SQL & Security

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1 Introduction

Hackers, Security issues, and exploits all exists, because the software we use isn't perfect. It's written by humans. One or two edge cases from the best programmers might slip through. This doesn't mean just software, but languages, and even hardware.

The languages we use are just solutions we thought would work. Binary is a solution, it's not the intrinsic solution, but it's a solution. So we built assembly on top, then C, Java, and so on abstracting the difficult parts. But the more we abstract, the more we lose control. A vulnerability can quickly cascade up the chain of abstractions.

2 SQL Basics

2.1 Creating Database & Tables

SQL stands for "Structured Query Language," used to query against databases with tables containing columns of data, which most often relate to each other.

SQL uses key words like SELECT, FROM, WHERE, ignoring case. It's good practice to use all caps for SQL keywords, and lowercase for table and column names. Here's a simple example:

```
SELECT * FROM my_table
```

Selects all (*) columns from the table my_table.

Now, we are a record company with bands, albums, and songs:

```
CREATE DATABASE test; -- creating a test database
      DROP DATABASE test; -- deleting the test database
      CREATE DATABASE concise_records; -- creating our database
5
      USE concise_records; -- selecting our database to run commands on it
      CREATE TABLE bandds (); -- creating a table for our bands
9
      DROP TABLE bandds; -- deleting it because of our typo
10
11
      -- Create bands table: artist name (at most 255 characters), CANNOT be NULL/EMPTY
13
      CREATE TABLE bands (
14
          name VARCHAR (255) NOT NULL
15
16
17
      -- Add id column to bands, auto increment, not NULL, make this column important
19
20
      ALTER TABLE bands
      ADD COLUMN id INT NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT PRIMARY KEY;
```

We created the database, concise records, and a table bands with two columns: name and id.

The PRIMARY KEY uniquely IDs each row in a table, helping draw a thread of relationships between tables where the ID is present.

Pagination of commands don't matter, for example:

```
-- We could have written the above

CREATE DATABASE concise_records; USE concise_records; CREATE TABLE bands (name VARCHAR (255) NOT NULL);

ALTER TABLE

bands

ADD COLUMN id INT NOT NULL

AUTO_INCREMENT PRIMARY KEY;
```

Which is less readable.

Definition 2.1: Primary Key

A column which identifies each row in a table. It must be unique, and it cannot be NULL.

To create our albums table:

```
-- Create albums table: album id, album names, release dates (optional)
2
      CREATE TABLE albums (
          id INT NOT NULL AUTO_INCREMENT,
3
          name VARCHAR (255) NOT NULL,
4
          release_date DATE,
          PRIMARY KEY (id)
6
7
9
      -- We need a way to link bands to albums
      -- Create a column in albums pointing to bands' id column
11
      ALTER TABLE albums
12
   ADD COLUMN band_id INT NOT NULL FOREIGN KEY REFERENCES bands(id);
13
```

We created the albums table with three columns: id, name, and release_date, and band_id.

A FOREIGN KEY uses the PRIMARY KEY of another table to establish a relationship between them.

Definition 2.2: Foreign Key

A column that references another table's PRIMARY KEY.

So far we have:

```
-- DB: concise_records
2
    bands
    | id | name
    1 1
    +----+
8
9
10
    albums
11
    12
13
        1 1
    1 1
14
15
```

- The database concise_records
- Tables bands and albums.
- Column band_id references id in bands.

Let's begin to add data to our tables:

```
-- Insert 'The Beatles', 'The Rolling Stones', 'The Who' into bands
     INSERT INTO bands (name) VALUES ('The Beatles');
2
     INSERT INTO bands (name) VALUES ('The Rolling Stones'), ('The Who');
3
4
     -- DB: concise_records
5
6
          bands
           +---+
8
    -- | id | name |
9
10
         | 1 | The Beatles |
11
          2 | The Rolling Stones | 3 | The Who |
12
13
14
15
    -- Insert 'Abbey Road', 'Let It Bleed', 'Who's Next' into albums
16
17
   INSERT INTO albums (name, release_date, band_id) VALUES ('Abbey Road', '1969', 1);
18
    INSERT INTO albums (name, band_id) VALUES ('Let Be', '1970', 1), ('Who''s Next', 3);
19
20
     -- DB: concise_records
21
22
23
          albums
24
         26
   27
28
29
```

Note: Single quotes denote strings. Double single quotes in strings act as single quotes, seen in the above with 'Who''s next' becoming Who's next.

