

Abstract								
This is the MySQL Security Guide extract from the MySQL 5.1 Reference Manual.								
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# Preface and Legal Notices

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# **Chapter 1 Security**

When thinking about security within a MySQL installation, you should consider a wide range of possible topics and how they affect the security of your MySQL server and related applications:

- General factors that affect security. These include choosing good passwords, not granting unnecessary
  privileges to users, ensuring application security by preventing SQL injections and data corruption, and
  others. See Chapter 2, General Security Issues.
- Security of the installation itself. The data files, log files, and the all the application files of your installation should be protected to ensure that they are not readable or writable by unauthorized parties. For more information, see Chapter 3, *Postinstallation Setup and Testing*.
- Access control and security within the database system itself, including the users and databases
  granted with access to the databases, views and stored programs in use within the database. For more
  information, see Chapter 4, The MySQL Access Privilege System, and Chapter 5, MySQL User Account
  Management.
- Network security of MySQL and your system. The security is related to the grants for individual users, but you may also wish to restrict MySQL so that it is available only locally on the MySQL server host, or to a limited set of other hosts.
- Ensure that you have adequate and appropriate backups of your database files, configuration and log files. Also be sure that you have a recovery solution in place and test that you are able to successfully recover the information from your backups. See Backup and Recovery.

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# Chapter 2 General Security Issues

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This section describes general security issues to be aware of and what you can do to make your MySQL installation more secure against attack or misuse. For information specifically about the access control system that MySQL uses for setting up user accounts and checking database access, see Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.

For answers to some questions that are often asked about MySQL Server security issues, see Appendix B, MySQL 5.1 FAQ: Security.

### 2.1 Security Guidelines

Anyone using MySQL on a computer connected to the Internet should read this section to avoid the most common security mistakes.

In discussing security, it is necessary to consider fully protecting the entire server host (not just the MySQL server) against all types of applicable attacks: eavesdropping, altering, playback, and denial of service. We do not cover all aspects of availability and fault tolerance here.

MySQL uses security based on Access Control Lists (ACLs) for all connections, queries, and other operations that users can attempt to perform. There is also support for SSL-encrypted connections between MySQL clients and servers. Many of the concepts discussed here are not specific to MySQL at all; the same general ideas apply to almost all applications.

When running MySQL, follow these guidelines:

- Do not ever give anyone (except MySQL root accounts) access to the user table in the mysql database! This is critical.
- Learn how the MySQL access privilege system works (see Chapter 4, The MySQL Access Privilege System). Use the GRANT and REVOKE statements to control access to MySQL. Do not grant more privileges than necessary. Never grant privileges to all hosts.

#### Checklist:

• Try mysql -u root. If you are able to connect successfully to the server without being asked for a password, anyone can connect to your MySQL server as the MySQL root user with full privileges! Review the MySQL installation instructions, paying particular attention to the information about setting a root password. See Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".

- Use the SHOW GRANTS statement to check which accounts have access to what. Then use the REVOKE statement to remove those privileges that are not necessary.
- Do not store cleartext passwords in your database. If your computer becomes compromised, the intruder
  can take the full list of passwords and use them. Instead, use SHA1(), MD5(), or some other one-way
  hashing function and store the hash value.

To prevent password recovery using rainbow tables, do not use these functions on a plain password; instead, choose some string to be used as a salt, and use hash(hash(password)+salt) values.

- Do not choose passwords from dictionaries. Special programs exist to break passwords. Even passwords like "xfish98" are very bad. Much better is "duag98" which contains the same word "fish" but typed one key to the left on a standard QWERTY keyboard. Another method is to use a password that is taken from the first characters of each word in a sentence (for example, "Four score and seven years ago" results in a password of "Fsasya"). The password is easy to remember and type, but difficult to guess for someone who does not know the sentence. In this case, you can additionally substitute digits for the number words to obtain the phrase "4 score and 7 years ago", yielding the password "4sa7ya" which is even more difficult to guess.
- Invest in a firewall. This protects you from at least 50% of all types of exploits in any software. Put MySQL behind the firewall or in a demilitarized zone (DMZ).

#### Checklist:

Try to scan your ports from the Internet using a tool such as nmap. MySQL uses port 3306 by default.
 This port should not be accessible from untrusted hosts. As a simple way to check whether your MySQL port is open, try the following command from some remote machine, where server\_host is the host name or IP address of the host on which your MySQL server runs:

```
shell> telnet server_host 3306
```

If telnet hangs or the connection is refused, the port is blocked, which is how you want it to be. If you get a connection and some garbage characters, the port is open, and should be closed on your firewall or router, unless you really have a good reason to keep it open.

- Applications that access MySQL should not trust any data entered by users, and should be written using proper defensive programming techniques. See Section 2.7, "Client Programming Security Guidelines".
- Do not transmit plain (unencrypted) data over the Internet. This information is accessible to everyone
  who has the time and ability to intercept it and use it for their own purposes. Instead, use an encrypted
  protocol such as SSL or SSH. MySQL supports internal SSL connections. Another technique is to use
  SSH port-forwarding to create an encrypted (and compressed) tunnel for the communication.
- Learn to use the tcpdump and strings utilities. In most cases, you can check whether MySQL data streams are unencrypted by issuing a command like the following:

```
shell> tcpdump -l -i eth0 -w - src or dst port 3306 | strings
```

This works under Linux and should work with small modifications under other systems.

#### Warning

If you do not see cleartext data, this does not always mean that the information actually is encrypted. If you need high security, consult with a security expert.

### 2.2 Keeping Passwords Secure

Passwords occur in several contexts within MySQL. The following sections provide guidelines that enable end users and administrators to keep these passwords secure and avoid exposing them. There is also a discussion of how MySQL uses password hashing internally.

#### 2.2.1 End-User Guidelines for Password Security

MySQL users should use the following guidelines to keep passwords secure.

When you run a client program to connect to the MySQL server, it is inadvisable to specify your password in a way that exposes it to discovery by other users. The methods you can use to specify your password when you run client programs are listed here, along with an assessment of the risks of each method. In short, the safest methods are to have the client program prompt for the password or to specify the password in a properly protected option file.

Use a -pyour\_pass or --password=your\_pass option on the command line. For example:

```
shell> mysql -u francis -pfrank db_name
```

This is convenient *but insecure*. On some systems, your password becomes visible to system status programs such as ps that may be invoked by other users to display command lines. MySQL clients typically overwrite the command-line password argument with zeros during their initialization sequence. However, there is still a brief interval during which the value is visible. Also, on some systems this overwriting strategy is ineffective and the password remains visible to ps. (SystemV Unix systems and perhaps others are subject to this problem.)

If your operating environment is set up to display your current command in the title bar of your terminal window, the password remains visible as long as the command is running, even if the command has scrolled out of view in the window content area.

 Use the -p or --password option on the command line with no password value specified. In this case, the client program solicits the password interactively:

```
shell> mysql -u francis -p db_name
Enter password: *******
```

The "\*" characters indicate where you enter your password. The password is not displayed as you enter it.

It is more secure to enter your password this way than to specify it on the command line because it is not visible to other users. However, this method of entering a password is suitable only for programs that you run interactively. If you want to invoke a client from a script that runs noninteractively, there is no opportunity to enter the password from the keyboard. On some systems, you may even find that the first line of your script is read and interpreted (incorrectly) as your password.

• Store your password in an option file. For example, on Unix, you can list your password in the [client] section of the .my.cnf file in your home directory:

```
[client]
password=your_pass
```

To keep the password safe, the file should not be accessible to anyone but yourself. To ensure this, set the file access mode to 400 or 600. For example:

```
shell> chmod 600 .my.cnf
```

To name from the command line a specific option file containing the password, use the --defaults-file=file\_name option, where file\_name is the full path name to the file. For example:

```
shell> mysql --defaults-file=/home/francis/mysql-opts
```

Using Option Files, discusses option files in more detail.

• Store your password in the MYSQL PWD environment variable. See Environment Variables.

This method of specifying your MySQL password must be considered *extremely insecure* and should not be used. Some versions of ps include an option to display the environment of running processes. On some systems, if you set MYSQL\_PWD, your password is exposed to any other user who runs ps. Even on systems without such a version of ps, it is unwise to assume that there are no other methods by which users can examine process environments.

On Unix, the mysql client writes a record of executed statements to a history file (see mysql Logging). By default, this file is named .mysql\_history and is created in your home directory. Passwords can be written as plain text in SQL statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and SET PASSWORD, so if you use these statements, they are logged in the history file. To keep this file safe, use a restrictive access mode, the same way as described earlier for the .my.cnf file.

If your command interpreter is configured to maintain a history, any file in which the commands are saved will contain MySQL passwords entered on the command line. For example, bash uses ~/.bash\_history. Any such file should have a restrictive access mode.

#### 2.2.2 Administrator Guidelines for Password Security

Database administrators should use the following guidelines to keep passwords secure.

MySQL stores passwords for user accounts in the <code>mysql.user</code> table. Access to this table should never be granted to any nonadministrative accounts.

A user who has access to modify the plugin directory (the value of the plugin\_dir system variable) or the my.cnf file that specifies the location of the plugin directory can replace plugins and modify the capabilities provided by plugins.

Files such as log files to which passwords might be written should be protected. See Section 2.2.3, "Passwords and Logging".

### 2.2.3 Passwords and Logging

Passwords can be written as plain text in SQL statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, SET PASSWORD, and statements that invoke the PASSWORD() function. If such statements are logged by the MySQL server as written, passwords in them become visible to anyone with access to the logs. This applies to the general query log, the slow query log, and the binary log (see MySQL Server Logs).

To guard log files against unwarranted exposure, locate them in a directory that restricts access to the server and the database administrator. If the server logs to tables in the <code>mysql</code> database, grant access to those tables only to the database administrator.

Replication slaves store the password for the replication master in the master.info file. Restrict this file to be accessible only to the database administrator.

Use a restricted access mode to protect database backups that include log tables or log files containing passwords.

#### 2.2.4 Password Hashing in MySQL

MySQL lists user accounts in the user table of the mysql database. Each MySQL account can be assigned a password, although the user table does not store the cleartext version of the password, but a hash value computed from it.

MySQL uses passwords in two phases of client/server communication:

- When a client attempts to connect to the server, there is an initial authentication step in which the client
  must present a password that has a hash value matching the hash value stored in the user table for the
  account the client wants to use.
- After the client connects, it can (if it has sufficient privileges) set or change the password hash for
  accounts listed in the user table. The client can do this by using the PASSWORD() function to generate
  a password hash, or by using a password-generating statement (CREATE USER, GRANT, or SET
  PASSWORD).

In other words, the server *checks* hash values during authentication when a client first attempts to connect. The server *generates* hash values if a connected client invokes the PASSWORD() function or uses a password-generating statement to set or change a password.

Password hashing methods in MySQL have the history described following. These changes are illustrated by changes in the result from the PASSWORD() function that computes password hash values and in the structure of the user table where passwords are stored.

#### The Original (Pre-4.1) Hashing Method

The original hashing method produced a 16-byte string. Such hashes look like this:

```
mysql> SELECT PASSWORD('mypass');
+------+
| PASSWORD('mypass') |
+-----+
| 6f8c114b58f2ce9e |
+------+
```

To store account passwords, the Password column of the user table was at this point 16 bytes long.

#### The 4.1 Hashing Method

MySQL 4.1 introduced password hashing that provided better security and reduced the risk of passwords being intercepted. There were several aspects to this change:

- Different format of password values produced by the PASSWORD() function
- Widening of the Password column
- · Control over the default hashing method
- · Control over the permitted hashing methods for clients attempting to connect to the server

The changes in MySQL 4.1 took place in two stages:

- MySQL 4.1.0 used a preliminary version of the 4.1 hashing method. This method was short lived and the following discussion says nothing more about it.
- In MySQL 4.1.1, the hashing method was modified to produce a longer 41-byte hash value:

The longer password hash format has better cryptographic properties, and client authentication based on long hashes is more secure than that based on the older short hashes.

To accommodate longer password hashes, the Password column in the user table was changed at this point to be 41 bytes, its current length.

A widened Password column can store password hashes in both the pre-4.1 and 4.1 formats. The format of any given hash value can be determined two ways:

- The length: 4.1 and pre-4.1 hashes are 41 and 16 bytes, respectively.
- Password hashes in the 4.1 format always begin with a "\*" character, whereas passwords in the pre-4.1 format never do.

To permit explicit generation of pre-4.1 password hashes, two additional changes were made:

- The OLD\_PASSWORD() function was added, which returns hash values in the 16-byte format.
- For compatibility purposes, the old\_passwords system variable was added, to enable DBAs and applications control over the hashing method. The default old\_passwords value of 0 causes hashing to use the 4.1 method (41-byte hash values), but setting old\_passwords=1 causes hashing to use the pre-4.1 method. In this case, PASSWORD() produces 16-byte values and is equivalent to OLD\_PASSWORD()

To permit DBAs control over how clients are permitted to connect, the secure\_auth system variable was added. Starting the server with this variable disabled or enabled permits or prohibits clients to connect using the older pre-4.1 password hashing method. Before MySQL 5.6.5, secure\_auth is disabled by default. As of 5.6.5, secure\_auth is enabled by default to promote a more secure default configuration. (DBAs can disable it at their discretion, but this is not recommended.)

In addition, the mysql client supports a --secure-auth option that is analogous to secure\_auth, but from the client side. It can be used to prevent connections to less secure accounts that use pre-4.1 password hashing. This option is disabled by default before MySQL 5.6.7, enabled thereafter.

#### **Compatibility Issues Related to Hashing Methods**

The widening of the Password column in MySQL 4.1 from 16 bytes to 41 bytes affects installation or upgrade operations as follows:

- If you perform a new installation of MySQL, the Password column is made 41 bytes long automatically.
- Upgrades from MySQL 4.1 or later to current versions of MySQL should not give rise to any issues in regard to the Password column because both versions use the same column length and password hashing method.

 For upgrades from a pre-4.1 release to 4.1 or later, you must upgrade the system tables after upgrading. (See mysql\_upgrade — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables.)

The 4.1 hashing method is understood only by MySQL 4.1 (and newer) servers and clients, which can result in some compatibility problems. A 4.1 or newer client can connect to a pre-4.1 server, because the client understands both the pre-4.1 and 4.1 password hashing methods. However, a pre-4.1 client that attempts to connect to a 4.1 or newer server may run into difficulties. For example, a 4.0 mysql client may fail with the following error message:

```
shell> mysql -h localhost -u root
Client does not support authentication protocol requested
by server; consider upgrading MySQL client
```

This phenomenon also occurs for attempts to use the older PHP mysql extension after upgrading to MySQL 4.1 or newer. (See Common Problems with MySQL and PHP.)

The following discussion describes the differences between the pre-4.1 and 4.1 hashing methods, and what you should do if you upgrade your server but need to maintain backward compatibility with pre-4.1 clients. (However, permitting connections by old clients is not recommended and should be avoided if possible.) Additional information can be found in Client does not support authentication protocol. This information is of particular importance to PHP programmers migrating MySQL databases from versions older than 4.1 to 4.1 or higher.

The differences between short and long password hashes are relevant both for how the server uses passwords during authentication and for how it generates password hashes for connected clients that perform password-changing operations.

The way in which the server uses password hashes during authentication is affected by the width of the Password column:

- · If the column is short, only short-hash authentication is used.
- If the column is long, it can hold either short or long hashes, and the server can use either format:
  - Pre-4.1 clients can connect, but because they know only about the pre-4.1 hashing method, they can
    authenticate only using accounts that have short hashes.
  - 4.1 and later clients can authenticate using accounts that have short or long hashes.

Even for short-hash accounts, the authentication process is actually a bit more secure for 4.1 and later clients than for older clients. In terms of security, the gradient from least to most secure is:

- · Pre-4.1 client authenticating with short password hash
- 4.1 or later client authenticating with short password hash
- 4.1 or later client authenticating with long password hash

The way in which the server generates password hashes for connected clients is affected by the width of the Password column and by the old\_passwords system variable. A 4.1 or later server generates long hashes only if certain conditions are met: The Password column must be wide enough to hold long values and old\_passwords must not be set to 1.

Those conditions apply as follows:

The Password column must be wide enough to hold long hashes (41 bytes). If the column has not
been updated and still has the pre-4.1 width of 16 bytes, the server notices that long hashes cannot fit
into it and generates only short hashes when a client performs password-changing operations using

the PASSWORD() function or a password-generating statement. This is the behavior that occurs if you have upgraded from a version of MySQL older than 4.1 to 4.1 or later but have not yet run the mysql\_upgrade program to widen the Password column.

• If the Password column is wide, it can store either short or long password hashes. In this case, the PASSWORD() function and password-generating statements generate long hashes unless the server was started with the old\_passwords system variable set to 1 to force the server to generate short password hashes instead.

The purpose of the old\_passwords system variable is to permit backward compatibility with pre-4.1 clients under circumstances where the server would otherwise generate long password hashes. The option does not affect authentication (4.1 and later clients can still use accounts that have long password hashes), but it does prevent creation of a long password hash in the user table as the result of a password-changing operation. Were that permitted to occur, the account could no longer be used by pre-4.1 clients. With old passwords disabled, the following undesirable scenario is possible:

- An old pre-4.1 client connects to an account that has a short password hash.
- The client changes its own password. With old\_passwords disabled, this results in the account having a long password hash.
- The next time the old client attempts to connect to the account, it cannot, because the account has a long password hash that requires the 4.1 hashing method during authentication. (Once an account has a long password hash in the user table, only 4.1 and later clients can authenticate for it because pre-4.1 clients do not understand long hashes.)

This scenario illustrates that, if you must support older pre-4.1 clients, it is problematic to run a 4.1 or newer server without old\_passwords set to 1. By running the server with old\_passwords=1, password-changing operations do not generate long password hashes and thus do not cause accounts to become inaccessible to older clients. (Those clients cannot inadvertently lock themselves out by changing their password and ending up with a long password hash.)

The downside of old\_passwords=1 is that any passwords created or changed use short hashes, even for 4.1 or later clients. Thus, you lose the additional security provided by long password hashes. To create an account that has a long hash (for example, for use by 4.1 clients) or to change an existing account to use a long password hash, an administrator can set the session value of old\_passwords set to 0 while leaving the global value set to 1:

The following scenarios are possible in MySQL 4.1 or later. The factors are whether the Password column is short or long, and, if long, whether the server is started with old\_passwords enabled or disabled.

#### Scenario 1: Short Password column in user table:

Only short hashes can be stored in the Password column.

- The server uses only short hashes during client authentication.
- For connected clients, password hash-generating operations involving the PASSWORD() function or password-generating statements use short hashes exclusively. Any change to an account's password results in that account having a short password hash.
- The value of old\_passwords is irrelevant because with a short Password column, the server generates only short password hashes anyway.

This scenario occurs when a pre-4.1 MySQL installation has been upgraded to 4.1 or later but mysql\_upgrade has not been run to upgrade the system tables in the mysql database. (This is not a recommended configuration because it does not permit use of more secure 4.1 password hashing.)

Scenario 2: Long Password column; server started with old\_passwords=1:

- Short or long hashes can be stored in the Password column.
- 4.1 and later clients can authenticate for accounts that have short or long hashes.
- Pre-4.1 clients can authenticate only for accounts that have short hashes.
- For connected clients, password hash-generating operations involving the PASSWORD() function or password-generating statements use short hashes exclusively. Any change to an account's password results in that account having a short password hash.

In this scenario, newly created accounts have short password hashes because old\_passwords=1 prevents generation of long hashes. Also, if you create an account with a long hash before setting old\_passwords to 1, changing the account's password while old\_passwords=1 results in the account being given a short password, causing it to lose the security benefits of a longer hash.

To create a new account that has a long password hash, or to change the password of any existing account to use a long hash, first set the session value of old\_passwords set to 0 while leaving the global value set to 1, as described previously.

In this scenario, the server has an up to date Password column, but is running with the default password hashing method set to generate pre-4.1 hash values. This is not a recommended configuration but may be useful during a transitional period in which pre-4.1 clients and passwords are upgraded to 4.1 or later. When that has been done, it is preferable to run the server with old\_passwords=0 and secure\_auth=1.

Scenario 3: Long Password column; server started with old\_passwords=0:

- Short or long hashes can be stored in the Password column.
- 4.1 and later clients can authenticate using accounts that have short or long hashes.
- Pre-4.1 clients can authenticate only using accounts that have short hashes.
- For connected clients, password hash-generating operations involving the PASSWORD() function or password-generating statements use long hashes exclusively. A change to an account's password results in that account having a long password hash.

As indicated earlier, a danger in this scenario is that it is possible for accounts that have a short password hash to become inaccessible to pre-4.1 clients. A change to such an account's password made using the PASSWORD() function or a password-generating statement results in the account being given a long password hash. From that point on, no pre-4.1 client can connect to the server using that account. The client must upgrade to 4.1 or later.

If this is a problem, you can change a password in a special way. For example, normally you use SET PASSWORD as follows to change an account password:

```
SET PASSWORD FOR 'some_user'@'some_host' = PASSWORD('mypass');
```

To change the password but create a short hash, use the OLD PASSWORD() function instead:

```
SET PASSWORD FOR 'some_user'@'some_host' = OLD_PASSWORD('mypass');
```

OLD\_PASSWORD() is useful for situations in which you explicitly want to generate a short hash.

