Security in MySQL
Abstract

This is the MySQL Security Guide extract from the MySQL 5.5 Reference Manual.

For legal information, see the Legal Notices.

For help with using MySQL, please visit the MySQL Forums, where you can discuss your issues with other MySQL users.

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Chapter 1 Security

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

- General factors that affect security. These include choosing good passwords, not granting unnecessary privileges to users, ensuring application security by preventing SQL injections and data corruption, and others. See Chapter 2, General Security Issues.

- Security of the installation itself. The data files, log files, and 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, Access Control and Account Management.

- The features offered by security-related plugins. See Chapter 6, Security Plugins.

- 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 A, MySQL 5.5 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 system database! This is critical.

• Learn how the MySQL access privilege system works (see Chapter 4, Access Control and Account Management). Use the GRANT and REVOKE statements to control access to MySQL. Do not grant more privileges than necessary. Never grant privileges to all hosts.

  Checklist:

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


Keeping Passwords Secure

• 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 `SHA2()` 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 `--password=password` or `-p password` option on the command line.** For example:

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

  **Warning**

  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 `--password` or `-p` 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=password
  ```

  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
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 MySQL 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 Client 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` system 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 plugin directory location can replace plugins and modify the capabilities provided by plugins, including authentication plugins.

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

### 2.2.3 Passwords and Logging

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

Contents of the audit log file produced by the audit log plugin are not encrypted. For security reasons, this file should be written to a directory accessible only to the MySQL server and users with a legitimate reason to view the log. See Section 6.2.2, “MySQL Enterprise Audit Security Considerations”.

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

Replication slaves store the password for the replication master in the `master.info` file. Restrict this file to be accessible only to the database administrator.
Use a restricted access mode to protect database backups that include log tables or log files containing passwords.

2.2.4 Password Hashing in MySQL

Note
The information in this section applies only for accounts that use the mysql_native_password or mysql_old_password authentication plugins.

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:

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

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

The 4.1 Hashing Method

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

- Different format of password values produced by the PASSWORD() function

- Widening of the Password column

- Control over the default hashing method

- Control over the permitted hashing methods for clients attempting to connect to the server

The changes in MySQL 4.1 took place in two stages:

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

```
mysql> SELECT PASSWORD('mypass');
+-------------------------------------------+
| PASSWORD('mypass')                        |
+-------------------------------------------+
| *6C8989366EAF75BB670AD8EAA7A7FC1176A95CEF4 |
+-------------------------------------------+
```

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 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 higher) servers and clients, which can result in some compatibility problems. A 4.1 or higher 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 higher 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 higher. (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 higher 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;
+-------------------------+------------------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>@@SESSION.old_passwords</th>
<th>@@GLOBAL.old_passwords</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
+-------------------------+------------------------+
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.)
Password Hashing in MySQL

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:

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

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

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

`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 SHA2(), 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 as cleartext 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 Chapter 5, Using Encrypted 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 4.9, “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 `[mysql]` 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 Stored Object Access Control.
• 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 and Variable Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Cmd-Line</th>
<th>Option File</th>
<th>System Var</th>
<th>Status Var</th>
<th>Var Scope</th>
<th>Dynamic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>allow-suspicious-udfs</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>automatic_sp_privileges</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chroot</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>des-key-file</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>local_infile</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old_passwords</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Both</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safe-show-database</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safe-user-create</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secure-auth</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Variable:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secure_auth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secure_file_priv</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip-grant-tables</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip-name-resolve</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Variable:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip_name_resolve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip-networking</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Variable:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip_networking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip-show-database</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Variable:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skip_show_database</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 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 Linux, for installations performed using a MySQL repository, RPM packages, or Debian packages, the MySQL server `mysqld` should be started by the local `mysql` operating system user. Starting by another operating system user is not supported by the init scripts that are included as part of the installation.
On Unix (or Linux for installations performed using tar or tar.gz packages), 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, 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 3.4, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”.

### 2.6 Security Issues with LOAD DATA LOCAL

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

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

- 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. (A patched server could in fact reply with a file-transfer request to any statement, not just LOAD DATA LOCAL, so a more fundamental issue is that clients should not connect to untrusted servers.)

- 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 statement against the SQL server). In this environment, the client with respect to the MySQL server actually is the Web server, not a remote program being run by users who connect to the Web server.

To avoid LOAD DATA issues, clients should avoid using LOCAL. To avoid connecting to untrusted servers, clients can establish a secure connection and verify the server identity by connecting using the --ssl-verify-server-cert option and the appropriate CA certificate.
To enable administrators and applications to manage the local data loading capability, LOCAL configuration works like this:

- **On the server side:**
  - The `local_infile` system variable controls server-side LOCAL capability. Depending on the `local_infile` setting, the server refuses or permits local data loading by clients that have LOCAL enabled on the client side. By default, `local_infile` is enabled.
  - To explicitly cause the server to refuse or permit LOAD DATA LOCAL statements (regardless of how client programs and libraries are configured at build time or runtime), start `mysqld` with `local_infile` disabled or enabled, respectively. `local_infile` can also be set at runtime.

- **On the client side:**
  - The `ENABLED_LOCAL_INFILE` CMake option controls the compiled-in default LOCAL capability for the MySQL client library. Clients that make no explicit arrangements therefore have LOCAL capability disabled or enabled according to the `ENABLED_LOCAL_INFILE` setting specified at MySQL build time.
    
    By default, the client library in MySQL binary distributions is compiled with `ENABLED_LOCAL_INFILE` enabled. If you compile MySQL from source, configure it with `ENABLED_LOCAL_INFILE` disabled or enabled based on whether clients that make no explicit arrangements should have LOCAL capability disabled or enabled, respectively.
  - Client programs that use the C API can control load data loading explicitly by invoking `mysql_options()` to disable or enable the `MYSQL_OPT_LOCAL_INFILE` option. See `mysql_options()`.
  - For the `mysql` client, local data loading is disabled by default. To disable or enable it explicitly, use the `--local-infile=0` or `--local-infile=1` option.
  - For the `mysqlimport` client, local data loading is disabled by default. To disable or enable it explicitly, use the `--local=0` or `--local=1` option.
  - If you use LOAD DATA LOCAL in Perl scripts or other programs that read the `[client]` group from option files, you can add an `local-infile` option setting to that group. To prevent problems for programs that do not understand this option, specify it using the `loose-` prefix:

```
[client]
loose-local-infile=0
```

or:

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

- In all cases, successful use of a LOCAL load operation by a client also requires that the server permits it.

If LOCAL capability is disabled, on either the server or client side, a client that attempts to issue a LOAD DATA LOCAL 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.
This section discusses tasks that you should perform after installing MySQL:

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

For other platforms and installation types, you must initialize the data directory manually. These include installation from generic binary and source distributions on Unix and Unix-like systems, and installation from a ZIP Archive package on Windows. For instructions, see Section 3.1, “Initializing the Data Directory”.

• For instructions, see Section 3.2, “Starting the Server”, and Section 3.3, “Testing the Server”.

• Assign passwords to any initial accounts in the grant tables, if that was not already done during data directory initialization. Passwords prevent unauthorized access to the MySQL server. You may also wish to restrict access to test databases. For instructions, see Section 3.4, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”.

• Optionally, arrange for the server to start and stop automatically when your system starts and stops. For instructions, see Section 3.5, “Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically”.

• Optionally, populate time zone tables to enable recognition of named time zones. For instructions, see MySQL Server Time Zone Support.

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

### 3.1 Initializing the Data Directory

After MySQL is installed, the data directory must be initialized, including the tables in the mysql system database:

• For some MySQL installation methods, data directory initialization is automatic, as described in Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.

• For other installation methods, you must initialize the data directory manually. These include installation from generic binary and source distributions on Unix and Unix-like systems, and installation from a ZIP Archive package on Windows.
This section describes how to initialize the data directory manually for MySQL installation methods for which data directory initialization is not automatic. For some suggested commands that enable testing whether the server is accessible and working properly, see Section 3.3, “Testing the Server”.

In the examples shown here, the server is intended to run 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 (see Create a mysql User and Group), or substitute the name of a different existing login account that you plan to use for running the server.

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

   ```
   cd BASEDIR
   ```

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

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

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.

   ```
   chown -R mysql .
   chgrp -R mysql .
   ```

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

   Typically, data directory initialization need be done only the first time you install MySQL. For upgrades to an existing installation, you should run mysql_upgrade instead (see mysql_upgrade — Check and Upgrade MySQL Tables). However, the command that initializes the data directory does not overwrite any existing privilege tables, so it should be safe to run in any circumstances. Use the server to initialize the data directory; for example:

   ```
   scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
   ```

   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.

   The mysql_install_db command creates the server’s data directory. 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 program also creates privilege table entries for the initial account or accounts. test_. For a complete listing and description of the grant tables, see Chapter 4, Access Control and Account Management.

   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 (enter the command on a single line):

   ```
   scripts/mysql_install_db --user=mysql
   --basedir=/opt/mysql/mysql
   ```
Problems Running mysql_install_db

--datadir=/opt/mysql/mysql/data

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

If you have trouble with mysql_install_db at this point, see Section 3.1.1, “Problems Running mysql_install_db”.

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

chown -R root .
chown -R mysql data

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

5. In the absence of any option files, the server starts with its default settings. (See Server Configuration Defaults.) If you installed MySQL using a source distribution, you may want to optionally copy one of the provided configuration files from the support-files directory into your /etc directory. There are different sample configuration files for different use cases, server types, and CPU and RAM configurations. To use one of these standard files, copy it to /etc/my.cnf, or /etc/mysql/my.cnf and edit and check the configuration before starting your MySQL server for the first time.

You can also create my.cnf yourself and place into it the options the server should use at startup. (See Using Option Files.) For example, you can use an option file to set the secure_file_priv system variable.

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

6. To arrange for MySQL to start automatically at system boot time, see Section 3.5, “Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically”.

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

3.1.1 Problems Running mysql_install_db

The purpose of the mysql_install_db program is to initialize the data directory, including the tables in the mysql system database. It does not overwrite existing MySQL privilege tables, and it does not affect any other data.

To re-create your privilege tables, first stop the mysqld server if it is running. Then rename the mysql directory under the data directory to save it, and 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.

mv data/mysql data/mysql.old
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 first install MySQL.

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

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

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

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

• **You do not have write access to the /tmp directory**

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

You can specify different locations for the temporary directory and Unix socket file by executing these commands prior to starting **mysql_install_db** or **mysqld**, where **some_tmp_dir** is the full path name to some directory for which you have write permission:

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

Then you should be able to run **mysql_install_db** and start the server with these commands:

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

If **mysql_install_db** is located in the **scripts** directory, modify the first command to **scripts/mysql_install_db**.

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

There are some alternatives to running the **mysql_install_db** program provided in the MySQL distribution:
Starting the Server

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 3.2 Starting the Server

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

Start the MySQL server like this:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

If you would like to use `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:
3.2.1 Troubleshooting Problems Starting the MySQL Server

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

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

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

Some storage engines have options that control their behavior. You can create a my.cnf file and specify startup options for the engines that you plan to use. If you are going to use storage engines that support transactional tables (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.

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 to 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.

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

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

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

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

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

If the server fails to start up correctly, check the error log. Log files are located in the data directory (typically `C:\Program Files\MySQL\MySQL Server 5.5\data` on Windows, `/usr/local/mysql/data` for a Unix/Linux binary distribution, and `/usr/local/var` for a Unix/Linux source distribution). Look in the data directory for files with names of the form `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. 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
Testing the Server

times. If you do not get an error message like `telnet: Unable to connect to remote host: Connection refused`, some other program is using the TCP/IP port that `mysqld` is trying to use. You will need to track down what program this is and disable it, or else tell `mysqld` to listen to a different port with the `--port` option. In this case, you will also need to specify the port number for client programs when connecting to the server using TCP/IP.

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

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

```
127.0.0.1 localhost
```

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

### 3.3 Testing the Server

After the data directory is initialized and you have started the server, perform some simple tests to make sure that it works satisfactorily. This section assumes that your current location is the MySQL installation directory and that it has a `bin` subdirectory containing the MySQL programs used here. If that is not true, adjust the command path names accordingly.

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

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

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

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

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

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

```
shell> bin/mysqladmin version
mysqladmin Ver 14.12 Distrib 5.5.62, for pc-linux-gnu on i686 ...
Server version          5.5.62
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.