2.2 Queries

To retrieve data, we use **SELECT**:

Queries to a table return another table.

Examples:

1. SELECT column

2. LIMIT

3. AS

4. ORDER BY (DESC/ASC)

```
-- Order bands by name in descending order
     SELECT * FROM bands ORDER BY name DESC;
2
3
     -- Query Result:
4
    -- +---+
5
           | id | name
6
    -- +---+
-- | 1 | The Who |
7
    -- | 2 | The Rolling Stones |
9
10
    -- | 3 | The Beatles
1.1
12
  -- Order bands in ascending order SELECT * FROM bands ORDER BY name ASC;
13
14
    -- which can be shortened to
SELECT * FROM bands ORDER BY name; -- as ASC is the default
```

Here we used the LIMIT, AS, and ORDER BY (ASC/DESC) commands.

5. DISTINCT

```
-- Say we had the following table:
    -- DB: school_table
3
4
        students
5
    -- | id | name
6
    9
   -- | 3 | Joe
10
11
        | 4 | Alvin
12
13
   -- Retrieve all unique names from students
14
  USE school_table;
SELECT DISTINCT name FROM students;
15
16
17
   -- Query Result:
18
19
        name
20
   21
22
23
24
```

2.3 Mutating Data & Filtering

Again, visiting our concise_records example:

```
-- DB: concise_records
3
      bands
     +---+
   -- | id | name |
5
  -- | 1 | The Beatles | -- | 2 | The Rolling Stones | -- | 3 | The Who |
8
9
10
11
      albums
12
13
      +---+
     14
19
```

We will begin to update and filter for specific entries.

To change the release date of Who's Next to '1971':

```
UPDATE albums SET release_date = '1971';
      -- But that would result in all albums having the same release date
2
     -- instead we use WHERE
4
     UPDATE albums SET release_date = '1971' WHERE id = 3;
5
      -- DB: concise_records
7
8
           albums
9
10
           11
12
    -- | 1 | Abbey Road | 1969 | 1
-- | 2 | Let It Be | 1970 | 1
-- | 3 | Who's Next | 1971 | 3
13
14
16 -- +---+-
```

We used id, as the name could change or be duplicated. WHERE filters rows based on conditions. Examples:

1. >, <, >=, <=

```
-- Select all albums with a release date greater than 1969

SELECT * FROM albums WHERE release_date > 1969;

-- Query Result:
-- +---+-----+
-- | id | name | release_date | band_id |
-- +---+-----+
8 -- | 2 | Let It Be | 1970 | 1 |
9 -- | 3 | Who's Next | 1971 | 3 |
```

2. LIKE

3. **OR**

4. AND

5. BETWEEN

```
-- Select all albums that released between 1969 and 1971 (incluvise)
  SELECT * FROM albums WHERE release_date BETWEEN 1900 AND 1980;
2
3
  -- Query Result:
    +---+
5
      6
     +---+
7
  8
9
10
11
```

6a. IS NULL

```
-- Add a new album with a NULL release date
   INSERT INTO albums (name, band_id) VALUES ('The Wall', 2);
2
3
   -- Select all albums with a NULL release date
4
   SELECT * FROM albums WHERE release_date IS NULL;
6
   -- Query Result:
   9
   -- +----+
10
   -- | 4 | The Wall | | 2 |
11
 -- +---+
```

6b. DELETE

```
-- Delete all albums
    DELETE FROM albums;
2
    -- lets not do this though, instead
3
4
    -- Delete all albums with name 'The Wall' (added in previous example)
5
   DELETE FROM albums WHERE name = 'The Wall';
6
7
    -- albums
9
    10
11
  12
13
14
```

