Security in MySQL

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Abstract

This is the MySQL Security Guide extract from the MySQL 5.1 Reference Manual.

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Preface and Legal Notices

This is the MySQL Security Guide extract from the MySQL 5.1 Reference Manual.

Legal Notices

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.

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 3.2, “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 `-p`*`your_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 `mysql.user` 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`, and `SET PASSWORD`, or statements that invoke the `PASSWORD()` function. If these statements are logged by the MySQL server as written, such passwords become available 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 against unwarranted exposure to log files, they should be located in a directory that restricts access to only the server and the database administrator. If you log to tables in the `mysql` database, access to the tables should never be granted to any nonadministrative accounts.

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.

Database backups that include tables or log files containing passwords should be protected using a restricted access mode.

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 `PASSWORD()` function result format
- 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. Because this method was so short lived, 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:

```
mysql> SELECT PASSWORD('mypass');
+-------------------------------------------+
| PASSWORD('mypass')                        |
+-------------------------------------------+
| *6C8989366EAF75BB670AD8EA7A7FC1176A95CEF4 |
+-------------------------------------------+
```

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:

```
mysql> SET @@session.old_passwords = 0;
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)
mysql> SELECT @@session.old_passwords, @@global.old_passwords;
+--------------------------+------------------------+
| @@session.old_passwords | @@global.old_passwords |
+--------------------------+------------------------+
|                        0 |                      1 |
+--------------------------+------------------------+
1 row in set (0.00 sec)
mysql> CREATE USER 'newuser'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'newpass';
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.03 sec)
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'existinguser'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('existingpass');
Query OK, 0 rows affected (0.00 sec)
```

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 `mysqld`.

- 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 MyISAM 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_privileges			Yes		Global	Yes
chroot	Yes	Yes				
des-key-file	Yes	Yes				
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

Name	Cmd-Line	Option File	System Var	Status Var	Var Scope	Dynamic
secure-file-priv	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: secure_file_priv			Yes		Global	No
skip-grant-tables	Yes	Yes				
skip-name-resolve	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: skip_name_resolve			Yes		Global	No
skip-networking	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: skip_networking			Yes		Global	No
skip-show-database	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: skip_show_database			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 `mysqld` can be started and run by any user. However, you should avoid running the server as the Unix `root` user for security reasons. To change `mysqld` to run as a normal unprivileged Unix user *`user_name`*, 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 *`user_name`*. Another alternative is to start `mysqld` as the Unix `root` user and use the `--user=`*`user_name`* option. `mysqld` starts up, then switches to run as the Unix user *`user_name`* 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 3.2, “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 ("`'`" and "`"`") 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 `mysqli` or `pdo_mysql` extensions, and not the older `ext/mysql` 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

Table of Contents

This section discusses post-installation items for Unix systems. If you are using Windows, see Windows Postinstallation Procedures.

After installing MySQL, there are some items that you should address. For example:

- You should initialize the data directory and create the MySQL grant tables, as describe in Section 3.1, “Unix Postinstallation Procedures”.
- An important security concern is that the initial accounts in the grant tables have no passwords. You should assign passwords to prevent unauthorized access to the MySQL server. For instructions, see Section 3.2, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”.
- Optionally, you can create time zone tables to enable recognition of named time zones. For instructions, see `mysql_tzinfo_to_sql` — Load the Time Zone Tables.
- If you have trouble getting the server to start, see Section 3.1.3, “Starting and Troubleshooting the MySQL Server”.
- 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 Unix Postinstallation Procedures

After installing MySQL on Unix, you must initialize the grant tables, start the server, and make sure that the server works satisfactorily. You may also wish to arrange for the server to be started and stopped automatically when your system starts and stops. You should also assign passwords to the accounts in the grant tables.

On Unix, the grant tables are set up by the `mysql_install_db` program. For some installation methods, this program is run for you automatically if an existing database cannot be found.

- If you install MySQL on Linux using RPM distributions, the server RPM runs `mysql_install_db`.
- Using the native packaging system on many platforms, including Debian Linux, Ubuntu Linux, Gentoo Linux and others, the `mysql_install_db` command is run for you.
- If you install MySQL on Mac OS X using a DMG distribution, the installer runs `mysql_install_db`.

For other platforms and installation types, including generic binary and source installs, you will need to run `mysql_install_db` yourself.

The following procedure describes how to initialize the grant tables (if that has not previously been done) and start the server. It also suggests some commands that you can use to test whether the server is accessible and working properly. For information about starting and stopping the server automatically, see Section 3.1.2, “Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically”.

After you complete the procedure and have the server running, you should assign passwords to the accounts created by `mysql_install_db` and perhaps restrict access to test databases. For instructions, see Section 3.2, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”.

In the examples shown here, the server runs under the user ID of the `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 `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 the installation directory for your MySQL instance. It 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 *`BASEDIR`* directory. The most important for installation purposes are the `bin` and `scripts` subdirectories:

   - The `bin` directory contains client programs and the server. You should add the full path name of this directory to your `PATH` environment variable so that your shell finds the MySQL programs properly. See Environment Variables.

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

   - The `scripts` directory contains the `mysql_install_db` program used to initialize the `mysql` database containing the grant tables that store the server access permissions.

     For some distribution types, `mysql_install_db` is installed in the `bin` 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, run the `mysql_install_db` program to set up the initial MySQL grant tables containing the privileges that determine how users are permitted to connect to the server. You will need to do this if you used a distribution type for which the installation procedure does not run the program for you.