The disadvantages for each of the preceding scenarios may be summarized as follows:

In scenario 1, you cannot take advantage of longer hashes that provide more secure authentication.

In scenario 2, old\_passwords=1 prevents accounts with short hashes from becoming inaccessible, but password-changing operations cause accounts with long hashes to revert to short hashes unless you take care to change the session value of old\_passwords to 0 first.

In scenario 3, accounts with short hashes become inaccessible to pre-4.1 clients if you change their passwords without explicitly using  $OLD\_PASSWORD$ ().

The best way to avoid compatibility problems related to short password hashes is to not use them:

- Upgrade all client programs to MySQL 4.1 or later.
- Run the server with old\_passwords=0.
- Reset the password for any account with a short password hash to use a long password hash.
- For additional security, run the server with secure\_auth=1.

# 2.2.5 Implications of Password Hashing Changes in MySQL 4.1 for Application Programs

An upgrade to MySQL version 4.1 or later can cause compatibility issues for applications that use PASSWORD() to generate passwords for their own purposes. Applications really should not do this, because PASSWORD() should be used only to manage passwords for MySQL accounts. But some applications use PASSWORD() for their own purposes anyway.

If you upgrade to 4.1 or later from a pre-4.1 version of MySQL and run the server under conditions where it generates long password hashes, an application using PASSWORD() for its own passwords breaks. The recommended course of action in such cases is to modify the application to use another function, such as SHA1() or MD5(), to produce hashed values. If that is not possible, you can use the OLD\_PASSWORD() function, which is provided for generate short hashes in the old format. However, you should note that OLD\_PASSWORD() may one day no longer be supported.

If the server is running with  $old_passwords=1$ , it generates short hashes and  $OLD_password()$  is equivalent to password().

PHP programmers migrating their MySQL databases from version 4.0 or lower to version 4.1 or higher should see MySQL and PHP.

### 2.3 Making MySQL Secure Against Attackers

When you connect to a MySQL server, you should use a password. The password is not transmitted in clear text over the connection. Password handling during the client connection sequence was upgraded in MySQL 4.1.1 to be very secure. If you are still using pre-4.1.1-style passwords, the encryption algorithm is not as strong as the newer algorithm. With some effort, a clever attacker who can sniff the traffic between the client and the server can crack the password. (See Section 2.2.4, "Password Hashing in MySQL", for a discussion of the different password handling methods.)

All other information is transferred as text, and can be read by anyone who is able to watch the connection. If the connection between the client and the server goes through an untrusted network, and you are concerned about this, you can use the compressed protocol to make traffic much more difficult to decipher. You can also use MySQL's internal SSL support to make the connection even more secure. See Section 5.6, "Using SSL for Secure Connections". Alternatively, use SSH to get an encrypted TCP/IP connection between a MySQL server and a MySQL client. You can find an Open Source SSH client at http://www.openssh.org/, and a comparison of both Open Source and Commercial SSH clients at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparison\_of\_SSH\_clients.

To make a MySQL system secure, you should strongly consider the following suggestions:

Require all MySQL accounts to have a password. A client program does not necessarily know the
identity of the person running it. It is common for client/server applications that the user can specify
any user name to the client program. For example, anyone can use the mysql program to connect as
any other person simply by invoking it as mysql -u other\_user db\_name if other\_user has no
password. If all accounts have a password, connecting using another user's account becomes much
more difficult.

For a discussion of methods for setting passwords, see Section 5.5, "Assigning Account Passwords".

- Make sure that the only Unix user account with read or write privileges in the database directories is the account that is used for running mysgld.
- Never run the MySQL server as the Unix root user. This is extremely dangerous, because any
  user with the FILE privilege is able to cause the server to create files as root (for example,
   ~root/.bashrc). To prevent this, mysqld refuses to run as root unless that is specified explicitly
  using the --user=root option.

mysqld can (and should) be run as an ordinary, unprivileged user instead. You can create a separate Unix account named mysql to make everything even more secure. Use this account only for administering MySQL. To start mysqld as a different Unix user, add a user option that specifies the user name in the [mysqld] group of the my.cnf option file where you specify server options. For example:

```
[mysqld]
user=mysql
```

This causes the server to start as the designated user whether you start it manually or by using mysqld\_safe or mysql.server. For more details, see Section 2.5, "How to Run MySQL as a Normal User".

Running mysqld as a Unix user other than root does not mean that you need to change the root user name in the user table. User names for MySQL accounts have nothing to do with user names for Unix accounts.

• Do not grant the FILE privilege to nonadministrative users. Any user that has this privilege can write a file anywhere in the file system with the privileges of the mysqld daemon. This includes the server's data directory containing the files that implement the privilege tables. To make FILE-privilege operations

a bit safer, files generated with SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE do not overwrite existing files and are writable by everyone.

The FILE privilege may also be used to read any file that is world-readable or accessible to the Unix user that the server runs as. With this privilege, you can read any file into a database table. This could be abused, for example, by using LOAD DATA to load /etc/passwd into a table, which then can be displayed with SELECT.

To limit the location in which files can be read and written, set the secure\_file\_priv system to a specific directory. See Server System Variables.

• Do not grant the PROCESS or SUPER privilege to nonadministrative users. The output of mysqladmin processlist and SHOW PROCESSLIST shows the text of any statements currently being executed, so any user who is permitted to see the server process list might be able to see statements issued by other users such as UPDATE user SET password=PASSWORD('not secure').

mysqld reserves an extra connection for users who have the SUPER privilege, so that a MySQL root user can log in and check server activity even if all normal connections are in use.

The SUPER privilege can be used to terminate client connections, change server operation by changing the value of system variables, and control replication servers.

- Do not permit the use of symlinks to tables. (This capability can be disabled with the --skip-symbolic-links option.) This is especially important if you run mysqld as root, because anyone that has write access to the server's data directory then could delete any file in the system! See Using Symbolic Links for MylSAM Tables on Unix.
- Stored programs and views should be written using the security guidelines discussed in Access Control for Stored Programs and Views.
- If you do not trust your DNS, you should use IP addresses rather than host names in the grant tables. In any case, you should be very careful about creating grant table entries using host name values that contain wildcards.
- If you want to restrict the number of connections permitted to a single account, you can do so by setting the max\_user\_connections variable in mysqld. The GRANT statement also supports resource control options for limiting the extent of server use permitted to an account. See GRANT Syntax.
- If the plugin directory is writable by the server, it may be possible for a user to write executable code to a file in the directory using SELECT ... INTO DUMPFILE. This can be prevented by making plugin\_dir read only to the server or by setting --secure-file-priv to a directory where SELECT writes can be made safely.

### 2.4 Security-Related mysqld Options and Variables

The following table shows mysqld options and system variables that affect security. For descriptions of each of these, see Server Command Options, and Server System Variables.

**Table 2.1 Security Option/Variable Summary** 

Name	Cmd-Line	Option File	System Var	Status Var	Var Scope	Dynamic
allow-suspicious- udfs	Yes	Yes				
automatic_sp_privi	leges		Yes		Global	Yes
chroot	Yes	Yes				
des-key-file	Yes	Yes				

Name	Cmd-Line	Option File	System Var	Status Var	Var Scope	Dynamic
local_infile			Yes		Global	Yes
old_passwords			Yes		Both	Yes
safe-show- database	Yes	Yes				
safe-user-create	Yes	Yes				
secure-auth	Yes	Yes			Global	Yes
- Variable: secure_auth			Yes		Global	Yes
secure-file-priv	Yes	Yes			Global	No
<ul><li>Variable: secure_file_priv</li></ul>			Yes		Global	No
skip-grant-tables	Yes	Yes				
skip-name-resolve	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- Variable: skip_name_resolve	<b>+</b>		Yes		Global	No
skip-networking	Yes	Yes			Global	No
<ul><li>Variable: skip_networking</li></ul>			Yes		Global	No
skip-show- database	Yes	Yes			Global	No
<ul><li>Variable: skip_show_databa</li></ul>	se		Yes		Global	No

### 2.5 How to Run MySQL as a Normal User

On Windows, you can run the server as a Windows service using a normal user account.

On Unix, the MySQL server <code>mysqld</code> can be started and run by any user. However, you should avoid running the server as the Unix <code>root</code> user for security reasons. To change <code>mysqld</code> to run as a normal unprivileged Unix user <code>user\_name</code>, you must do the following:

- 1. Stop the server if it is running (use mysqladmin shutdown).
- 2. Change the database directories and files so that *user\_name* has privileges to read and write files in them (you might need to do this as the Unix root user):

```
shell> chown -R user_name /path/to/mysql/datadir
```

If you do not do this, the server will not be able to access databases or tables when it runs as  $user\_name$ .

If directories or files within the MySQL data directory are symbolic links, chown -R might not follow symbolic links for you. If it does not, you will also need to follow those links and change the directories and files they point to.

3. Start the server as user <code>user\_name</code>. Another alternative is to start <code>mysqld</code> as the Unix <code>root</code> user and use the <code>--user=user\_name</code> option. <code>mysqld</code> starts up, then switches to run as the Unix user <code>user\_name</code> before accepting any connections.

4. To start the server as the given user automatically at system startup time, specify the user name by adding a user option to the [mysqld] group of the /etc/my.cnf option file or the my.cnf option file in the server's data directory. For example:

```
[mysqld]
user=user_name
```

If your Unix machine itself is not secured, you should assign passwords to the MySQL root accounts in the grant tables. Otherwise, any user with a login account on that machine can run the mysql client with a --user=root option and perform any operation. (It is a good idea to assign passwords to MySQL accounts in any case, but especially so when other login accounts exist on the server host.) See Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".

### 2.6 Security Issues with LOAD DATA LOCAL

The LOAD DATA statement can load a file that is located on the server host, or it can load a file that is located on the client host when the LOCAL keyword is specified.

There are two potential security issues with supporting the LOCAL version of LOAD DATA statements:

- The transfer of the file from the client host to the server host is initiated by the MySQL server. In theory,
  a patched server could be built that would tell the client program to transfer a file of the server's choosing
  rather than the file named by the client in the LOAD DATA statement. Such a server could access any file
  on the client host to which the client user has read access.
- In a Web environment where the clients are connecting from a Web server, a user could use LOAD
   DATA LOCAL to read any files that the Web server process has read access to (assuming that a user
   could run any command against the SQL server). In this environment, the client with respect to the
   MySQL server actually is the Web server, not the remote program being run by the user who connects to
   the Web server.

To deal with these problems, we changed how LOAD DATA LOCAL is handled as of MySQL 3.23.49 and MySQL 4.0.2 (4.0.13 on Windows):

- By default, all MySQL clients and libraries in binary distributions are compiled with the --enable-local-infile option, to be compatible with MySQL 3.23.48 and before.
- If you build MySQL from source but do not invoke configure with the --enable-local-infile option, LOAD DATA LOCAL cannot be used by any client unless it is written explicitly to invoke mysql\_options(... MYSQL\_OPT\_LOCAL\_INFILE, 0). See mysql\_options().
- You can disable all LOAD DATA LOCAL statements from the server side by starting mysqld with the -- local-infile=0 option.
- For the mysql command-line client, enable LOAD DATA LOCAL by specifying the --local-infile[=1] option, or disable it with the --local-infile=0 option. For mysqlimport, local data file loading is off by default; enable it with the --local or -L option. In any case, successful use of a local load operation requires that the server permits it.
- If you use LOAD DATA LOCAL in Perl scripts or other programs that read the [client] group from option files, you can add the local-infile=1 option to that group. However, to keep this from causing problems for programs that do not understand local-infile, specify it using the loose- prefix:

```
[client]
loose-local-infile=1
```

• If LOAD DATA LOCAL is disabled, either in the server or the client, a client that attempts to issue such a statement receives the following error message:

ERROR 1148: The used command is not allowed with this MySQL version

### 2.7 Client Programming Security Guidelines

Applications that access MySQL should not trust any data entered by users, who can try to trick your code by entering special or escaped character sequences in Web forms, URLs, or whatever application you have built. Be sure that your application remains secure if a user enters something like "; DROP DATABASE mysql;". This is an extreme example, but large security leaks and data loss might occur as a result of hackers using similar techniques, if you do not prepare for them.

A common mistake is to protect only string data values. Remember to check numeric data as well. If an application generates a query such as SELECT \* FROM table WHERE ID=234 when a user enters the value 234, the user can enter the value 234 OR 1=1 to cause the application to generate the query SELECT \* FROM table WHERE ID=234 OR 1=1. As a result, the server retrieves every row in the table. This exposes every row and causes excessive server load. The simplest way to protect from this type of attack is to use single quotation marks around the numeric constants: SELECT \* FROM table WHERE ID='234'. If the user enters extra information, it all becomes part of the string. In a numeric context, MySQL automatically converts this string to a number and strips any trailing nonnumeric characters from it.

Sometimes people think that if a database contains only publicly available data, it need not be protected. This is incorrect. Even if it is permissible to display any row in the database, you should still protect against denial of service attacks (for example, those that are based on the technique in the preceding paragraph that causes the server to waste resources). Otherwise, your server becomes unresponsive to legitimate users.

#### Checklist:

- Enable strict SQL mode to tell the server to be more restrictive of what data values it accepts. See Server SQL Modes.
- Try to enter single and double quotation marks ("1" and "1") in all of your Web forms. If you get any kind of MySQL error, investigate the problem right away.
- Try to modify dynamic URLs by adding \$22 ("""), \$23 ("#"), and \$27 (",") to them.
- Try to modify data types in dynamic URLs from numeric to character types using the characters shown in the previous examples. Your application should be safe against these and similar attacks.
- Try to enter characters, spaces, and special symbols rather than numbers in numeric fields. Your
  application should remove them before passing them to MySQL or else generate an error. Passing
  unchecked values to MySQL is very dangerous!
- Check the size of data before passing it to MySQL.
- Have your application connect to the database using a user name different from the one you use for administrative purposes. Do not give your applications any access privileges they do not need.

Many application programming interfaces provide a means of escaping special characters in data values. Properly used, this prevents application users from entering values that cause the application to generate statements that have a different effect than you intend:

MySQL C API: Use the mysql\_real\_escape\_string() API call.

- MySQL++: Use the escape and quote modifiers for query streams.
- PHP: Use either the <code>mysqli</code> or <code>pdo\_mysql</code> extensions, and not the older <code>ext/mysql</code> extension. The preferred API's support the improved MySQL authentication protocol and passwords, as well as prepared statements with placeholders. See also Choosing an API.

If the older ext/mysql extension must be used, then for escaping use the  $mysql\_real\_escape\_string()$  function and not  $mysql\_escape\_string()$  or addslashes() because only  $mysql\_real\_escape\_string()$  is character set-aware; the other functions can be "bypassed" when using (invalid) multibyte character sets.

- Perl DBI: Use placeholders or the quote() method.
- Ruby DBI: Use placeholders or the quote() method.
- Java JDBC: Use a PreparedStatement object and placeholders.

Other programming interfaces might have similar capabilities.

# Chapter 3 Postinstallation Setup and Testing

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This section discusses tasks that you should perform after installing MySQL:

- If necessary, initialize the data directory and create the MySQL grant tables. For some MySQL installation methods, data directory initialization may be done for you automatically:
  - · Installation on Windows
  - · Installation on Linux using a server RPM distribution.
  - Installation using the native packaging system on many platforms, including Debian Linux, Ubuntu Linux, Gentoo Linux, and others.
  - Installation on OS X using a DMG distribution.

For other platforms and installation types, including installation from generic binary and source distributions, you must initialize the data directory yourself. For instructions, see Section 3.1, "Initializing the Data Directory".

- For instructions, see Section 3.2, "Starting the Server", and Section 3.3, "Testing the Server".
- Assign passwords to any initial accounts in the grant tables, if that was not already done during data directory initialization. Passwords prevent unauthorized access to the MySQL server. You may also wish to restrict access to test databases. For instructions, see Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".
- Optionally, arrange for the server to start and stop automatically when your system starts and stops. For instructions, see Section 3.5, "Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically".
- Optionally, populate time zone tables to enable recognition of named time zones. For instructions, see MySQL Server Time Zone Support.

When you are ready to create additional user accounts, you can find information on the MySQL access control system and account management in Chapter 4, *The MySQL Access Privilege System*, and Chapter 5, *MySQL User Account Management*.

#### 3.1 Initializing the Data Directory

After installing MySQL, you must initialize the data directory, including the tables in the mysql system database. For some MySQL installation methods, data directory initialization may be done automatically,

as described in Chapter 3, *Postinstallation Setup and Testing*. For other installation methods, including installation from generic binary and source distributions, you must initialize the data directory yourself.

This section describes how to initialize the data directory on Unix and Unix-like systems. (For Windows, see Windows Postinstallation Procedures.) For some suggested commands that you can use to test whether the server is accessible and working properly, see Section 3.3, "Testing the Server".

In the examples shown here, the server runs under the user ID of the  ${\tt mysql}$  login account. This assumes that such an account exists. Either create the account if it does not exist, or substitute the name of a different existing login account that you plan to use for running the server. For information about creating the account, see Creating a  ${\tt mysql}$  System User and Group, in Installing MySQL on Unix/Linux Using Generic Binaries.

1. Change location into the top-level directory of your MySQL installation, represented here by BASEDIR:

```
shell> cd BASEDIR
```

BASEDIR is likely to be something like /usr/local/mysql or /usr/local. The following steps assume that you have changed location to this directory.

You will find several files and subdirectories in the <code>BASEDIR</code> directory. The most important for installation purposes are the <code>bin</code> and <code>scripts</code> subdirectories, which contain the server as well as client and utility programs.

For some distribution types, mysqld is installed in the libexec directory.

2. If necessary, ensure that the distribution contents are accessible to mysql. If you installed the distribution as mysql, no further action is required. If you installed the distribution as root, its contents will be owned by root. Change its ownership to mysql by executing the following commands as root in the installation directory. The first command changes the owner attribute of the files to the mysql user. The second changes the group attribute to the mysql group.

```
shell> chown -R mysql .
shell> chgrp -R mysql .
```

3. If necessary, initialize the data directory, including the mysql database containing the initial MySQL grant tables that determine how users are permitted to connect to the server.

Typically, data directory initialization need be done only the first time you install MySQL. If you are upgrading an existing installation, you should run mysql\_upgrade instead (see mysql\_upgrade — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables). However, the command that initializes the data directory does not overwrite any existing privilege tables, so it should be safe to run in any circumstances.

The exact location of mysql\_install\_db depends on the layout for your given installation. To initialize the grant tables, use one of the following commands, depending on whether mysql\_install\_db is located in the bin or scripts directory:

```
shell> scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
shell> bin/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
```

It is important to make sure that the database directories and files are owned by the <code>mysql</code> login account so that the server has read and write access to them when you run it later. To ensure this if you run <code>mysql\_install\_db</code> as <code>root</code>, include the <code>--user</code> option as shown. Otherwise, you should execute the program while logged in as <code>mysql</code>, in which case you can omit the <code>--user</code> option from the command.

The <code>mysql\_install\_db</code> command creates the server's data directory. Under the data directory, it creates directories for the <code>mysql</code> database that holds the grant tables and the <code>test</code> database that you can use to test <code>MySQL</code>. The program also creates privilege table entries for the initial account or accounts. <code>test\_</code>. For a complete listing and description of the grant tables, see <code>Chapter 4</code>, <code>The MySQL Access Privilege System</code>.

It might be necessary to specify other options such as --basedir or --datadir if mysql\_install\_db does not identify the correct locations for the installation directory or data directory. For example:

```
shell> scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql \
    --basedir=/opt/mysql/mysql \
    --datadir=/opt/mysql/mysql/data
```

If you do not want to have the test database, you can remove it after starting the server, using the instructions in Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".

If you have trouble with mysql\_install\_db at this point, see Section 3.1.1, "Problems Running mysql\_install\_db".

4. After initializing the data directory, you can establish the final installation ownership settings. To leave the installation owned by mysql, no action is required here. Otherwise, most of the MySQL installation can be owned by root if you like. The exception is that the data directory must be owned by mysql. To accomplish this, run the following commands as root in the installation directory. For some distribution types, the data directory might be named var rather than data; adjust the second command accordingly.

```
shell> chown -R root .
shell> chown -R mysql data
```

If the plugin directory (the directory named by the plugin\_dir system variable) is writable by the server, it may be possible for a user to write executable code to a file in the directory using SELECT ... INTO DUMPFILE. This can be prevented by making the plugin directory read only to the server or by setting the secure\_file\_priv system variable at server startup to a directory where SELECT writes can be performed safely.

5. If you installed MySQL using a source distribution, you may want to optionally copy one of the provided configuration files from the support-files directory into your /etc directory. There are different sample configuration files for different use cases, server types, and CPU and RAM configurations. To use one of these standard files, copy it to /etc/my.cnf, or /etc/mysql/my.cnf and edit and check the configuration before starting your MySQL server for the first time.

You can also create my.cnf yourself and place into it the options the server should use at startup. See Server Configuration Defaults.

If you do not copy one of the standard configuration files or create your own, the MySQL server starts with its default settings.

6. If you want MySQL to start automatically when you boot your machine, see Section 3.5, "Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically".

Data directory initialization creates time zone tables in the mysql database but does not populate them. To do so, use the instructions in MySQL Server Time Zone Support.