2.4 Joining Tables

We can JOIN tables based on common columns, this serves as their relationship. We have:

```
-- DB: concise_records
3
       bands
       | id | name
6
       | 1 | The Beatles
       | 2 | The Rolling Stones |
       | 3 | The Who
10
11
12
       albums
13
       15
     16
17
18
```

Examples:

1a. JOIN

```
-- Retrieve all columns from bands and albums

SELECT * FROM bands JOIN albums;
```

This command doesn't specify how to combine the tables, so the Cartesian product is returned.

Definition 2.3: Cartesian Product

Sets $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$, $B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_m\}$ match in ordered pairs, e.g., (a_2, b_5) or (a_9, b_3) . The set of all ordered pair combinations of A on B is the Cartesian product.

Denoted: $A \times B$.

1b.

```
-- Query Result:
     -- | 1 | The Beatles | 1 | Abbey Road | 1969 | 1

-- | 1 | The Beatles | 2 | Let It Be | 1970 | 1

-- | 1 | The Beatles | 3 | Who's Next | 1971 | 3

-- | 2 | The Rolling Stones | 1 | Abbey Road | 1969 | 1
     -- | 2 | The Rolling Stones | 2 | Let It Be
                                                    | 1970
9
     -- | 2 | The Rolling Stones | 3 | Who's Next | 1971
                                                                  | 3
     11
                                                                   | 1
12
     -- | 3 | The Who
                                                                   1.3
13
14 -- +---+
```

2. JOIN ON

3. INNER JOIN - (default join type)

```
1
  -- Retrieve all columns from bands and albums where band_id matches id
  SELECT * FROM bands INNER JOIN albums ON bands.id = albums.band_id;
2
3
  -- Query Result:
5
  6
  9
10
  -- +----+-----
           -----
11
```

4. LEFT JOIN

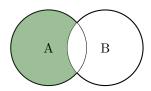
5. RIGHT JOIN

2.4.1 JOIN Cheat Sheet

The rest of the JOINs are shown on the next page.

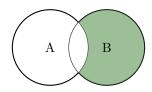
SQL JOIN Cheat Sheet:

1. INNER JOIN



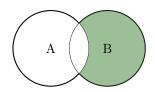
SELECT * FROM A INNER JOIN B ON A.Key = B.Key

3. RIGHT JOIN (RIGHT OUTER JOIN)



SELECT * FROM A RIGHT JOIN B ON A.Key = B.Key

5. RIGHT JOIN with NULL check

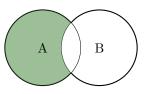


SELECT * FROM A RIGHT JOIN B ON A.Key = B.Key WHERE A.Key IS NULL

7. CROSS JOIN

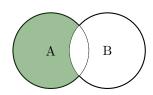
SELECT * FROM A CROSS JOIN B \equiv SELECT * FROM A JOIN B \equiv $A \times B$ The Cartesian product.

2. LEFT JOIN (LEFT OUTER JOIN)



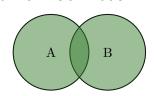
 $\begin{array}{l} {\rm SELECT~*~FROM~A} \\ {\rm LEFT~JOIN~B~ON~A.Key} = {\rm B.Key} \end{array}$

4. LEFT JOIN with NULL check



SELECT * FROM A LEFT JOIN B ON A.Key = B.Key WHERE B.Key IS NULL

6. FULL OUTER JOIN



SELECT * FROM A FULL OUTER JOIN B ON A.Key = B.Key

Cartesian Product

Sets $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}, B = \{b_1, b_2, ..., b_m\}$ can match in ordered pairs, e.g., (a_2, b_5) or (a_3, b_3) . The set of all ordered pair combinations of A on B is the Cartesian product.

Denoted: $A \times B$.