   Typically, `mysql_install_db` needs to be run only the first time you install MySQL, so you can skip this step if you are upgrading an existing installation, However, `mysql_install_db` 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 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
```

The `mysql_install_db` program creates the server's data directory with `mysql` as the owner. Under the data directory, it creates directories for the `mysql` database that holds the grant tables and the `test` database that you can use to test MySQL. The script also creates privilege table entries for `root` and anonymous-user accounts. The accounts have no passwords initially. Section 3.2, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”, describes the initial privileges. Briefly, these privileges permit the MySQL `root` user to do anything, and permit anybody to create or use databases with a name of `test` or starting with `test_`. See Chapter 4, *The MySQL Access Privilege System*, for a complete listing and description of the grant tables.

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

If you do not want to have the `test` database, you can remove it after starting the server, using the instructions in Section 3.2, “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. 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
   ```

5. 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 `plugin_dir` read only to the server or by setting `--secure-file-priv` to a directory where `SELECT` writes can be made safely.

6. 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. If you want to use one of these standard files, you should 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.

   If you do not copy one of the standard configuration files, the MySQL server will be started with the default settings.

   If you want MySQL to start automatically when you boot your machine, you can copy `support-files/mysql.server` to the location where your system has its startup files. More information can

be found in the `mysql.server` script itself, and in Section 3.1.2, “Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically”.

7. Start the MySQL server:

```
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, you should 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 you neglected to create the grant tables by running `mysql_install_db` before proceeding to this step, the following message appears in the error log file when you start the server:

```
mysqld: Can't find file: 'host.frm'
```

This error also occurs if you run `mysql_install_db` as `root` without the `--user` option. Remove the `data` directory and run `mysql_install_db` with the `--user` option as described previously.

If you have other problems starting the server, see Section 3.1.3, “Starting and Troubleshooting the MySQL Server”. For more information about `mysqld_safe`, see `mysqld_safe` — MySQL Server Startup Script.

8. 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
```

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 `mysqladmin`, invoke it with the `--help` option.

9. Verify that you can shut down the server:

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

10. 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 3.1.3, “Starting and Troubleshooting the MySQL Server”.

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

```
shell> bin/mysqlshow
+--------------------+
|     Databases      |
+--------------------+
| information_schema |
| mysql              |
| test               |
+--------------------+
shell> bin/mysqlshow mysql
Database: mysql
+---------------------------+
|          Tables           |
+---------------------------+
| columns_priv              |
| db                        |
| event                     |
| func                      |
| help_category             |
| help_keyword              |
| help_relation             |
| help_topic                |
| host                      |
| plugin                    |
| proc                      |
| procs_priv                |
| servers                   |
| tables_priv               |
| time_zone                 |
| time_zone_leap_second     |
| time_zone_name            |
| time_zone_transition      |
| time_zone_transition_type |
| user                      |
+---------------------------+
shell> bin/mysql -e "SELECT Host,Db,User FROM db" mysql
+------+--------+------+
| host | db     | user |
+------+--------+------+
| %    | test   |      |
| %    | test_% |      |
+------+--------+------+
```

12. 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.i386.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.

13. At this point, you should have the server running. However, none of the initial MySQL accounts have a password, and the server permits permissive access to test databases. To tighten security, follow the instructions in Section 3.2, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”.

The MySQL 5.1 installation procedure 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.

To make it more convenient to invoke programs installed in the `bin` directory under the installation directory, you can add that directory to your `PATH` environment variable setting. That enables you to run a program by typing only its name, not its entire path name. See Setting Environment Variables.

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 `mysqlaccess` and have the MySQL distribution in some nonstandard location, you must change the location where `mysqlaccess` expects to find the `mysql` client. Edit the `bin/mysqlaccess` 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 `mysql` actually is stored on your system. If you do not do this, a `Broken pipe` error will occur when you run `mysqlaccess`.

3.1.1 Problems Running mysql_install_db

The purpose of the `mysql_install_db` program is to generate new MySQL privilege tables. It does not overwrite existing MySQL privilege tables, and it does not affect any other data.

If you want to re-create your privilege tables, first stop the `mysqld` server if it is running. Then rename the `mysql` directory under the data directory to save it, and then run `mysql_install_db`. Suppose that your current directory is the MySQL installation directory and that `mysql_install_db` is located

in the `bin` directory and the data directory is named `data`. To rename the `mysql` database and re-run `mysql_install_db`, 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 XXXXXX
  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 install MySQL the first time).

- **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 `TMP_DIR` 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, you can modify `mysql_install_db` before you run it. However, it is preferable to use `GRANT` and `REVOKE` to change the privileges *after* the grant tables have been set up. In other words, you can 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 `GRANT` and `REVOKE` statements.

  If you want to install MySQL on several machines with the same privileges, you can put the `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
  ```

  By doing this, you can avoid having to issue 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 `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, remove all the `.frm`, `.MYI`, and `.MYD` files in the `mysql` database directory. Then run the `mysql_install_db` program again.

- You can start `mysqld` manually using the `--skip-grant-tables` option and add the privilege information yourself using `mysql`:

  ```
  shell> bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql --skip-grant-tables &
  shell> bin/mysql mysql
  ```

  From `mysql`, manually execute the SQL commands contained in `mysql_install_db`. Make sure that you run `mysqladmin flush-privileges` or `mysqladmin reload` afterward to tell the server to reload the grant tables.

  Note that by not using `mysql_install_db`, you not only have to populate the grant tables manually, you also have to create them first.

3.1.2 Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically

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

- Invoke `mysqld` directly. This works on any platform.
- Invoke `mysqld_safe`, which tries to determine the proper options for `mysqld` and then runs it with those options. This script is used on Unix and Unix-like systems. See `mysqld_safe` — MySQL Server Startup Script.

- Invoke `mysql.server`. This script is used primarily at system startup and shutdown on systems that use System V-style run directories (that is, `/etc/init.d` and run-level specific directories), where 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 Mac OS X, install a separate MySQL Startup Item package to enable the automatic startup of MySQL on system startup. The Startup Item starts the server by invoking `mysql.server`. See Installing the MySQL Startup Item, for details. A MySQL Preference Pane also provides control for starting and stopping MySQL through the System Preferences, see Installing and Using the MySQL Preference Pane.
- Use the Solaris/OpenSolaris 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 Mac 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.

To start or stop the server manually using the `mysql.server` script, invoke it with `start` or `stop` arguments:

```
shell> mysql.server start
shell> mysql.server stop
```

Before `mysql.server` starts the server, it changes location to the MySQL installation directory, and then invokes `mysqld_safe`. If you want the server to run as some specific user, add an appropriate `user` option to the `[mysqld]` group of the `/etc/my.cnf` option file, as shown later in this section. (It is possible that you will need to edit `mysql.server` if you've installed a binary distribution of MySQL in a nonstandard location. Modify it to change location into the proper directory before it runs `mysqld_safe`. If you do this, your modified version of `mysql.server` may be overwritten if you upgrade MySQL in the future, so you should make a copy of your edited version that you can reinstall.)

`mysql.server stop` stops the server by sending a signal to it. You can also stop the server manually by executing `mysqladmin shutdown`.

To start and stop MySQL automatically on your server, you need to add start and stop commands to the appropriate places in your `/etc/rc*` files.

If you use the Linux server RPM package (`MySQL-server-`*`VERSION`*`.rpm`), or a native Linux package installation, the `mysql.server` script may be installed in the `/etc/init.d` directory with the name `mysql`. See Installing MySQL on Linux Using RPM Packages, for more information on the Linux RPM packages.

Some vendors provide RPM packages that install a startup script under a different name such as `mysqld`.

If you install MySQL from a source distribution or using a binary distribution format that does not install `mysql.server` automatically, you can install it manually. The script can be found in the `support-files` directory under the MySQL installation directory or in a MySQL source tree.

To install `mysql.server` manually, copy it to the `/etc/init.d` directory with the name `mysql`, and then make it executable. Do this by changing location into the appropriate directory where `mysql.server` is located and executing these commands:

```
shell> cp mysql.server /etc/init.d/mysql
shell> chmod +x /etc/init.d/mysql
```

> **Note**
>
> Older Red Hat systems use the `/etc/rc.d/init.d` directory rather than `/etc/init.d`. Adjust the preceding commands accordingly. Alternatively, first create `/etc/init.d` as a symbolic link that points to `/etc/rc.d/init.d`:

```
shell> cd /etc
shell> ln -s rc.d/init.d .
```

After installing the script, the commands needed to activate it to run at system startup depend on your operating system. On Linux, you can use `chkconfig`:

```
shell> chkconfig --add mysql
```

On some Linux systems, the following command also seems to be necessary to fully enable the `mysql` script:

```
shell> chkconfig --level 345 mysql on
```

On FreeBSD, startup scripts generally should go in `/usr/local/etc/rc.d/`. The `rc(8)` manual page states that scripts in this directory are executed only if their basename matches the `*.sh` shell file name pattern. Any other files or directories present within the directory are silently ignored. In other words, on FreeBSD, you should install the `mysql.server` script as `/usr/local/etc/rc.d/mysql.server.sh` to enable automatic startup.

As an alternative to the preceding setup, some operating systems also use `/etc/rc.local` or `/etc/init.d/boot.local` to start additional services on startup. To start up MySQL using this method, you could append a command like the one following to the appropriate startup file:

```
/bin/sh -c 'cd /usr/local/mysql; ./bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql &'
```

For other systems, consult your operating system documentation to see how to install startup scripts.

You can add options for `mysql.server` in a global `/etc/my.cnf` file. A typical `/etc/my.cnf` file might look like this:

```
[mysqld]
datadir=/usr/local/mysql/var
socket=/var/tmp/mysql.sock
port=3306
user=mysql
[mysql.server]
basedir=/usr/local/mysql
```

The `mysql.server` script supports the following options: `basedir`, `datadir`, and `pid-file`. If specified, they *must* be placed in an option file, not on the command line. `mysql.server` supports only `start` and `stop` as command-line arguments.

The following table shows which option groups the server and each startup script 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 when using MySQL 5.1.

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

3.1.3 Starting and Troubleshooting the MySQL Server

This section provides troubleshooting suggestions for problems starting the server on Unix. If you are using Windows, 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 (`InnoDB`, `NDB`), 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 `mysqld` with those options followed by the `--verbose` and `--help` options. For example, if you change location into the directory where `mysqld` is installed and then run the following command, it shows the effect of starting the server with a base directory of `/usr/local`:

```
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.

On Unix, 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
```

If it possible that even with correct ownership, MySQL may 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, you may need to 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 binary distribution, and `/usr/local/var` for a Unix source distribution). Look in the data directory for files with names of the form *`host_name`*`.err` and *`host_name`*`.log`, where *`host_name`* is

the name of your server host. Then examine the last few lines of these files. On Unix, 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.

3.2 Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts

Part of the MySQL installation process is to set up the `mysql` database that contains the grant tables:

- Windows distributions contain preinitialized grant tables.
- On Unix, the `mysql_install_db` program populates the grant tables. Some installation methods run this program for you. Others require that you execute it manually. For details, see Section 3.1, “Unix Postinstallation Procedures”.

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. The initial `root` account passwords are empty, so 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.

- Some accounts are for anonymous users. 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:

- You should assign a password to each MySQL `root` account.

- If you want to prevent clients from connecting as anonymous users without a password, you should either assign a password to each anonymous account or else 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 the 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 *`host_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, *`host_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”.

Assigning root Account Passwords

The `root` account passwords can be set several ways. The following discussion demonstrates three methods:

- Use the `SET PASSWORD` statement
- Use the `UPDATE` statement
- Use the `mysqladmin` 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. Be sure to encrypt the password using the `PASSWORD()` function.

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:

```
shell> mysql -u root
mysql> UPDATE mysql.user SET Password = PASSWORD('newpwd')
    ->     WHERE User = 'root';
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

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 `mysqladmin`, 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)
```

Assigning Anonymous Account Passwords

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

To assign passwords to the anonymous accounts, connect to the server as `root`, then use either `SET PASSWORD` or `UPDATE`. Be sure to encrypt the password using the `PASSWORD()` function.

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):

```
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> UPDATE mysql.user SET Password = PASSWORD('newpwd')
    ->     WHERE User = '';
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

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 do not want the database to exist at all, drop it:

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

> **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.

Chapter 4 The MySQL Access Privilege System

Table of Contents

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, “Causes of Access-Denied Errors”.

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 `mysql_upgrade` — 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, ALTER, 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.

- The REFERENCES privilege currently 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. 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

Normally, you manipulate the contents of the grant tables in the `mysql` database indirectly by using statements such as `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.

These `mysql` database tables contain grant information:

- `user`: Contains user accounts, global privileges, and other non-privilege columns.
- `db`: Contains database-level privileges.
- `host`: Obsolete.
- `tables_priv`: Contains table-level privileges.
- `columns_priv`: Contains column-level privileges.
- `procs_priv`: Contains stored procedure and function privileges.

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

- `event`: Contains information about Event Scheduler events: See Using the Event Scheduler.

- `func`: Contains information about user-defined functions: See Adding New Functions to MySQL.
- `help_xxx`: These tables are used for server-side help: See Server-Side Help.
- `plugin`: Contains information about server plugins: See Installing and Uninstalling Plugins, and The MySQL Plugin API.
- `proc`: Contains 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`: These tables contain time zone information: See MySQL Server Time Zone Support.
- Tables with `_log` in their name are used for logging: See MySQL Server Logs.

> **Note**
>
> Modifications to tables in the `mysql` database normally are made by the server in response to statements such as `CREATE USER`, `GRANT`, or `CREATE PROCEDURE`. Direct modification of these tables using statements such as `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` is not encouraged. The server is free to ignore rows that become malformed as a result of such modifications.

Each grant table contains scope columns and privilege columns:

- Scope columns determine the scope of each row (entry) 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'` would be used for 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'` would be used 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 are granted by a table row; that is, what operations can 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 that are used to do 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 privilege granted in this table applies to *all* databases on the server.

  > **Note**
  >
  > 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 which operations are permitted. 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. A privilege granted at the routine level applies only to a single routine.

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`
	`Execute_priv`	`Execute_priv`
	`Trigger_priv`	`Trigger_priv`
	`Event_priv`	`Event_priv`

Table Name	user	db
	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 make sure 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	
Other columns	Timestamp	Timestamp
	Grantor	

The Timestamp and Grantor columns currently are unused and are discussed no further here.

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. However, they are unused and are discussed no further here.

Scope columns in the grant tables contain strings. They are declared as shown here; the default value for each is the empty string.

Table 4.5 Grant Table Scope Column Types

Column Name	Type
`Host`	`CHAR(60)`
`User`	`CHAR(16)`
`Password`	`CHAR(41)`
`Db`	`CHAR(64)`
`Table_name`	`CHAR(64)`
`Column_name`	`CHAR(64)`
`Routine_name`	`CHAR(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.

In the `user`, `db`, and `host` tables, each privilege is listed 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.

In the `tables_priv`, `columns_priv`, and `procs_priv` tables, the privilege columns are declared 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'`

Administrative privileges (such as `RELOAD` or `SHUTDOWN`) are specified only in the `user` table. 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, to determine whether you can perform an administrative operation, the server need consult only the `user` table.

The `FILE` privilege also is specified only in the `user` table. It is not an administrative privilege as such, but your ability to read or write files on the server host is independent of the database you are accessing.

The `mysqld` 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's privileges, it is a good idea to verify that the changes set up privileges the way you want. To check the privileges for a given account, use the `SHOW GRANTS` statement (see SHOW GRANTS Syntax). 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 *`client_ip`* 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`.

The netmask can only be used to tell the server to use 8, 16, 24, or 32 bits of the address. 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.

Your identity is based on two pieces of information:

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

Identity 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”.

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 plaintext 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 `Host` and `User` values in the `user` table apply to incoming connections.

`Host` Value	**`User` Value**	**Permissible Connections**
`'thomas.loc.gov'`	`'fred'`	`fred`, connecting from `thomas.loc.gov`
`'thomas.loc.gov'`	`''`	Any user, connecting from `thomas.loc.gov`
`'%'`	`'fred'`	`fred`, connecting from any host
`'%'`	`''`	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
`'144.155.166.0/255.255.255.0"`	`'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:

```
+-----------+----------+-
| Host      | User     | ...
+-----------+----------+-
| %         | root     | ...
| %         | jeffrey  | ...
| localhost | root     | ...
| localhost |          | ...
+-----------+----------+-
```

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

```
+-----------+----------+-
| Host      | User     | ...
+-----------+----------+-
| localhost | root     | ...
| localhost |          | ...
| %         | jeffrey  | ...
| %         | root     | ...
+-----------+----------+-
```

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:

```
+----------------+----------+-
| Host           | User     | ...
+----------------+----------+-
| %              | jeffrey  | ...
| thomas.loc.gov |          | ...
+----------------+----------+-
```

The sorted table looks like this:

```
+----------------+----------+-
| Host           | User     | ...
+----------------+----------+-
| thomas.loc.gov |          | ...
| %              | jeffrey  | ...
+----------------+----------+-
```

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 `CURRENT_USER()` function. (See Information Functions.) It returns a value in *`user_name@host_name`* format that indicates the `User` and `Host` values from the matching `user` table row. Suppose that `jeffrey` connects and issues the following query:

```
mysql> SELECT CURRENT_USER();
+----------------+
| CURRENT_USER() |
+----------------+
| @localhost     |
+----------------+
```

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 entries, 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 entries; that is, the privileges that are 'Y' in both entries. (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 entries.)