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

shell> bin/mysqladmin -u root shutdown

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

shell> bin/mysqld_safe --user=mysql &

If `mysqld_safe` fails, see Section 3.2.1, “Troubleshooting Problems Starting the MySQL Server".

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

Use `mysqlshow` to see what databases exist:

shell> bin/mysqlshow

+--------------------+
|     Databases      |
+--------------------+
| information_schema |
| mysql              |
| performance_schema |
| test               |
+--------------------+

The list of installed databases may vary, but always includes at least `mysql` and `information_schema`.

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

shell> bin/mysqlshow mysql

Database: mysql
+---------------------------+
|          Tables           |
+---------------------------+
| columns_priv              |
| db                        |
| event                     |
| func                      |
| general_log               |
| help_category             |
| help_keyword              |
| help_relation             |
| help_topic                |
| host                      |
| ndb_binlog_index          |
| plugin                    |
| proc                      |
| procs_priv                |
| proxies_priv              |
| servers                   |
| slow_log                  |
| tables_priv               |
| time_zone                 |
| time_zone_leap_second     |
| time_zone_name            |
| time_zone_transition      |
| time_zone_transition_type |
| user                      |
+---------------------------+

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

shell> bin/mysql -e "SELECT User, Host, plugin FROM mysql.user"
Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>User</th>
<th>Host</th>
<th>plugin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>localhost</td>
<td>mysql_native_password</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

3.4 Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts

The MySQL installation process involves initializing the data directory, including the grant tables in the mysql system database that define MySQL accounts. For details, see Section 3.1, “Initializing the Data Directory”.

This section describes how to assign passwords to the initial accounts created during the MySQL installation procedure, if you have not already done so.

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

- Some accounts have the user name root. These are superuser accounts that have all privileges and can do anything. If these root accounts have empty passwords, anyone can connect to the MySQL server as root without a password and be granted all privileges.
- On Windows, root accounts are created that permit connections from the local host only. Connections can be made by specifying the host name localhost, the IP address 127.0.0.1, or the IPv6 address ::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, the IPv6 address ::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. The ::1 account is used for IPv6 connections.

- If accounts for anonymous users were created, these have an empty user name. The anonymous accounts have no password, so anyone can use them to connect to the MySQL server.
- On Windows, there is one anonymous account that permits connections from the local host. Connections can be made by specifying a host name of localhost.
- 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.
- The 'root'@'localhost' account also has a row in the mysql.proxies_priv table that enables granting the PROXY privilege for '@', that is, for all users and all hosts. This enables root to set up proxy users, as well as to delegate to other accounts the authority to set up proxy users. See Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

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

```
mysql> SELECT User, Host, Password FROM mysql.user;
+------+--------------------+----------+
| User | Host               | Password |
+------+--------------------+----------+
| root | localhost          |          |
| root | myhost.example.com |          |
| root | 127.0.0.1          |          |
| root | ::1                |          |
|      | localhost          |          |
|      | myhost.example.com |          |
+------+--------------------+----------+
```

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

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

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

The following instructions describe how to set up passwords for the initial MySQL accounts, first for the root accounts, then for the anonymous accounts. The instructions also cover how to remove anonymous accounts, should you prefer not to permit anonymous access at all, and describe how to remove permissive access to test databases. Replace new_password 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.

You need not remove anonymous entries in the mysql.proxies_priv table, which are used to support proxy users. See Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

**Note**

For additional information about setting passwords, see Section 4.9, “Assigning Account Passwords”. If you forget your root password after setting it, see How to Reset the Root Password.

To set up additional accounts, see Section 4.7, “Adding Accounts, Assigning Privileges, and Dropping Accounts”.

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.

**Note**

On Windows, you can also perform the process described in this section using the Configuration Wizard (see 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. MySQL Workbench is available on all platforms, and also offers the ability to manage user accounts (see MySQL Workbench).

- Assigning root Account Passwords
Assigning root Account Passwords

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

- Use the SET PASSWORD statement
- Use the UPDATE statement
- Use the 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 system table.

For Windows, do this:

```
shell> mysql -u root
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'127.0.0.1' = PASSWORD('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'::1' = PASSWORD('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'%' = PASSWORD('new_password');
```

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('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'127.0.0.1' = PASSWORD('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'::1' = PASSWORD('new_password');
mysql> SET PASSWORD FOR 'root'@'host_name' = PASSWORD('new_password');
```

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('new_password')
  -> 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 "new_password"
sHELL> mysqladmin -u root -h host_name password "new_password"
```

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

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

## Assigning Anonymous Account Passwords

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

### To use `SET PASSWORD` on Windows, do this:

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

### To use `SET PASSWORD` on Unix, do this:

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

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

```shell
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> UPDATE mysql.user SET Password = PASSWORD('new_password')
    ->   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
shell> mysql -u root -p
Enter password: (enter root password here)
mysql> DROP USER ''@'localhost';
```

On Unix, remove the anonymous accounts like this:

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

## Securing Test Databases

By default, the `mysql.db` table contains rows that permit access by any user to the `test` database and other databases with names that start with `test_` (These rows have an empty `User` column...
value, which for access-checking purposes matches any user name.) This means that such databases can be used even by accounts that otherwise possess no privileges. If you want to remove any-user access to test databases, do so as follows:

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

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

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

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

### 3.5 Starting and Stopping MySQL Automatically

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Script</th>
<th>Option Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>mysqld</code></td>
<td><code>[mysqld],[server],[mysqld-major_version]</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mysqld_safe</code></td>
<td><code>[mysqld],[server],[mysqld_safe]</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mysql.server</code></td>
<td><code>[mysqld],[mysql.server],[server]</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
[mysqld-major_version] means that groups with names like [mysqld-5.1] and [mysqld-5.5] are read by servers having versions 5.1.x, 5.5.x, and so forth. This feature can be used to specify options that can be read only by servers within a given release series.

For backward compatibility, mysql.server also reads the [mysql_server] group and mysqld_safe also reads the [safe_mysqld] group. However, you should update your option files to use the [mysql.server] and [mysqld_safe] groups instead.

For more information on MySQL configuration files and their structure and contents, see Using Option Files.
Chapter 4 Access Control and Account Management

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MySQL enables the creation of accounts that permit client users to connect to the server and access data managed by the server. 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 grant privileges for administrative operations.

To control which users can connect, each account can be assigned authentication credentials such as a password. The user interface to MySQL accounts consists of SQL statements such as CREATE USER, GRANT, and REVOKE. See Account Management Statements.

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';
```

Internally, the server stores privilege information in the grant tables of the mysql system database. 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.

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 4.5, “Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification”, and Section 4.6, “Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification”. For help in diagnosing privilege-related problems, see Section 4.13, “Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL”.

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 4.8, “When Privilege Changes Take Effect”.

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.

### 4.1 Account User Names and Passwords

MySQL stores accounts in the `user` table of the `mysql` system database. An account is defined in terms of a user name and the client host or hosts from which the user can connect to the server. For information about account representation in the `user` table, see Section 4.3, “Grant Tables”.

An account may also have authentication credentials such as a password. The credentials are handled by the account authentication plugin. MySQL supports multiple authentication plugins. Some of them use built-in authentication methods, whereas others enable authentication using external authentication methods. See Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

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

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

**Warning**

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

You should never alter the structure of tables in the `mysql` database in any manner whatsoever except by means of the procedure that is described in Upgrading MySQL. Attempting to redefine MySQL's system tables in any other fashion results in undefined and unsupported behavior. The server is free to ignore rows that become malformed as a result of such modifications.
To authenticate client connections for accounts that use built-in authentication methods, the server uses passwords stored in the `user` table. These passwords are distinct from passwords for logging in to your operating system. There is no necessary connection between the “external” password you use to log in to a Windows or Unix machine and the password you use to access the MySQL server on that machine.

If the server authenticates a client using some other plugin, the authentication method that the plugin implements may or may not use a password stored in the `user` table. In this case, it is possible that an external password is also used to authenticate to the MySQL server.

Passwords stored in the `user` table are encrypted using plugin-specific algorithms. For information about MySQL native password hashing, see Section 2.2.4, “Password Hashing in MySQL”.

If the user name and password contain only ASCII characters, it is possible to connect to the server regardless of character set settings. To enable connections when the user name or password contain non-ASCII characters, client applications 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 fails 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. In addition, character set autodetection is supported as described in Connection Character Sets and Collations. 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`, `utf16`, and `utf32`, which are not permitted as client character sets.

The MySQL installation process populates the grant tables with an initial account or accounts. The names and access privileges for these accounts are described in Section 3.4, “Securing the Initial MySQL Accounts”, which also discusses how to assign passwords to them. Thereafter, you normally set up, modify, and remove MySQL accounts using statements such as `CREATE USER`, `DROP USER`, `GRANT`, and `REVOKE`. See Section 4.7, “Adding Accounts, Assigning Privileges, and Dropping Accounts”, and Account Management Statements.

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

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

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

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

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