### 3.1.1 Problems Running mysql\_install\_db

The purpose of the <code>mysql\_install\_db</code> program is to initialize the data directory, including the tables in the <code>mysql</code> system database. It does not overwrite existing MySQL privilege tables, and it does not affect any other data.

To re-create your privilege tables, first stop the <code>mysqld</code> server if it is running. Then rename the <code>mysql</code> directory under the data directory to save it, and run <code>mysql\_install\_db</code>. Suppose that your current directory is the MySQL installation directory and that <code>mysql\_install\_db</code> is located in the <code>bin</code> directory and the data directory is named <code>data</code>. To rename the <code>mysql</code> database and re-run <code>mysql\_install\_db</code>, use these commands.

```
shell> mv data/mysql data/mysql.old
shell> scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
```

When you run mysql\_install\_db, you might encounter the following problems:

#### • mysql install db fails to install the grant tables

You may find that mysql\_install\_db fails to install the grant tables and terminates after displaying the following messages:

```
Starting mysqld daemon with databases from XXXXXXX
mysqld ended
```

In this case, you should examine the error log file very carefully. The log should be located in the directory XXXXXX named by the error message and should indicate why mysqld did not start. If you do not understand what happened, include the log when you post a bug report. See How to Report Bugs or Problems.

#### There is a mysqld process running

This indicates that the server is running, in which case the grant tables have probably been created already. If so, there is no need to run mysql\_install\_db at all because it needs to be run only once, when you first install MySQL.

#### • Installing a second mysqld server does not work when one server is running

This can happen when you have an existing MySQL installation, but want to put a new installation in a different location. For example, you might have a production installation, but you want to create a second installation for testing purposes. Generally the problem that occurs when you try to run a second server is that it tries to use a network interface that is in use by the first server. In this case, you should see one of the following error messages:

```
Can't start server: Bind on TCP/IP port:
Address already in use
Can't start server: Bind on unix socket...
```

For instructions on setting up multiple servers, see Running Multiple MySQL Instances on One Machine.

#### You do not have write access to the /tmp directory

If you do not have write access to create temporary files or a Unix socket file in the default location (the /tmp directory) or the TMPDIR environment variable, if it has been set, an error occurs when you run mysql\_install\_db or the mysqld server.

You can specify different locations for the temporary directory and Unix socket file by executing these commands prior to starting mysql\_install\_db or mysqld, where some\_tmp\_dir is the full path name to some directory for which you have write permission:

```
shell> TMPDIR=/some_tmp_dir/
shell> MYSQL_UNIX_PORT=/some_tmp_dir/mysql.sock
shell> export TMPDIR MYSQL_UNIX_PORT
```

Then you should be able to run mysql install db and start the server with these commands:

```
shell> scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql shell> bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql &
```

If mysql\_install\_db is located in the bin directory, modify the first command to bin/mysql\_install\_db.

See How to Protect or Change the MySQL Unix Socket File, and Environment Variables.

There are some alternatives to running the mysql\_install\_db program provided in the MySQL distribution:

• If you want the initial privileges to be different from the standard defaults, use account-management statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE to change the privileges after the grant tables have been set up. In other words, run mysql\_install\_db, and then use mysql -u root mysql to connect to the server as the MySQL root user so that you can issue the necessary statements. (See Account Management Statements.)

To install MySQL on several machines with the same privileges, put the CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE statements in a file and execute the file as a script using mysql after running mysql\_install\_db. For example:

```
shell> scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
shell> bin/mysql -u root < your_script_file</pre>
```

This enables you to avoid issuing the statements manually on each machine.

• It is possible to re-create the grant tables completely after they have previously been created. You might want to do this if you are just learning how to use CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE and have made so many modifications after running mysql\_install\_db that you want to wipe out the tables and start over.

To re-create the grant tables, stop the server if it is running and remove the mysql database directory. Then run mysql\_install\_db again.

## 3.2 Starting the Server

This section describes how start the server on Unix and Unix-like systems. (For Windows, see Starting MySQL Server on Microsoft Windows for the First Time.) For some suggested commands that you can use to test whether the server is accessible and working properly, see Section 3.3, "Testing the Server".

Start the MySQL server like this:

```
shell> bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql &
```

It is important that the MySQL server be run using an unprivileged (non-root) login account. To ensure this if you run mysqld\_safe as root, include the --user option as shown. Otherwise, execute the program while logged in as mysql, in which case you can omit the --user option from the command.

For further instructions for running MySQL as an unprivileged user, see Section 2.5, "How to Run MySQL as a Normal User".

If the command fails immediately and prints mysqld ended, look for information in the error log (which by default is the *host\_name.err* file in the data directory).

If the server is unable to access the data directory it starts or read the grant tables in the mysql database, it writes a message to its error log. Such problems can occur if you neglected to create the grant tables by initializing the data directory before proceeding to this step, or if you ran the command that initializes the data directory without the --user option. Remove the data directory and run the command with the --user option.

If you have other problems starting the server, see Section 3.2.1, "Troubleshooting Problems Starting the MySQL Server". For more information about  $mysqld_safe$ , see  $mysqld_safe$ — MySQL Server Startup Script.

You can set up new accounts using the bin/mysql\_setpermission script if you install the DBI and DBD::mysql Perl modules. See mysql\_setpermission — Interactively Set Permissions in Grant Tables. For Perl module installation instructions, see Perl Installation Notes.

If you would like to use <code>mysqlaccess</code> and have the MySQL distribution in some nonstandard location, you must change the location where <code>mysqlaccess</code> expects to find the <code>mysql</code> client. Edit the <code>bin/mysqlaccess</code> script at approximately line 18. Search for a line that looks like this:

```
$MYSQL = '/usr/local/bin/mysql';  # path to mysql executable
```

Change the path to reflect the location where <code>mysql</code> actually is stored on your system. If you do not do this, a <code>Broken pipe</code> error will occur when you run <code>mysqlaccess</code>.

### 3.2.1 Troubleshooting Problems Starting the MySQL Server

This section provides troubleshooting suggestions for problems starting the server. For additional suggestions for Windows systems, see Troubleshooting a Microsoft Windows MySQL Server Installation.

If you have problems starting the server, here are some things to try:

- · Check the error log to see why the server does not start.
- Specify any special options needed by the storage engines you are using.
- Make sure that the server knows where to find the data directory.
- Make sure that the server can access the data directory. The ownership and permissions of the data directory and its contents must be set such that the server can read and modify them.
- Verify that the network interfaces the server wants to use are available.

Some storage engines have options that control their behavior. You can create a my.cnf file and specify startup options for the engines that you plan to use. If you are going to use storage engines that support transactional tables (Innode, NDE), be sure that you have them configured the way you want before starting the server:

If you are using InnoDB tables, see InnoDB Configuration.

If you are using MySQL Cluster, see Configuration of MySQL Cluster NDB 6.1-7.1.

Storage engines will use default option values if you specify none, but it is recommended that you review the available options and specify explicit values for those for which the defaults are not appropriate for your installation.

When the mysqld server starts, it changes location to the data directory. This is where it expects to find databases and where it expects to write log files. The server also writes the pid (process ID) file in the data directory.

The data directory location is hardwired in when the server is compiled. This is where the server looks for the data directory by default. If the data directory is located somewhere else on your system, the server will not work properly. You can determine what the default path settings are by invoking mysqld with the --verbose and --help options.

If the default locations do not match the MySQL installation layout on your system, you can override them by specifying options to mysqld or mysqld\_safe on the command line or in an option file.

To specify the location of the data directory explicitly, use the --datadir option. However, normally you can tell mysqld the location of the base directory under which MySQL is installed and it looks for the data directory there. You can do this with the --basedir option.

To check the effect of specifying path options, invoke <code>mysqld</code> with those options followed by the <code>--verbose</code> and <code>--help</code> options. For example, if you change location into the directory where <code>mysqld</code> is installed and then run the following command, it shows the effect of starting the server with a base directory of <code>/usr/local</code>:

```
shell> ./mysqld --basedir=/usr/local --verbose --help
```

You can specify other options such as --datadir as well, but --verbose and --help must be the last options.

Once you determine the path settings you want, start the server without --verbose and --help.

If mysqld is currently running, you can find out what path settings it is using by executing this command:

```
shell> mysqladmin variables
```

Or:

```
shell> mysqladmin -h host_name variables
```

host\_name is the name of the MySQL server host.

If you get Errcode 13 (which means Permission denied) when starting mysqld, this means that the privileges of the data directory or its contents do not permit server access. In this case, you change the permissions for the involved files and directories so that the server has the right to use them. You can also start the server as root, but this raises security issues and should be avoided.

Change location into the data directory and check the ownership of the data directory and its contents to make sure the server has access. For example, if the data directory is /usr/local/mysql/var, use this command:

```
shell> ls -la /usr/local/mysql/var
```

If the data directory or its files or subdirectories are not owned by the login account that you use for running the server, change their ownership to that account. If the account is named mysql, use these commands:

```
shell> chown -R mysql /usr/local/mysql/var shell> chgrp -R mysql /usr/local/mysql/var
```

Even with correct ownership, MySQL might fail to start up if there is other security software running on your system that manages application access to various parts of the file system. In this case, reconfigure that software to enable mysqld to access the directories it uses during normal operation.

If the server fails to start up correctly, check the error log. Log files are located in the data directory (typically C:\Program Files\MySQL\MySQL Server 5.1\data on Windows, /usr/local/mysql/data for a Unix/Linux binary distribution, and /usr/local/var for a Unix/Linux source distribution). Look in the data directory for files with names of the form <code>host\_name.err</code> and <code>host\_name.log</code>, where <code>host\_name</code> is the name of your server host. Then examine the last few lines of these files. You can use tail to display them:

```
shell> tail host_name.err
shell> tail host_name.log
```

The error log should contain information that indicates why the server could not start.

If either of the following errors occur, it means that some other program (perhaps another mysqld server) is using the TCP/IP port or Unix socket file that mysqld is trying to use:

```
Can't start server: Bind on TCP/IP port: Address already in use
Can't start server: Bind on unix socket...
```

Use ps to determine whether you have another mysqld server running. If so, shut down the server before starting mysqld again. (If another server is running, and you really want to run multiple servers, you can find information about how to do so in Running Multiple MySQL Instances on One Machine.)

If no other server is running, try to execute the command telnet your\_host\_name
tcp\_ip\_port\_number. (The default MySQL port number is 3306.) Then press Enter a couple of times. If you do not get an error message like telnet: Unable to connect to remote host:
Connection refused, some other program is using the TCP/IP port that mysqld is trying to use. You will need to track down what program this is and disable it, or else tell mysqld to listen to a different port with the --port option. In this case, you will also need to specify the port number for client programs when connecting to the server using TCP/IP.

Another reason the port might be inaccessible is that you have a firewall running that blocks connections to it. If so, modify the firewall settings to permit access to the port.

If the server starts but you cannot connect to it, you should make sure that you have an entry in /etc/hosts that looks like this:

```
127.0.0.1 localhost
```

If you cannot get mysqld to start, you can try to make a trace file to find the problem by using the --debug option. See The DBUG Package.

### 3.3 Testing the Server

After the data directory is initialized and you have started the server, perform some simple tests to make sure that it works satisfactorily. This section assumes that your current location is the MySQL installation

directory and that it has a bin subdirectory containing the MySQL programs used here. If that is not true, adjust the command path names accordingly.

Alternatively, add the bin directory to your PATH environment variable setting. That enables your shell (command interpreter) to find MySQL programs properly, so that you can run a program by typing only its name, not its path name. See Setting Environment Variables.

Use mysqladmin to verify that the server is running. The following commands provide simple tests to check whether the server is up and responding to connections:

```
shell> bin/mysqladmin version
shell> bin/mysqladmin variables
```

If you cannot connect to the server, specify a -u root option to connect as root. If you have assigned a password for the root account already, you'll also need to specify -p on the command line and enter the password when prompted. For example:

```
shell> bin/mysqladmin -u root -p version
Enter password: (enter root password here)
```

The output from mysqladmin version varies slightly depending on your platform and version of MySQL, but should be similar to that shown here:

```
shell> bin/mysqladmin version
mysqladmin Ver 14.12 Distrib 5.1.73, for pc-linux-gnu on i686
...

Server version 5.1.73
Protocol version 10
Connection Localhost via UNIX socket
UNIX socket /var/lib/mysql/mysql.sock
Uptime: 14 days 5 hours 5 min 21 sec
Threads: 1 Questions: 366 Slow queries: 0
Opens: 0 Flush tables: 1 Open tables: 19
Queries per second avg: 0.000
```

To see what else you can do with mysgladmin, invoke it with the --help option.

Verify that you can shut down the server (include a -p option if the root account has a password already):

```
shell> bin/mysqladmin -u root shutdown
```

Verify that you can start the server again. Do this by using mysqld\_safe or by invoking mysqld directly. For example:

```
shell> bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql &
```

If mysqld\_safe fails, see Section 3.2.1, "Troubleshooting Problems Starting the MySQL Server".

Run some simple tests to verify that you can retrieve information from the server. The output should be similar to that shown here.

Use mysqlshow to see what databases exist:

The list of installed databases may vary, but will always include the minimum of mysql and information\_schema.

If you specify a database name, mysqlshow displays a list of the tables within the database:

```
shell> bin/mysqlshow mysql
Database: mysql
         Tables
 columns_priv
 db
 event
 func
 help_category
 help_keyword
 help_relation
 help_topic
 host
 ndb_binlog_index
 plugin
 proc
 procs_priv
 servers
  tables_priv
 time_zone
 time_zone_leap_second
 time_zone_name
 time_zone_transition
  time_zone_transition_type
 user
```

Use the mysql program to select information from a table in the mysql database:

There is a benchmark suite in the sql-bench directory (under the MySQL installation directory) that you can use to compare how MySQL performs on different platforms. The benchmark suite is written in Perl. It requires the Perl DBI module that provides a database-independent interface to the various databases, and some other additional Perl modules:

```
DBI
DBD::mysql
Data::Dumper
Data::ShowTable
```

These modules can be obtained from CPAN (http://www.cpan.org/). See also Installing Perl on Unix.

The sql-bench/Results directory contains the results from many runs against different databases and platforms. To run all tests, execute these commands:

```
shell> cd sql-bench
shell> perl run-all-tests
```

If you do not have the sql-bench directory, you probably installed MySQL using RPM files other than the source RPM. (The source RPM includes the sql-bench benchmark directory.) In this case, you must first install the benchmark suite before you can use it. There are separate benchmark RPM files named mysql-bench-VERSION. i 386.rpm that contain benchmark code and data.

If you have a source distribution, there are also tests in its tests subdirectory that you can run. For example, to run auto\_increment.tst, execute this command from the top-level directory of your source distribution:

```
shell> mysql -vvf test < ./tests/auto_increment.tst
```

The expected result of the test can be found in the ./tests/auto\_increment.res file.

At this point, your server is running and you can access it. To tighten security if you have not yet assigned passwords to the initial account or accounts, follow the instructions in Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".

For more information about <code>mysql</code>, <code>mysqladmin</code>, and <code>mysqlshow</code>, see <code>mysql</code> — The MySQL Command-Line Tool, <code>mysqladmin</code> — Client for Administering a MySQL Server, and <code>mysqlshow</code> — Display Database, Table, and Column Information.

### 3.4 Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts

Part of the MySQL installation process involves initializing the data directory, including the mysql database containing the grant tables that define the initial MySQL accounts. For details, see Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.

The mysql.user grant table defines the initial MySQL user accounts and their access privileges:

- Some accounts have the user name root. These are superuser accounts that have all privileges and can do anything. If these root accounts have empty passwords, anyone can connect to the MySQL server as root without a password and be granted all privileges.
  - On Windows, root accounts are created that permit connections from the local host only.
     Connections can be made by specifying the host name localhost or the IP address 127.0.0.1.
     If the user selects the Enable root access from remote machines option during installation, the Windows installer creates another root account that permits connections from any host.
  - On Unix, each root account permits connections from the local host. Connections can be made by specifying the host name localhost, the IP address 127.0.0.1, or the actual host name or IP address.

An attempt to connect to the host 127.0.0.1 normally resolves to the localhost account. However, this fails if the server is run with the --skip-name-resolve option, so the 127.0.0.1 account is useful in that case.

- If accounts for anonymous users were created, these have an empty user name. The anonymous
  accounts have no password, so anyone can use them to connect to the MySQL server.
  - On Windows, there is one anonymous account that permits connections from the local host. Connections can be made by specifying a host name of localhost. The account has no global privileges. (Before MySQL 5.1.16, it has all global privileges, just like the root accounts.)

On Unix, each anonymous account permits connections from the local host. Connections can be
made by specifying a host name of localhost for one of the accounts, or the actual host name or IP
address for the other.

To display which accounts exist in the mysql.user table and check whether their passwords are empty, use the following statement:

mysql> SELECT User, Host, Password FROM mysql.user;

+-----+
| User | Host | Password |

+-----+
root	localhost	
root	myhost.example.com	
root	127.0.0.1	
localhost		myhost.example.com

This output indicates that there are several root and anonymous-user accounts, none of which have passwords. The output might differ on your system, but the presence of accounts with empty passwords means that your MySQL installation is unprotected until you do something about it:

- Assign a password to each MySQL root account that does not have one.
- To prevent clients from connecting as anonymous users without a password, either assign a password to each anonymous account or remove the accounts.

In addition, the mysql. db table contains rows that permit all accounts to access the test database and other databases with names that start with test. This is true even for accounts that otherwise have no special privileges such as the default anonymous accounts. This is convenient for testing but inadvisable on production servers. Administrators who want database access restricted only to accounts that have permissions granted explicitly for that purpose should remove these mysql. db table rows.

The following instructions describe how to set up passwords for the initial MySQL accounts, first for the root accounts, then for the anonymous accounts. The instructions also cover how to remove anonymous accounts, should you prefer not to permit anonymous access at all, and describe how to remove permissive access to test databases. Replace newpwd in the examples with the password that you want to use. Replace  $nost_name$  with the name of the server host. You can determine this name from the output of the preceding SELECT statement. For the output shown,  $nost_name$  is myhost\_example.com.

#### Note

For additional information about setting passwords, see Section 5.5, "Assigning Account Passwords". If you forget your root password after setting it, see How to Reset the Root Password.

You might want to defer setting the passwords until later, to avoid the need to specify them while you perform additional setup or testing. However, be sure to set them before using your installation for production purposes.

To set up additional accounts, see Section 5.2, "Adding User Accounts".

#### Note

On Windows, you can also perform the process described in this section using the Configuration Wizard (see MySQL Server Instance Config Wizard: The Security Options Dialog). On all platforms, the MySQL distribution includes

mysql\_secure\_installation, a command-line utility that automates much of the process of securing a MySQL installation.

### **Assigning root Account Passwords**

A root account password can be set several ways. The following discussion demonstrates three methods:

- Use the SET PASSWORD statement
- Use the UPDATE statement
- Use the mysgladmin command-line client program

To assign passwords using SET PASSWORD, connect to the server as root and issue a SET PASSWORD statement for each root account listed in the mysql.user table.

For Windows, do this:

```
shell> mysql -u root
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'127.0.0.1' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'%' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
```

The last statement is unnecessary if the mysql.user table has no root account with a host value of %.

For Unix, do this:

```
shell> mysql -u root
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'127.0.0.1' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'host_name' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
```

You can also use a single statement that assigns a password to all root accounts by using UPDATE to modify the mysql.user table directly. This method works on any platform:

The FLUSH statement causes the server to reread the grant tables. Without it, the password change remains unnoticed by the server until you restart it.

To assign passwords to the root accounts using mysgladmin, execute the following commands:

```
shell> mysqladmin -u root password "newpwd"
shell> mysqladmin -u root -h host_name password "newpwd"
```

Those commands apply both to Windows and to Unix. The double quotation marks around the password are not always necessary, but you should use them if the password contains spaces or other characters that are special to your command interpreter.

The mysqladmin method of setting the root account passwords does not work for the 'root'@'127.0.0.1' account. Use the SET PASSWORD method shown earlier.

After the root passwords have been set, you must supply the appropriate password whenever you connect as root to the server. For example, to shut down the server with mysqladmin, use this command:

```
shell> mysqladmin -u root -p shutdown
Enter password: (enter root password here)
```

The mysql commands in the following instructions include a -p option based on the assumption that you have assigned the root account passwords using the preceding instructions and must specify that password when connecting to the server.

### **Assigning Anonymous Account Passwords**

To assign passwords to the anonymous accounts, connect to the server as root, then use either SET PASSWORD or UPDATE.

To use SET PASSWORD on Windows, do this:

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR ''@'localhost' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
```

To use SET PASSWORD on Unix, do this:

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR ''@'localhost' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR ''@'host_name' = PASSWORD('newpwd');
```

To set the anonymous-user account passwords with a single UPDATE statement, do this (on any platform):

The FLUSH statement causes the server to reread the grant tables. Without it, the password change remains unnoticed by the server until you restart it.

