i} . A_{i}$ is a tuple-field variable.
- $\varphi$ is a logical formula in which exactly the elements of $\left\{t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{k}\right\}$ are free (not within the scope of any quantifier).
- Rather than present a long formal syntax of well formedness, a number of examples will be used to illustrate the various constructions and techniques.


## Examples in the Tuple Relational Calculus

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on some project.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{e . \text { LName, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee }(e) \\
& \qquad(\exists w)(\text { Works_On }(w) \wedge(e . S S N=w . E S S N))\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on the ProductX project.

```
\{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e)
\(\wedge(\exists w)(\exists p)(\) Works_On \((w) \wedge \operatorname{Project}(p) \wedge(p . \operatorname{PName}=\) 'ProductX')
    \(\wedge(p . \mathrm{PNumber}=w \cdot \mathrm{PNo}) \wedge(e . \mathrm{SSN}=w \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}))\}\)
```

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on every project.

```
\{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e)
\(\wedge(\forall p)(\operatorname{Project}(\mathrm{p}) \Rightarrow\)
\((\exists w)\left(\right.\) Works \(\_\)On \((w) \wedge(e . S S N=w . E S S N) \wedge(p\). PNumber \(=w\). PNo \(\left.\left.\left.)\right)\right)\right\}\)
```

- Note how easy and natural division is in the tuple relational calculus!


## Examples in the Tuple Relational Calculus - 2

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on exactly one project.

```
{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e)
    \wedge(\existsw)(Works_On (w)^(e.SSN = w.ESSN))
```




Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who do not work on any project.
\{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e)
$\wedge(\neg(\exists w)($ Works_On $(w) \wedge(e . S S N=w . E S S N)))\}$
or
\{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e)

$$
\wedge((\forall w)(\text { Works_On }(w) \Rightarrow(e . S S N \neq w . E S S N)))\}
$$

## Examples in the Tuple Relational Calculus - 3

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on at least two distinct projects.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{e . \text { Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee }(e) \\
& \qquad\left(\exists w_{1}\right)\left(\exists w_{2}\right)\left(\left(\text { Works_On }\left(w_{1}\right) \wedge \text { Works_On }\left(w_{2}\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} . \mathrm{ESSN}=w_{2} . \mathrm{ESSN}\right)\right.\right. \\
& \\
& \left.\left.\left.\wedge\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}=e . \mathrm{SSN}\right)\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{PNo} \neq w_{2} . \mathrm{PNo}\right)\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Query: Find the name and SSN of those employees who work on exactly two distinct projects.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \{e.Lname, e.FName, e.MInit, e.SSN | Employee(e) } \\
& \begin{array}{r}
\wedge\left(\exists w_{1}\right)\left(\exists w_{2}\right)\left(\left(\text { Works_On }\left(w_{1}\right) \wedge \text { Works_On }\left(w_{2}\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} . \mathrm{ESSN}=w_{2} . \mathrm{ESSN}\right)\right.\right. \\
\left.\left.\wedge\left(w_{1} . \mathrm{ESSN}=e . \mathrm{SSN}\right)\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} . \mathrm{PNo} \neq w_{2} . \mathrm{PNo}\right)\right)
\end{array} \\
& \wedge\left(\forall w_{1}\right)\left(\forall w_{2}\right)\left(\forall w_{3}\right)\left(\text { Works_On }\left(w_{1}\right) \wedge \text { Works_On }\left(w_{2}\right) \wedge \text { Works_On }\left(w_{3}\right)\right. \\
& \left.\wedge\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}=w_{2} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}=w_{3} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}\right) \wedge\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{ESSN}=e . \mathrm{SSN}\right)\right) \\
& \left.\Rightarrow\left(\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}=w_{2} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}\right) \vee\left(w_{1} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}=w_{3} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}\right) \vee\left(w_{2} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}=w_{3} \cdot \mathrm{PNo}\right)\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Remarks about Queries in the Relational Calculus

() $(\neg \forall)$ and $(\neg \exists)$ are ambiguous and incorrect, and should never be used.

Question: What does $(\forall e)(\neg \exists w)$ mean?

- Write $(\forall e) \neg(\exists w)$ if that is what is meant.
- Recall that negation "flips" quantifiers.
- $\neg((\forall x)(\varphi))$ is equivalent to $(\exists x)((\neg \varphi))$.
- Think about it for simple examples.
- Similarly $\neg((\exists x)(\varphi))$ is equivalent to $(\forall x)((\neg \varphi))$.
- Keep in mind that $\varphi_{1} \Rightarrow \varphi_{2}$ is defined to mean $\left(\neg \varphi_{1}\right) \vee \varphi_{2}$.
- The value of a variable must always be defined in one of two ways.
- By nature of lying within the scope of a quantifier
- $(\forall e)(\exists w)(e$ and $w$ are bound here.).
- By nature of being in the argument list of a query.
- e and $w$ arguments in $\{e . A, w . B \mid E m p l o y e e(e) \wedge$ Works_On $(w) \wedge\langle$ some formula $\rangle\}$.
- The type of each variable in the argument list must be defined in the formula of the query.


## The Expressive Power of the Algebra and Calculus

- A major, nontrivial result is the following:

Theorem: The relational algebra and the tuple relational calculus have the same expressive power. $\square$

- This means that there is no loss of expressive power in using an entirely declarative language for querying relational databases.
- There has been substantial debate, with supporting research for both sides, for the relative merits of declarative query languages versus procedural query languages.
- In any case, SQL is blend of the two, with choices made for historical rather than scientific reasons.
- Still, it is very useful to be aware of the distinction between these two flavors of query expression.


## Safe Queries

Theorem: The relational algebra and the tuple relational calculus have the same expressive power.

- There is one restriction which must be imposed for this result to hold: the queries must be safe.
- Roughly speaking, a query is safe it can only return answers whose attribute values occur in the database being queried.
Example of an unsafe query: Give the set of all numbers which are not the salary of some employee.
- A query in the relational algebra is always safe.
- A query in the tuple relational calculus is guaranteed to be safe if every tuple variable in the argument list is bound to a type.
- This is guaranteed in the formalism which has been developed here.
- Unsafe queries can arise in an alternative called the domain relational calculus, which is essentially standard first-order logic.
- The domain calculus will not be considered here.