```
shell> mysql --user=finley --password=password db_name
shell> mysql -u finley -p password db_name
```

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

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

For additional information about specifying user names, passwords, and other connection parameters, see Connecting to the MySQL Server Using Command Options.
4.2 Privileges Provided by MySQL

The privileges granted to a MySQL account determine which operations the account can perform. MySQL privileges differ in the contexts in which they apply 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 grant tables in the `mysql` system database. For a description of the structure and contents of these tables, see Section 4.3, “Grant Tables”. The MySQL server reads the contents of the grant tables into memory when it starts, and reloads them under the circumstances indicated in Section 4.8, “When Privilege Changes Take Effect”. The server bases access-control decisions on the in-memory copies of the grant tables.

Important

Some MySQL releases introduce changes to 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 the current structure whenever you upgrade MySQL. See Upgrading MySQL.

The following sections summarize the available privileges, provide more detailed descriptions of each privilege, and offer usage guidelines.

- Summary of Available Privileges
- Privilege Descriptions
- Privilege-Granting Guidelines

Summary of Available Privileges

The following table shows the privilege names used in `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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Privilege</th>
<th>Grant Table Column</th>
<th>Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALL [PRIVILEGES]</td>
<td>Synonym for “all privileges”</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALTER</td>
<td>Alter_priv</td>
<td>Tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALTER ROUTINE</td>
<td>Alter_routine_priv</td>
<td>Stored routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE</td>
<td>Create_priv</td>
<td>Databases, tables, or indexes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE ROUTINE</td>
<td>Create_routine_priv</td>
<td>Stored routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE TABLESPACE</td>
<td>Create_tablespace_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE TEMPORARY TABLES</td>
<td>Create_tmp_table_priv</td>
<td>Tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE USER</td>
<td>Create_user_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE VIEW</td>
<td>Create_view_priv</td>
<td>Views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DELETE</td>
<td>Delete_priv</td>
<td>Tables</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Privilege Descriptions

The following list provides general descriptions 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.

- **ALL, ALL PRIVILEGES**
  
  These privilege specifiers are shorthand 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, respectively.

- **ALTER**
  
  Enables use of the **ALTER TABLE** statement to change the structure of tables. **ALTER TABLE** also requires the **CREATE** and **INSERT** privileges. Renaming a table requires **ALTER** and **DROP** on the old table, **CREATE**, and **INSERT** on the new table.

- **ALTER ROUTINE**
  
  Enables use of statements that alter or drop stored routines (stored procedures and functions).

- **CREATE**
  
  Enables use of statements that create new databases and tables.

- **CREATE ROUTINE**

---

**Privilege Descriptions Table**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Privilege</th>
<th>Grant Table Column</th>
<th>Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DROP</td>
<td>Drop_priv</td>
<td>Databases, tables, or views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVENT</td>
<td>Event_priv</td>
<td>Databases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXECUTE</td>
<td>Execute_priv</td>
<td>Stored routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILE</td>
<td>File_priv</td>
<td>File access on server host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRANT OPTION</td>
<td>Grant_priv</td>
<td>Databases, tables, or stored routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDEX</td>
<td>Index_priv</td>
<td>Tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSERT</td>
<td>Insert_priv</td>
<td>Tables or columns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCK TABLES</td>
<td>Lock_tables_priv</td>
<td>Databases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROCESS</td>
<td>Process_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROXY</td>
<td>See proxies_priv table</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>References_priv</td>
<td>Databases or tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELOAD</td>
<td>Reload_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPLICATION CLIENT</td>
<td>Repl_client_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REPLICATION SLAVE</td>
<td>Repl_slave_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECT</td>
<td>Select_priv</td>
<td>Tables or columns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHOW DATABASES</td>
<td>Show_db_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHOW VIEW</td>
<td>Show_view_priv</td>
<td>Views</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHUTDOWN</td>
<td>Shutdown_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUPER</td>
<td>Super_priv</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIGGER</td>
<td>Trigger_priv</td>
<td>Tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPDATE</td>
<td>Update_priv</td>
<td>Tables or columns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAGE</td>
<td>Synonym for “no privileges”</td>
<td>Server administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Privilege Descriptions

The following list provides general descriptions 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.

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  These privilege specifiers are shorthand 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, respectively.

- **ALTER**
  
  Enables use of the **ALTER TABLE** statement to change the structure of tables. **ALTER TABLE** also requires the **CREATE** and **INSERT** privileges. Renaming a table requires **ALTER** and **DROP** on the old table, **CREATE**, and **INSERT** on the new table.

- **ALTER ROUTINE**
  
  Enables use of statements that alter or drop stored routines (stored procedures and functions).

- **CREATE**
  
  Enables use of statements that create new databases and tables.

- **CREATE ROUTINE**

---
Enables use of statements that create stored routines (stored procedures and functions).

- **CREATE TABLESPACE**
  Enables use of statements that create, alter, or drop tablespaces and log file groups.

- **CREATE TEMPORARY TABLES**
  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. For more information, see `CREATE TEMPORARY TABLE` Syntax.

- **CREATE USER**
  Enables use of the `CREATE USER`, `DROP USER`, `RENAME USER`, and `REVOKE ALL PRIVILEGES` statements.

- **CREATE VIEW**
  Enables use of the `CREATE VIEW` statement.

- **DELETE**
  Enables rows to be deleted from tables in a database.

- **DROP**
  Enables use of statements that drop (remove) existing databases, tables, and views. The `DROP` privilege is required to use the `ALTER TABLE ... DROP PARTITION` statement on a partitioned table. The `DROP` privilege is also required for `TRUNCATE TABLE`.

- **EVENT**
  Enables use of statements that create, alter, drop, or display events for the Event Scheduler.

- **EXECUTE**
  Enables use of statements that execute stored routines (stored procedures and functions).

- **FILE**
  Affects the following operations and server behaviors:
  - Enables reading and writing files on the server host using the `LOAD DATA` 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.)
  - Enables creating 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 of MySQL 5.5.54, enables use of the `DATA DIRECTORY` or `INDEX DIRECTORY` table option for the `CREATE TABLE` statement.

  As a security measure, the server does not overwrite existing files.

  To limit the location in which files can be read and written, set the `secure_file_priv` system variable to a specific directory. See Server System Variables.
Privilege Descriptions

- **GRANT OPTION**
  Enables you to grant to or revoke from other users those privileges that you yourself possess.

- **INDEX**
  Enables use of statements that 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.

- **INSERT**
  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.

- **LOCK TABLES**
  Enables use of explicit LOCK TABLES statements to lock tables for which you have the SELECT privilege. This includes use of write locks, which prevents other sessions from reading the locked table.

- **PROCESS**
  Enables 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.

- **PROXY**
  Enables one user to impersonate or become known as another user. See Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

- **REFERENCES**
  This privilege is unused before MySQL 5.5.41. As of 5.5.41, creation of a foreign key constraint requires at least one of the SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, or REFERENCES privileges for the parent table.

- **RELOAD**
  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 refresh 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.

- **REPLICATION CLIENT**
  Enables use of the SHOW MASTER STATUS and SHOW SLAVE STATUS statements. In MySQL 5.5.25 and later, it also enables use of the SHOW BINARY LOGS statement. Grant this privilege to accounts that are used by slave servers to connect to the current server as their master.

- **REPLICATION SLAVE**
  Enables the account to request updates that have been made to databases on the master server. Grant this privilege to accounts that are used by slave servers to connect to the current server as their master.
Privilege Descriptions

• **SELECT**

   Enables rows to be selected from tables in a database. `SELECT` statements require the `SELECT` privilege only if they actually access tables. 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:

   ```sql
   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 `SELECT` privilege is needed for tables or views used with `EXPLAIN`, including any underlying tables in view definitions.

• **SHOW DATABASES**

   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.

   **Caution**

   Because a 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 `INFORMATION_SCHEMA.SCHEMATA` table.

• **SHOW VIEW**

   Enables use of the `SHOW CREATE VIEW` statement. This privilege is also needed for views used with `EXPLAIN`.

• **SHUTDOWN**

   Enables use of the `mysqladmin shutdown` command and the `mysql_shutdown()` C API function. There is no corresponding SQL statement.

• **SUPER**

   Affects the following operations and server behaviors:

   • Enables server configuration changes by modifying global system variables. For some system variables, setting the session value also requires the `SUPER` privilege. If a system variable is restricted and requires a special privilege to set the session value, the variable description indicates that restriction. Examples include `binlog_format`, `sql_log_bin`, and `sql_log_off`. See also System Variable Privileges.

   • Enables changes to the global transaction isolation level (see SET TRANSACTION Syntax).

   • Enables the account to start and stop replication.

   • Enables use of the `CHANGE MASTER TO` statement.

   • Enables binary log control by means of the `PURGE BINARY LOGS` and `BINLOG` statements.

   • Enables setting the effective authorization ID when executing a view or stored program. A user with this privilege can specify any account in the `DEFINER` attribute of a view or stored program.

   • Enables use of the `CREATE SERVER`, `ALTER SERVER`, and `DROP SERVER` statements.
Privilege-Granting Guidelines

- Enables use of the `mysqladmin debug` command.
- Enables reading the DES key file by the `DES_ENCRYPT()` function.
- Enables control over client connections not permitted to non-SUPER accounts:
  - Enables use of the `KILL` statement or `mysqladmin` `kill` command to kill threads belonging to other accounts. (An account can always kill its own threads.)
  - The server does not execute `init_connect` system variable content when SUPER clients connect.
  - The server accepts one connection from a SUPER client even if the connection limit configured by the `max_connections` system variable is reached.
  - Updates can be performed even when the `read_only` system variable is enabled. This applies to explicit table updates, and to use of account-management statements such as `GRANT` and `REVOKE` that update tables implicitly.

You may also need the SUPER privilege to create or alter stored functions if binary logging is enabled, as described in Stored Program Binary Logging.

- TRIGGER
  Enables trigger operations. You must have this privilege for a table to create, drop, execute, or display triggers for that table.
  When a trigger is activated (by a user who has privileges to execute `INSERT`, `UPDATE`, or `DELETE` statements for the table associated with the trigger), trigger execution requires that the user who defined the trigger still have the TRIGGER privilege for the table.

- UPDATE
  Enables rows to be updated in tables in a database.

- USAGE
  This 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 naming specific account privileges in the privilege list. `SHOW GRANTS` displays USAGE to indicate that an account has no privileges at a privilege level.

Privilege-Granting Guidelines

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:

- FILE 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.
- GRANT OPTION 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.
- ALTER may be used to subvert the privilege system by renaming tables.
- SHUTDOWN can be abused to deny service to other users entirely by terminating the server.
- PROCESS can be used to view the plain text of currently executing statements, including statements that set or change passwords.
- SUPER can be used to terminate other sessions or change how the server operates.
• Privileges granted for the `mysql` system 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 `mysql.user` system table `Password` column can change an account’s password, and then connect to the MySQL server using that account.

• `INSERT` or `UPDATE` granted for the `mysql` system database enable a user to add privileges or modify existing privileges, respectively.

• `DROP` for the `mysql` system database enables a user to remove privilege tables, or even the database itself.

4.3 Grant Tables

The `mysql` system database includes several grant tables that contain information about user accounts and the privileges held by them. This section describes those tables. For information about other tables in the system database, see The `mysql` System Database.

The discussion here describes the underlying structure of the grant tables and how the server uses their contents when interacting with clients. However, normally you do not modify the grant tables directly. Modifications occur indirectly when you use account-management statements such as `CREATE USER`, `GRANT`, and `REVOKE` to set up accounts and control the privileges available to each one. See Account Management Statements. When you use such statements to perform account manipulations, the server modifies the grant tables on your behalf.

Note

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

As of MySQL 5.5.55, for any operation that modifies a grant table, the server checks whether the table has the expected structure and produces an error if not. `mysql_upgrade` must be run to update the tables to the expected structure.

• Grant Table Overview

• The user, db, and host Grant Tables

• The `tables_priv` and `columns_priv` Grant Tables

• The `procs_priv` Grant Table

• The `proxies_priv` Grant Table

• Grant Table Scope Column Properties

• Grant Table Privilege Column Properties

Grant Table Overview

These `mysql` database tables contain grant information:

• `user`: User accounts, global privileges, and other nonprivilege columns.

• `db`: Database-level privileges.

• `host`: Obsolete

• `tables_priv`: Table-level privileges.
Grant Table Overview

- **columns_priv**: Column-level privileges.
- **procs_priv**: Stored procedure and function privileges.
- **proxies_priv**: Proxy-user privileges.

Each grant table contains scope columns and privilege columns:

- **Scope columns** determine the scope of each row in the tables; that is, the context in which the row applies. For example, a user table row with Host and User values of 'h1.example.net' and 'bob' applies to authenticating connections made to the server from the host *h1.example.net* by a client that specifies a user name of *bob*. Similarly, a db table row with Host, User, and Db column values of 'h1.example.net', 'bob' and 'reports' applies when *bob* connects from the host *h1.example.net* to access the *reports* database. The tables_priv and columns_priv tables contain scope columns indicating tables or table/column combinations to which each row applies. The procs_priv scope columns indicate the stored routine to which each row applies.

- **Privilege columns** indicate which privileges a table row grants; that is, which operations it permits to be performed. The server combines the information in the various grant tables to form a complete description of a user's privileges. Section 4.6, “Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification”, describes the rules for this.

In addition, a grant table may contain columns used for purposes other than scope or privilege assessment.

The server uses the grant tables in the following manner:

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

  Caution
  
  Because a 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 **INFORMATION_SCHEMA SCHEMATA** table.

- The **db** table scope columns determine which users can access which databases from which hosts. The privilege columns determine the permitted operations. A privilege granted at the database level applies to the database and to all objects in the database, such as tables and stored programs.

- The **host** table is used in conjunction with the **db** table when you want a given **db** table row to apply to several hosts. For example, if you want a user to be able to use a database from several hosts in your network, leave the Host value empty in the user's **db** table row, then populate the **host** table with a row for each of those hosts. This mechanism is described more detail in Section 4.6, “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 (stored procedures and functions). A privilege granted at the routine level applies only to a single procedure or function.
The user, db, and host Grant Tables

- The `proxies_priv` table indicates which users can act as proxies for other users and whether a user can grant the `PROXY` privilege to other users.

The server reads the contents of the grant tables into memory when it starts. You can tell it to reload the tables by issuing a `FLUSH PRIVILEGES` statement or executing a `mysqladmin flush-privileges` or `mysqladmin reload` command. Changes to the grant tables take effect as indicated in Section 4.8, “When Privilege Changes Take Effect”.

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

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

The user, db, and host Grant Tables

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, Access Control and Account Management). 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 4.6, “Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification”.

### Table 4.2 user and db Table Columns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table Name</th>
<th>user</th>
<th>db</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scope columns</strong></td>
<td>Host</td>
<td>Host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User</td>
<td>Db</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Password</td>
<td>User</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Privilege columns</strong></td>
<td>Select_priv</td>
<td>Select_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insert_priv</td>
<td>Insert_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Update_priv</td>
<td>Update_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delete_priv</td>
<td>Delete_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Index_priv</td>
<td>Index_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alter_priv</td>
<td>Alter_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create_priv</td>
<td>Create_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drop_priv</td>
<td>Drop_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grant_priv</td>
<td>Grant_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create_view_priv</td>
<td>Create_view_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Show_view_priv</td>
<td>Show_view_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create_routine_priv</td>
<td>Create_routine_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alter_routine_priv</td>
<td>Alter_routine_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Execute_priv</td>
<td>Execute_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trigger_priv</td>
<td>Trigger_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event_priv</td>
<td>Event_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create_tmp_table_priv</td>
<td>Create_tmp_table_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lock_tables_priv</td>
<td>Lock_tables_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>References_priv</td>
<td>References_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reload_priv</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shutdown_priv</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Process_priv</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The tables_priv and columns_priv Grant Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table Name</th>
<th>user</th>
<th>db</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>File_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show_db_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repl_slave_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repl_client_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create_user_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create_tablespace_priv</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Security columns

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ssl_type</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ssl_cipher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x509Issuer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x509Subject</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plugin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authentication_string</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resource control columns

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>max_questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max_updates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max_connections</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max_user_connections</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The user table plugin, Password, and authentication_string columns store authentication plugin and credential information.