### **Removing Anonymous Accounts**

If you prefer to remove any anonymous accounts rather than assigning them passwords, do so as follows on Windows:

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> DROP USER ''@'localhost';
```

On Unix, remove the anonymous accounts like this:

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> DROP USER ''@'localhost';
mysql> DROP USER ''@'host_name';
```

### **Securing Test Databases**

By default, the mysql. db table contains rows that permit access by any user to the test database and other databases with names that start with test. (These rows have an empty User column value, which

for access-checking purposes matches any user name.) This means that such databases can be used even by accounts that otherwise possess no privileges. If you want to remove any-user access to test databases, do so as follows:

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> DELETE FROM mysql.db WHERE Db LIKE 'test%';
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

The FLUSH statement causes the server to reread the grant tables. Without it, the privilege change remains unnoticed by the server until you restart it.

With the preceding change, only users who have global database privileges or privileges granted explicitly for the test database can use it. However, if you prefer that the database not exist at all, drop it:

```
mysql> DROP DATABASE test;
```

# 3.5 Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically

This section discusses methods for starting and stopping the MySQL server.

Generally, you start the mysqld server in one of these ways:

- Invoke mysqld directly. This works on any platform.
- On Windows, you can set up a MySQL service that runs automatically when Windows starts. See Starting MySQL Server as a Microsoft Windows Service.
- On Unix and Unix-like systems, you can invoke mysqld\_safe, which tries to determine the proper
  options for mysqld and then runs it with those options. See mysqld\_safe MySQL Server Startup
  Script.
- On systems that use System V-style run directories (that is, /etc/init.d and run-level specific directories), invoke mysql.server. This script is used primarily at system startup and shutdown. It usually is installed under the name mysql. The mysql.server script starts the server by invoking mysqld\_safe. See mysql.server MySQL Server Startup Script.
- On OS X, install a launchd daemon to enable automatic MySQL startup at system startup. The daemon starts the server by invoking mysqld\_safe. For details, see Installing a MySQL Launch Daemon. A MySQL Preference Pane also provides control for starting and stopping MySQL through the System Preferences. See Installing and Using the MySQL Preference Pane.
- On Solaris/OpenSolaris, use the service management framework (SMF) system to initiate and control MySQL startup. For more information, see Installing MySQL on OpenSolaris Using IPS.

The mysqld\_safe and mysql.server scripts, Solaris/OpenSolaris SMF, and the OS X Startup Item (or MySQL Preference Pane) can be used to start the server manually, or automatically at system startup time. mysql.server and the Startup Item also can be used to stop the server.

The following table shows which option groups the server and startup scripts read from option files.

Table 3.1 MySQL Startup Scripts and Supported Server Option Groups

Script	Option Groups	
mysqld	[mysqld], [server], [mysqld-major_version]	

Script	Option Groups	
mysqld_safe	[mysqld], [server], [mysqld_safe]	
mysql.server [mysqld],[mysql.server],[server]		

[mysqld-major\_version] means that groups with names like [mysqld-5.0] and [mysqld-5.1] are read by servers having versions 5.0.x, 5.1.x, and so forth. This feature can be used to specify options that can be read only by servers within a given release series.

For backward compatibility, mysql.server also reads the [mysql\_server] group and mysqld\_safe also reads the [safe\_mysqld] group. However, you should update your option files to use the [mysql.server] and [mysqld\_safe] groups instead.

For more information on MySQL configuration files and their structure and contents, see Using Option Files.

# Chapter 4 The MySQL Access Privilege System

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The primary function of the MySQL privilege system is to authenticate a user who connects from a given host and to associate that user with privileges on a database such as SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE. Additional functionality includes the ability to have anonymous users and to grant privileges for MySQL-specific functions such as LOAD DATA INFILE and administrative operations.

There are some things that you cannot do with the MySQL privilege system:

- You cannot explicitly specify that a given user should be denied access. That is, you cannot explicitly
  match a user and then refuse the connection.
- You cannot specify that a user has privileges to create or drop tables in a database but not to create or drop the database itself.
- A password applies globally to an account. You cannot associate a password with a specific object such as a database, table, or routine.

The user interface to the MySQL privilege system consists of SQL statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE. See Account Management Statements.

Internally, the server stores privilege information in the grant tables of the mysql database (that is, in the database named mysql). The MySQL server reads the contents of these tables into memory when it starts and bases access-control decisions on the in-memory copies of the grant tables.

The MySQL privilege system ensures that all users may perform only the operations permitted to them. As a user, when you connect to a MySQL server, your identity is determined by *the host from which you connect* and *the user name you specify*. When you issue requests after connecting, the system grants privileges according to your identity and *what you want to do*.

MySQL considers both your host name and user name in identifying you because there is no reason to assume that a given user name belongs to the same person on all hosts. For example, the user joe who connects from office.example.com need not be the same person as the user joe who connects from home.example.com. MySQL handles this by enabling you to distinguish users on different hosts that happen to have the same name: You can grant one set of privileges for connections by joe from office.example.com, and a different set of privileges for connections by joe from home.example.com. To see what privileges a given account has, use the SHOW GRANTS statement. For example:

```
SHOW GRANTS FOR 'joe'@'office.example.com';
SHOW GRANTS FOR 'joe'@'home.example.com';
```

MySQL access control involves two stages when you run a client program that connects to the server:

**Stage 1:** The server accepts or rejects the connection based on your identity and whether you can verify your identity by supplying the correct password.

**Stage 2:** Assuming that you can connect, the server checks each statement you issue to determine whether you have sufficient privileges to perform it. For example, if you try to select rows from a table in a database or drop a table from the database, the server verifies that you have the SELECT privilege for the table or the DROP privilege for the database.

For a more detailed description of what happens during each stage, see Section 4.4, "Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification", and Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification".

If your privileges are changed (either by yourself or someone else) while you are connected, those changes do not necessarily take effect immediately for the next statement that you issue. For details about the conditions under which the server reloads the grant tables, see Section 4.6, "When Privilege Changes Take Effect".

For general security-related advice, see Chapter 2, *General Security Issues*. For help in diagnosing privilege-related problems, see Section 4.7, "Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL".

# 4.1 Privileges Provided by MySQL

MySQL provides privileges that apply in different contexts and at different levels of operation:

- Administrative privileges enable users to manage operation of the MySQL server. These privileges are global because they are not specific to a particular database.
- Database privileges apply to a database and to all objects within it. These privileges can be granted for specific databases, or globally so that they apply to all databases.
- Privileges for database objects such as tables, indexes, views, and stored routines can be granted for specific objects within a database, for all objects of a given type within a database (for example, all tables in a database), or globally for all objects of a given type in all databases).

Information about account privileges is stored in the user, db, host, tables\_priv, columns\_priv, and procs\_priv tables in the mysql database (see Section 4.2, "Privilege System Grant Tables"). The MySQL server reads the contents of these tables into memory when it starts and reloads them under the circumstances indicated in Section 4.6, "When Privilege Changes Take Effect". Access-control decisions are based on the in-memory copies of the grant tables.

Some releases of MySQL introduce changes to the structure of the grant tables to add new privileges or features. To make sure that you can take advantage of any new capabilities, update your grant tables to have the current structure whenever you update to a new version of MySQL. See <a href="maysql\_upgrade">mysql\_upgrade</a>— Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables.

The following table shows the privilege names used at the SQL level in the GRANT and REVOKE statements, along with the column name associated with each privilege in the grant tables and the context in which the privilege applies.

Table 4.1 Permissible Privileges for GRANT and REVOKE

Privilege	Column	Context
CREATE	Create_priv	databases, tables, or indexes
DROP	Drop_priv	databases, tables, or views
GRANT OPTION	Grant_priv	databases, tables, or stored routines

Privilege	Column	Context
LOCK TABLES	Lock_tables_priv	databases
REFERENCES	References_priv	databases or tables
EVENT	Event_priv	databases
ALTER	Alter_priv	tables
DELETE	Delete_priv	tables
INDEX	Index_priv	tables
INSERT	Insert_priv	tables or columns
SELECT	Select_priv	tables or columns
UPDATE	Update_priv	tables or columns
CREATE TEMPORARY TABLES	Create_tmp_table_priv	tables
TRIGGER	Trigger_priv	tables
CREATE VIEW	Create_view_priv	views
SHOW VIEW	Show_view_priv	views
ALTER ROUTINE	Alter_routine_priv	stored routines
CREATE ROUTINE	Create_routine_priv	stored routines
EXECUTE	Execute_priv	stored routines
FILE	File_priv	file access on server host
CREATE USER	Create_user_priv	server administration
PROCESS	Process_priv	server administration
RELOAD	Reload_priv	server administration
REPLICATION CLIENT	Repl_client_priv	server administration
REPLICATION SLAVE	Repl_slave_priv	server administration
SHOW DATABASES	Show_db_priv	server administration
SHUTDOWN	Shutdown_priv	server administration
SUPER	Super_priv	server administration
ALL [PRIVILEGES]		server administration
USAGE		server administration

The following list provides a general description of each privilege available in MySQL. Particular SQL statements might have more specific privilege requirements than indicated here. If so, the description for the statement in question provides the details.

- The ALL or ALL PRIVILEGES privilege specifier is shorthand. It stands for "all privileges available at a given privilege level" (except GRANT OPTION). For example, granting ALL at the global or table level grants all global privileges or all table-level privileges.
- The ALTER privilege enables use of ALTER TABLE to change the structure of tables. ALTER TABLE also requires the CREATE and INSERT privileges. Renaming a table requires ALTER and DROP on the old table, CREATE, and INSERT on the new table.
- The ALTER ROUTINE privilege is needed to alter or drop stored routines (procedures and functions).
- The CREATE privilege enables creation of new databases and tables.

- The CREATE ROUTINE privilege is needed to create stored routines (procedures and functions).
- The CREATE TEMPORARY TABLES privilege enables the creation of temporary tables using the CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE statement.

However, other operations on a temporary table, such as INSERT, UPDATE, or SELECT, require additional privileges for those operations for the database containing the temporary table, or for the nontemporary table of the same name.

To keep privileges for temporary and nontemporary tables separate, a common workaround for this situation is to create a database dedicated to the use of temporary tables. Then for that database, a user can be granted the CREATE TEMPORARY TABLES privilege, along with any other privileges required for temporary table operations done by that user.

- The CREATE USER privilege enables use of CREATE USER, DROP USER, RENAME USER, and REVOKE ALL PRIVILEGES.
- The CREATE VIEW privilege enables use of CREATE VIEW.
- The DELETE privilege enables rows to be deleted from tables in a database.
- The DROP privilege enables you to drop (remove) existing databases, tables, and views. Beginning with MySQL 5.1.10, the DROP privilege is also required to use the statement ALTER TABLE ... DROP PARTITION on a partitioned table. Beginning with MySQL 5.1.16, the DROP privilege is required for TRUNCATE TABLE (before that, TRUNCATE TABLE requires the DELETE privilege). If you grant the DROP privilege for the mysql database to a user, that user can drop the database in which the MySQL access privileges are stored.
- The EVENT privilege is required to create, alter, drop, or see events for the Event Scheduler. This privilege was added in MySQL 5.1.6.
- The EXECUTE privilege is required to execute stored routines (procedures and functions).
- The FILE privilege gives you permission to read and write files on the server host using the LOAD DATA INFILE and SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE statements and the LOAD\_FILE() function. A user who has the FILE privilege can read any file on the server host that is either world-readable or readable by the MySQL server. (This implies the user can read any file in any database directory, because the server can access any of those files.) The FILE privilege also enables the user to create new files in any directory where the MySQL server has write access. This includes the server's data directory containing the files that implement the privilege tables. As a security measure, the server will not overwrite existing files.

To limit the location in which files can be read and written, set the secure\_file\_priv system to a specific directory. See Server System Variables.

- The GRANT OPTION privilege enables you to give to other users or remove from other users those privileges that you yourself possess.
- The INDEX privilege enables you to create or drop (remove) indexes. INDEX applies to existing tables. If you have the CREATE privilege for a table, you can include index definitions in the CREATE TABLE statement.
- The INSERT privilege enables rows to be inserted into tables in a database. INSERT is also required for the ANALYZE TABLE, OPTIMIZE TABLE, and REPAIR TABLE table-maintenance statements.
- The LOCK TABLES privilege enables the use of explicit LOCK TABLES statements to lock tables for
  which you have the SELECT privilege. This includes the use of write locks, which prevents other sessions
  from reading the locked table.

- The PROCESS privilege pertains to display of information about the threads executing within the server (that is, information about the statements being executed by sessions). The privilege enables use of SHOW PROCESSLIST or mysqladmin processlist to see threads belonging to other accounts; you can always see your own threads. The PROCESS privilege also enables use of SHOW ENGINE.
- In MySQL 5.1, the REFERENCES privilege is unused.
- The RELOAD privilege enables use of the FLUSH statement. It also enables mysqladmin commands that are equivalent to FLUSH operations: flush-hosts, flush-logs, flush-privileges, flush-status, flush-tables, flush-threads, refresh, and reload.

The reload command tells the server to reload the grant tables into memory. flush-privileges is a synonym for reload. The refresh command closes and reopens the log files and flushes all tables. The other flush-xxx commands perform functions similar to refresh, but are more specific and may be preferable in some instances. For example, if you want to flush just the log files, flush-logs is a better choice than refresh.

- The REPLICATION CLIENT privilege enables the use of SHOW MASTER STATUS and SHOW SLAVE STATUS. In MySQL 5.1.64 and later, it also enables the use of the SHOW BINARY LOGS statement.
- The REPLICATION SLAVE privilege should be granted to accounts that are used by slave servers to
  connect to the current server as their master. Without this privilege, the slave cannot request updates
  that have been made to databases on the master server.
- The SELECT privilege enables you to select rows from tables in a database. SELECT statements require the SELECT privilege only if they actually retrieve rows from a table. Some SELECT statements do not access tables and can be executed without permission for any database. For example, you can use SELECT as a simple calculator to evaluate expressions that make no reference to tables:

```
SELECT 1+1;
SELECT PI()*2;
```

The SELECT privilege is also needed for other statements that read column values. For example, SELECT is needed for columns referenced on the right hand side of col\_name=expr assignment in UPDATE statements or for columns named in the WHERE clause of DELETE or UPDATE statements.

- The SHOW DATABASES privilege enables the account to see database names by issuing the SHOW DATABASE statement. Accounts that do not have this privilege see only databases for which they have some privileges, and cannot use the statement at all if the server was started with the --skip-show-database option. Note that *any* global privilege is a privilege for the database.
- The SHOW VIEW privilege enables use of SHOW CREATE VIEW.
- The SHUTDOWN privilege enables use of the mysqladmin shutdown command and the mysql\_shutdown() C API function. There is no corresponding SQL statement.
- The SUPER privilege enables an account to use CHANGE MASTER TO, KILL or mysqladmin kill to kill threads belonging to other accounts (you can always kill your own threads), PURGE BINARY LOGS, configuration changes using SET GLOBAL to modify global system variables, the mysqladmin debug command, enabling or disabling logging, performing updates even if the read\_only system variable is enabled, starting and stopping replication on slave servers, specification of any account in the DEFINER attribute of stored programs and views, and enables you to connect (once) even if the connection limit controlled by the max\_connections system variable is reached.

To create or alter stored functions if binary logging is enabled, you may also need the SUPER privilege, as described in Binary Logging of Stored Programs.

- The TRIGGER privilege enables trigger operations. You must have this privilege for a table to create, drop, or execute triggers for that table. This privilege was added in MySQL 5.1.6. (Prior to MySQL 5.1.6, trigger operations required the SUPER privilege.)
- The UPDATE privilege enables rows to be updated in tables in a database.
- The USAGE privilege specifier stands for "no privileges." It is used at the global level with GRANT to
  modify account attributes such as resource limits or SSL characteristics without affecting existing
  account privileges.

It is a good idea to grant to an account only those privileges that it needs. You should exercise particular caution in granting the FILE and administrative privileges:

- The FILE privilege can be abused to read into a database table any files that the MySQL server can read on the server host. This includes all world-readable files and files in the server's data directory. The table can then be accessed using SELECT to transfer its contents to the client host.
- The GRANT OPTION privilege enables users to give their privileges to other users. Two users that have different privileges and with the GRANT OPTION privilege are able to combine privileges.
- The ALTER privilege may be used to subvert the privilege system by renaming tables.
- The SHUTDOWN privilege can be abused to deny service to other users entirely by terminating the server.
- The PROCESS privilege can be used to view the plain text of currently executing statements, including statements that set or change passwords.
- The SUPER privilege can be used to terminate other sessions or change how the server operates.
- Privileges granted for the mysql database itself can be used to change passwords and other access
  privilege information. Passwords are stored encrypted, so a malicious user cannot simply read them to
  know the plain text password. However, a user with write access to the user table Password column
  can change an account's password, and then connect to the MySQL server using that account.

### 4.2 Privilege System Grant Tables

The mysql system database includes several grant tables that contain information about user accounts and the privileges held by them.

Normally, to manipulate the contents of grant tables, you modify them indirectly by using account-management statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE to set up accounts and control the privileges available to each one. See Account Management Statements. The discussion here describes the underlying structure of the grant tables and how the server uses their contents when interacting with clients.

#### Note

Direct modification of grant tables using statements such as INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE is discouraged. The server is free to ignore rows that become malformed as a result of such modifications.

These mysql database tables contain grant information:

- user: User accounts, global privileges, and other non-privilege columns.
- db: Database-level privileges.
- host: Obsolete.

- tables\_priv: Table-level privileges.
- columns\_priv: Column-level privileges.
- procs\_priv: Stored procedure and function privileges.

Other tables in the mysql database do not hold grant information and are discussed elsewhere:

- event: Information about Event Scheduler events. See Using the Event Scheduler.
- func: Information about user-defined functions. See Adding New Functions to MySQL.
- general\_log, slow\_log: Used for logging. See MySQL Server Logs.
- help\_xxx: Used for server-side help. See Server-Side Help.
- ndb\_binlog\_index: Used for MySQL Cluster replication. See MySQL Cluster Replication Schema and Tables.
- plugin: Information about server plugins. See Installing and Uninstalling Plugins, and The MySQL Plugin API.
- proc: Information about stored procedures and functions. See Using Stored Routines (Procedures and Functions).
- servers: Used by the FEDERATED storage engine. See Creating a FEDERATED Table Using CREATE SERVER.
- time\_zone\_xxx: Used for time zone information. See MySQL Server Time Zone Support.

Each grant table contains scope columns and privilege columns:

- Scope columns determine the scope of each row in the tables; that is, the context in which the row applies. For example, a user table row with Host and User values of 'thomas.loc.gov' and 'bob' applies to authenticating connections made to the server from the host thomas.loc.gov by a client that specifies a user name of bob. Similarly, a db table row with Host, User, and Db column values of 'thomas.loc.gov', 'bob' and 'reports' applies when bob connects from the host thomas.loc.gov to access the reports database. The tables\_priv and columns\_priv tables contain scope columns indicating tables or table/column combinations to which each row applies. The procs priv scope columns indicate the stored routine to which each row applies.
- Privilege columns indicate which privileges a table row grants; that is, which operations it permits to
  be performed. The server combines the information in the various grant tables to form a complete
  description of a user's privileges. Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification", describes
  the rules for this.

The server uses the grant tables in the following manner:

• The user table scope columns determine whether to reject or permit incoming connections. For permitted connections, any privileges granted in the user table indicate the user's global privileges. Any privileges granted in this table apply to *all* databases on the server.

#### Caution

Because any global privilege is considered a privilege for all databases, any global privilege enables a user to see all database names with SHOW DATABASES or by examining the SCHEMATA table of INFORMATION\_SCHEMA.

- The db table scope columns determine which users can access which databases from which hosts. The privilege columns determine the permitted operations. A privilege granted at the database level applies to the database and to all objects in the database, such as tables and stored programs.
- The host table is used in conjunction with the db table when you want a given db table row to apply to several hosts. For example, if you want a user to be able to use a database from several hosts in your network, leave the Host value empty in the user's db table row, then populate the host table with a row for each of those hosts. This mechanism is described more detail in Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification".

#### Note

The host table must be modified directly with statements such as INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE. It is not affected by statements such as GRANT and REVOKE that modify the grant tables indirectly. Most MySQL installations need not use this table at all.

- The tables\_priv and columns\_priv tables are similar to the db table, but are more fine-grained: They apply at the table and column levels rather than at the database level. A privilege granted at the table level applies to the table and to all its columns. A privilege granted at the column level applies only to a specific column.
- The procs\_priv table applies to stored routines (procedures and functions). A privilege granted at the routine level applies only to a single procedure or function.

The server uses the user, db, and host tables in the mysql database at both the first and second stages of access control (see Chapter 4, *The MySQL Access Privilege System*). The columns in the user and db tables are shown here. The host table is similar to the db table but has a specialized use as described in Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification".

Table 4.2 user and db Table Columns

Table Name	user	db
Scope columns	Host	Host
	User	Db
	Password	User
Privilege columns	Select_priv	Select_priv
	Insert_priv	Insert_priv
	Update_priv	Update_priv
	Delete_priv	Delete_priv
	Index_priv	Index_priv
	Alter_priv	Alter_priv
	Create_priv	Create_priv
	Drop_priv	Drop_priv
	Grant_priv	Grant_priv
	Create_view_priv	Create_view_priv
	Show_view_priv	Show_view_priv
	Create_routine_priv	Create_routine_priv
	Alter_routine_priv	Alter_routine_priv

Table Name	user	db
	Execute_priv	Execute_priv
	Trigger_priv	Trigger_priv
	Event_priv	Event_priv
	Create_tmp_table_priv	Create_tmp_table_priv
	Lock_tables_priv	Lock_tables_priv
	References_priv	References_priv
	Reload_priv	
	Shutdown_priv	
	Process_priv	
	File_priv	
	Show_db_priv	
	Super_priv	
	Repl_slave_priv	
	Repl_client_priv	
	Create_user_priv	
Security columns	ssl_type	
	ssl_cipher	
	x509_issuer	
	x509_subject	
Resource control columns	max_questions	
	max_updates	
	max_connections	
	max_user_connections	

The Event\_priv and Trigger\_priv columns were added in MySQL 5.1.6.

