### **SQL** - Access control

- Why an access control?
- Views
- Authorization

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### Access control: Why?

Secrecy: Users should not be able to see things they are not supposed to.

- Integrity: Users should not be able to modify things they are not supposed to.
- Availability: Users should be able to see and modify things they are allowed to.





### Access control: Views

- Views can be used to present necessary information (or a summary), while **hiding details** in underlying relation(s).
- A view is a "virtual table": a relation that is defined in terms of the contents of other tables and views.
- In contrast, a relation whose value is **really stored** in the database is called a **base table**.

#### Declare by:

CREATE VIEW <name> AS <query>;





## Access control: Views View Definition

Example:

```
Person (Id_Pers, first_name, last_name, #id_City)
```

City (id City, CityName, Area)

Persons from Paris?

```
CREATE VIEW PersonFromParis AS
    SELECT first_name, last_name
    FROM Person, City
    WHERE Person.id_City = City.id_City
    and CityName = 'Paris';
```





# Access control: Views Accessing a View

- You may query a view as if it were a base table.
  - There is a limited ability to modify views if the modification makes sense as a modification of the underlying base table.
- Example:

```
SELECT first_name FROM PersonFromParis
WHERE = last_name = 'Dupont';
```





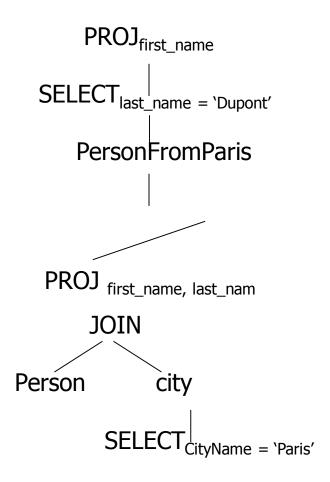
# Access control: Views What Happens When a View Is Used?

- 1. The DBMS starts by interpreting the query as if the view were a base table.
  - Typical DBMS turns the query into something like relational algebra.
- 2. The queries defining any views used by the query are also replaced by their algebraic equivalents, and "spliced into" the expression tree for the query.





# Access control: Views Example: View Expansion







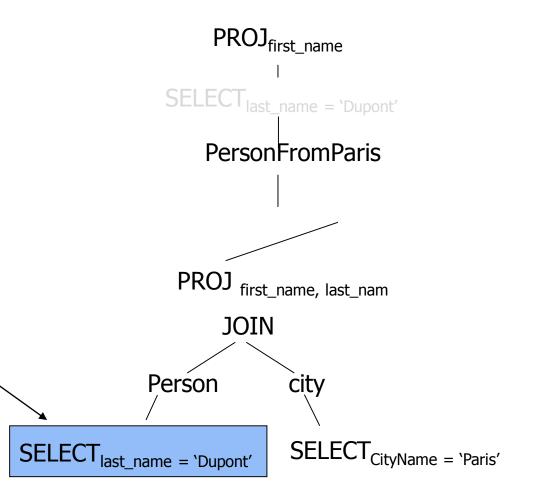
## Access control: Views DMBS Optimization

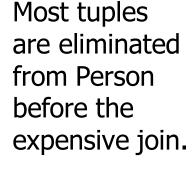
- It is interesting to observe that the typical DBMS will then "optimize" the query by transforming the algebraic expression to one that can be executed faster.
- Key optimizations:
  - 1. Push selections down the tree.
  - 2. Eliminate unnecessary projections.





# Access control : Views Example: Optimization









## Access control: Materialized View

- A materialized view (MV) is a database object that stores the results of a query at a single point in time. Unlike a view, materialized view is not virtual.
- MV may be stored locally or remotely in other site.
- MV are used by applications that do not require current data or that require data valid at a specific point in time.
- MV increases query performance since it contains results of a query





## Access control: Materialized View

#### Refresh Methods:

1. Complete Refresh: essentially re-creates the materialized view

#### 2. Fast Refresh:

- First identifies the changes that occurred since the most recent refresh of the materialized view and then applies these changes to the materialized view.
- Fast refreshes are **more efficient** than complete refreshes when there are few changes or the view is refreshed frequently.

**CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW** <name> **AS** <query>; (not supported by SQLite)





### Access control: Authorization

- A file system identifies certain privileges on the objects (files) it manages.
  - Typically read, write, execute.
- A file system identifies certain participants to whom privileges may be granted.
  - Typically the owner, a group, all users.





# Access control: Authorization Privileges (1)

- SQL identifies a more detailed set of privileges on objects (relations, views,...) than the typical file system.
- Nine privileges in all, some of which can be restricted to one column of one relation.





# Access control: Authorization Privileges (2)

#### Some important privileges on a relation:

- SELECT = right to query the relation.
- INSERT = right to insert tuples (May apply to only one attribute)
- DELETE = right to delete tuples.
- UPDATE = right to update tuples (May apply to only one attribute).