If an account row names a plugin in the plugin column, the server uses it to authenticate connection attempts for the account. It is up to the plugin whether it uses the Password and authentication_string column values.

If the plugin column for an account row is empty, the server authenticates the account using either the mysql_native_password or mysql_old_password plugin, depending on whether the password hash value in the Password column used native hashing or the older pre-4.1 hashing method. Clients must match the password in the Password column of the account row.

Prior to MySQL 5.5.11, the length of the plugin column was 60 characters. This was increased to 64 characters in MySQL 5.5.11 for compatibility with the mysql.plugin table's name column. (Bug #11766610, Bug #59752)

The tables_priv and columns_priv Grant Tables

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

Table 4.3 tables_priv and columns_priv Table Columns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table Name</th>
<th>tables_priv</th>
<th>columns_priv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scope columns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host</td>
<td>Host</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Db</td>
<td>Db</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User</td>
<td>User</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table_name</td>
<td>Table_name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Column_name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The procs_priv Grant Table

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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table Name</th>
<th>procs_priv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scope columns</td>
<td>Host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Db</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Routine_name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Routine_type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privilege columns</td>
<td>Proc_priv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other columns</td>
<td>Timestamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grantor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 unused.

The proxies_priv Grant Table

The proxies_priv table records information about proxy accounts. It has these columns:

- Host, User: The proxy account; that is, the account that has the PROXY privilege for the proxied account.
- Proxied_host, Proxied_user: The proxied account.
- Grantor, Timestamp: Unused.
- With_grant: Whether the proxy account can grant the PROXY privilege to other accounts.

For an account to be able to grant the PROXY privilege to other accounts, it must have a row in the proxies_priv table with With_grant set to 1 and Proxied_host and Proxied_user set to indicate the account or accounts for which the privilege can be granted. For example, the 'root'@'localhost' account created during MySQL installation has a row in the proxies_priv table that enables granting the PROXY privilege for '[@]', that is, for all users and all hosts. This enables root to set up proxy users, as well as to delegate to other accounts the authority to set up proxy users. See Section 4.11, "Proxy Users".

Grant Table Scope Column Properties

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

**Table 4.5 Grant Table Scope Column Lengths**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column Name</th>
<th>Maximum Permitted Characters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Host, Proxied_host</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User, Proxied_user</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Password</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Db</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table_name</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column_name</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routine_name</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Host and Proxied_host values are converted to lowercase before being stored in the grant tables.*

*For access-checking purposes, comparisons of User, Proxied_user, Password, Db, and Table_name values are case-sensitive. Comparisons of Host, Proxied_host, Column_name, and Routine_name values are not case-sensitive.*

### Grant Table Privilege Column Properties

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

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

**Table 4.6 Set-Type Privilege Column Values**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table Name</th>
<th>Column Name</th>
<th>Possible Set Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tables_priv</td>
<td>Table_priv</td>
<td>'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'Delete', 'Create', 'Drop', 'Grant', 'References', 'Index', 'Alter', 'Create View', 'Show view', 'Trigger'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tables_priv</td>
<td>Column_priv</td>
<td>'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'References'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>columns_priv</td>
<td>Column_priv</td>
<td>'Select', 'Insert', 'Update', 'References'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>procs_priv</td>
<td>Proc_priv</td>
<td>'Execute', 'Alter Routine', 'Grant'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

### 4.4 Specifying Account Names

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

In SQL statements such as `CREATE USER`, `GRANT`, and `SET PASSWORD`, account names follow these rules:

- Account name syntax 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 space or `-`), or a `host_name` string containing special characters or wildcard characters (such as `.` or `%`). For example, in the account name `'test-user'@'%.com'`, both the user name and host name parts require quotes.
- Quote user names and host names as identifiers or as strings, using either backticks (``), single quotation marks (``), or double quotation marks (``). For string-quoting and identifier-quoting guidelines, see String Literals, and Schema Object Names.
- The user name and host name parts, if quoted, must be quoted separately. That is, write `'me'@'localhost'`, not `'me@localhost'`. The latter is actually equivalent to `'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` system 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 access-checking purposes, comparisons of `User` values are case-sensitive. Comparisons of `Host` values are not case sensitive.

For additional detail about the properties of user names and host names as stored in the grant tables, such as maximum length, see Grant Table Scope Column Properties.

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

The user name part of an account 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 (IPv4 or IPv6). The name `'localhost'` indicates the local host. The IPv4 address `'127.0.0.1'` indicates the IPv4 loopback interface. The IPv6 address `'::1'` indicates the IPv6 loopback interface.
- The `%` and `_` wildcard characters are permitted 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. `'198.51.100.%'` matches any host in the 198.51.100 class C network.

Because IP wildcard values are permitted in host values (for example, `'198.51.100.%'` to match every host on a subnet), someone could try to exploit this capability by naming a host
To foil such attempts, MySQL does not perform matching on host names that start with digits and a dot. For example, if a host is named 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 IPv4 address, a netmask can be given to indicate how many address bits to use for the network number. Netmask notation cannot be used for IPv6 addresses.

The syntax is `host_ip/netmask`. For example:

```sql
CREATE USER 'david'@'198.51.100.0/255.255.255.0';
```

This enables `david` to connect from any client host having an IP address `client_ip` for which the following condition is true:

```sql
client_ip & netmask = host_ip
```

That is, for the `CREATE USER` statement just shown:

```sql
client_ip & 255.255.255.0 = 198.51.100.0
```

IP addresses that satisfy this condition range from `198.51.100.0` to `198.51.100.255`.

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

- `198.0.0.0/255.0.0.0`: Any host on the 198 class A network
- `198.51.100.0/255.255.0.0`: Any host on the 198.51 class B network
- `198.51.100.0/255.255.255.0`: Any host on the 198.51.100 class C network
- `198.51.100.1`: Only the host with this specific IP address

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, the server performs this comparison 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. If DNS returns just `host1`, use `host1` instead.

- If DNS returns the IP address for a given host as `198.51.100.2`, that will match an account host value of `198.51.100.2` but not `198.051.100.2`. Similarly, it will match an account host pattern like `198.51.100.%` but not `198.051.100.%`.

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

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

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

Credential checking is performed using the three `user` table scope columns (`Host`, `User`, and `Password`). The server accepts the connection only if the `Host` and `User` columns in some `user`
table row match the client host name and user name and the client supplies the password specified in that row. The rules for permissible Host and User values are given in Section 4.4, “Specifying Account Names”.

Your identity is based on two pieces of information:

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

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

The Password column can be blank. This is not a wildcard and does not mean that any password matches. It means that the user must connect without specifying a password. If the server authenticates a client using a plugin, the authentication method that the plugin implements may or may not use the password in the Password column. In this case, it is possible that an external password is also used to authenticate to the MySQL server.

Nonblank Password values in the user table represent encrypted passwords. MySQL does not store passwords as cleartext 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 4.1, “Account 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 system database.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>User Value</th>
<th>Host Value</th>
<th>Permissible Connections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'h1.example.net'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from h1.example.net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>''</td>
<td>'h1.example.net'</td>
<td>Any user, connecting from h1.example.net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'%'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from any host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>''</td>
<td>'%'</td>
<td>Any user, connecting from any host</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'%.example.net'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from any host in the example.net domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'x.example.%'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from x.example.net, x.example.com, x.example.edu, and so on; this is probably not useful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'198.51.100.177'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from the host with IP address 198.51.100.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'198.51.100.%'</td>
<td>fred, connecting from any host in the 198.51.100 class C subnet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fred'</td>
<td>'198.51.100.0/255.255.255.0'</td>
<td>Same as previous example</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 h1.example.net 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 198.51.100.13 and 198.51.100.0/255.255.255.0 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 nondeterministic.

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  | ...|
| h1.example.net |          | ...|
+----------------+----------+--
```

The sorted table looks like this:

```
+----------------+----------+--
| Host           | User     | ...|
+----------------+----------+--
| h1.example.net | jeffrey  | ...|
| %              |          | ...|
+----------------+----------+--
```
A connection by **jeffrey** from **h1.example.net** 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 **h1.example.net** 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:

```sql
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.

### 4.6 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 4.3, “Grant Tables”, which lists the columns present in each grant table.)

The **user** table grants global privileges. The **user** table row for an account indicates the account privileges that apply on a global basis 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, leave all privileges in the **user** table set to `'N'` and grant privileges at more specific levels only (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.
Access Control, Stage 2: Request Verification

- A '%' Host value in the db table means “any host.” A blank Host value in the db table means “consult the host table for further information” (a process that is described later in this section).

- A '%' or blank Host value in the host table means “any host.”

- A '%' or blank Db value in either table means “any database.”

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

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

- The wildcard characters % and _ can be used in the Host column. These have the same meaning as for pattern-matching operations performed with the LIKE operator.

- A '%' or blank Host value means “any host.”

- The Db, Table_name, Column_name, and Routine_name columns cannot contain wildcards or be blank.

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

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

For database-related requests (INSERT, UPDATE, and so on), the server first checks the user’s global privileges 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 from the db and host tables:

1. The server looks in the db table for a match on the Host, Db, and User columns. The Host and User columns are matched to the connecting user’s host name and MySQL user name. The Db column is matched to the database that the user wants to access. If there is no row for the Host and User, access is denied.

2. If there is a matching db table row and its Host column is not blank, that row defines the user’s database-specific privileges.

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

After determining the database-specific privileges granted by the db and host table rows, the server adds them to the global privileges granted by the user table. If the result permits the requested operation, access is granted. Otherwise, the server successively checks the user’s table and column
privileges in the `tables_priv` and `columns_priv` tables, adds those to the user’s privileges, and permits or denies access based on the result. For stored-routine operations, the server uses the `procs_priv` table rather than `tables_priv` and `columns_priv`.

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

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

It may not be apparent why, if the global 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 global and the `db` table row grants the other specifically for the relevant database. In this case, you have the necessary privileges to perform the request, but the server cannot tell that from either your global or database privileges alone. It must make an access-control decision based on the combined privileges.

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.example.org` that is located in a public area that you do not consider secure. You can enable access to all hosts on your network except that machine by using `host` table rows like this:

```
+--------------------+----+
| Host               | Db |
+--------------------+----+
| public.example.org | %  | ...
| % example.org      | %  | ...
+--------------------+----+
```

### 4.7 Adding Accounts, Assigning Privileges, and Dropping Accounts

To manage MySQL accounts, use the SQL statements intended for that purpose:

- `CREATE USER` and `DROP USER` create and remove accounts.
- `GRANT` and `REVOKE` assign privileges to and revoke privileges from accounts.
- `SHOW GRANTS` displays account privilege assignments.

Account-management statements cause the server to make appropriate modifications to the underlying grant tables, which are discussed in Section 4.3, “Grant Tables”.

**Note**

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

As of MySQL 5.5.55, for any operation that modifies a grant table, the server checks whether the table has the expected structure and produces an error if not. `mysql_upgrade` must be run to update the tables to the expected structure.
Creating Accounts and Granting Privileges

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

This section discusses the following topics:

- Creating Accounts and Granting Privileges
- Checking Account Privileges
- Revoking Account Privileges
- Dropping Accounts

For additional information about the statements discussed here, see Account Management Statements.

Creating Accounts and Granting Privileges

The following examples show how to use the mysql client program to set up new accounts. These examples assume that the MySQL root account has the CREATE USER privilege and all privileges that it grants to other accounts.

At the command line, connect to the server as the MySQL root user, supplying the appropriate password at the password prompt:

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

After connecting to the server, you can add new accounts. The following example uses CREATE USER and GRANT statements to set up four accounts (where you see 'password', substitute an appropriate password):

```
CREATE USER 'finley'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT ALL ON *.* TO 'finley'@'localhost'
WITH GRANT OPTION;
CREATE USER 'finley'@'%.example.com' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT ALL ON *.* TO 'finley'@'%.example.com'
WITH GRANT OPTION;
CREATE USER 'admin'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT RELOAD,PROCESS ON *.* TO 'admin'@'localhost';
CREATE USER 'dummy'@'localhost';
```

The accounts created by those statements have the following properties:

- Two accounts have a user name of finley. Both are superuser accounts with full global privileges to do anything. The 'finley'@'localhost' account can be used only when connecting from the local host. The 'finley'@'%.example.com' account uses the '%' wildcard in the host part, so it can be used to connect from any host in the example.com domain.