During the second stage of access control, the server performs request verification to ensure that each client has sufficient privileges for each request that it issues. In addition to the user, db, and host grant tables, the server may also consult the tables\_priv and columns\_priv tables for requests that involve tables. The latter tables provide finer privilege control at the table and column levels. They have the columns shown in the following table.

Table 4.3 tables\_priv and columns\_priv Table Columns

Table Name	tables_priv	columns_priv
Scope columns	Host	Host
	Db	Db
	User	User
	Table_name	Table_name
		Column_name
Privilege columns	Table_priv	Column_priv
	Column_priv	

Table Name	tables_priv	columns_priv
Other columns	Timestamp	Timestamp
Grantor		

The Timestamp and Grantor columns are unused.

For verification of requests that involve stored routines, the server may consult the procs\_priv table, which has the columns shown in the following table.

Table 4.4 procs\_priv Table Columns

Table Name	procs_priv
Scope columns	Host
	Db
	User
	Routine_name
	Routine_type
Privilege columns	Proc_priv
Other columns	Timestamp
	Grantor

The Routine\_type column is an ENUM column with values of 'FUNCTION' or 'PROCEDURE' to indicate the type of routine the row refers to. This column enables privileges to be granted separately for a function and a procedure with the same name.

The Timestamp and Grantor columns are set to the current timestamp and the CURRENT\_USER value, respectively, but are otherwise unused.

Scope columns in the grant tables contain strings. The default value for each is the empty string. The following table shows the number of characters permitted in each column.

**Table 4.5 Grant Table Scope Column Lengths** 

Column Name	Maximum Permitted Characters
Host	60
User	16
Password	41
Db	64
Table_name	64
Column_name	64
Routine_name	64

For access-checking purposes, comparisons of User, Password, Db, and Table\_name values are case sensitive. Comparisons of Host, Column name, and Routine name values are not case sensitive.

The user, db, and host tables list each privilege in a separate column that is declared as ENUM('N', 'Y') DEFAULT 'N'. In other words, each privilege can be disabled or enabled, with the default being disabled.

The tables\_priv, columns\_priv, and procs\_priv tables declare the privilege columns as SET columns. Values in these columns can contain any combination of the privileges controlled by the table. Only those privileges listed in the column value are enabled.

Table 4.6 Set-Type Privilege Column Values

Table Name	Column Name	Possible Set Elements
tables_priv	Table_priv	'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'Delete', 'Create', 'Drop', 'Grant', 'References', 'Index', 'Alter', 'Create View', 'Show view', 'Trigger'
tables_priv	Column_priv	'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'References'
columns_priv	Column_priv	'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'References'
procs_priv	Proc_priv	'Execute', 'Alter Routine', 'Grant'

Only the user table specifies administrative privileges, such as RELOAD and SHUTDOWN. Administrative operations are operations on the server itself and are not database-specific, so there is no reason to list these privileges in the other grant tables. Consequently, the server need consult only the user table to determine whether a user can perform an administrative operation.

The FILE privilege also is specified only in the user table. It is not an administrative privilege as such, but a user's ability to read or write files on the server host is independent of the database being accessed.

The server reads the contents of the grant tables into memory when it starts. You can tell it to reload the tables by issuing a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement or executing a mysqladmin flush-privileges or mysqladmin reload command. Changes to the grant tables take effect as indicated in Section 4.6, "When Privilege Changes Take Effect".

When you modify an account, it is a good idea to verify that your changes have the intended effect. To check the privileges for a given account, use the SHOW GRANTS statement. For example, to determine the privileges that are granted to an account with user name and host name values of bob and pc84.example.com, use this statement:

```
SHOW GRANTS FOR 'bob'@'pc84.example.com';
```

## 4.3 Specifying Account Names

MySQL account names consist of a user name and a host name. This enables creation of accounts for users with the same name who can connect from different hosts. This section describes how to write account names, including special values and wildcard rules.

In SQL statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and SET PASSWORD, write account names using the following rules:

- Syntax for account names is 'user\_name'@'host\_name'.
- An account name consisting only of a user name is equivalent to 'user\_name'@'%'. For example, 'me' is equivalent to 'me'@'%'.
- The user name and host name need not be quoted if they are legal as unquoted identifiers. Quotes are necessary to specify a user\_name string containing special characters (such as "-"), or a host\_name string containing special characters or wildcard characters (such as "%"); for example, 'test-user'@'%.com'.

- Quote user names and host names as identifiers or as strings, using either backticks ("`"), single quotation marks ("""), or double quotation marks (""").
- The user name and host name parts, if quoted, must be quoted separately. That is, write 'me'@'localhost', not 'me@localhost'; the latter is interpreted as 'me@localhost'@'%'.
- A reference to the CURRENT\_USER or CURRENT\_USER() function is equivalent to specifying the current client's user name and host name literally.

MySQL stores account names in grant tables in the mysql database using separate columns for the user name and host name parts:

- The user table contains one row for each account. The User and Host columns store the user name and host name. This table also indicates which global privileges the account has.
- Other grant tables indicate privileges an account has for databases and objects within databases. These
  tables have User and Host columns to store the account name. Each row in these tables associates
  with the account in the user table that has the same User and Host values.

For additional detail about grant table structure, see Section 4.2, "Privilege System Grant Tables".

User names and host names have certain special values or wildcard conventions, as described following.

A user name is either a nonblank value that literally matches the user name for incoming connection attempts, or a blank value (empty string) that matches any user name. An account with a blank user name is an anonymous user. To specify an anonymous user in SQL statements, use a quoted empty user name part, such as ''@'localhost'.

The host name part of an account name can take many forms, and wildcards are permitted:

- A host value can be a host name or an IP address. The name 'localhost' indicates the local host. The IP address '127.0.0.1' indicates the loopback interface.
- You can use the wildcard characters "%" and "\_" in host name or IP address values. These have the same meaning as for pattern-matching operations performed with the LIKE operator. For example, a host value of '%' matches any host name, whereas a value of '%.mysql.com' matches any host in the mysql.com domain. '192.168.1.%' matches any host in the 192.168.1 class C network.

Because you can use IP wildcard values in host values (for example, '192.168.1.%' to match every host on a subnet), someone could try to exploit this capability by naming a host 192.168.1.somewhere.com. To foil such attempts, MySQL disallows matching on host names that start with digits and a dot. Thus, if you have a host named something like 1.2.example.com, its name never matches the host part of account names. An IP wildcard value can match only IP addresses, not host names.

For a host value specified as an IP address, you can specify a netmask indicating how many address
bits to use for the network number. The syntax is host\_ip/netmask. For example:

```
CREATE USER 'david'@'192.58.197.0/255.255.255.0';
```

This enables david to connect from any client host having an IP address <code>client\_ip</code> for which the following condition is true:

```
client_ip & netmask = host_ip
```

That is, for the CREATE USER statement just shown:

```
client_ip & 255.255.255.0 = 192.58.197.0
```

IP addresses that satisfy this condition and can connect to the MySQL server are those in the range from 192.58.197.0 to 192.58.197.255.

A netmask typically begins with bits set to 1, followed by bits set to 0. Examples:

- 192.0.0.0/255.0.0.0: Any host on the 192 class A network
- 192.168.0.0/255.255.0.0: Any host on the 192.168 class B network
- 192.168.1.0/255.255.255.0: Any host on the 192.168.1 class C network
- 192.168.1.1: Only the host with this specific IP address

The following netmask will not work because it masks 28 bits, and 28 is not a multiple of 8:

```
192.168.0.1/255.255.255.240
```

The server performs matching of host values in account names against the client host using the value returned by the system DNS resolver for the client host name or IP address. Except in the case that the account host value is specified using netmask notation, this comparison is performed as a string match, even for an account host value given as an IP address. This means that you should specify account host values in the same format used by DNS. Here are examples of problems to watch out for:

- Suppose that a host on the local network has a fully qualified name of host1.example.com. If DNS returns name lookups for this host as host1.example.com, use that name in account host values. But if DNS returns just host1, use host1 instead.
- If DNS returns the IP address for a given host as 192.168.1.2, that will match an account host value of 192.168.1.2 but not 192.168.01.2. Similarly, it will match an account host pattern like 192.168.1. % but not 192.168.01.%.

To avoid problems like this, it is advisable to check the format in which your DNS returns host names and addresses, and use values in the same format in MySQL account names.

### 4.4 Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification

When you attempt to connect to a MySQL server, the server accepts or rejects the connection based on your identity and whether you can verify your identity by supplying the correct password. If not, the server denies access to you completely. Otherwise, the server accepts the connection, and then enters Stage 2 and waits for requests.

Credential checking is performed using the three user table scope columns (Host, User, and Password). The server accepts the connection only if the Host and User columns in some user table row match the client host name and user name and the client supplies the password specified in that row. The rules for permissible Host and User values are given in Section 4.3, "Specifying Account Names".

Your identity is based on two pieces of information:

- The client host from which you connect
- Your MySQL user name

If the User column value is nonblank, the user name in an incoming connection must match exactly. If the User value is blank, it matches any user name. If the user table row that matches an incoming connection has a blank user name, the user is considered to be an anonymous user with no name, not a user with the name that the client actually specified. This means that a blank user name is used for all further access checking for the duration of the connection (that is, during Stage 2).

The Password column can be blank. This is not a wildcard and does not mean that any password matches. It means that the user must connect without specifying a password.

Nonblank Password values in the user table represent encrypted passwords. MySQL does not store passwords in cleartext form for anyone to see. Rather, the password supplied by a user who is attempting to connect is encrypted (using the PASSWORD() function). The encrypted password then is used during the connection process when checking whether the password is correct. This is done without the encrypted password ever traveling over the connection. See Section 5.1, "User Names and Passwords".

From MySQL's point of view, the encrypted password is the *real* password, so you should never give anyone access to it. In particular, *do not give nonadministrative users read access to tables in the mysql database.* 

The following table shows how various combinations of <code>Host</code> and <code>User</code> values in the <code>user</code> table apply to incoming connections.

Host Value	User Value	Permissible Connections
'thomas.loc.gov'	'fred'	fred, connecting from thomas.loc.gov
'thomas.loc.gov'	1.1	Any user, connecting from thomas.loc.gov
181	'fred'	fred, connecting from any host
181	1.1	Any user, connecting from any host
'%.loc.gov'	'fred'	fred, connecting from any host in the loc.gov domain
'x.y.%'	'fred'	fred, connecting from x.y.net, x.y.com, x.y.edu, and so on; this is probably not useful
'144.155.166.177'	'fred'	fred, connecting from the host with IP address 144.155.166.177
'144.155.166.%'	'fred'	fred, connecting from any host in the 144.155.166 class C subnet
'144.155.166.0/255.255.255.	O"fred'	Same as previous example

It is possible for the client host name and user name of an incoming connection to match more than one row in the user table. The preceding set of examples demonstrates this: Several of the entries shown match a connection from thomas.loc.gov by fred.

When multiple matches are possible, the server must determine which of them to use. It resolves this issue as follows:

- Whenever the server reads the user table into memory, it sorts the rows.
- When a client attempts to connect, the server looks through the rows in sorted order.
- The server uses the first row that matches the client host name and user name.

The server uses sorting rules that order rows with the most-specific Host values first. Literal host names and IP addresses are the most specific. (The specificity of a literal IP address is not affected by whether it has a netmask, so 192.168.1.13 and 192.168.1.0/255.255.255.0 are considered equally specific.)

The pattern '%' means "any host" and is least specific. The empty string '' also means "any host" but sorts after '%'. Rows with the same Host value are ordered with the most-specific User values first (a blank User value means "any user" and is least specific). For rows with equally-specific Host and User values, the order is indeterminate.

To see how this works, suppose that the user table looks like this:

When the server reads the table into memory, it sorts the rows using the rules just described. The result after sorting looks like this:

When a client attempts to connect, the server looks through the sorted rows and uses the first match found. For a connection from localhost by jeffrey, two of the rows from the table match: the one with Host and User values of 'localhost' and '', and the one with values of '%' and 'jeffrey'. The 'localhost' row appears first in sorted order, so that is the one the server uses.

Here is another example. Suppose that the user table looks like this:

The sorted table looks like this:

A connection by jeffrey from thomas.loc.gov is matched by the first row, whereas a connection by jeffrey from any host is matched by the second.

#### Note

It is a common misconception to think that, for a given user name, all rows that explicitly name that user are used first when the server attempts to find a match

for the connection. This is not true. The preceding example illustrates this, where a connection from thomas.loc.gov by jeffrey is first matched not by the row containing 'jeffrey' as the User column value, but by the row with no user name. As a result, jeffrey is authenticated as an anonymous user, even though he specified a user name when connecting.

If you are able to connect to the server, but your privileges are not what you expect, you probably are being authenticated as some other account. To find out what account the server used to authenticate you, use the <code>CURRENT\_USER()</code> function. (See Information Functions.) It returns a value in <code>user\_name@host\_name</code> format that indicates the <code>User</code> and <code>Host</code> values from the matching <code>user</code> table row. Suppose that <code>jeffrey</code> connects and issues the following query:

The result shown here indicates that the matching user table row had a blank User column value. In other words, the server is treating jeffrey as an anonymous user.

Another way to diagnose authentication problems is to print out the user table and sort it by hand to see where the first match is being made.

# 4.5 Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification

After you establish a connection, the server enters Stage 2 of access control. For each request that you issue through that connection, the server determines what operation you want to perform, then checks whether you have sufficient privileges to do so. This is where the privilege columns in the grant tables come into play. These privileges can come from any of the user, db, host, tables\_priv, columns\_priv, or procs\_priv tables. (You may find it helpful to refer to Section 4.2, "Privilege System Grant Tables", which lists the columns present in each of the grant tables.)

The user table grants privileges that are assigned to you on a global basis and that apply no matter what the default database is. For example, if the user table grants you the DELETE privilege, you can delete rows from any table in any database on the server host! It is wise to grant privileges in the user table only to people who need them, such as database administrators. For other users, you should leave all privileges in the user table set to 'N' and grant privileges at more specific levels only. You can grant privileges for particular databases, tables, columns, or routines.

The db and host tables grant database-specific privileges. Values in the scope columns of these tables can take the following forms:

- A blank User value in the db table matches the anonymous user. A nonblank value matches literally;
   there are no wildcards in user names.
- The wildcard characters "%" and "\_" can be used in the Host and Db columns of either table. These have the same meaning as for pattern-matching operations performed with the LIKE operator. If you want to use either character literally when granting privileges, you must escape it with a backslash. For example, to include the underscore character ("\_") as part of a database name, specify it as "\\_" in the GRANT statement.
- A '%' Host value in the db table means "any host." A blank Host value in the db table means "consult the host table for further information" (a process that is described later in this section).

- A '%' or blank Host value in the host table means "any host."
- A '%' or blank Db value in either table means "any database."

The server reads the db and host tables into memory and sorts them at the same time that it reads the user table. The server sorts the db table based on the Host, Db, and User scope columns, and sorts the host table based on the Host and Db scope columns. As with the user table, sorting puts the most-specific values first and least-specific values last, and when the server looks for matching rows, it uses the first match that it finds.

The tables\_priv, columns\_priv, and procs\_priv tables grant table-specific, column-specific, and routine-specific privileges. Values in the scope columns of these tables can take the following forms:

- The wildcard characters "%" and "\_" can be used in the Host column. These have the same meaning as for pattern-matching operations performed with the LIKE operator.
- A '%' or blank Host value means "any host."
- The Db, Table\_name, Column\_name, and Routine\_name columns cannot contain wildcards or be blank.

The server sorts the tables\_priv, columns\_priv, and procs\_priv tables based on the Host, Db, and User columns. This is similar to db table sorting, but simpler because only the Host column can contain wildcards.

The server uses the sorted tables to verify each request that it receives. For requests that require administrative privileges such as SHUTDOWN or RELOAD, the server checks only the user table row because that is the only table that specifies administrative privileges. The server grants access if the row permits the requested operation and denies access otherwise. For example, if you want to execute mysqladmin shutdown but your user table row does not grant the SHUTDOWN privilege to you, the server denies access without even checking the db or host tables. (They contain no Shutdown\_priv column, so there is no need to do so.)

For database-related requests (INSERT, UPDATE, and so on), the server first checks the user's global privileges by looking in the user table row. If the row permits the requested operation, access is granted. If the global privileges in the user table are insufficient, the server determines the user's database-specific privileges by checking the db and host tables:

- 1. The server looks in the db table for a match on the Host, Db, and User columns. The Host and User columns are matched to the connecting user's host name and MySQL user name. The Db column is matched to the database that the user wants to access. If there is no row for the Host and User, access is denied.
- 2. If there is a matching db table row and its Host column is not blank, that row defines the user's database-specific privileges.
- 3. If the matching db table row's Host column is blank, it signifies that the host table enumerates which hosts should be permitted access to the database. In this case, a further lookup is done in the host table to find a match on the Host and Db columns. If no host table row matches, access is denied. If there is a match, the user's database-specific privileges are computed as the intersection (not the union!) of the privileges in the db and host table rows; that is, the privileges that are 'Y' in both rows. (This way you can grant general privileges in the db table row and then selectively restrict them on a host-by-host basis using the host table rows.)

After determining the database-specific privileges granted by the db and host table rows, the server adds them to the global privileges granted by the user table. If the result permits the requested operation,

access is granted. Otherwise, the server successively checks the user's table and column privileges in the tables\_priv and columns\_priv tables, adds those to the user's privileges, and permits or denies access based on the result. For stored-routine operations, the server uses the procs\_priv table rather than tables\_priv and columns\_priv.

Expressed in boolean terms, the preceding description of how a user's privileges are calculated may be summarized like this:

```
global privileges
OR (database privileges AND host privileges)
OR table privileges
OR column privileges
OR routine privileges
```

It may not be apparent why, if the global user row privileges are initially found to be insufficient for the requested operation, the server adds those privileges to the database, table, and column privileges later. The reason is that a request might require more than one type of privilege. For example, if you execute an INSERT INTO ... SELECT statement, you need both the INSERT and the SELECT privileges. Your privileges might be such that the user table row grants one privilege and the db table row grants the other. In this case, you have the necessary privileges to perform the request, but the server cannot tell that from either table by itself; the privileges granted by the rows in both tables must be combined.

The host table is not affected by the GRANT or REVOKE statements, so it is unused in most MySQL installations. If you modify it directly, you can use it for some specialized purposes, such as to maintain a list of secure servers on the local network that are granted all privileges.

You can also use the host table to indicate hosts that are *not* secure. Suppose that you have a machine public.your.domain that is located in a public area that you do not consider secure. You can enable access to all hosts on your network except that machine by using host table rows like this:

# 4.6 When Privilege Changes Take Effect

When mysqld starts, it reads all grant table contents into memory. The in-memory tables become effective for access control at that point.

If you modify the grant tables indirectly using account-management statements such as GRANT, REVOKE, SET PASSWORD, or RENAME USER, the server notices these changes and loads the grant tables into memory again immediately.

If you modify the grant tables directly using statements such as INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE, your changes have no effect on privilege checking until you either restart the server or tell it to reload the tables. If you change the grant tables directly but forget to reload them, your changes have *no effect* until you restart the server. This may leave you wondering why your changes seem to make no difference!

To tell the server to reload the grant tables, perform a flush-privileges operation. This can be done by issuing a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement or by executing a mysqladmin flush-privileges or mysqladmin reload command.

A grant table reload affects privileges for each existing client connection as follows:

- Table and column privilege changes take effect with the client's next request.
- Database privilege changes take effect the next time the client executes a USE db\_name statement.

#### Note

Client applications may cache the database name; thus, this effect may not be visible to them without actually changing to a different database or flushing the privileges.

Global privileges and passwords are unaffected for a connected client. These changes take effect only
for subsequent connections.

If the server is started with the <code>--skip-grant-tables</code> option, it does not read the grant tables or implement any access control. Anyone can connect and do anything, *which is insecure*. To cause a server thus started to read the tables and enable access checking, flush the privileges.

# 4.7 Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL

If you encounter problems when you try to connect to the MySQL server, the following items describe some courses of action you can take to correct the problem.