After determining the database-specific privileges granted by the db and host table entries, 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 entries 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 entries like this:

```
+--------------------+----+-
| Host               | Db | ...
+--------------------+----+-
| public.your.domain | %  | ... (all privileges set to 'N')
| %.your.domain      | %  | ... (all privileges set to 'Y')
+--------------------+----+-
```

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 `--skip-grant-tables` 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 Causes of Access-Denied Errors

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 by running the `mysql_install_db` program. For details, see Section 3.1, “Unix Postinstallation Procedures”.

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 3.2, “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.

  To avoid this problem on such systems, 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`. Unix connections to `localhost` use a Unix socket file rather than TCP/IP.
- 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 an entry with host `'pluto'` in the `user` table, but your DNS tells MySQL that your host name is `'pluto.example.com'`, the entry does not work. Try adding an entry to the `user` table that contains the IP address of your host as the `Host` column value. (Alternatively, you could add an entry 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 entries that have `Host` values containing wildcards (entries that contain `'%'` or `'_'` characters). A very common error is to insert a new entry 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 an entry with `Host='localhost'` and `User=''`. Because that entry has a `Host` value `'localhost'` that is more specific than `'%'`, it is used in preference to the new entry when connecting from `localhost`! The correct procedure is to insert a second entry with `Host='localhost'` and `User='some_user'`, or to delete the entry with `Host='localhost'` and `User=''`. After deleting the entry, 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 entry 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 entry selected from the `db` table has an empty value in the `Host` column, make sure that there are one or more corresponding entries in the `host` table specifying which hosts the `db` table entry 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

Table of Contents

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` 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 the way they are used by 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. Because this means that anyone can attempt to connect to the server using any user name, 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, because they are completely unrelated to MySQL 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 the 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 any of the tables in the `mysql` database in any manner whatsoever except by means of the procedure that is described in `mysql_upgrade` — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables. Attempting to redefine MySQL's system tables in any other fashion results in undefined (and unsupported!) behavior.

- The server uses MySQL passwords stored in the `user` table to authenticate client connections using MySQL built-in authentication. These passwords have nothing to do with 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 `mysql` database is captured. (In earlier versions, even though passwords are stored in encrypted form in the `user` 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.

- It is possible to connect to the server regardless of character set settings if the user name and password contain only ASCII characters. 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.

When you install MySQL, the grant tables are populated with an initial set of accounts. The names and access privileges for these accounts are described in Section 3.2, “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`, `GRANT`, and `REVOKE`. See Account Management Statements.

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

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

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

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

There must be *no space* between the `-p` option and the following password value.

If you omit the *`password`* value following the `--password` or `-p` option on the command line, the client prompts for one.

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.

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 in two ways:

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

The preferred method is to use account-creation statements because they are more concise and less error-prone than manipulating the grant tables directly. `CREATE USER` and `GRANT` are described in Account Management Statements.

Another option for creating accounts is to use the GUI tool MySQL Workbench. Or one of several available third-party programs that offer capabilities for MySQL account administration. `phpMyAdmin` is one such program.

The following examples show how to use the `mysql` client program to set up new accounts. These examples assume that privileges have been set up according to the defaults described in Section 3.2, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”. This means that to make changes, you must connect to the MySQL server as the MySQL `root` user, and the `root` account must have the `INSERT` privilege for the `mysql` database and the `RELOAD` administrative privilege.

As noted in the examples where appropriate, some of the statements will fail if the server's SQL mode has been set to enable certain restrictions. In particular, strict mode (`STRICT_TRANS_TABLES`, `STRICT_ALL_TABLES`) and `NO_AUTO_CREATE_USER` will prevent the server from accepting some of the statements. Workarounds are indicated for these cases. For more information about SQL modes and their effect on grant table manipulation, see Server SQL Modes, and GRANT Syntax.

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 will also need to supply a `--password` or `-p` option, both for this `mysql` command and for those later in this section.

After connecting to the server as `root`, you can add new accounts. The following statements use `GRANT` to set up four new 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';
mysql> GRANT RELOAD,PROCESS ON *.* TO 'admin'@'localhost';
mysql> CREATE USER 'dummy'@'localhost';
```

The accounts created by these statements have the following properties:

- Two of the accounts have a user name of `monty` and a password of `some_pass`. Both accounts 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.

  It is necessary to have both accounts for `monty` to be able to connect from anywhere as `monty`. Without the `localhost` account, the anonymous-user account for `localhost` that is created by `mysql_install_db` would take precedence when `monty` connects from the local host. As a result, `monty` would be 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 no password. 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 later by issuing other `GRANT` statements.

- The `'dummy'@'localhost'` account has no password. 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 later.

The statements that create accounts with no password will fail if the `NO_AUTO_CREATE_USER` SQL mode is enabled. To deal with this, use an `IDENTIFIED BY` clause that specifies a nonempty password.

To check the privileges for an account, use `SHOW GRANTS`:

```
mysql> SHOW GRANTS FOR 'admin'@'localhost';
+-----------------------------------------------------+
| Grants for admin@localhost                          |
+-----------------------------------------------------+
| GRANT RELOAD, PROCESS ON *.* TO 'admin'@'localhost' |
+-----------------------------------------------------+
```

As an alternative to `CREATE USER` and `GRANT`, you can create the same accounts directly by issuing `INSERT` statements and then telling the server to reload the grant tables using `FLUSH PRIVILEGES`:

```
shell> mysql --user=root mysql
mysql> INSERT INTO user
    ->     VALUES('localhost','monty',PASSWORD('some_pass'),
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y');
mysql> INSERT INTO user
    ->     VALUES('%','monty',PASSWORD('some_pass'),
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y',
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y',
    ->     '','','','',0,0,0,0);
mysql> INSERT INTO user SET Host='localhost',User='admin',
    ->     Reload_priv='Y', Process_priv='Y';
mysql> INSERT INTO user (Host,User,Password)
    ->     VALUES('localhost','dummy','');
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

When you create accounts with `INSERT`, it is necessary to use `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` to tell the server to reload the grant tables. Otherwise, the changes go unnoticed until you restart the server. With `CREATE USER`, `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` is unnecessary.

The reason for using the `PASSWORD()` function with `INSERT` is to encrypt the password. The `CREATE USER` statement encrypts the password for you, so `PASSWORD()` is unnecessary.

The `'Y'` values enable privileges for the accounts. Depending on your MySQL version, you may have to use a different number of `'Y'` values in the first two `INSERT` statements. The `INSERT` statement for the `admin` account employs the more readable extended `INSERT` syntax using `SET`.

In the `INSERT` statement for the `dummy` account, only the `Host`, `User`, and `Password` columns in the `user` table row are assigned values. None of the privilege columns are set explicitly, so MySQL assigns them all the default value of `'N'`. This is equivalent to what `CREATE USER` does.

If strict SQL mode is enabled, all columns that have no default value must have a value specified. In this case, `INSERT` statements must explicitly specify values for the `ssl_cipher`, `x509_issuer`, and `x509_subject` columns.

To set up a superuser account, it is necessary only to insert a `user` table row with all privilege columns set to `'Y'`. The `user` table privileges are global, so no entries in any of the other grant tables are needed.

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

To create the accounts with `CREATE USER` and `GRANT`, use the following statements:

```
shell> mysql --user=root mysql
mysql> CREATE USER 'custom'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'obscure';
mysql> GRANT SELECT,INSERT,UPDATE,DELETE,CREATE,DROP
    ->     ON bankaccount.*
    ->     TO 'custom'@'localhost';
mysql> CREATE USER 'custom'@'host47.example.com' IDENTIFIED BY 'obscure';
mysql> GRANT SELECT,INSERT,UPDATE,DELETE,CREATE,DROP
    ->     ON expenses.*
    ->     TO 'custom'@'host47.example.com';
mysql> CREATE USER 'custom'@'server.domain' IDENTIFIED BY 'obscure';
mysql> GRANT SELECT,INSERT,UPDATE,DELETE,CREATE,DROP
    ->     ON customer.*
    ->     TO 'custom'@'server.domain';
```

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, but only from the host `server.domain`.

To set up the `custom` accounts without `GRANT`, use `INSERT` statements as follows to modify the grant tables directly:

```
shell> mysql --user=root mysql
mysql> INSERT INTO user (Host,User,Password)
    ->     VALUES('localhost','custom',PASSWORD('obscure'));
mysql> INSERT INTO user (Host,User,Password)
    ->     VALUES('host47.example.com','custom',PASSWORD('obscure'));
mysql> INSERT INTO user (Host,User,Password)
    ->     VALUES('server.domain','custom',PASSWORD('obscure'));
mysql> INSERT INTO db
    ->     (Host,Db,User,Select_priv,Insert_priv,
    ->     Update_priv,Delete_priv,Create_priv,Drop_priv)
    ->     VALUES('localhost','bankaccount','custom',
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y');
mysql> INSERT INTO db
    ->     (Host,Db,User,Select_priv,Insert_priv,
    ->     Update_priv,Delete_priv,Create_priv,Drop_priv)
    ->     VALUES('host47.example.com','expenses','custom',
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y');
mysql> INSERT INTO db
    ->     (Host,Db,User,Select_priv,Insert_priv,
    ->     Update_priv,Delete_priv,Create_priv,Drop_priv)
    ->     VALUES('server.domain','customer','custom',
    ->     'Y','Y','Y','Y','Y','Y');
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

The first three `INSERT` statements add `user` table entries that permit the user `custom` to connect from the various hosts with the given password, but grant no global privileges (all privileges are set to the default value of `'N'`). The next three `INSERT` statements add `db` table entries that grant privileges to `custom` for the `bankaccount`, `expenses`, and `customer` databases, but only when accessed from the proper hosts. As usual when you modify the grant tables directly, you must tell the server to reload them with `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` so that the privilege changes take effect.

To create a user who has access from all machines in a given domain (for example, `mydomain.com`), you can use the "`%`" wildcard character in the host part of the account name:

```
mysql> CREATE USER 'myname'@'%.mydomain.com' IDENTIFIED BY 'mypass';
```

To do the same thing by modifying the grant tables directly, do this:

```
mysql> INSERT INTO user (Host,User,Password,...)
    ->     VALUES('%.mydomain.com','myname',PASSWORD('mypass'),...);
mysql> FLUSH PRIVILEGES;
```

5.3 Removing User Accounts

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

5.4 Setting Account Resource Limits

One means of limiting 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 many MySQL administrators, particularly those working for Internet Service Providers.

In MySQL 5.1, you can limit use of the following server resources for individual accounts:

- The number of queries that an account can issue per hour
- The number of updates that 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 `mysql.user` table. That is, a connection is assessed against the `User` and `Host` values in the `user` table row that applies to the connection. For example, an account `'usera'@'%.example.com'` corresponds to a row in the `user` table that has `User` and `Host` values of `usera` and `%.example.com`, to permit `usera` to connect from any host in the `example.com` domain. In this case, the server applies resource limits in this row collectively to all connections by `usera` from any host in the `example.com` 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 accounting may be selected by starting the server with the `--old-style-user-limits` option. In this case, if `usera` connects simultaneously from `host1.example.com` and `host2.example.com`, the server applies the account resource limits separately to each connection. If `usera` connects again from `host1.example.com`, the server applies the limits for that connection together with the existing connection from that host.

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

```
mysql> GRANT USAGE ON *.* TO 'francis'@'localhost'
    ->     WITH MAX_QUERIES_PER_HOUR 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:

```
mysql> GRANT USAGE ON *.* TO 'francis'@'localhost'
    ->     WITH MAX_CONNECTIONS_PER_HOUR 0;
```

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 resource limits specified with `GRANT`:

```
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 zero `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit). `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, further connections for the account are rejected until that hour is up. Similarly, if the account reaches its limit on the number of queries or updates, further queries or updates are rejected until the hour is up. In all such cases, an appropriate error message is issued.

Resource counting is done 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 set to zero by re-granting it any of its limits. To do this, use `GRANT USAGE` as described earlier and specify a limit value equal to the value that the account currently has.

Counter resets do not affect the `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit.

All counts begin at zero when the server starts; counts are not carried over through a restart.

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.

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');
```

MySQL stores passwords in the user table in the mysql database. Only users such as root that have the UPDATE privilege for the mysql database can change the password for other users. 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.

Enabling the read_only system variable prevents the use of the SET PASSWORD statement by any user not having the SUPER privilege.

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 mysqladmin 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 (the value that PASSWORD() would return for the password). When assigning a password to an account, it is important to store an encrypted value, not the plaintext 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 plaintext password:

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

- For `CREATE USER` or `GRANT`, you can avoid sending the plaintext 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 plaintext. 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”.

It is preferable to assign passwords using `SET PASSWORD`, `GRANT`, or `mysqladmin`, but 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

MySQL supports secure (encrypted) connections between MySQL clients and the server using the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) protocol. This section discusses how to use SSL connections. 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.

The standard configuration of MySQL is intended to be as fast as possible, so 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.

MySQL enables encryption on a per-connection basis. You can choose an unencrypted connection or a secure encrypted SSL connection according the requirements of individual applications.

Secure connections are based on the OpenSSL API and are available through the MySQL C API. Replication uses the C API, so secure connections can be used between master and slave servers. See Setting Up Replication Using SSL.

Another way to connect securely is from within an SSH connection to the MySQL server host. For an example, see Section 5.7, “Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH”.

5.6.1 Basic SSL Concepts

To understand how MySQL uses SSL, it is necessary to explain some basic SSL and X509 concepts. People who are familiar with these concepts can skip this part of the discussion.

By default, MySQL uses unencrypted connections between the client and the server. This means that someone with access to the network could watch all your traffic and look at the data being sent or received. They could even change the data while it is in transit between client and server.

When you need to 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.

SSL is a protocol that uses different 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.

5.6.2 Configuring MySQL for SSL

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:

1. 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" CXXFLAGS="-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:

```
mysql> SHOW VARIABLES LIKE 'have_ssl';
+---------------+-------+
| Variable_name | Value |
+---------------+-------+
| have_ssl      | YES   |
+---------------+-------+
```

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, “Using SSL Connections”.

5.6.3 Using SSL Connections

To enable SSL connections, your MySQL distribution must be built with SSL support, as described in Section 5.6.2, “Configuring MySQL for SSL”. 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”.

To start the MySQL server so that it permits clients to connect using SSL, use the 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 like this:

```
shell> mysqld --ssl-ca=ca-cert.pem \
         --ssl-cert=server-cert.pem \
         --ssl-key=server-key.pem
```

Each option names a file in PEM format. For instructions on generating the required SSL certificate and key files, see Section 5.6.5, “Setting Up SSL Certificates and Keys for MySQL”. If you have a MySQL source distribution, you can also test your setup using the demonstration certificate and key files in the `mysql-test/std_data` directory of the distribution.

Similar options are used on the client side, but `--ssl-cert` and `--ssl-key` identify the client public and private key. The Certificate Authority certificate, if specified, must be the same as used by the server.

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-cert.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-cert.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:

```
mysql> SHOW STATUS LIKE 'Ssl_cipher';
+---------------+--------------------+
| Variable_name | Value              |
+---------------+--------------------+
| Ssl_cipher    | DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA |
+---------------+--------------------+
```