The 'finley'@'localhost' account is necessary if there is an anonymous-user account for localhost. Without the 'finley'@'localhost' account, that anonymous-user account takes precedence when finley connects from the local host and finley is treated as an anonymous user. The reason for this is that the anonymous-user account has a more specific Host column value than the 'finley'@'%' account and thus comes earlier in the user table sort order. (For information about user table sorting, see Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification").
Checking Account Privileges

- The 'admin'@'localhost' account can be used only by admin to connect from the local host. It is granted the global RELOAD and PROCESS administrative privileges. These privileges enable the admin user to execute the mysqladmin reload, mysqladmin refresh, and mysqladmin flush-xxx commands, as well as mysqladmin processlist. No privileges are granted for accessing any databases. You could add such privileges using GRANT statements.

- The 'dummy'@'localhost' account has no password (which is insecure and not recommended). This account can be used only to connect from the local host. No privileges are granted. It is assumed that you will grant specific privileges to the account using GRANT statements.

The previous example grants privileges at the global level. The next example creates three accounts and grants them access at lower levels; that is, to specific databases or objects within databases. Each account has a user name of custom, but the host name parts differ:

```sql
CREATE USER 'custom'@'localhost'
  IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT ALL
  ON bankaccount.*
  TO 'custom'@'localhost';
CREATE USER 'custom'@'host47.example.com'
  IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, CREATE, DROP
  ON expenses.*
  TO 'custom'@'host47.example.com';
CREATE USER 'custom'@'%.example.com'
  IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
GRANT SELECT, INSERT, UPDATE, DELETE, CREATE, DROP
  ON customer.addresses
  TO 'custom'@'%.example.com';
```

The three accounts can be used as follows:

- The 'custom'@'localhost' account has all database-level privileges to access the bankaccount database. The account can be used to connect to the server only from the local host.

- The 'custom'@'host47.example.com' account has specific database-level privileges to access the expenses database. The account can be used to connect to the server only from the host host47.example.com.

- The 'custom'@'%.example.com' account has specific table-level privileges to access the addresses table in the customer database, from any host in the example.com domain. The account can be used to connect to the server from all machines in the domain due to use of the % wildcard character in the host part of the account name.

Checking Account Privileges

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

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

Revoking Account Privileges

To revoke account privileges, use the REVOKE statement. Privileges can be revoked at different levels, just as they can be granted at different levels.

Revoke global privileges:
Dropping Accounts

To remove an account, use the \texttt{DROP USER} statement. For example, to drop some of the accounts created previously:

\begin{verbatim}
DROP USER 'finley'@'localhost';
DROP USER 'finley'@'%.example.com';
DROP USER 'admin'@'localhost';
DROP USER 'dummy'@'localhost';
\end{verbatim}

4.8 When Privilege Changes Take Effect

If the \texttt{mysqld} server is started without the \texttt{--skip-grant-tables} option, it reads all grant table contents into memory during its startup sequence. The in-memory tables become effective for access control at that point.

If you modify the grant tables indirectly using an account-management statement, the server notices these changes and loads the grant tables into memory again immediately. Account-management statements are described in Account Management Statements. Examples include \texttt{GRANT}, \texttt{REVOKE}, \texttt{SET PASSWORD}, and \texttt{RENAME USER}.

If you modify the grant tables directly using statements such as \texttt{INSERT}, \texttt{UPDATE}, or \texttt{DELETE} (which is not recommended), the changes have no effect on privilege checking until you either tell the server to reload the tables or restart it. Thus, if you change the grant tables directly but forget to reload them, the changes have \textit{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 \texttt{FLUSH PRIVILEGES} statement or by executing a \texttt{mysqladmin flush-privileges} or \texttt{mysqladmin reload} command.

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

\begin{itemize}
  \item Table and column privilege changes take effect with the client's next request.
\end{itemize}
• 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.

• Global privileges and passwords are unaffected for a connected client. These changes take effect only in sessions 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. Any user can connect and perform any operation, which is insecure. To cause a server thus started to read the tables and enable access checking, flush the privileges.

### 4.9 Assigning Account Passwords

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

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

The discussion here summarizes syntax only for the most common password-assignment statements. For complete details on other possibilities, see `CREATE USER Syntax`, `GRANT Syntax`, and `SET PASSWORD Syntax`.

MySQL uses plugins to perform client authentication; see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. In password-assigning statements, the authentication plugin associated with an account performs any hashing required of a cleartext password specified. This enables MySQL to obfuscate passwords prior to storing them in the `mysql.user` system table. For most statements described here, MySQL automatically hashes the password specified. An exception is `SET PASSWORD ... = PASSWORD('auth_string')`, for which you use the `PASSWORD()` function explicitly to hash the password. There is also syntax for `CREATE USER`, `GRANT`, and `SET PASSWORD` that permits hashed values to be specified literally. For details, see the descriptions of those statements.

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

```sql
CREATE USER 'jeffrey'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
```

`CREATE USER` also supports syntax for specifying the account authentication plugin. See `CREATE USER Syntax`.

To assign or change a password for an existing account, use `SET PASSWORD` with the `PASSWORD()` function:

```sql
SET PASSWORD FOR 'jeffrey'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('password');
```

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

```sql
SET PASSWORD = PASSWORD('password');
```

The `PASSWORD()` function hashes the password using the hashing method determined by the value of the `old_passwords` system variable value. If `SET PASSWORD` rejects the hashed password value returned by `PASSWORD()` as not being in the correct format, it may be necessary to change `old_passwords` to change the hashing method. See `SET PASSWORD Syntax`. 
Use a `GRANT USAGE` statement at the global level (ON `*.*`) to change an account password without affecting the account's current privileges:

```sql
GRANT USAGE ON `*.*` TO 'jeffrey'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'password';
```

To change an account password from the command line, use the `mysqladmin` command:

```bash
mysqladmin -u user_name -h host_name password "password"
```

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

**Warning**

Setting a password using `mysqladmin` should be considered **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 you are using MySQL Replication, be aware that, currently, a password used by a replication slave as part of a `CHANGE MASTER TO` statement is effectively limited to 32 characters in length; if the password is longer, any excess characters are truncated. This is not due to any limit imposed by the MySQL Server generally, but rather is an issue specific to MySQL Replication. (For more information, see Bug #43439.)

### 4.10 Pluggable Authentication

When a client connects to the MySQL server, the server uses the user name provided by the client and the client host to select the appropriate account row from the `mysql.user` system table. The server then authenticates the client, determining from the account row which authentication plugin applies to the client:

- If the server cannot find the plugin, an error occurs and the connection attempt is rejected. Otherwise, if the account row specifies a plugin, the server invokes it to authenticate the user.

- If the account row specifies no plugin name, the server authenticates the account using either the `mysql_native_password` or `mysql_old_password` plugin, depending on whether the password hash value in the `Password` column used native hashing or the older pre-4.1 hashing method. Clients must match the password in the `Password` column of the account row.

The plugin returns a status to the server indicating whether the user provided the correct password and is permitted to connect.

Pluggable authentication enables these important capabilities:

- **Choice of authentication methods.** Pluggable authentication makes it easy for DBAs to choose and change the authentication method used for individual MySQL accounts.

- **External authentication.** Pluggable authentication makes it possible for clients to connect to the MySQL server with credentials appropriate for authentication methods that store credentials elsewhere than in the `mysql.user` system table. For example, plugins can be created to use external authentication methods such as PAM, Windows login IDs, LDAP, or Kerberos.

- **Proxy users:** If a user is permitted to connect, an authentication plugin can return to the server a user name different from the name of the connecting user, to indicate that the connecting user is a proxy for another user (the proxied user). While the connection lasts, the proxy user is treated,
for purposes of access control, as having the privileges of the proxied user. In effect, one user impersonates another. For more information, see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

Note
If you start the server with the `--skip-grant-tables` option, authentication plugins are not used even if loaded because the server performs no client authentication and permits any client to connect. Because this is insecure, you might want to use `--skip-grant-tables` in conjunction with `--skip-networking` to prevent remote clients from connecting.

- Available Authentication Plugins
- Authentication Plugin Usage
- Restrictions on Pluggable Authentication

Available Authentication Plugins

MySQL 5.5 provides these authentication plugins:

- Plugins that perform native authentication; that is, authentication based on the password hashing methods in use from before the introduction of pluggable authentication in MySQL. The `mysql_native_password` plugin implements authentication based on the native password hashing method. The `mysql_old_password` plugin implements native authentication based on the older (pre-4.1) password hashing method. See Section 6.1.1, “Native Pluggable Authentication”, and Section 6.1.2, “Old Native Pluggable Authentication”. Native authentication using `mysql_native_password` is the default for accounts that have no plugin named explicitly in their account row.

- A client-side plugin that sends the password to the server without hashing or encryption. This plugin is used in conjunction with server-side plugins that require access to the password exactly as provided by the client user. See Section 6.1.3, “Client-Side Cleartext Pluggable Authentication”.

- A plugin that performs external authentication using PAM (Pluggable Authentication Modules), enabling MySQL Server to use PAM to authenticate MySQL users. This plugin supports proxy users as well. See Section 6.1.4, “PAM Pluggable Authentication”.

- A plugin that performs external authentication on Windows, enabling MySQL Server to use native Windows services to authenticate client connections. Users who have logged in to Windows can connect from MySQL client programs to the server based on the information in their environment without specifying an additional password. This plugin supports proxy users as well. See Section 6.1.5, “Windows Pluggable Authentication”.

- A plugin that authenticates clients that connect from the local host through the Unix socket file. See Section 6.1.6, “Socket Peer-Credential Pluggable Authentication”.

- A test plugin that checks account credentials and logs success or failure to the server error log. This plugin is intended for testing and development purposes, and as an example of how to write an authentication plugin. See Section 6.1.7, “Test Pluggable Authentication”.

Note
For information about current restrictions on the use of pluggable authentication, including which connectors support which plugins, see Restrictions on Pluggable Authentication.

Third-party connector developers should read that section to determine the extent to which a connector can take advantage of pluggable authentication capabilities and what steps to take to become more compliant.

If you are interested in writing your own authentication plugins, see Writing Authentication Plugins.
Authentication Plugin Usage

This section provides general instructions for installing and using authentication plugins. For instructions specific to a given plugin, see the section that describes that plugin under Section 6.1, “Authentication Plugins”.

In general, pluggable authentication uses a pair of corresponding plugins on the server and client sides, so you use a given authentication method like this:

- If necessary, install the plugin library or libraries containing the appropriate plugins. On the server host, install the library containing the server-side plugin, so that the server can use it to authenticate client connections. Similarly, on each client host, install the library containing the client-side plugin for use by client programs. Authentication plugins that are built in need not be installed.

- For each MySQL account that you create, specify the appropriate server-side plugin to use for authentication. If the account is to use the default authentication plugin (mysql_native_password), the account-creation statement need not specify the plugin explicitly.

- When a client connects, the server-side plugin tells the client program which client-side plugin to use for authentication.

In the case that an account uses an authentication method that is the default for both the server and the client program, the server need not communicate to the client which client-side plugin to use, and a round trip in client/server negotiation can be avoided. This is true for accounts that use native MySQL authentication.

For standard MySQL clients such as mysql and mysqladmin, the --default-auth=plugin_name option can be specified on the command line as a hint about which client-side plugin the program can expect to use, although the server will override this if the server-side plugin associated with the user account requires a different client-side plugin.

If the client program does not find the client-side plugin library file, specify a --plugin-dir=dir_name option to indicate the plugin library directory location.

Restrictions on Pluggable Authentication

The first part of this section describes general restrictions on the applicability of the pluggable authentication framework described at Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. The second part describes how third-party connector developers can determine the extent to which a connector can take advantage of pluggable authentication capabilities and what steps to take to become more compliant.

The term “native authentication” used here refers to authentication against passwords stored in the Password column of the mysql.user system table. This is the same authentication method provided by MySQL servers older than 5.5.7, before pluggable authentication was implemented. “Windows native authentication” refers to authentication using the credentials of a user who has already logged in to Windows, as implemented by the Windows Native Authentication plugin (“Windows plugin” for short).