Make sure that the server is running. If it is not, clients cannot connect to it. For example, if an attempt to
connect to the server fails with a message such as one of those following, one cause might be that the
server is not running:

```
shell> mysql
ERROR 2003: Can't connect to MySQL server on 'host_name' (111)
shell> mysql
ERROR 2002: Can't connect to local MySQL server through socket
'/tmp/mysql.sock' (111)
```

It might be that the server is running, but you are trying to connect using a TCP/IP port, named pipe, or
Unix socket file different from the one on which the server is listening. To correct this when you invoke
a client program, specify a --port option to indicate the proper port number, or a --socket option to
indicate the proper named pipe or Unix socket file. To find out where the socket file is, you can use this
command:

```
shell> netstat -ln | grep mysql
```

- Make sure that the server has not been configured to ignore network connections or (if you are attempting to connect remotely) that it has not been configured to listen only locally on its network interfaces. If the server was started with --skip-networking, it will not accept TCP/IP connections at all. If the server was started with --bind-address=127.0.0.1, it will listen for TCP/IP connections only locally on the loopback interface and will not accept remote connections.
- Check to make sure that there is no firewall blocking access to MySQL. Your firewall may be configured
  on the basis of the application being executed, or the port number used by MySQL for communication
  (3306 by default). Under Linux or Unix, check your IP tables (or similar) configuration to ensure that
  the port has not been blocked. Under Windows, applications such as ZoneAlarm or the Windows XP
  personal firewall may need to be configured not to block the MySQL port.
- The grant tables must be properly set up so that the server can use them for access control. For some distribution types (such as binary distributions on Windows, or RPM distributions on Linux), the installation process initializes the mysql database containing the grant tables. For distributions that do

not do this, you must initialize the grant tables manually. For details, see Chapter 3, *Postinstallation Setup and Testing*.

To determine whether you need to initialize the grant tables, look for a mysql directory under the data directory. (The data directory normally is named data or var and is located under your MySQL installation directory.) Make sure that you have a file named user.MYD in the mysql database directory. If not, execute the mysql\_install\_db program. After running this program and starting the server, test the initial privileges by executing this command:

```
shell> mysql -u root test
```

The server should let you connect without error.

• After a fresh installation, you should connect to the server and set up your users and their access permissions:

```
shell> mysql -u root mysql
```

The server should let you connect because the MySQL root user has no password initially. That is also a security risk, so setting the password for the root accounts is something you should do while you're setting up your other MySQL accounts. For instructions on setting the initial passwords, see Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts".

- If you have updated an existing MySQL installation to a newer version, did you run the mysql\_upgrade script? If not, do so. The structure of the grant tables changes occasionally when new capabilities are added, so after an upgrade you should always make sure that your tables have the current structure. For instructions, see mysql\_upgrade Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables.
- If a client program receives the following error message when it tries to connect, it means that the server expects passwords in a newer format than the client is capable of generating:

```
shell> mysql
Client does not support authentication protocol requested
by server; consider upgrading MySQL client
```

For information on how to deal with this, see Section 2.2.4, "Password Hashing in MySQL", and Client does not support authentication protocol.

Remember that client programs use connection parameters specified in option files or environment
variables. If a client program seems to be sending incorrect default connection parameters when you
have not specified them on the command line, check any applicable option files and your environment.
For example, if you get Access denied when you run a client without any options, make sure that you
have not specified an old password in any of your option files!

You can suppress the use of option files by a client program by invoking it with the --no-defaults option. For example:

```
shell> mysqladmin --no-defaults -u root version
```

The option files that clients use are listed in Using Option Files. Environment variables are listed in Environment Variables.

If you get the following error, it means that you are using an incorrect root password:

```
shell> mysqladmin -u root -pxxxx ver
Access denied for user 'root'@'localhost' (using password: YES)
```

If the preceding error occurs even when you have not specified a password, it means that you have an incorrect password listed in some option file. Try the --no-defaults option as described in the previous item.

For information on changing passwords, see Section 5.5, "Assigning Account Passwords".

If you have lost or forgotten the root password, see How to Reset the Root Password.

• If you change a password by using SET PASSWORD, INSERT, or UPDATE, you must encrypt the password using the PASSWORD() function. If you do not use PASSWORD() for these statements, the password will not work. For example, the following statement assigns a password, but fails to encrypt it, so the user is not able to connect afterward:

```
SET PASSWORD FOR 'abe'@'host_name' = 'eagle';
```

Instead, set the password like this:

```
SET PASSWORD FOR 'abe'@'host_name' = PASSWORD('eagle');
```

The PASSWORD() function is unnecessary when you specify a password using the CREATE USER or GRANT statements or the mysqladmin password command. Each of those automatically uses PASSWORD() to encrypt the password. See Section 5.5, "Assigning Account Passwords", and CREATE USER Syntax.

• localhost is a synonym for your local host name, and is also the default host to which clients try to connect if you specify no host explicitly.

You can use a --host=127.0.0.1 option to name the server host explicitly. This will make a TCP/IP connection to the local mysqld server. You can also use TCP/IP by specifying a --host option that uses the actual host name of the local host. In this case, the host name must be specified in a user table row on the server host, even though you are running the client program on the same host as the server.

- The Access denied error message tells you who you are trying to log in as, the client host from which you are trying to connect, and whether you were using a password. Normally, you should have one row in the user table that exactly matches the host name and user name that were given in the error message. For example, if you get an error message that contains using password: NO, it means that you tried to log in without a password.
- If you get an Access denied error when trying to connect to the database with mysql -u
   user\_name, you may have a problem with the user table. Check this by executing mysql -u root
   mysql and issuing this SQL statement:

```
SELECT * FROM user;
```

The result should include a row with the Host and User columns matching your client's host name and your MySQL user name.

 If the following error occurs when you try to connect from a host other than the one on which the MySQL server is running, it means that there is no row in the user table with a Host value that matches the client host:

```
Host ... is not allowed to connect to this MySQL server
```

You can fix this by setting up an account for the combination of client host name and user name that you are using when trying to connect.

If you do not know the IP address or host name of the machine from which you are connecting, you should put a row with '%' as the Host column value in the user table. After trying to connect from the client machine, use a SELECT USER() query to see how you really did connect. Then change the '%' in the user table row to the actual host name that shows up in the log. Otherwise, your system is left insecure because it permits connections from any host for the given user name.

On Linux, another reason that this error might occur is that you are using a binary MySQL version that is compiled with a different version of the glibc library than the one you are using. In this case, you should either upgrade your operating system or glibc, or download a source distribution of MySQL version and compile it yourself. A source RPM is normally trivial to compile and install, so this is not a big problem.

 If you specify a host name when trying to connect, but get an error message where the host name is not shown or is an IP address, it means that the MySQL server got an error when trying to resolve the IP address of the client host to a name:

```
shell> mysqladmin -u root -pxxxx -h some_hostname ver
Access denied for user 'root'@'' (using password: YES)
```

If you try to connect as root and get the following error, it means that you do not have a row in the user table with a User column value of 'root' and that mysqld cannot resolve the host name for your client:

```
Access denied for user ''@'unknown'
```

These errors indicate a DNS problem. To fix it, execute mysqladmin flush-hosts to reset the internal DNS host cache. See DNS Lookup Optimization and the Host Cache.

Some permanent solutions are:

- · Determine what is wrong with your DNS server and fix it.
- Specify IP addresses rather than host names in the MySQL grant tables.
- Put an entry for the client machine name in /etc/hosts on Unix or \windows\hosts on Windows.
- Start mysqld with the --skip-name-resolve option.
- Start mysqld with the --skip-host-cache option.
- On Unix, if you are running the server and the client on the same machine, connect to localhost.
   For connections to localhost, MySQL programs attempt to connect to the local server by using a Unix socket file, unless there are connection parameters specified to ensure that the client makes a TCP/IP connection. For more information, see Connecting to the MySQL Server.
- On Windows, if you are running the server and the client on the same machine and the server supports named pipe connections, connect to the host name. (period). Connections to . use a named pipe rather than TCP/IP.
- If mysql -u root test works but mysql -h your\_hostname -u root test results in Access denied (where your\_hostname is the actual host name of the local host), you may not have the

correct name for your host in the user table. A common problem here is that the Host value in the user table row specifies an unqualified host name, but your system's name resolution routines return a fully qualified domain name (or vice versa). For example, if you have a row with host 'pluto' in the user table, but your DNS tells MySQL that your host name is 'pluto.example.com', the row does not work. Try adding a row to the user table that contains the IP address of your host as the Host column value. (Alternatively, you could add a row to the user table with a Host value that contains a wildcard; for example, 'pluto.%'. However, use of Host values ending with "%" is insecure and is not recommended!)

- If mysql -u user\_name test works but mysql -u user\_name other\_db does not, you have not granted access to the given user for the database named other\_db.
- If mysql -u user\_name works when executed on the server host, but mysql -h host\_name -u user\_name does not work when executed on a remote client host, you have not enabled access to the server for the given user name from the remote host.
- If you cannot figure out why you get Access denied, remove from the user table all rows that have Host values containing wildcards (rows that contain '%' or '\_' characters). A very common error is to insert a new row with Host='%' and User='some\_user', thinking that this enables you to specify localhost to connect from the same machine. The reason that this does not work is that the default privileges include a row with Host='localhost' and User=''. Because that row has a Host value 'localhost' that is more specific than '%', it is used in preference to the new row when connecting from localhost! The correct procedure is to insert a second row with Host='localhost' and User='some\_user', or to delete the row with Host='localhost' and User=''. After deleting the row, remember to issue a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement to reload the grant tables. See also Section 4.4, "Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification".
- If you are able to connect to the MySQL server, but get an Access denied message whenever you issue a SELECT ... INTO OUTFILE OR LOAD DATA INFILE statement, your row in the user table does not have the FILE privilege enabled.
- If you change the grant tables directly (for example, by using INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statements) and your changes seem to be ignored, remember that you must execute a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement or a mysqladmin flush-privileges command to cause the server to reload the privilege tables. Otherwise, your changes have no effect until the next time the server is restarted. Remember that after you change the root password with an UPDATE statement, you will not need to specify the new password until after you flush the privileges, because the server will not know you've changed the password yet!
- If your privileges seem to have changed in the middle of a session, it may be that a MySQL administrator has changed them. Reloading the grant tables affects new client connections, but it also affects existing connections as indicated in Section 4.6, "When Privilege Changes Take Effect".
- If you have access problems with a Perl, PHP, Python, or ODBC program, try to connect to the server with mysql -u user\_name db\_name or mysql -u user\_name -pyour\_pass db\_name. If you are able to connect using the mysql client, the problem lies with your program, not with the access privileges. (There is no space between -p and the password; you can also use the -- password=your\_pass syntax to specify the password. If you use the -p or --password option with no password value, MySQL prompts you for the password.)
- For testing purposes, start the mysqld server with the --skip-grant-tables option. Then you can change the MySQL grant tables and use the mysqlaccess script to check whether your modifications have the desired effect. When you are satisfied with your changes, execute mysqladmin flush-privileges to tell the mysqld server to reload the privileges. This enables you to begin using the new grant table contents without stopping and restarting the server.
- If you get the following error, you may have a problem with the db or host table:

#### Access to database denied

If the row selected from the db table has an empty value in the Host column, make sure that there are one or more corresponding rows in the host table specifying which hosts the db table row applies to. This problem occurs infrequently because the host table is rarely used.

- If everything else fails, start the mysqld server with a debugging option (for example, -- debug=d, general, query). This prints host and user information about attempted connections, as well as information about each command issued. See The DBUG Package.
- If you have any other problems with the MySQL grant tables and feel you must post the problem to the mailing list, always provide a dump of the MySQL grant tables. You can dump the tables with the mysqldump mysql command. To file a bug report, see the instructions at How to Report Bugs or Problems. In some cases, you may need to restart mysqld with --skip-grant-tables to run mysqldump.

# Chapter 5 MySQL User Account Management

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This section describes how to set up accounts for clients of your MySQL server. It discusses the following topics:

- The meaning of account names and passwords as used in MySQL and how that compares to names and passwords used by your operating system
- · How to set up new accounts and remove existing accounts
- How to change passwords
- Guidelines for using passwords securely
- · How to use secure connections with SSL

See also Account Management Statements, which describes the syntax and use for all user-management SQL statements.

### 5.1 User Names and Passwords

MySQL stores accounts in the user table of the mysql system database. An account is defined in terms of a user name and the client host or hosts from which the user can connect to the server. The account may also have a password. For information about account representation in the user table, see Section 4.2, "Privilege System Grant Tables".

There are several distinctions between the way user names and passwords are used by MySQL and your operating system:

- User names, as used by MySQL for authentication purposes, have nothing to do with user names (login names) as used by Windows or Unix. On Unix, most MySQL clients by default try to log in using the current Unix user name as the MySQL user name, but that is for convenience only. The default can be overridden easily, because client programs permit any user name to be specified with a -u or -- user option. This means that anyone can attempt to connect to the server using any user name, so you cannot make a database secure in any way unless all MySQL accounts have passwords. Anyone who specifies a user name for an account that has no password is able to connect successfully to the server.
- MySQL user names can be up to 16 characters long. Operating system user names may be of a different maximum length. For example, Unix user names typically are limited to eight characters.

#### Warning

The limit on MySQL user name length is hard-coded in MySQL servers and clients, and trying to circumvent it by modifying the definitions of the tables in the mysql database *does not work*.

You should never alter the structure of tables in the <code>mysql</code> database in any manner whatsoever except by means of the procedure that is described in <code>mysql\_upgrade</code> — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables. Attempting to redefine MySQL's system tables in any other fashion results in undefined (and unsupported!) behavior. The server is free to ignore rows that become malformed as a result of such modifications.

- To authenticate client connections that use MySQL built-in authentication, the server uses MySQL
  passwords stored in the user table. These passwords are distinct from passwords for logging in to your
  operating system. There is no necessary connection between the "external" password you use to log in
  to a Windows or Unix machine and the password you use to access the MySQL server on that machine.
- MySQL encrypts passwords stored in the user table using its own algorithm. This encryption is the
  same as that implemented by the PASSWORD() SQL function but differs from that used during the
  Unix login process. Unix password encryption is the same as that implemented by the ENCRYPT()
  SQL function. See the descriptions of the PASSWORD() and ENCRYPT() functions in Encryption and
  Compression Functions.

From version 4.1 on, MySQL employs a stronger authentication method that has better password protection during the connection process than in earlier versions. It is secure even if TCP/IP packets are sniffed or the <code>mysql</code> database is captured. (In earlier versions, even though passwords are stored in encrypted form in the <code>user</code> table, knowledge of the encrypted password value could be used to connect to the MySQL server.) Section 2.2.4, "Password Hashing in MySQL", discusses password encryption further.

• If the user name and password contain only ASCII characters, it is possible to connect to the server regardless of character set settings. To connect when the user name or password contain non-ASCII characters, the client should call the mysql\_options() C API function with the MYSQL\_SET\_CHARSET\_NAME option and appropriate character set name as arguments. This causes authentication to take place using the specified character set. Otherwise, authentication will fail unless the server default character set is the same as the encoding in the authentication defaults.

Standard MySQL client programs support a --default-character-set option that causes  $mysql\_options()$  to be called as just described. For programs that use a connector that is not based on the C API, the connector may provide an equivalent to  $mysql\_options()$  that can be used instead. Check the connector documentation.

The preceding notes do not apply for ucs2, which is not permitted as a client character set.

The MySQL installation process populates the grant tables with an initial account or accounts. The names and access privileges for these accounts are described in Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts", which also discusses how to assign passwords to them. Thereafter, you normally set up, modify, and remove MySQL accounts using statements such as CREATE USER, DROP USER, GRANT, and REVOKE. See Account Management Statements.

To connect to a MySQL server with a command-line client, specify user name and password options as necessary for the account that you want to use:

```
shell> mysql --user=monty --password db_name
```

If you prefer short options, the command looks like this:

```
shell> mysql -u monty -p db_name
```

If you omit the password value following the --password or -p option on the command line (as just shown), the client prompts for one. Alternatively, the password can be specified on the command line:

```
shell> mysql --user=monty --password=password db_name
shell> mysql -u monty -ppassword db_name
```

If you use the -p option, there must be *no space* between -p and the following password value.

Specifying a password on the command line should be considered insecure. See Section 2.2.1, "End-User Guidelines for Password Security". You can use an option file to avoid giving the password on the command line. See Using Option Files.

For additional information about specifying user names, passwords, and other connection parameters, see Connecting to the MySQL Server.

# **5.2 Adding User Accounts**

You can create MySQL accounts two ways:

- By using account-management statements intended for creating accounts and establishing their
  privileges, such as CREATE USER and GRANT. These statements cause the server to make appropriate
  modifications to the underlying grant tables.
- By manipulating the MySQL grant tables directly with statements such as INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE.

The preferred method is to use account-management statements because they are more concise and less error-prone than manipulating the grant tables directly. All such statements are described in Account Management Statements. Direct grant table manipulation is discouraged, and is not described here. The server is free to ignore rows that become malformed as a result of such modifications.

Another option for creating accounts is to use the GUI tool MySQL Workbench. Also, several third-party programs offer capabilities for MySQL account administration. phpMyAdmin is one such program.

The following examples show how to use the <code>mysql</code> client program to set up new accounts. These examples assume that privileges have been set up according to the defaults described in Section 3.4, "Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts". This means that to make changes, you must connect to the MySQL server as the MySQL root user, which has the <code>CREATE USER</code> privilege.

First, use the mysql program to connect to the server as the MySQL root user:

```
shell> mysql --user=root mysql
```

If you have assigned a password to the root account, you must also supply a --password or -p option.

After connecting to the server as root, you can add new accounts. The following example uses CREATE USER and GRANT statements to set up four accounts:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'monty'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'some_pass';
mysql> GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES ON *.* TO 'monty'@'localhost'
    -> WITH GRANT OPTION;
mysql> CREATE USER 'monty'@'%' IDENTIFIED BY 'some_pass';
mysql> GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES ON *.* TO 'monty'@'%'
    -> WITH GRANT OPTION;
```

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'admin'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'admin_pass';
mysql> GRANT RELOAD,PROCESS ON *.* TO 'admin'@'localhost';
mysql> CREATE USER 'dummy'@'localhost';
```

The accounts created by those statements have the following properties:

• Two accounts have a user name of monty and a password of some\_pass. Both are superuser accounts with full privileges to do anything. The 'monty'@'localhost' account can be used only when connecting from the local host. The 'monty'@'%' account uses the '%' wildcard for the host part, so it can be used to connect from any host.

The 'monty'@'localhost' account is necessary if there is an anonymous-user account for localhost. Without the 'monty'@'localhost' account, that anonymous-user account takes precedence when monty connects from the local host and monty is treated as an anonymous user. The reason for this is that the anonymous-user account has a more specific Host column value than the 'monty'@'%' account and thus comes earlier in the user table sort order. (user table sorting is discussed in Section 4.4, "Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification".)

- The 'admin'@'localhost' account has a password of admin\_pass. This account can be used only by admin to connect from the local host. It is granted the RELOAD and PROCESS administrative privileges. These privileges enable the admin user to execute the mysqladmin reload, mysqladmin refresh, and mysqladmin flush-xxx commands, as well as mysqladmin processlist. No privileges are granted for accessing any databases. You could add such privileges using GRANT statements.
- The 'dummy'@'localhost' account has no password (which is insecure and not recommended). This account can be used only to connect from the local host. No privileges are granted. It is assumed that you will grant specific privileges to the account using GRANT statements.

To see the privileges for an account, use SHOW GRANTS:

The next examples create three accounts and grant them access to specific databases. Each of them has a user name of custom and password of obscure:

The three accounts can be used as follows:

- The first account can access the bankaccount database, but only from the local host.
- The second account can access the expenses database, but only from the host host47.example.com.

• The third account can access the customer database, from any host in the example.com domain. This account has access from all machines in the domain due to use of the "%" wildcard character in the host part of the account name.

### 5.3 Removing User Accounts

To remove an account, use the DROP USER statement, which is described in DROP USER Syntax. For example:

```
mysql> DROP USER 'jeffrey'@'localhost';
```

# **5.4 Setting Account Resource Limits**

One means of restricting client use of MySQL server resources is to set the global max\_user\_connections system variable to a nonzero value. This limits the number of simultaneous connections that can be made by any given account, but places no limits on what a client can do once connected. In addition, setting max\_user\_connections does not enable management of individual accounts. Both types of control are of interest to MySQL administrators.

To address such concerns, MySQL permits limits for individual accounts on use of these server resources:

- · The number of queries an account can issue per hour
- The number of updates an account can issue per hour
- The number of times an account can connect to the server per hour
- The number of simultaneous connections to the server by an account

Any statement that a client can issue counts against the query limit, unless its results are served from the query cache. Only statements that modify databases or tables count against the update limit.

An "account" in this context corresponds to a row in the <code>mysql.user</code> table. That is, a connection is assessed against the <code>User</code> and <code>Host</code> values in the <code>user</code> table row that applies to the connection. For example, an account <code>'usera'@'%.example.com'</code> corresponds to a row in the <code>user</code> table that has <code>User</code> and <code>Host</code> values of <code>usera</code> and <code>%.example.com</code>, to permit <code>usera</code> to connect from any host in the <code>example.com</code> domain. In this case, the server applies resource limits in this row collectively to all connections by <code>usera</code> from any host in the <code>example.com</code> domain because all such connections use the same account.

Before MySQL 5.0.3, an "account" was assessed against the actual host from which a user connects. This older method of accounting may be selected by starting the server with the <code>--old-style-user-limits</code> option. In this case, if <code>usera</code> connects simultaneously from <code>hostl.example.com</code> and <code>hostl.example.com</code>, the server applies the account resource limits separately to each connection. If <code>usera</code> connects again from <code>hostl.example.com</code>, the server applies the limits for that connection together with the existing connection from that host.