2.5 Aggregate Functions

We can aggregate, i.e., decipher trends in our data via computational functions. Our data:

```
-- DB: concise_records
2
     bands
3
  -- | id | name
6
      | 1 | The Beatles |
  -- | 2 | The Rolling Stones |
8
    | 3 | The Who
10
11
     albums
12
13
  15
 16
17
18
```

Examples:

1. AVG()

2. SUM()

```
-- Retrieve the sum of release dates of albums

SELECT SUM(release_date) FROM albums;

-- Query Result:
-- +------+
-- | SUM(release_date)|
-- +------+
-- | 5910 |
```

3. COUNT()

```
6 -- | COUNT(*) |
7 -- +-----+
8 -- | 3 |
9 -- +-----+
```

There are plenty of aggregate functions, which are provided by the ${\bf \underline{MySQL}}$ documentation.

NAME	DESCRIPTION
AVG()	Return the average value of the argument
BIT_AND()	Return bitwise AND
BIT_OR()	Return bitwise OR
BIT_XOR()	Return bitwise XOR
COUNT()	Return a count of the number of rows returned
COUNT(DISTINCT)	Return the count of a number of different values
GROUP_CONCAT()	Return a concatenated string
JSON_ARRAYAGG()	Return result set as a single JSON array
JSON_OBJECTAGG()	Return result set as a single JSON object
MAX()	Return the maximum value
MIN()	Return the minimum value
STD()	Return the population standard deviation
STDDEV()	Return the population standard deviation
STDDEV_POP()	Return the population standard deviation
STDDEV_SAMP()	Return the sample standard deviation
SUM()	Return the sum
VAR_POP()	Return the population standard variance
VAR_SAMP()	Return the sample variance
VARIANCE()	Return the population standard variance

 $This\ table\ is\ taken\ from\ the\ MySQL\ documentation.$

2.6 Grouping Data

Aggregates can be used with GROUP BY to assist in organizing data. Given:

```
-- DB: concise_records
     bands
3
     +---+
  -- | id | name |
5
    +----+
    | 1 | The Beatles |
    | 2 | The Rolling Stones | 3 | The Who |
8
9
10
11
    albums
12
     +---+
13
    14
15
 17
18
```

Examples:

1. GROUP BY

```
-- Retrieve the count of albums per band

SELECT band_id, COUNT(band_id) FROM albums GROUP BY band_id;

-- Query Result:
-- +-----+
-- | band_id | COUNT(band_id) |
-- +-----+
8 -- | 1 | 2 |
9 -- | 3 | 1 |
```

Selects band_id, performs COUNT on each band_ids. Then group return by band_id.

1b. GROUP BY with JOIN

```
-- Retrieve the count of albums per band

SELECT bands.name, COUNT(albums.id)

FROM bands LEFT JOIN albums ON bands.id = albums.band_id

GROUP BY bands.id;

-- Query Result:
-- | name | COUNT(band_id) |
-- | The Beatles | 2 |
-- | The Who | 1 |
-- | The Rolling Stones | 0 |
-- | The Rolling Stones | 0 |
```

1c. GROUP BY with JOIN and AS

Note: We use **LEFT JOIN** to include bands with no albums.

2. HAVING

```
-- Retrieve the count of albums per band, having more than 1 album
     SELECT bands.name, COUNT(albums.id)
3
    LEFT JOIN albums ON bands.id = albums.band_id
    WHERE COUNT(albums.id) > 1;
    GROUP BY bands.id
     -- Error!!!: Cannot use aggregate function in WHERE clause
     -- We use HAVING instead, which is WHERE, but doesn't filter rows before grouping
9
10
     -- Retrieve the count of albums per band, having more than 1 album
11
     SELECT bands.name, COUNT(albums.id)
12
13
    FROM bands
   LEFT JOIN albums ON bands.id = albums.band_id
14
   GROUP BY bands.id
15
   HAVING COUNT(albums.id) > 1;
16
17
    -- Query Result:
19
          +-----+
21
  -- | The Beatles | 2 | |
22
23
```

This concludes SQL Basics.