- General Pluggable Authentication Restrictions
- Pluggable Authentication and Third-Party Connectors

General Pluggable Authentication Restrictions

- Connector/C, Connector/C++: Clients that use these connectors can connect to the server only through accounts that use native authentication.

Exception: A connector supports pluggable authentication if it was built to link to libmysqlclient dynamically (rather than statically) and it loads the current version of libmysqlclient if that version is installed, or if the connector is recompiled from source to link against the current libmysqlclient.
Restrictions on Pluggable Authentication

- **Connector/NET**: Clients that use Connector/NET can connect to the server through accounts that use native authentication or Windows native authentication.

- **Connector/PHP**: Clients that use this connector can connect to the server only through accounts that use native authentication, when compiled using the MySQL native driver for PHP (mysqlnd).

- **Windows native authentication**: Connecting through an account that uses the Windows plugin requires Windows Domain setup. Without it, NTLM authentication is used and then only local connections are possible; that is, the client and server must run on the same computer.

- **Proxy users**: Proxy user support is available to the extent that clients can connect through accounts authenticated with plugins that implement proxy user capability (that is, plugins that can return a user name different from that of the connecting user). For example, the PAM and Windows plugins support proxy users. The native authentication plugins do not.

- **Replication**: Before MySQL 5.5.17, replication slaves can connect to the master server only through master accounts that use native authentication. As of 5.5.17 (or 5.5.19 for Windows native authentication), replication slaves can also connect through master accounts that use nonnative authentication if the required client-side plugin is available. If the plugin is built into libmysqlclient, it is available by default. Otherwise, the plugin must be installed on the slave side in the directory named by the slave plugin_dir system variable.

- **FEDERATED tables**: A FEDERATED table can access the remote table only through accounts on the remote server that use native authentication.

### Pluggable Authentication and Third-Party Connectors

Third-party connector developers can use the following guidelines to determine readiness of a connector to take advantage of pluggable authentication capabilities and what steps to take to become more compliant:

- An existing connector to which no changes have been made uses native authentication and clients that use the connector can connect to the server only through accounts that use native authentication. **However, you should test the connector against a recent version of the server to verify that such connections still work without problem.**

  Exception: A connector might work with pluggable authentication without any changes if it links to libmysqlclient dynamically (rather than statically) and it loads the current version of libmysqlclient if that version is installed.

- To take advantage of pluggable authentication capabilities, a connector that is libmysqlclient-based should be relinked against the current version of libmysqlclient. This enables the connector to support connections through accounts that require client-side plugins now built into libmysqlclient (such as the cleartext plugin needed for PAM authentication and the Windows plugin needed for Windows native authentication). Linking with a current libmysqlclient also enables the connector to access client-side plugins installed in the default MySQL plugin directory (typically the directory named by the default value of the local server's plugin_dir system variable).

  If a connector links to libmysqlclient dynamically, it must be ensured that the newer version of libmysqlclient is installed on the client host and that the connector loads it at runtime.

- Another way for a connector to support a given authentication method is to implement it directly in the client/server protocol. Connector/NET uses this approach to provide support for Windows native authentication.

- If a connector should be able to load client-side plugins from a directory different from the default plugin directory, it must implement some means for client users to specify the directory. Possibilities for this include a command-line option or environment variable from which the connector can obtain the directory name. Standard MySQL client programs such as mysql and mysqladmin implement a --plugin-dir option. See also **C API Client Plugin Functions**.
Proxy Users

• Proxy user support by a connector depends, as described earlier in this section, on whether the authentication methods that it supports permit proxy users.

4.11 Proxy Users

The MySQL server authenticates client connections using authentication plugins. The plugin that authenticates a given connection may request that the connecting (external) user be treated as a different user for privilege-checking purposes. This enables the external user to be a proxy for the second user; that is, to assume the privileges of the second user:

• The external user is a “proxy user” (a user who can impersonate or become known as another user).

• The second user is a “proxied user” (a user whose identity and privileges can be assumed by a proxy user).

This section describes how the proxy user capability works. For general information about authentication plugins, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. For information about specific plugins, see Section 6.1, “Authentication Plugins”. For information about writing authentication plugins that support proxy users, see Implementing Proxy User Support in Authentication Plugins.

• Requirements for Proxy User Support

• Simple Proxy User Example

• Preventing Direct Login to Proxied Accounts

• Granting and Revoking the PROXY Privilege

• Default Proxy Users

• Default Proxy User and Anonymous User Conflicts

• Proxy User System Variables

Requirements for Proxy User Support

For proxying to occur for a given authentication plugin, these conditions must be satisfied:

• The plugin must support proxying.

• The account for the external proxy user must be set up to be authenticated by the plugin. Use the CREATE_USER or GRANT statement to associate an account with an authentication plugin.

• The account for the proxied user must exist and be granted the privileges to be assumed by the proxy user. Use the CREATE_USER and GRANT statements for this.

• Normally, the proxied user is configured so that it can be used only in proxying scenarios and not for direct logins.

• The proxy user account must have the PROXY privilege for the proxied account. Use the GRANT statement for this.

• For a client connecting to the proxy account to be treated as a proxy user, the authentication plugin must return a user name different from the client user name, to indicate the user name of the proxied account that defines the privileges to be assumed by the proxy user.

The proxy mechanism permits mapping only the external client user name to the proxied user name. There is no provision for mapping host names:

• When a client connects to the server, the server determines the proper account based on the user name passed by the client program and the host from which the client connects.
• If that account is a proxy account, the server attempts to determine the appropriate proxied account by finding a match for a proxied account using the user name returned by the authentication plugin and the host name of the proxy account. The host name in the proxied account is ignored.

**Simple Proxy User Example**

Consider the following account definitions:

```sql
-- create proxy account
CREATE USER 'employee_ext'@'localhost'
  IDENTIFIED WITH my_auth_plugin
  AS 'my_auth_string';

-- create proxied account and grant its privileges
CREATE USER 'employee'@'localhost'
  IDENTIFIED BY 'employee_password';

GRANT ALL
  ON employees.*
  TO 'employee'@'localhost';

-- grant to proxy account the PROXY privilege for proxied account
GRANT PROXY
  ON 'employee'@'localhost'
  TO 'employee_ext'@'localhost';
```

When a client connects as `employee_ext` from the local host, MySQL uses the plugin named `my_auth_plugin` to perform authentication. Suppose that `my_auth_plugin` returns a user name of `employee` to the server, based on the content of `my_auth_string` and perhaps by consulting some external authentication system. The name `employee` differs from `employee_ext`, so returning `employee` serves as a request to the server to treat the `employee_ext` external user, for purposes of privilege checking, as the `employee` local user.

In this case, `employee_ext` is the proxy user and `employee` is the proxied user.

The server verifies that proxy authentication for `employee` is possible for the `employee_ext` user by checking whether `employee_ext` (the proxy user) has the PROXY privilege for `employee` (the proxied user). If this privilege has not been granted, an error occurs. Otherwise, `employee_ext` assumes the privileges of `employee`. The server checks statements executed during the client session by `employee_ext` against the privileges granted to `employee`. In this case, `employee_ext` can access tables in the `employees` database.

To ensure that the proxied account, `employee`, cannot be used directly, do not tell anyone else its password. If you do not let anyone know the password for the account, clients cannot use it to connect directly to the MySQL server.

When proxying occurs, the `USER()` and `CURRENT_USER()` functions can be used to see the difference between the connecting user (the proxy user) and the account whose privileges apply during the current session (the proxied user). For the example just described, those functions return these values:

```sql
mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER();
+------------------------+--------------------+
| USER()                 | CURRENT_USER()     |
+------------------------+--------------------+
| employee_ext@localhost | employee@localhost |
+------------------------+--------------------+
```

In the `CREATE USER` statement that creates the proxy user account, the `IDENTIFIED WITH` clause that names the proxy-supporting authentication plugin is optionally followed by an `AS 'auth_string'` clause specifying a string that the server passes to the plugin when the user connects. If present, the string provides information that helps the plugin determine how to map the proxy (external) client user name to a proxied user name. It is up to each plugin whether it requires the `AS` clause. If so, the format of the authentication string depends on how the plugin intends to use it. Consult the documentation for a given plugin for information about the authentication string values it accepts.
Preventing Direct Login to Proxied Accounts

Proxied accounts generally are intended to be used only by means of proxy accounts. That is, clients connect using a proxy account, then are mapped onto and assume the privileges of the appropriate proxied user.

To ensure that a proxied account cannot be used directly, create the account with a password but do not tell anyone else the password. If you do not let anyone know the password for the account, clients cannot use it to connect directly to the MySQL server.

Granting and Revoking the PROXY Privilege

The PROXY privilege is needed to enable an external user to connect as and have the privileges of another user. To grant this privilege, use the GRANT statement. For example:

```
GRANT PROXY ON 'proxied_user' TO 'proxy_user';
```

The statement creates a row in the mysql.proxies_priv grant table.

At connect time, proxy_user must represent a valid externally authenticated MySQL user, and proxied_user must represent a valid locally authenticated user. Otherwise, the connection attempt fails.

The corresponding REVOKE syntax is:

```
REVOKE PROXY ON 'proxied_user' FROM 'proxy_user';
```

MySQL GRANT and REVOKE syntax extensions work as usual. Examples:

```
-- grant PROXY to multiple accounts
GRANT PROXY ON 'a' TO 'b', 'c', 'd';
-- revoke PROXY from multiple accounts
REVOKE PROXY ON 'a' FROM 'b', 'c', 'd';
-- grant PROXY to an account and enable the account to grant
-- PROXY to the proxied account
GRANT PROXY ON 'a' TO 'd' WITH GRANT OPTION;
-- grant PROXY to default proxy account
GRANT PROXY ON 'a' TO '%' ';
```

The PROXY privilege can be granted in these cases:

- By a user that has GRANT PROXY ... WITH GRANT OPTION for proxied_user.
- By proxied_user for itself: The value of USER() must exactly match CURRENT_USER() and proxied_user, for both the user name and host name parts of the account name.

The initial root account created during MySQL installation has the PROXY ... WITH GRANT OPTION privilege for '%@%', that is, for all users and all hosts. This enables root to set up proxy users, as well as to delegate to other accounts the authority to set up proxy users. For example, root can do this:

```
CREATE USER 'admin'@'localhost'
  IDENTIFIED BY 'admin_password';
GRANT PROXY
  ON '1'
  TO 'admin'@'localhost'
  WITH GRANT OPTION;
```

Those statements create an admin user that can manage all GRANT PROXY mappings. For example, admin can do this:
GRANT PROXY ON sally TO joe;

Default Proxy Users

To specify that some or all users should connect using a given authentication plugin, create a “blank” MySQL account with an empty user name and host name ("@"), associate it with that plugin, and let the plugin return the real authenticated user name (if different from the blank user). Suppose that there exists a plugin named ldap_auth that implements LDAP authentication and maps connecting users onto either a developer or manager account. To set up proxying of users onto these accounts, use the following statements:

```sql
-- create default proxy account
CREATE USER ''@'' IDENTIFIED WITH ldap_auth AS 'O=Oracle, OU=MySQL';
-- create proxied accounts
CREATE USER 'developer'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'developer_password';
CREATE USER 'manager'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'manager_password';
-- grant to default proxy account the PROXY privilege for proxied accounts
GRANT PROXY ON 'manager'@'localhost' TO ''@'';
GRANT PROXY ON 'developer'@'localhost' TO ''@'';
```

As with proxied accounts created in previous examples, the password should be kept secret so that clients cannot use the accounts to log in directly to the MySQL server.

Now assume that a client connects as follows:

```
shell> mysql --user=myuser --password ...
Enter password: myuser_password
```

The server will not find myuser defined as a MySQL user. But because there is a blank user account (@) that matches the client user name and host name, the server authenticates the client against that account: The server invokes the ldap_auth authentication plugin and passes myuser and myuser_password to it as the user name and password.

If the ldap_auth plugin finds in the LDAP directory that myuser_password is not the correct password for myuser, authentication fails and the server rejects the connection.