To establish resource limits for an account, use the GRANT statement (see GRANT Syntax). Provide a WITH clause that names each resource to be limited. The default value for each limit is zero (no limit). For example, to create a new account that can access the customer database, but only in a limited fashion, issue these statements:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'francis'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'frank';
mysql> GRANT ALL ON customer.* TO 'francis'@'localhost'
-> WITH MAX_QUERIES_PER_HOUR 20
```

```
-> MAX_UPDATES_PER_HOUR 10
-> MAX_CONNECTIONS_PER_HOUR 5
-> MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS 2;
```

The limit types need not all be named in the WITH clause, but those named can be present in any order. The value for each per-hour limit should be an integer representing a count per hour. For MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS, the limit is an integer representing the maximum number of simultaneous connections by the account. If this limit is set to zero, the global max\_user\_connections system variable value determines the number of simultaneous connections. If max\_user\_connections is also zero, there is no limit for the account.

To modify limits for an existing account, use a GRANT USAGE statement at the global level (ON \*.\*). The following statement changes the query limit for francis to 100:

The statement modifies only the limit value specified and leaves the account otherwise unchanged.

To remove a limit, set its value to zero. For example, to remove the limit on how many times per hour francis can connect, use this statement:

As mentioned previously, the simultaneous-connection limit for an account is determined from the MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limit and the max\_user\_connections system variable. Suppose that the global max\_user\_connections value is 10 and three accounts have individual resource limits specified as follows:

```
GRANT ... TO 'user1'@'localhost' WITH MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS 0;
GRANT ... TO 'user2'@'localhost' WITH MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS 5;
GRANT ... TO 'user3'@'localhost' WITH MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS 20;
```

user1 has a connection limit of 10 (the global max\_user\_connections value) because it has a MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limit of zero. user2 and user3 have connection limits of 5 and 20, respectively, because they have nonzero MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limits.

The server stores resource limits for an account in the user table row corresponding to the account. The max\_questions, max\_updates, and max\_connections columns store the per-hour limits, and the max\_user\_connections column stores the MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limit. (See Section 4.2, "Privilege System Grant Tables".) If your user table does not have these columns, it must be upgraded; see mysql\_upgrade — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables.

Resource-use counting takes place when any account has a nonzero limit placed on its use of any of the resources.

As the server runs, it counts the number of times each account uses resources. If an account reaches its limit on number of connections within the last hour, the server rejects further connections for the account until that hour is up. Similarly, if the account reaches its limit on the number of queries or updates, the server rejects further queries or updates until the hour is up. In all such cases, the server issues appropriate error messages.

Resource counting occurs per account, not per client. For example, if your account has a query limit of 50, you cannot increase your limit to 100 by making two simultaneous client connections to the server. Queries issued on both connections are counted together.

The current per-hour resource-use counts can be reset globally for all accounts, or individually for a given account:

- To reset the current counts to zero for all accounts, issue a FLUSH USER\_RESOURCES statement. The counts also can be reset by reloading the grant tables (for example, with a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement or a mysqladmin reload command).
- The counts for an individual account can be reset to zero by setting any of its limits again. Specify a limit value equal to the value currently assigned to the account.

Per-hour counter resets do not affect the MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limit.

All counts begin at zero when the server starts. Counts do not carry over through server restarts.

For the MAX\_USER\_CONNECTIONS limit, an edge case can occur if the account currently has open the maximum number of connections permitted to it: A disconnect followed quickly by a connect can result in an error (ER\_TOO\_MANY\_USER\_CONNECTIONS or ER\_USER\_LIMIT\_REACHED) if the server has not fully processed the disconnect by the time the connect occurs. When the server finishes disconnect processing, another connection will once more be permitted.

# **5.5 Assigning Account Passwords**

Required credentials for clients that connect to the MySQL server can include a password. This section describes how to assign passwords for MySQL accounts.

MySQL stores passwords in the user table in the mysql database. Operations that assign or modify passwords are permitted only to users with the CREATE USER privilege, or, alternatively, privileges for the mysql database (INSERT to create new accounts, UPDATE to modify existing accounts). If the read\_only system variable is enabled, use of account-modification statements such as CREATE USER or SET PASSWORD additionally requires the SUPER privilege.

To assign a password when you create a new account with CREATE USER, include an IDENTIFIED BY clause:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'jeffrey'@'localhost'
    -> IDENTIFIED BY 'mypass';
```

To assign or change a password for an existing account, one way is to issue a SET PASSWORD statement:

```
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR
    -> 'jeffrey'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('mypass');
```

If you are not connected as an anonymous user, you can change your own password by omitting the FOR clause:

```
mysql> SET PASSWORD = PASSWORD('mypass');
```

The old\_passwords system variable value determines the hashing method used by PASSWORD(). If you specify the password using that function and SET PASSWORD rejects the password as not being in the correct format, it may be necessary to set old\_passwords to change the hashing method. For descriptions of the permitted values, see Server System Variables.

You can also use a GRANT USAGE statement at the global level (ON \*.\*) to assign a password to an account without affecting the account's current privileges:

```
mysql> GRANT USAGE ON *.* TO 'jeffrey'@'localhost'
```

```
-> IDENTIFIED BY 'mypass';
```

To assign a password from the command line, use the mysgladmin command:

```
shell> mysqladmin -u user_name -h host_name password "newpwd"
```

The account for which this command sets the password is the one with a user table row that matches user\_name in the User column and the client host from which you connect in the Host column.

During authentication when a client connects to the server, MySQL treats the password in the user table as an encrypted hash value. When assigning a password to an account, it is important to store an encrypted value, not the cleartext password. Use the following guidelines:

 When you assign a password using CREATE USER, GRANT with an IDENTIFIED BY clause, or the mysqladmin password command, they encrypt the password for you. Specify the literal cleartext password:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'jeffrey'@'localhost'
-> IDENTIFIED BY 'mypass';
```

 For CREATE USER or GRANT, you can avoid sending the cleartext password if you know the hash value that PASSWORD() would return for the password. Specify the hash value preceded by the keyword PASSWORD:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'jeffrey'@'localhost'
-> IDENTIFIED BY PASSWORD '*90E462C37378CED12064BB3388827D2BA3A9B689';
```

 When you assign an account a nonempty password using SET PASSWORD, you must use the PASSWORD() function to encrypt the password, otherwise the password is stored as cleartext. Suppose that you assign a password like this:

```
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR
    -> 'jeffrey'@'localhost' = 'mypass';
```

The result is that the literal value 'mypass' is stored as the password in the user table, not the encrypted value. When jeffrey attempts to connect to the server using this password, the value is encrypted and compared to the value stored in the user table. However, the stored value is the literal string 'mypass', so the comparison fails and the server rejects the connection with an Access denied error.

#### **Note**

PASSWORD() encryption differs from Unix password encryption. See Section 5.1, "User Names and Passwords".

Although it is preferable to modify passwords using SET PASSWORD, GRANT, or mysqladmin, it is also possible to modify the user table directly. In this case, you must also use FLUSH PRIVILEGES to cause the server to reread the grant tables. Otherwise, the change remains unnoticed by the server until you restart it.

# 5.6 Using SSL for Secure Connections

With an unencrypted connection between the MySQL client and the server, someone with access to the network could watch all your traffic and look at the data being sent or received, or even change the data while it is in transit between client and server.

When you must move information over a network in a secure fashion, an unencrypted connection is unacceptable. Encryption is the way to make any kind of data unreadable. Encryption algorithms must include security elements to resist many kinds of known attacks such as changing the order of encrypted messages or replaying data twice.

MySQL supports secure (encrypted) connections between clients and the server using the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) protocol. SSL uses encryption algorithms to ensure that data received over a public network can be trusted. It has mechanisms to detect any data change, loss, or replay. SSL also incorporates algorithms that provide identity verification using the X509 standard.

X509 makes it possible to identify someone on the Internet. It is most commonly used in e-commerce applications. In basic terms, there should be some entity called a "Certificate Authority" (or CA) that assigns electronic certificates to anyone who needs them. Certificates rely on asymmetric encryption algorithms that have two encryption keys (a public key and a secret key). A certificate owner can show the certificate to another party as proof of identity. A certificate consists of its owner's public key. Any data encrypted with this public key can be decrypted only using the corresponding secret key, which is held by the owner of the certificate.

For more information about SSL, X509, encryption, or public-key cryptography, perform an Internet search for the keywords in which you are interested.

MySQL supports SSL using the TLSv1.0 protocol. To see which protocol version an SSL connection uses, check the value of the Ssl\_version status variable using this query:

MySQL enables SSL encryption on a per-connection basis, and use of SSL can be optional or mandatory. You can choose an unencrypted connection or a secure SSL connection according to the requirements of individual applications. For information on how to require users to use SSL connections, see the discussion of the REQUIRE clause of the GRANT statement in GRANT Syntax.

Encrypted connections are not used by default. For applications that require the security provided by encrypted connections, the extra computation to encrypt the data is worthwhile.

Secure connections are are available through the MySQL C API using the mysql\_ssl\_set() function. See mysql\_ssl\_set().

Replication uses the C API, so secure connections can be used between master and slave servers. See Setting Up Replication Using SSL.

Secure connections are based on the OpenSSL API. MySQL can be compiled using either OpenSSL or yaSSL; see Section 5.6.2, "Building MySQL with SSL Support". OpenSSL and yaSSL offer the same basic functionality, but some features not supported by yaSSL are available in MySQL distributions compiled using OpenSSL. OpenSSL supports a wider range of encryption ciphers values to choose from for the --ssl-cipher option, and supports the --ssl-capath. See Section 5.6.4, "SSL Command Options".

Another way to connect securely is from within an SSH connection to the MySQL server host. For an example, see Section 5.8, "Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH".

# 5.6.1 OpenSSL Versus yaSSL

MySQL can be compiled using OpenSSL or yaSSL, both of which enable secure conections based on the OpenSSL API.

OpenSSL and yaSSL offer the same basic functionality, but these additional features are available in MySQL distributions compiled using OpenSSL: OpenSSL supports a wider range of encryption ciphers from which to choose for the --ssl-cipher option, and supports the --ssl-capath option. See Section 5.6.4, "SSL Command Options".

### 5.6.2 Building MySQL with SSL Support

To use SSL connections between the MySQL server and client programs, your system must support either OpenSSL or yaSSL, and your version of MySQL must be built with SSL support. To make it easier to use secure connections, MySQL is bundled with yaSSL, which uses the same licensing model as MySQL. (OpenSSL uses an Apache-style license.) yaSSL support is available on all MySQL platforms supported by Oracle Corporation.

To get secure connections to work with MySQL and SSL, you must do the following:

 If you are not using a binary (precompiled) version of MySQL that has been built with SSL support, and you are going to use OpenSSL rather than the bundled yaSSL library, install OpenSSL if it has not already been installed. We have tested MySQL with OpenSSL 0.9.6. To obtain OpenSSL, visit http:// www.openssl.org.

Building MySQL using OpenSSL requires a shared OpenSSL library, otherwise linker errors occur. Alternatively, build MySQL using yaSSL.

2. If you are not using a binary (precompiled) version of MySQL that has been built with SSL support, configure a MySQL source distribution to use SSL. When you configure MySQL, invoke the configure script like this:

```
shell> ./configure --with-ssl
```

That command configures the distribution to use the bundled yaSSL library. To use OpenSSL instead, specify the --with-ssl option with the path to the directory where the OpenSSL header files and libraries are located:

```
shell> ./configure --with-ssl=path
```

#### Note

On some platforms the full determination of the You may also need to explicitly add the SSL library and header directories. You can do this by setting the LDFLAGS, CFLAGS, CPPFLAGS and CXXFLAGS with the full directories. For example:

shell> LDFLAGS="-L/usr/local/ssl/lib" CFLAGS="-I/usr/local/ssl/include" \
CPPFLAGS="-I/usr/local/ssl/include" \
configure --with-ssl=/usr/local/ssl

Before MySQL 5.1.11, you must use the appropriate option to select the SSL library that you want to use.

For yaSSL:

```
shell> ./configure --with-yassl
```

For OpenSSL:

```
shell> ./configure --with-openssl
```

Then compile and install the distribution.

On Unix platforms, yaSSL retrieves true random numbers from either /dev/urandom or /dev/random. Bug#13164 lists workarounds for some very old platforms which do not support these devices.

3. To check whether a mysqld server supports SSL, examine the value of the have\_ssl system variable:

If the value is YES, the server supports SSL connections. If the value is DISABLED, the server is capable of supporting SSL connections but was not started with the appropriate --ssl-xxx options to enable them to be used; see Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections".

### 5.6.3 Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections

To enable SSL connections, your MySQL distribution must be built with SSL support, as described in Section 5.6.2, "Building MySQL with SSL Support". In addition, the proper SSL-related options must be used to specify the appropriate certificate and key files. For a complete list of SSL options, see Section 5.6.4, "SSL Command Options".

If you need to create the required SSL files, see Section 5.7, "Creating SSL Certificates and Keys Using openssl".

### **Server-Side SSL Configuration**

To start the MySQL server so that it permits clients to connect using SSL, use options that identify the certificate and key files the server uses when establishing a secure connection:

- --ssl-ca identifies the Certificate Authority (CA) certificate.
- --ssl-cert identifies the server public key certificate. This can be sent to the client and authenticated against the CA certificate that it has.
- --ssl-key identifies the server private key.

For example, start the server with these lines in the my.cnf file, changing the file names as necessary:

```
[mysqld]
ssl-ca=ca.pem
ssl-cert=server-cert.pem
ssl-key=server-key.pem
```

Each option names a file in PEM format. If you have a MySQL source distribution, you can also test your setup using the demonstration certificate and key files in its mysql-test/std\_data directory.

### **Client-Side SSL Configuration**

For client programs, SSL options are similar to those used on the server side, but --ssl-cert and --ssl-key identify the client public and private key.

- --ssl-ca identifies the Certificate Authority (CA) certificate. This option, if used, must specify the same certificate as used by the server.
- --ssl-cert identifies the client public key certificate.
- --ssl-key identifies the client private key.

To establish a secure connection to a MySQL server with SSL support, the options that a client must specify depend on the SSL requirements of the MySQL account used by the client. (See the discussion of the REQUIRE clause in GRANT Syntax.)

Suppose that you want to connect using an account that has no special SSL requirements or was created using a GRANT statement that includes the REQUIRE SSL option. As a recommended set of SSL options, start the server with at least --ssl-cert and --ssl-key, and invoke the client with --ssl-ca. A client can connect securely like this:

```
shell> mysql --ssl-ca=ca.pem
```

To require that a client certificate also be specified, create the account using the REQUIRE X509 option. Then the client must also specify the proper client key and certificate files or the server will reject the connection:

```
shell> mysql --ssl-ca=ca.pem \
    --ssl-cert=client-cert.pem \
    --ssl-key=client-key.pem
```

To prevent use of SSL and override other SSL options, invoke the client program with --ssl=0 or a synonym (--skip-ssl, --disable-ssl):

```
shell> mysql --ssl=0
```

A client can determine whether the current connection with the server uses SSL by checking the value of the Ssl\_cipher status variable. The value is nonempty if SSL is used, and empty otherwise. For example:

For the mysql client, an alternative is to use the STATUS or \s command and check the SSL line:

```
mysql> \s
...
SSL: Cipher in use is DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA
...
```

Or:

```
mysql> \s
...
SSL: Not in use
...
```

### SSL Configuration and the C API

The C API enables application programs to use SSL:

- To establish a secure connection, use the mysql\_ssl\_set() C API function to set the appropriate certificate options before calling mysql\_real\_connect(). See mysql\_ssl\_set().
- To determine whether SSL is in use after the connection is established, use mysql\_get\_ssl\_cipher(). A non-NULL return value indicates a secure connection and names the SSL cipher used for encryption. A NULL return value indicates that SSL is not being used. See mysql\_get\_ssl\_cipher().

Replication uses the C API, so secure connections can be used between master and slave servers. See Setting Up Replication Using SSL.

# 5.6.4 SSL Command Options

This section describes options that specify whether to use SSL and the names of SSL certificate and key files. These options can be given on the command line or in an option file. They are not available unless MySQL has been built with SSL support. See Section 5.6.2, "Building MySQL with SSL Support". For examples of suggested use and how to check whether a connection is secure, see Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections". (There are also --master-ssl\* options that can be used for setting up a secure connection from a slave replication server to a master server; see Replication and Binary Logging Options and Variables.)

**Table 5.1 SSL Option/Variable Summary** 

Name	Cmd-Line	Option File	System Var	Status Var	Var Scope	<b>Dynamic</b> No	
have_openssl			Yes		Global	No	
have_ssl			Yes		Global	No	
skip-ssl	Yes	Yes					
ssl	Yes	Yes					
ssl-ca	Yes	Yes			Global	No	
- Variable: ssl_ca			Yes		Global	No	
ssl-capath	Yes	Yes			Global	No No	
- Variable: ssl_capath			Yes		Global	No	
ssl-cert	Yes	Yes			Global	No	
- <i>Variable</i> : ssl_cert			Yes		Global	No	
ssl-cipher	Yes	Yes			Global	No No No	
- <i>Variable</i> : ssl_cipher			Yes		Global	No	
ssl-key	Yes	Yes			Global	No	
- <i>Variable</i> : ssl_key			Yes		Global	No	

• --ssl

For the MySQL server, this option specifies that the server permits but does not require SSL connections.

For MySQL client programs, this option permits but does not require the client to connect to the server using SSL. Therefore, this option is not sufficient in itself to cause an SSL connection to be used. For example, if you specify this option for a client program but the server has not been configured to enable SSL connections, the client falls back to an unencrypted connection.

As a recommended set of options to enable SSL connections, use at least --ssl-cert and --ssl-key on the server side and --ssl-ca on the client side. See Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections".

--ssl may be implied by other --ssl-xxx options, as indicated in the descriptions for those options.

The <code>--ssl</code> option in negated form overrides other SSL options and indicates that SSL should *not* be used. To do this, specify the option as <code>--ssl=0</code> or a synonym (<code>--skip-ssl</code>, <code>--disable-ssl</code>). For example, you might have SSL options specified in the <code>[client]</code> group of your option file to use SSL connections by default when you invoke MySQL client programs. To use an unencrypted connection instead, invoke the client program with <code>--ssl=0</code> on the command line to override the options in the option file.

To require use of SSL connections for a MySQL account, issue a GRANT statement for the account that includes at least a REQUIRE SSL clause. Connections for the account will be rejected unless MySQL supports SSL connections and the server and client have been started with the proper SSL options.

The REQUIRE clause permits other SSL-related options, which can be used to enforce stricter requirements than REQUIRE SSL. For additional details about which SSL command options may or must be specified by clients that connect using accounts configured using the various REQUIRE options, see the description of REQUIRE in GRANT Syntax.

#### • --ssl-ca=file\_name

The path to a file in PEM format that contains a list of trusted SSL certificate authorities. This option implies --ssl.

As of MySQL 5.1.18, if you use SSL when establishing a client connection, to tell the client not to authenticate the server certificate, specify neither --ssl-ca nor --ssl-capath. The server still verifies the client according to any applicable requirements established for the client account, and it still uses any --ssl-capath option values specified at server startup.

#### • --ssl-capath=directory name

The path to a directory that contains trusted SSL certificate authority certificates in PEM format. This option implies --ssl.

As of MySQL 5.1.18, if you use SSL when establishing a client connection, to tell the client not to authenticate the server certificate, specify neither --ssl-ca nor --ssl-capath. The server still verifies the client according to any applicable requirements established for the client account, and it still uses any --ssl-ca or --ssl-capath option values specified at server startup.

MySQL distributions compiled using OpenSSL support the <code>--ssl-capath</code> option (see Section 5.6.1, "OpenSSL Versus yaSSL"). Distributions compiled using yaSSL do not because yaSSL does not look in any directory and does not follow a chained certificate tree. yaSSL requires that all components of the CA certificate tree be contained within a single CA certificate tree and that each certificate in the file has a unique SubjectName value. To work around this yaSSL limitation, concatenate the individual certificate files comprising the certificate tree into a new file and specify that file as the value of the <code>--ssl-ca</code> option.

• --ssl-cert=file\_name

The name of the SSL certificate file in PEM format to use for establishing a secure connection. This option implies --ss1.

• --ssl-cipher=cipher\_list

A list of permissible ciphers to use for SSL encryption. If no cipher in the list is supported, SSL connections will not work. This option implies --ss1.

For greatest portability, <code>cipher\_list</code> should be a list of one or more cipher names, separated by colons. This format is understood both by OpenSSL and yaSSL. Examples:

```
--ssl-cipher=AES128-SHA
--ssl-cipher=DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA:AES128-SHA
```

OpenSSL supports a more flexible syntax for specifying ciphers, as described in the OpenSSL documentation at <a href="http://www.openssl.org/docs/apps/ciphers.html">http://www.openssl.org/docs/apps/ciphers.html</a>. However, yaSSL does not, so attempts to use that extended syntax fail for a MySQL distribution compiled using yaSSL.