# Access control: Authorization Example: Privileges

For the statement below:

INSERT INTO R1 (A)

**SELECT A FROM R2** 

WHERE NOT EXISTS

(SELECT \* FROM R1

WHERE R2.A = R1.A);

 We require privileges SELECT on R1 and R2, and INSERT on R1 or R1.A

R1	Α	В
	a1	b1
	a2	b1
	a3	b1
	a4	b1
	a5	b3
	a6	@

R2	Α	С
	a6	c5
	a3	c1





## Access control: Authorization Authorization ID's

- Privileges are actually assigned to authorization ids, which can denote a single user or a group of users.
- For a single user the authorization ID, is typically his name.
- There is an authorization ID PUBLIC.
   Granting a privilege to PUBLIC makes it available to any authorization ID.

CREATE USER <user> [IDENTIFIED BY <password>]

ex : CREATE USER peter IDENTIFIED BY 'mypass'





# Access control: Authorization Granting Privileges

- You have all possible privileges on the objects, such as relations, that you create.
- You may grant privileges to other users (authorization ID's), including PUBLIC.
- You may also grant privileges WITH GRANT OPTION, which lets the grantee also grant this privilege.





## Access control: Authorization The GRANT Statement

To grant privileges, say:

GRANT < list of privileges>

ON <relation or other object>

TO < list of authorization ID's>;

 If you want the recipient(s) to be able to pass the privilege(s) to others add:

WITH GRANT OPTION





## Access control: Authorization Example: GRANT

Suppose you are the owner of Person. You may say:

```
GRANT SELECT, UPDATE(id_City)
ON Person
TO peter;
```

 Now Peter has the right to issue any query on Person and can update the id\_City component only.





# Access control: Authorization Example: Grant Option

Suppose we also grant:

GRANT UPDATE ON Person TO peter WITH GRANT OPTION;

- Now, Peter can not only update any attribute of Person, but can grant to others the privilege UPDATE ON Person.
  - Also, he can grant more specific privileges like UPDATE(id\_City) ON Person.





# Access control: Authorization Revoking Privileges

REVOKE < list of privileges>

ON <relation or other object>

FROM < list of authorization ID's>;

- Your grant of these privileges can no longer be used by these users to justify their use of the privilege.
  - But they may still have the privilege because they obtained it independently from elsewhere.





# Access control: Authorization Set of Privileges

 A role is a set of privileges that can be granted to users or to other role.

CREATE ROLE role\_name [ AUTHORIZATION owner\_name ]

#### Ex:

```
CREATE ROLE resource_management;

GRANT SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE ON Person
TO resource_management;

CREATE USER jean;

GRANT resource_management TO jean;
```





### SQL - Trigger

- Motivation
- Définition
- Exemple





### Trigger Motivation

- Attribute and tuple-based checks have limited capabilities.
  - CHECK( <condition> ) → Attribute or tuple
  - They are checked at known times : only on insert or update.

- Assertions are sufficiently general for most constraint applications, but they are hard to implement efficiently.
  - In principle, they should be checked after every modification to any relation of the database
  - The DBMS must have real intelligence to avoid checking assertions that couldn't possibly have been violated.





### Trigger Solution

- A trigger allows the user to specify when the check occurs.
- Like an assertion, a trigger has a general-purpose condition and also can perform any sequence of SQL database modifications.





## Trigger<br/>Event-Condition-Action Rules

- Another name for "trigger" is *ECA rule*, or Event-Condition-Action rule.
- Event: typically a type of database modification, e.g.,
   "insert on Table R1"
- Condition: Any SQL Boolean-valued expression.
- Action: Any SQL statements.





### Trigger Example

Beers(<u>name</u>, manf)

Bars(<u>name</u>, addr, license) Drinkers(<u>name</u>, addr, phone) Likes(drinker, beer)

Sells(bar, beer, price)

Frequents(drinker, bar)

 Instead of using a foreign-key constraint and rejecting insertions into Sells(bar, beer, price) with unknown beers, a trigger can add that beer to Beers, with a NULL manufacturer.





# Trigger Example of Trigger Definition

**CREATE TRIGGER BeerTrig** 

The event

**AFTER INSERT ON Sells** 

REFERENCING NEW ROW AS NewTuple

FOR EACH ROW

WHEN (NewTuple.beer NOT IN

(SELECT name FROM Beers))

INSERT INTO Beers(name)

VALUES(NewTuple.beer);

The condition

The action





## Trigger CREATE TRIGGER

CREATE TRIGGER < name>

Option:

CREATE OR REPLACE TRIGGER < name>

if you want to modify an existing trigger.





### Trigger The Event

#### AFTER can be BEFORE.

Also, INSTEAD OF, if the relation is a view.