If the password is correct and ldap_auth finds that myuser is a developer, it returns the user name developer to the MySQL server, rather than myuser. Returning a user name different from the client user name of myuser signals to the server that it should treat myuser as a proxy. The server verifies that '@' can authenticate as developer (because '@' has the PROXY privilege to do so) and accepts the connection. The session proceeds with myuser having the privileges of the developer proxied user. (These privileges should be set up by the DBA using GRANT statements, not shown.) The USER() and CURRENT_USER() functions return these values:

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

If the plugin instead finds in the LDAP directory that myuser is a manager, it returns manager as the user name and the session proceeds with myuser having the privileges of the manager proxied user.
Default Proxy User and Anonymous User Conflicts

For simplicity, external authentication cannot be multilevel: Neither the credentials for developer nor those for manager are taken into account in the preceding example. However, they are still used if a client tries to connect and authenticate directly as the developer or manager account, which is why those proxied accounts should be protected against direct login (see Preventing Direct Login to Proxied Accounts).

Default Proxy User and Anonymous User Conflicts

If you intend to create a default proxy user, check for other existing "match any user" accounts that take precedence over the default proxy user because they can prevent that user from working as intended.

In the preceding discussion, the default proxy user account has '' in the host part, which matches any host. If you set up a default proxy user, take care to also check whether nonproxy accounts exist with the same user part and '%' in the host part, because '%' also matches any host, but has precedence over '' by the rules that the server uses to sort account rows internally (see Section 4.5, "Access Control, Stage 1: Connection Verification").

Suppose that a MySQL installation includes these two accounts:

```sql
-- create default proxy account
CREATE USER '' IDENTIFIED WITH some_plugin
  AS 'some_auth_string';
-- create anonymous account
CREATE USER '' IDENTIFIED BY 'anon_user_password';
```

The first account ('''') is intended as the default proxy user, used to authenticate connections for users who do not otherwise match a more-specific account. The second account ('''%''') is an anonymous-user account, which might have been created, for example, to enable users without their own account to connect anonymously.

Both accounts have the same user part ('''), which matches any user. And each account has a host part that matches any host. Nevertheless, there is a priority in account matching for connection attempts because the matching rules sort a host of '%' ahead of ''. For accounts that do not match any more-specific account, the server attempts to authenticate them against ''%'' (the anonymous user) rather than '''' (the default proxy user). As a result, the default proxy account is never used.

To avoid this problem, use one of the following strategies:

- Remove the anonymous account so that it does not conflict with the default proxy user.
- Use a more-specific default proxy user that matches ahead of the anonymous user. For example, to permit only localhost proxy connections, use ''@localhost':

```sql
CREATE USER ''@localhost'
  IDENTIFIED WITH some_plugin
  AS 'some_auth_string';
```

In addition, modify any GRANT PROXY statements to name ''@localhost' rather than '''' as the proxy user.

Be aware that this strategy prevents anonymous-user connections from localhost.
• Use a named default account rather than an anonymous default account. For an example of this technique, consult the instructions for using the authentication_windows plugin. See Section 6.1.5, “Windows Pluggable Authentication”.

• Create multiple proxy users, one for local connections and one for “everything else” (remote connections). This can be useful particularly when local users should have different privileges from remote users.

Create the proxy users:

```sql
-- create proxy user for local connections
CREATE USER ''@'localhost'
    IDENTIFIED WITH some_plugin
    AS 'some_auth_string';
-- create proxy user for remote connections
CREATE USER ''@''
    IDENTIFIED WITH some_plugin
    AS 'some_auth_string';
```

Create the proxied users:

```sql
-- create proxied user for local connections
CREATE USER 'developer'@'localhost'
    IDENTIFIED BY 'some_password';
-- create proxied user for remote connections
CREATE USER 'developer'@'%'
    IDENTIFIED BY 'some_password';
```

Grant to each proxy account the PROXY privilege for the corresponding proxied account:

```sql
GRANT PROXY
    ON 'developer'@'localhost'
    TO ''@'localhost';
GRANT PROXY
    ON 'developer'@''
    TO ''@'';
```

Finally, grant appropriate privileges to the local and remote proxied users (not shown).

Assume that the some_plugin/'some_auth_string' combination causes some_plugin to map the client user name to developer. Local connections match the ''@'localhost' proxy user, which maps to the 'developer'@'localhost' proxied user. Remote connections match the ''@'' proxy user, which maps to the 'developer'@'%' proxied user.

Proxy User System Variables

Two system variables help trace the proxy login process:

• **proxy_user**: This value is NULL if proxying is not used. Otherwise, it indicates the proxy user account. For example, if a client authenticates through the ''@'' proxy account, this variable is set as follows:

```sql
mysql> SELECT @@proxy_user;
+---------------------+
| @@proxy_user        |
| 'g'                 |
+---------------------+
```

• **external_user**: Sometimes the authentication plugin may use an external user to authenticate to the MySQL server. For example, when using Windows native authentication, a plugin that authenticates using the windows API does not need the login ID passed to it. However, it still uses a
Setting Account Resource Limits

Windows user ID to authenticate. The plugin may return this external user ID (or the first 512 UTF-8 bytes of it) to the server using the `external_user` read-only session variable. If the plugin does not set this variable, its value is `NULL`.

4.12 Setting Account Resource Limits

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

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

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

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

An “account” in this context corresponds to a row in the `mysql.user` system 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, an “account” was assessed against the actual host from which a user connects. This older method of accounting may be selected by starting the server with the `--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 establish resource limits for an account, use the `GRANT` statement (see `GRANT Syntax`). Provide a `WITH` clause that names each resource to be limited. The default value for each limit is zero (no limit). For example, to create a new account that can access the `customer` database, but only in a limited fashion, issue these statements:

```sql
mysql> CREATE USER 'francis'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED BY 'frank';
mysql> GRANT ALL ON customer.* TO 'francis'@'localhost'
   -> WITH MAX_QUERIES_PER_HOUR 20
   -> MAX_UPDATES_PER_HOUR 10
   -> MAX_CONNECTIONS_PER_HOUR 5
   -> MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS 2;
```

The limit types need not all be named in the `WITH` clause, but those named can be present in any order. The value for each per-hour limit should be an integer representing a count per hour. For `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS`, the limit is an integer representing the maximum number of simultaneous connections by the account. If this limit is set to zero, the global `max_user_connections` system variable value determines the number of simultaneous connections. If `max_user_connections` is also zero, there is no limit for the account.
To modify limits for an existing account, use a `GRANT USAGE` statement at the global level (ON *.*). The following statement changes the query limit for francis to 100:

```sql
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:

```sql
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 individual resource limits specified as follows:

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

user1 has a connection limit of 10 (the global `max_user_connections` value) because it has a `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit of zero. user2 and user3 have connection limits of 5 and 20, respectively, because they have nonzero `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limits.

The server stores resource limits for an account in the `user` table row corresponding to the account. The `max_questions`, `max_updates`, and `max_connections` columns store the per-hour limits, and the `max_user_connections` column stores the `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit. (See Section 4.3, “Grant Tables”.)

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

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

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

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

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

Per-hour counter resets do not affect the `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit.

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

For the `MAX_USER_CONNECTIONS` limit, an edge case can occur if the account currently has open the maximum number of connections permitted to it: A disconnect followed quickly by a connect can result
in an error (ER_TOO_MANY_USER_CONNECTIONS or ER_USER_LIMIT_REACHED) if the server has not fully processed the disconnect by the time the connect occurs. When the server finishes disconnect processing, another connection will once more be permitted.

4.13 Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL

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

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

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

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

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

- Make sure that the server has not been configured to ignore network connections or (if you are attempting to connect remotely) that it has not been configured to listen only locally on its network interfaces. If the server was started with `--skip-networking`, it will not accept TCP/IP connections at all. If the server was started with `--bind-address=127.0.0.1`, it will listen for TCP/IP connections only locally on the loopback interface and will not accept remote connections.

- Check to make sure that there is no firewall blocking access to MySQL. Your firewall may be configured on the basis of the application being executed, or the port number used by MySQL for communication (3306 by default). Under Linux or Unix, check your IP tables (or similar) configuration to ensure that the port has not been blocked. Under Windows, applications such as ZoneAlarm or Windows 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 data directory, including the mysql system database containing the grant tables. For distributions that do not do this, you must initialize the data directory manually. For details, see Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.

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

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

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:
Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL

shell> mysql -u root mysql

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

• If you have updated an existing MySQL installation to a newer version, did you perform the MySQL upgrade procedure? 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 Upgrading MySQL.

• 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 MySQL Environment Variables.

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

shell> mysqladmin -u root -pxxxxx 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 4.9, “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');
```
Troubleshooting Problems Connecting to MySQL

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 4.9, “Assigning Account Passwords”, and **CREATE USER Syntax**.

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

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

- The **Access denied** error message tells you who you are trying to log in as, the client host from which you are trying to connect, and whether you were using a password. Normally, you should have one row in the **user** table that exactly matches the host name and user name that were given in the error message. For example, if you get an error message that contains **using password: NO**, it means that you tried to log in without a password.

- If you get an **Access denied** error when trying to connect to the database with **mysql -u user_name**, you may have a problem with the **user** table. Check this by executing **mysql -u root mysql** and issuing this SQL statement:

  ```sql
  SELECT * FROM user;
  ```

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

    ```shell
    mysqladmin -u root -pxxxx -h some_hostname ver
    Access denied for user 'root'@'' (using password: YES)
    ```
If you try to connect as root and get the following error, it means that you do not have a row in the user table with a User column value of 'root' and that mysqld cannot resolve the host name for your client:

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

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

Some permanent solutions are:

- Determine what is wrong with your DNS server and fix it.
- Specify IP addresses rather than host names in the MySQL grant tables.
- Put an entry for the client machine name in `/etc/hosts` on Unix or `\windows\hosts` on Windows.
- Start `mysqld` with the `--skip-name-resolve` option.
- Start `mysqld` with the `--skip-host-cache` option.
- On Unix, if you are running the server and the client on the same machine, connect to localhost. For connections to localhost, MySQL programs attempt to connect to the local server by using a Unix socket file, unless there are connection parameters specified to ensure that the client makes a TCP/IP connection. For more information, see Connecting to the MySQL Server Using Command Options.
- 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` works but `mysql -h your_hostname -u root` results in Access denied (where `your_hostname` is the actual host name of the local host), you may not have the correct name for your host in the user table. A common problem here is that the Host value in the user table row specifies an unqualified host name, but your system's name resolution routines return a fully qualified domain name (or vice versa). For example, if you have a row with host 'pluto' in the user table, but your DNS tells MySQL that your host name is 'pluto.example.com', the row does not work. Try adding a row to the user table that contains the IP address of your host as the Host column value. (Alternatively, you could add a row to the user table with a Host value that contains a wildcard (for example, 'pluto.%'). However, use of Host values ending with % is insecure and is not recommended!)
- If `mysql -u user_name` works but `mysql -u user_name some_db` does not, you have not granted access to the given user for the database named some_db.
- If `mysql -u user_name` works when executed on the server host, but `mysql -h host_name -u user_name` does not work when executed on a remote client host, you have not enabled access to the server for the given user name from the remote host.
- If you cannot figure out why you get Access denied, remove from the user table all rows that have Host values containing wildcards (rows that contain '%', or '_' characters). A very common error is to insert a new row with Host='%' and User='some_user', thinking that this enables you to specify localhost to connect from the same machine. The reason that this does not work is that the default privileges include a row with Host='localhost' and User=''. Because that row has a Host value 'localhost' that is more specific than '%', it is used in preference to the new row when connecting from localhost! The correct procedure is to insert a second row with Host='localhost' and User='some_user', or to delete the row with Host='localhost' and
User=''. After deleting the row, remember to issue a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement to reload the grant tables. See also Section 4.5, “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 statement, your row in the user table does not have the FILE privilege enabled.

- If you change the grant tables directly (for example, by using INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE statements) and your changes seem to be ignored, remember that you must execute a FLUSH PRIVILEGES statement or a mysqladmin flush-privileges command to cause the server to reload the privilege tables. Otherwise, your changes have no effect until the next time the server is restarted. Remember that after you change the root password with an UPDATE statement, you will not need to specify the new password until after you flush the privileges, because the server will not know you've changed the password yet!

- If your privileges seem to have changed in the middle of a session, it may be that a MySQL administrator has changed them. Reloading the grant tables affects new client connections, but it also affects existing connections as indicated in Section 4.8, “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 -ppassword 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=password 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 mysql 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 mysql 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to database denied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If the row selected from the db table has an empty value in the Host column, make sure that there are one or more corresponding rows in the host table specifying which hosts the db table row applies to. This problem occurs infrequently because the host table is rarely used.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- If everything else fails, start the mysql 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 ask on the MySQL Community Slack, 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 mysql with --skip-grant-tables to run mysqldump.

### 4.14 SQL-Based 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 system 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 on the client’s account:

- Stored routines (procedures and functions) defined with the `SQL SECURITY DEFINER` characteristic
- Views defined with the `SQL SECURITY DEFINER` characteristic
- Triggers and events

In those contexts, privilege checking is done against the `DEFINER` account and `CURRENT_USER()` refers to that account, not to the account for the client who invoked the stored routine or view or who caused the trigger to activate. To determine the invoking user, you can call the `USER()` function, which returns a value indicating the actual user name provided by the client and the host from which the client connected. However, this value does not necessarily correspond directly to an account in the `user` table, because the `USER()` value never contains wildcards, whereas account values (as returned by `CURRENT_USER()`) may contain user name and host name wildcards.

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