For OpenSSL, the supported ciphers may depend on which version your server is linked against. For example, the list may include these ciphers:

```
AES256-GCM-SHA384
AES256-SHA
AES256-SHA256
CAMELLIA256-SHA
DES-CBC3-SHA
DHE-DSS-AES256-GCM-SHA384
DHE-DSS-AES256-SHA
DHE-DSS-AES256-SHA256
DHE-DSS-CAMELLIA256-SHA
DHE-RSA-AES256-GCM-SHA384
DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA
DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA256
DHE-RSA-CAMELLIA256-SHA
ECDH-ECDSA-AES256-GCM-SHA384
ECDH-ECDSA-AES256-SHA
ECDH-ECDSA-AES256-SHA384
ECDH-ECDSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
ECDH-RSA-AES256-GCM-SHA384
ECDH-RSA-AES256-SHA
ECDH-RSA-AES256-SHA384
ECDH-RSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES128-GCM-SHA256
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES128-SHA
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES128-SHA256
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES256-GCM-SHA384
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES256-SHA
ECDHE-ECDSA-AES256-SHA384
ECDHE-ECDSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
ECDHE-RSA-AES128-GCM-SHA256
ECDHE-RSA-AES128-SHA
ECDHE-RSA-AES128-SHA256
ECDHE-RSA-AES256-GCM-SHA384
ECDHE-RSA-AES256-SHA
ECDHE-RSA-AES256-SHA384
ECDHE-RSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
EDH-DSS-DES-CBC3-SHA
EDH-RSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
PSK-3DES-EDE-CBC-SHA
PSK-AES256-CBC-SHA
```

```
SRP-DSS-3DES-EDE-CBC-SHA
SRP-DSS-AES-128-CBC-SHA
SRP-DSS-AES-256-CBC-SHA
SRP-RSA-3DES-EDE-CBC-SHA
SRP-RSA-AES-128-CBC-S
SRP-RSA-AES-256-CBC-SHA
```

### yaSSL supports these ciphers:

```
AES128-RMD
AES128-SHA
AES256-RMD
AES256-SHA
DES-CBC-SHA
DES-CBC3-RMD
DES-CBC3-SHA
DHE-RSA-AES128-RMD
DHE-RSA-AES128-SHA
DHE-RSA-AES256-RMD
DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA
DHE-RSA-DES-CBC3-RMD
EDH-RSA-DES-CBC-SHA
EDH-RSA-DES-CBC3-SHA
RC4-MD5
RC4-SHA
```

To verify exactly which ciphers a given server supports, check the value of the Ssl\_cipher\_list status variable using this query:

```
SHOW SESSION STATUS LIKE 'Ssl_cipher_list';
```

• --ssl-key=file name

The name of the SSL key file in PEM format to use for establishing a secure connection. This option implies --ssl.

If the MySQL distribution was compiled using OpenSSL and the key file is protected by a passphrase, the program prompts the user for the passphrase. The password must be given interactively; it cannot be stored in a file. If the passphrase is incorrect, the program continues as if it could not read the key. If the MySQL distribution was built using yaSSL and the key file is protected by a passphrase, an error occurs.

• --ssl-verify-server-cert

This option is available for client programs only, not the server. It causes the client to check the server's Common Name value in the certificate that the server sends to the client. The client verifies that name against the host name the client uses for connecting to the server, and the When SSL is used, this option helps prevent man-in-the-middle attacks. Verification is disabled by default. This option was added in MySQL 5.1.11.

# 5.7 Creating SSL Certificates and Keys Using openssl

This section describes how to use the <code>openssl</code> command to set up SSL certificate and key files for use by MySQL servers and clients. The first example shows a simplified procedure such as you might use from the command line. The second shows a script that contains more detail. The first two examples are intended for use on Unix and both use the <code>openssl</code> command that is part of OpenSSL. The third example describes how to set up SSL files on Windows.

### **Important**

Whatever method you use to generate the certificate and key files, the Common Name value used for the server and client certificates/keys must each differ from the Common Name value used for the CA certificate. Otherwise, the certificate and key files will not work for servers compiled using OpenSSL. A typical error in this case is:

```
ERROR 2026 (HY000): SSL connection error: error:00000001:lib(0):func(0):reason(1)
```

### **Example 1: Creating SSL Files from the Command Line on Unix**

The following example shows a set of commands to create MySQL server and client certificate and key files. You will need to respond to several prompts by the openssl commands. To generate test files, you can press Enter to all prompts. To generate files for production use, you should provide nonempty responses.

```
# Create clean environment
shell> rm -rf newcerts
shell> mkdir newcerts && cd newcerts
# Create CA certificate
shell> openssl genrsa 2048 > ca-key.pem
shell> openss1 req -new -x509 -nodes -days 3600 \
        -key ca-key.pem -out ca.pem
# Create server certificate, remove passphrase, and sign it
# server-cert.pem = public key, server-key.pem = private key
shell> openss1 req -newkey rsa:2048 -days 3600 \
         -nodes -keyout server-key.pem -out server-req.pem
shell> openssl rsa -in server-key.pem -out server-key.pem
shell> openss1 x509 -req -in server-req.pem -days 3600 \
         -CA ca.pem -CAkey ca-key.pem -set_serial 01 -out server-cert.pem
# Create client certificate, remove passphrase, and sign it
# client-cert.pem = public key, client-key.pem = private key
shell> openss1 req -newkey rsa:2048 -days 3600 \
        -nodes -keyout client-key.pem -out client-req.pem
shell> openssl rsa -in client-key.pem -out client-key.pem
shell> openss1 x509 -reg -in client-reg.pem -days 3600 \
         -CA ca.pem -CAkey ca-key.pem -set_serial 01 -out client-cert.pem
```

After generating the certificates, verify them:

```
shell> openssl verify -CAfile ca.pem server-cert.pem client-cert.pem
server-cert.pem: OK
client-cert.pem: OK
```

Now you have a set of files that can be used as follows:

- ca.pem: Use this as the argument to --ssl-ca on the server and client sides. (The CA certificate, if used, must be the same on both sides.)
- server-cert.pem, server-key.pem: Use these as the arguments to --ssl-cert and --ssl-key on the server side.
- client-cert.pem, client-key.pem: Use these as the arguments to --ssl-cert and --ssl-key on the client side.

To use the files for SSL connections, see Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections".

## **Example 2: Creating SSL Files Using a Script on Unix**

Here is an example script that shows how to set up SSL certificate and key files for MySQL. After executing the script, use the files for SSL connections as described in Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections".

```
DIR=`pwd`/openssl
PRIV=$DIR/private
mkdir $DIR $PRIV $DIR/newcerts
cp /usr/share/ssl/openssl.cnf $DIR
replace ./demoCA $DIR -- $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Create necessary files: $database, $serial and $new_certs_dir
# directory (optional)
touch $DIR/index.txt
echo "01" > $DIR/serial
# Generation of Certificate Authority(CA)
openssl req -new -x509 -keyout $PRIV/cakey.pem -out $DIR/ca.pem \
   -days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/monty/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
# ....+++++
# .....+++++
# writing new private key to '/home/monty/openssl/private/cakey.pem'
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
# Verifying password - Enter PEM pass phrase:
# You are about to be asked to enter information that will be
# incorporated into your certificate request.
# What you are about to enter is what is called a Distinguished Name
# or a DN.
# There are quite a few fields but you can leave some blank
# For some fields there will be a default value,
# If you enter '.', the field will be left blank.
# Country Name (2 letter code) [AU]:FI
# State or Province Name (full name) [Some-State]:.
# Locality Name (eg, city) []:
# Organization Name (eg, company) [Internet Widgits Pty Ltd]:MySQL AB
# Organizational Unit Name (eg, section) []:
# Common Name (eg, YOUR name) []:MySQL admin
# Email Address []:
# Create server request and key
openssl req -new -keyout $DIR/server-key.pem -out \
   $DIR/server-req.pem -days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/monty/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
# ..+++++
# writing new private key to '/home/monty/openssl/server-key.pem'
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
# Verifying password - Enter PEM pass phrase:
# You are about to be asked to enter information that will be
# incorporated into your certificate request.
# What you are about to enter is what is called a Distinguished Name
# There are quite a few fields but you can leave some blank
# For some fields there will be a default value,
# If you enter '.', the field will be left blank.
```

```
# ----
# Country Name (2 letter code) [AU]:FI
# State or Province Name (full name) [Some-State]:.
# Locality Name (eg, city) []:
# Organization Name (eg, company) [Internet Widgits Pty Ltd]:MySQL AB
# Organizational Unit Name (eg, section) []:
# Common Name (eg, YOUR name) []:MySQL server
# Email Address []:
# Please enter the following 'extra' attributes
# to be sent with your certificate request
# A challenge password []:
# An optional company name []:
# Remove the passphrase from the key
openssl rsa -in $DIR/server-key.pem -out $DIR/server-key.pem
# Sign server cert
openssl ca -cert $DIR/ca.pem -policy policy_anything \
   -out $DIR/server-cert.pem -config $DIR/openssl.cnf \
   -infiles $DIR/server-req.pem
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/monty/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
# Check that the request matches the signature
# Signature ok
# The Subjects Distinguished Name is as follows
# countryName
                       :PRINTABLE:'FI'
# organizationName
                       :PRINTABLE: 'MySQL AB'
                       :PRINTABLE: 'MySQL admin'
# commonName
# Certificate is to be certified until Sep 13 14:22:46 2003 GMT
# (365 days)
# Sign the certificate? [y/n]:y
# 1 out of 1 certificate requests certified, commit? [y/n]y
# Write out database with 1 new entries
# Data Base Updated
# Create client request and key
openssl req -new -keyout $DIR/client-key.pem -out \
   $DIR/client-req.pem -days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/monty/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
# .....++++++
# ........++++++
# writing new private key to '/home/monty/openssl/client-key.pem'
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
# Verifying password - Enter PEM pass phrase:
# You are about to be asked to enter information that will be
# incorporated into your certificate request.
# What you are about to enter is what is called a Distinguished Name
# or a DN.
# There are quite a few fields but you can leave some blank
# For some fields there will be a default value,
# If you enter '.', the field will be left blank.
# Country Name (2 letter code) [AU]:FI
# State or Province Name (full name) [Some-State]:.
# Locality Name (eg, city) []:
# Organization Name (eg, company) [Internet Widgits Pty Ltd]:MySQL AB
# Organizational Unit Name (eg, section) []:
```

```
# Common Name (eg, YOUR name) []:MySQL user
# Email Address []:
# Please enter the following 'extra' attributes
# to be sent with your certificate request
# A challenge password []:
# An optional company name []:
# Remove the passphrase from the key
openssl rsa -in $DIR/client-key.pem -out $DIR/client-key.pem
# Sign client cert
openssl ca -cert $DIR/ca.pem -policy policy_anything '
   -out $DIR/client-cert.pem -config $DIR/openssl.cnf \
    -infiles $DIR/client-req.pem
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/monty/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
# Check that the request matches the signature
# Signature ok
# The Subjects Distinguished Name is as follows
# countryName :PRINTABLE:'FI'
# organizationName :PRINTABLE:'MySQL AB'
# commonName :PRINTABLE:'MySQL user'
# Certificate is to be certified until Sep 13 16:45:17 2003 GMT
# (365 days)
\# Sign the certificate? [y/n]:y
# 1 out of 1 certificate requests certified, commit? [y/n]y
# Write out database with 1 new entries
# Data Base Updated
# Create a my.cnf file that you can use to test the certificates
cat <<EOF > $DIR/my.cnf
[client]
ssl-ca=$DIR/ca.pem
ssl-cert=$DIR/client-cert.pem
ssl-key=$DIR/client-key.pem
[mysqld]
ssl-ca=$DIR/ca.pem
ssl-cert=$DIR/server-cert.pem
ssl-key=$DIR/server-key.pem
```

# **Example 3: Creating SSL Files on Windows**

Download OpenSSL for Windows if it is not installed on your system. An overview of available packages can be seen here:

```
http://www.slproweb.com/products/Win32OpenSSL.html
```

Choose the Win32 OpenSSL Light or Win64 OpenSSL Light package, depending on your architecture (32-bit or 64-bit). The default installation location will be C:\OpenSSL-Win32 or C:\OpenSSL-Win64, depending on which package you downloaded. The following instructions assume a default location of C:\OpenSSL-Win32. Modify this as necessary if you are using the 64-bit package.

If a message occurs during setup indicating '...critical component is missing: Microsoft Visual C++ 2008 Redistributables', cancel the setup and download one of the following packages as well, again depending on your architecture (32-bit or 64-bit):

• Visual C++ 2008 Redistributables (x86), available at:

```
http://www.microsoft.com/downloads/details.aspx?familyid=9B2DA534-3E03-4391-8A4D-074B9F2BC1BF
```

• Visual C++ 2008 Redistributables (x64), available at:

```
http://www.microsoft.com/downloads/details.aspx?familyid=bd2a6171-e2d6-4230-b809-9a8d7548c1b6
```

After installing the additional package, restart the OpenSSL setup procedure.

During installation, leave the default C:\OpenSSL-Win32 as the install path, and also leave the default option 'Copy OpenSSL DLL files to the Windows system directory' selected.

When the installation has finished, add C:\OpenSSL-Win32\bin to the Windows System Path variable of your server:

- 1. On the Windows desktop, right-click the My Computer icon, and select Properties.
- 2. Select the Advanced tab from the <u>System Properties</u> menu that appears, and click the <u>Environment Variables</u> button.
- Under System Variables, select Path, then click the Edit button. The <u>Edit System Variable</u> dialogue should appear.
- 4. Add '; C:\OpenSSL-Win32\bin' to the end (notice the semicolon).
- 5. Press OK 3 times.
- 6. Check that OpenSSL was correctly integrated into the Path variable by opening a new command console (Start>Run>cmd.exe) and verifying that OpenSSL is available:

```
Microsoft Windows [Version ...]

Copyright (c) 2006 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

C:\Windows\system32>cd \
C:\>openssl

OpenSSL> exit <<< If you see the OpenSSL prompt, installation was successful.

C:\>
```

Depending on your version of Windows, the preceding path-setting instructions might differ slightly.

After OpenSSL has been installed, use instructions similar to those from Example 1 (shown earlier in this section), with the following changes:

Change the following Unix commands:

```
# Create clean environment
shell> rm -rf newcerts
shell> mkdir newcerts && cd newcerts
```

On Windows, use these commands instead:

```
# Create clean environment
shell> md c:\newcerts
shell> cd c:\newcerts
```

• When a '\' character is shown at the end of a command line, this '\' character must be removed and the command lines entered all on a single line.

After generating the certificate and key files, to use them for SSL connections, see Section 5.6.3, "Configuring MySQL to Use SSL Connections".

# 5.8 Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH

This section describes how to get a secure connection to a remote MySQL server with SSH. The information was provided by David Carlson <dcarlson@mplcomm.com>.

- 1. Install an SSH client on your Windows machine. For a comparison of SSH clients, see http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparison\_of\_SSH\_clients.
- 2. Start your Windows SSH client. Set <code>Host\_Name = yourmysqlserver\_URL\_or\_IP</code>. Set <code>userid=your\_userid</code> to log in to your server. This <code>userid</code> value might not be the same as the user name of your <code>MySQL</code> account.
- 3. Set up port forwarding. Either do a remote forward (Set local\_port: 3306, remote\_host: yourmysqlservername\_or\_ip, remote\_port: 3306) or a local forward (Set port: 3306, host: localhost, remote port: 3306).
- 4. Save everything, otherwise you will have to redo it the next time.
- 5. Log in to your server with the SSH session you just created.
- 6. On your Windows machine, start some ODBC application (such as Access).
- 7. Create a new file in Windows and link to MySQL using the ODBC driver the same way you normally do, except type in localhost for the MySQL host server, not yourmysqlservername.

At this point, you should have an ODBC connection to MySQL, encrypted using SSH.

# 5.9 SQL-Based MySQL Account Activity Auditing

Applications can use the following guidelines to perform SQL-based auditing that ties database activity to MySQL accounts.

MySQL accounts correspond to rows in the <code>mysql.user</code> table. When a client connects successfully, the server authenticates the client to a particular row in this table. The <code>User</code> and <code>Host</code> column values in this row uniquely identify the account and correspond to the <code>'user\_name'@'host\_name'</code> format in which account names are written in SQL statements.

The account used to authenticate a client determines which privileges the client has. Normally, the CURRENT\_USER() function can be invoked to determine which account this is for the client user. Its value is constructed from the User and Host columns of the user table row for the account.

However, there are circumstances under which the CURRENT\_USER() value corresponds not to the client user but to a different account. This occurs in contexts when privilege checking is not based the client's account:

- Stored routines (procedures and functions) defined with the SQL SECURITY DEFINER characteristic
- Views defined with the SQL SECURITY DEFINER characteristic (as of MySQL 5.1.12)
- · Triggers and events

In those contexts, privilege checking is done against the DEFINER account and CURRENT\_USER() refers to that account, not to the account for the client who invoked the stored routine or view or who caused

the trigger to activate. To determine the invoking user, you can call the USER() function, which returns a value indicating the actual user name provided by the client and the host from which the client connected. However, this value does not necessarily correspond directly to an account in the user table, because the USER() value never contains wildcards, whereas account values (as returned by CURRENT\_USER()) may contain user name and host name wildcards.

For example, a blank user name matches any user, so an account of ''@'localhost' enables clients to connect as an anonymous user from the local host with any user name. In this case, if a client connects as user1 from the local host, USER() and CURRENT\_USER() return different values:

The host name part of an account can contain wildcards, too. If the host name contains a '%' or '\_' pattern character or uses netmask notation, the account can be used for clients connecting from multiple hosts and the CURRENT\_USER() value will not indicate which one. For example, the account 'user2'@'%.example.com' can be used by user2 to connect from any host in the example.com domain. If user2 connects from remote.example.com, USER() and CURRENT\_USER() return different values:

If an application must invoke USER() for user auditing (for example, if it does auditing from within triggers) but must also be able to associate the USER() value with an account in the user table, it is necessary to avoid accounts that contain wildcards in the User or Host column. Specifically, do not permit User to be empty (which creates an anonymous-user account), and do not permit pattern characters or netmask notation in Host values. All accounts must have a nonempty User value and literal Host value.

With respect to the previous examples, the ''@'localhost' and 'user2'@'%.example.com' accounts should be changed not to use wildcards:

```
RENAME USER ''@'localhost' TO 'user1'@'localhost';
RENAME USER 'user2'@'%.example.com' TO 'user2'@'remote.example.com';
```

If user2 must be able to connect from several hosts in the example.com domain, there should be a separate account for each host.

To extract the user name or host name part from a CURRENT\_USER() or USER() value, use the SUBSTRING\_INDEX() function:

# SQL-Based MySQL Account Activity Auditing

	SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',-1)	
	localhost	-+
+		-+

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The following is a list of the libraries we have included with the MySQL Server source and components used to test MySQL. We are thankful to all individuals that have created these. Some of the components require that their licensing terms be included in the documentation of products that include them. Cross references to these licensing terms are given with the applicable items in the list.

• Bjorn Benson

For his safe\_malloc (memory checker) package which is used in when you build MySQL using one of the BUILD/compile-\*-debug scripts or by manually setting the -DSAFEMALLOC flag.

· GroupLens Research Project

The MySQL Quality Assurance team would like to acknowledge the use of the MovieLens Data Sets (10 million ratings and 100,000 tags for 10681 movies by 71567 users) to help test MySQL products and to thank the GroupLens Research Project at the University of Minnesota for making the data sets available.

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### **MySQL Cluster 7.1**

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```

# Appendix B MySQL 5.1 FAQ: Security

#### Questions

- B.1: [115] Where can I find documentation that addresses security issues for MySQL?
- B.2: [115] Does MySQL 5.1 have native support for SSL?
- B.3: [115] Is SSL support built into MySQL binaries, or must I recompile the binary myself to enable it?
- B.4: [115] Does MySQL 5.1 have built-in authentication against LDAP directories?
- B.5: [116] Does MySQL 5.1 include support for Roles Based Access Control (RBAC)?

#### **Questions and Answers**

### B.1: Where can I find documentation that addresses security issues for MySQL?

The best place to start is Chapter 1, Security.

Other portions of the MySQL Documentation which you may find useful with regard to specific security concerns include the following:

- Section 2.1, "Security Guidelines".
- Section 2.3, "Making MySQL Secure Against Attackers".
- How to Reset the Root Password.
- Section 2.5, "How to Run MySQL as a Normal User".
- UDF Security Precautions.
- Section 2.4, "Security-Related mysgld Options and Variables".
- Section 2.6, "Security Issues with LOAD DATA LOCAL".
- Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.
- Section 5.6, "Using SSL for Secure Connections".

#### **B.2: Does MySQL 5.1 have native support for SSL?**

Most 5.1 binaries have support for SSL connections between the client and server. See Section 5.6, "Using SSL for Secure Connections".

You can also tunnel a connection using SSH, if (for example) the client application does not support SSL connections. For an example, see Section 5.8, "Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH".

#### B.3: Is SSL support built into MySQL binaries, or must I recompile the binary myself to enable it?

Most 5.1 binaries have SSL enabled for client-server connections that are secured, authenticated, or both. See Section 5.6, "Using SSL for Secure Connections".

#### B.4: Does MySQL 5.1 have built-in authentication against LDAP directories?

No.

As of MySQL 5.6.4, the Enterprise edition includes a PAM Authentication Plugin that supports authentication against an LDAP directory.

B.5: Does MySQL 5.1 include support for Roles Based Access Control (RBAC)?

Not at this time.