A clever way to execute view modifications: have triggers translate them to appropriate modifications on the base tables.

INSERT can be DELETE or UPDATE.

And UPDATE can be UPDATE . . . ON a particular attribute.





# Trigger<br/>Event Options: FOR EACH ROW

Triggers are either row-level or statement-level.

FOR EACH ROW indicates row-level; its absence indicates statement-level.

Row level triggers are executed once for each modified tuple.

Statement-level triggers execute once for an SQL statement, regardless of how many tuples are modified.





## Trigger<br/>Event Options: REFERENCING

- INSERT statements imply a new tuple (for row-level) or new set of tuples (for statement-level).
- DELETE implies an old tuple or table.
- UPDATE implies both.
- Refer to these by

[NEW OLD][TUPLE TABLE] AS <name>





### Trigger The Condition

Any boolean-valued condition is appropriate.

It is **evaluated before or after** the triggering event, depending on whether BEFORE or AFTER is used in the event.

But always before the changes take effect

Access the new/old tuple or set of tuples through the names declared in the REFERENCING clause.





## Trigger The Action

There can be more than one SQL statement in the action.

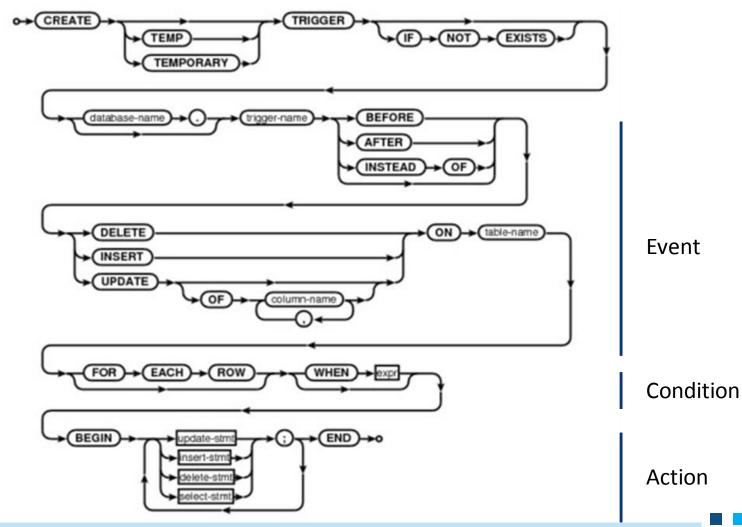
Surround by BEGIN . . . END if there is more than one.

But queries make no sense in an action, so we are really limited to modifications.





# Trigger SQLite syntax



# Trigger Another Example (1)

Using Sells(bar, beer, price)

and

a unary relation RipoffBars(bar) created for the purpose, maintain a list of bars that raise the price of any beer by more than \$1.





# Trigger Another Example (2)

**CREATE TRIGGER PriceTrig** 

AFTER UPDATE OF price ON Sells

The event – only changes to prices

REFERENCING

OLD ROW as old1

NEW ROW as new1

Updates let us talk about old and new tuples

We need to consider

each price change

Condition: a raise in price > \$1

FOR EACH ROW

WHEN(new1.price > old1.price + 1.00)

**INSERT INTO RipoffBars** 

VALUES(new1.bar);

When the price change is great enough, add the bar to RipoffBars





### **Triggers and Views**

Generally, it is impossible to modify a view, because it doesn't exist.

But an **INSTEAD OF trigger** lets us interpret view modifications in a way that makes sense.

#### Example:

We'll design a view Synergy that has (drinker, beer, bar) triples such that the bar serves the beer, the drinker frequents the bar and likes the beer.





### Trigger on View

**CREATE VIEW Synergy AS** 

Pick one copy of each attribute

SELECT Likes.drinker, Likes.beer, Sells.bar

FROM Likes, Sells, Frequents

WHERE Likes.drinker = Frequents.drinker

AND Likes.beer = Sells.beer

AND Sells.bar = Frequents.bar;

Natural join of Likes, Sells, and Frequents





### Trigger on View

We cannot insert into Synergy --- it is a view.

But we can use an **INSTEAD OF trigger** to turn a (drinker, beer, bar) triple into three insertions of projected pairs, one for each of Likes, Sells, and Frequents.

The Sells.price will have to be NULL.





### Trigger on View

```
CREATE TRIGGER ViewTrig
   INSTEAD OF INSERT ON Synergy
   REFERENCING NEW ROW AS n
   FOR EACH ROW
   BEGIN
         INSERT INTO LIKES VALUES(n.drinker, n.beer);
         INSERT INTO SELLS(bar, beer) VALUES(n.bar, n.beer);
         INSERT INTO FREQUENTS VALUES(n.drinker, n.bar);
   END;
```