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
...
```

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, “Configuring MySQL for SSL”. For examples of suggested use and how to check whether a connection is secure, see Section 5.6.3, “Using 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	Dynamic
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
- *Variable*: ssl_capath			Yes		Global	No
ssl-cert	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: ssl_cert			Yes		Global	No
ssl-cipher	Yes	Yes			Global	No
- *Variable*: ssl_cipher			Yes		Global	No
ssl-key	Yes	Yes			Global	No

Name	Cmd-Line	Option File	System Var	Status Var	Var Scope	Dynamic
- *Variable*: ssl_key			Yes		Global	No

- `--ssl`

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

  For a client program, 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 permit SSL connections, an unencrypted connection is used.

  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, “Using SSL Connections”.

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

  The `--ssl` option can be given in its negated form to override other SSL options and indicate that SSL should *not* be used. To do this, specify the option as `--ssl=0` or a synonym (`--skip-ssl`, `--disable-ssl`). For example, you might have SSL options specified in the `[client]` 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 `--skip-ssl` on the command line to override the options in the option file.

  To require use of an SSL connection 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 using `GRANT` statements for the client account, and it still uses any `--ssl-ca` or `--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 using `GRANT` statements for the client account, and it still uses any `--ssl-ca` or `--ssl-capath` option values specified at server startup.

MySQL distributions built with OpenSSL support the `--ssl-capath` option. Distributions built with 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 `--ssl-ca` 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 `--ssl`.

- `--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 `--ssl`.

  For greatest portability, *`cipher_list`* 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 http://www.openssl.org/docs/apps/ciphers.html. However, yaSSL does not, so attempts to use that extended syntax fail for a MySQL distribution built with yaSSL.

  For OpenSSL, the supported ciphers may depend on which version your server is linked against. For example, the list might 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 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 built 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 connection fails if there is a mismatch. This feature can be used to prevent man-in-the-middle attacks. Verification is disabled by default. This option was added in MySQL 5.1.11.

5.6.5 Setting Up SSL Certificates and Keys for MySQL

This section demonstrates how 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 `openssl` 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> openssl req -new -x509 -nodes -days 3600 \
         -key ca-key.pem -out ca-cert.pem
# Create server certificate, remove passphrase, and sign it
# server-cert.pem = public key, server-key.pem = private key
shell> openssl 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> openssl x509 -req -in server-req.pem -days 3600 \
         -CA ca-cert.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> openssl 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> openssl x509 -req -in client-req.pem -days 3600 \
         -CA ca-cert.pem -CAkey ca-key.pem -set_serial 01 -out client-cert.pem
```

After generating the certificates, verify them:

```
shell> openssl verify -CAfile ca-cert.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-cert.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 to test SSL connections, see Section 5.6.3, “Using 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 to test SSL connections as described in Section 5.6.3, “Using 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-cert.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
# 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 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-cert.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'
# commonName            :PRINTABLE:'MySQL admin'
# 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-cert.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-cert.pem
ssl-cert=$DIR/client-cert.pem
ssl-key=$DIR/client-key.pem
[mysqld]
ssl-ca=$DIR/ca-cert.pem
ssl-cert=$DIR/server-cert.pem
ssl-key=$DIR/server-key.pem
EOF
```

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 System Properties menu that appears, and click the Environment Variables button.
3. Under **System Variables**, select Path, then click the Edit button. The Edit System Variable 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 to test SSL connections, see Section 5.6.3, “Using SSL Connections”.

5.7 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 `Host_Name = yourmysqlserver_URL_or_IP`. Set `userid=your_userid` to log in to your server. This `userid` value might not be the same as the user name of your MySQL 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.

5.8 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 `mysql.user` table. When a client connects successfully, the server authenticates the client to a particular row in this table. The `User` and `Host` column values in this row uniquely identify the account and correspond to the `'user_name'@'host_name'` 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. If this case, if a client connects as `user1` from the local host, `USER()` and `CURRENT_USER()` return different values:

```
mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER();
+-----------------+----------------+
| USER()          | CURRENT_USER() |
+-----------------+----------------+
| user1@localhost | @localhost     |
+-----------------+----------------+
```

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:

```
mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER();
+--------------------------+---------------------+
| USER()                   | CURRENT_USER()      |
+--------------------------+---------------------+
| user2@remote.example.com | user2@%.example.com |
+--------------------------+---------------------+
```

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:

```
mysql> SELECT SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',1);
+--------------------------------------+
| SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',1) |
+--------------------------------------+
| user1                                |
+--------------------------------------+
mysql> SELECT SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',-1);
+---------------------------------------+
| SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',-1) |
+---------------------------------------+
| localhost                             |
+---------------------------------------+
```

Appendix A Licenses for Third-Party Components

Table of Contents

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

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MySQL 5.1

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    in the event an application does not supply such function or
    table, the facility still operates, and performs whatever part of
    its purpose remains meaningful.

    (For example, a function in a library to compute square roots has
    a purpose that is entirely well-defined independent of the
    application.  Therefore, Subsection 2d requires that any
    application-supplied function or table used by this function must
    be optional: if the application does not supply it, the square
    root function must still compute square roots.)

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medium customarily used for software interchange.

  If distribution of object code is made by offering access to copy
from a designated place, then offering equivalent access to copy the
source code from the same place satisfies the requirement to
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distribute the source code, even though third parties are not
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  5. A program that contains no derivative of any portion of the
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Section 6 states terms for distribution of such executables.

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threshold for this to be true is not precisely defined by law.

  If such an object file uses only numerical parameters, data
structure layouts and accessors, and small macros and small inline
functions (ten lines or less in length), then the use of the object
file is unrestricted, regardless of whether it is legally a derivative
work.  (Executables containing this object code plus portions of the
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  Otherwise, if the work is a derivative of the Library, you may
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    executable containing the modified Library.  (It is understood
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    b) Use a suitable shared library mechanism for linking with the
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    rather than copying library functions into the executable, and (2)
    will operate properly with a modified version of the library, if
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    interface-compatible with the version that the work was made with.

    c) Accompany the work with a written offer, valid for at
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Appendix B MySQL 5.1 FAQ: Security

Questions

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”.
- User-Defined Function Security Precautions.
- Section 2.4, “Security-Related mysqld Options and Variables”.
- Section 2.6, “Security Issues with LOAD DATA LOCAL”.
- Chapter 3, *Postinstallation Setup and Testing*.
- Section 5.6.1, “Basic SSL Concepts”.

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 5.7, “Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH”.

B.3: Is SSL support be 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?

Not at this time.

B.5: Does MySQL 5.1 include support for Roles Based Access Control (RBAC)?

Not at this time.