```
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);
+---------------------------------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>user1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
mysql> SELECT SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',-1);
+----------------------------------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTRING_INDEX(CURRENT_USER(),'@',-1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>localhost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
+----------------------------------------+
```
With an unencrypted connection between the MySQL client and the server, someone with access to the network could watch all your traffic and inspect the data being sent or received between client and server.

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

MySQL supports encrypted connections between clients and the server using the TLS (Transport Layer Security) protocol. TLS is sometimes referred to as SSL (Secure Sockets Layer) but MySQL does not actually use the SSL protocol for encrypted connections because its encryption is weak (see Section 5.2, “Encrypted Connection TLS Protocols and Ciphers”).

TLS uses encryption algorithms to ensure that data received over a public network can be trusted. It has mechanisms to detect data change, loss, or replay. TLS also incorporates algorithms that provide identity verification using the X.509 standard.

X.509 makes it possible to identify someone on the Internet. 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 present the certificate to another party as proof of identity. A certificate consists of its owner’s public key. Any data encrypted using this public key can be decrypted only using the corresponding secret key, which is held by the owner of the certificate.

MySQL can be compiled for encrypted-connection support using OpenSSL or yaSSL. For a comparison of the two packages, see Section 5.4, “SSL Library-Dependent Capabilities” For information about the encryption protocols and ciphers each package supports, see Section 5.2, “Encrypted Connection TLS Protocols and Ciphers”.

MySQL programs attempt to connect using encryption if the proper options are given and the server supports encrypted connections. For information about options that affect use of encrypted connections, see Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections” and Command Options for Encrypted Connections.

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

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

Encrypted connections can be used between master and slave replication servers. See Setting Up Replication to Use Encrypted Connections.

For information about using encrypted connections from the MySQL C API, see C API Encrypted Connection Support.
It is also possible to connect using encryption from within an SSH connection to the MySQL server host. For an example, see Section 5.5, “Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH”.

5.1 Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections

To enable encrypted connections, your MySQL distribution must be built with SSL support, as described in Configuring SSL Library Support. In addition, several options are available to indicate whether to use encrypted connections, and to specify the appropriate certificate and key files. This section provides general guidance about configuring the server and clients for encrypted connections:

- Server-Side Startup Configuration for Encrypted Connections
- Client-Side Configuration for Encrypted Connections

For a complete list of options related to establishment of encrypted connections, see Command Options for Encrypted Connections. To create any Command Options for Encrypted Connections. Instructions for creating any required certificate and key files are available in Section 5.3, “Creating SSL Certificates and Keys Using openssl”.

Encrypted connections also can be used in these contexts:

- Between master and slave replication servers. See Setting Up Replication to Use Encrypted Connections.
- By client programs that are based on the MySQL C API. See C API Encrypted Connection Support.

Note

If the server is compiled against OpenSSL, clients from MySQL 5.5 versions older than 5.5.37 are not able to connect to the server using encrypted connections if the client library is compiled using yaSSL. Either use a client and server compiled using the same SSL package, or upgrade to clients compiled against a client library version from MySQL 5.5.37 or higher.

Server-Side Startup Configuration for Encrypted Connections

These options on the server side specify the certificate and key files the server uses when permitting clients to establish encrypted connections:

- **--ssl-ca**: The path name of the Certificate Authority (CA) certificate file. (**--ssl-capath** is similar but specifies the path name of a directory of CA certificate files.)
- **--ssl-cert**: The path name of the server public key certificate file. This certificate can be sent to the client and authenticated against the CA certificate that it has.
- **--ssl-key**: The path name of the server private key file.

For example, to enable the server for encrypted connections, start it with these lines in the my.cnf file, changing the file names as necessary:

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

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

The values of the **--ssl-xxx** options set the values of the corresponding system variables (ssl_ca, ssl_cert, ssl_key, and so forth).
Client-Side Configuration for Encrypted Connections

These options on the client side identify the certificate and key files clients use when establishing encrypted connections to the server. They are similar to the options used on the server side, but --ssl-cert and --ssl-key identify the client public and private key:

- **--ssl-ca**: The path name of the Certificate Authority (CA) certificate file. This option, if used, must specify the same certificate used by the server. (--ssl-capath is similar but specifies the path name of a directory of CA certificate files.)

- **--ssl-cert**: The path name of the client public key certificate file.

- **--ssl-key**: The path name of the client private key file.

For additional security relative to that provided by the default encryption, clients can supply a CA certificate matching the one used by the server and enable host name identity verification. In this way, the server and client place their trust in the same CA certificate and the client verifies that the host to which it connected is the one intended:

- To specify the CA certificate, use --ssl-ca (or --ssl-capath).
- To enable host name identity verification as well, specify --ssl-verify-server-cert.
- To require an encrypted connection, specify --ssl-mode=REQUIRED.

Depending on the encryption requirements of the MySQL account used by a client, the client may be required to specify certain options to connect using encryption to the MySQL server.

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

```sql
mysql --ssl-ca=ca.pem
```

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

```sql
mysql --ssl-ca=ca.pem \n       --ssl-cert=client-cert.pem \n       --ssl-key=client-key.pem
```

For additional information about the REQUIRE clause, see GRANT Syntax.

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

```sql
mysql --ssl=0
```

To determine whether the current connection with the server uses encryption, check the session value of the Ssl_cipher status variable. If the value is empty, the connection is not encrypted. Otherwise, the connection is encrypted and the value indicates the encryption cipher. For example:

```sql
mysql> SHOW SESSION 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:
Encrypted Connection TLS Protocols and Ciphers

MySQL supports TLS encryption, and enables configuring which ciphers to permit for encrypted connections. It is also possible to determine which TLS protocol and cipher the current session uses.

- Supported Connection TLS Protocols
- Connection Cipher Configuration
- Monitoring Current Session TLS Protocol and Cipher

Supported Connection TLS Protocols

MySQL supports encrypted connections using the TLSv1 protocol. As of MySQL 5.5.42, SSL 2.0 and SSL 3.0 are explicitly disabled because they provide weak encryption.

Connection Cipher Configuration

A default set of ciphers applies to encrypted connections, which can be overridden by explicitly configuring the permitted ciphers. During connection establishment, both sides of a connection must permit some cipher in common or the connection fails. Of the permitted ciphers common to both sides, the SSL library chooses the one supported by the provided certificate that has the highest priority.

To specify a cipher or ciphers for encrypted connections, use the `--ssl-cipher` option, which is available for the server and for client programs.

For master/slave replication, the `MASTER_SSL_CIPHER` option for the `CHANGE MASTER TO` statement specifies which ciphers a slave server permits for connections to the master.

To determine which ciphers a given server supports, check the session value of the `Ssl_cipher_list` status variable:

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

The `Ssl_cipher_list` status variable lists the possible SSL ciphers (empty for non-SSL connections). The set of available ciphers depends on your MySQL version and whether MySQL was compiled using OpenSSL or yaSSL, and (for OpenSSL) the library version used to compile MySQL.

MySQL passes a default cipher list to the SSL library.

MySQL passes this default cipher list to OpenSSL:

```
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
```
MySQL passes this default cipher list to yaSSL:

- 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 determine which encryption TLS protocol and cipher the current session uses, check the session values of the `Ssl_version` and `Ssl_cipher` status variables:

```sql
mysql> SHOW SESSION STATUS LIKE 'Ssl_version';
+---------------+-------+
| Variable_name | Value |
+---------------+-------+
| Ssl_version   | TLSv1 |
+---------------+-------+
```

```sql
mysql> SHOW SESSION STATUS LIKE 'Ssl_cipher';
+---------------+--------------------+
| Variable_name | Value               |
+---------------+--------------------+
```
Creating SSL Certificates and Keys Using openssl

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable_name</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ssl_cipher</td>
<td>DHE-RSA-AES256-SHA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the connection is not encrypted, both variables have an empty value.

5.3 Creating SSL Certificates and Keys Using openssl

This section describes how to use the `openssl` command to set up SSL certificate and key files for use by MySQL servers and clients. The first example shows a simplified procedure such as you might use from the command line. The second shows a script that contains more detail. The first two examples are intended for use on Unix and both use the `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
- Example 2: Creating SSL Files Using a Script on Unix
- Example 3: Creating SSL Files on Windows

**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.

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

After generating the certificates, verify them:

```
openssl verify -CAfile ca.pem server-cert.pem client-cert.pem
```
Example 2: Creating SSL Files Using a Script on Unix

Here is an example script that shows how to set up SSL certificate and key files for MySQL. After executing the script, use the files for SSL connections as described in Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

```bash
DIR=`pwd`/openssl
PRIVATE=$DIR/private
mkdir $DIR $PRIVATE $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 $PRIVATE/cakey.pem -out $DIR/ca.pem
-days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/finley/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
# ................++++++
# .........++++++
# writing new private key to '/home/finley/openssl/private/cakey.pem'
# Enter PEM pass phrase:
#
# Create server request and key
#
openssl req -new -keyout $DIR/server-key.pem -out $DIR/server-req.pem
-days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
```

You should see a response like this:

```
server-cert.pem: OK
client-cert.pem: OK
```

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

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

- **server-cert.pem, server-key.pem**: Use these as the arguments to `--ssl-cert` and `--ssl-key` on the server side.

- **client-cert.pem, client-key.pem**: Use these as the arguments to `--ssl-cert` and `--ssl-key` on the client side.

For additional usage instructions, see Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

Example 2: Creating SSL Files Using a Script on Unix

Here is an example script that shows how to set up SSL certificate and key files for MySQL. After executing the script, use the files for SSL connections as described in Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

```bash
DIR=`pwd`/openssl
PRIVATE=$DIR/private
mkdir $DIR $PRIVATE $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 $PRIVATE/cakey.pem -out $DIR/ca.pem
-days 3600 -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
# Sample output:
# Using configuration from /home/finley/openssl/openssl.cnf
# Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
# ................++++++
# .........++++++
# writing new private key to '/home/finley/openssl/private/cakey.pem'
# 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
```
Example 2: Creating SSL Files Using a Script on Unix

Sample output:

Using configuration from /home/finley/openssl/openssl.cnf
Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
+........+........+
+........+........+
writing new private key to '/home/finley/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.pem -policy policy_anything -out $DIR/server-cert.pem -config $DIR/openssl.cnf -infiles $DIR/server-req.pem

Sample output:

Using configuration from /home/finley/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-key.pem
   -out $DIR/client-cert.pem -config $DIR/openssl.cnf
   -days 3600
   Sample output:
   Using configuration from /home/finley/openssl/openssl.cnf
   Generating a 1024 bit RSA private key
   +................+................+
   +................+................+
   writing new private key to '/home/finley/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.
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,
Example 3: Creating SSL Files on Windows

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:
  

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

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 (depending on your
   version of Windows, the following path-setting instructions might differ slightly):

   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:\>

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
  rm -rf newcerts
  mkdir newcerts && cd newcerts

  On Windows, use these commands instead:

  # Create clean environment
  md c:\newcerts
  cd c:\newcerts
• When a `\` character is shown at the end of a command line, this `\` character must be removed and the command lines entered all on a single line.

After generating the certificate and key files, to use them for SSL connections, see Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

5.4 SSL Library-Dependent Capabilities

MySQL can be compiled using OpenSSL or yaSSL, both of which enable encrypted connections based on the OpenSSL API:

• MySQL Enterprise Edition binary distributions are compiled using yaSSL.

• MySQL Community Edition binary distributions are compiled using yaSSL.

• MySQL Community Edition source distributions can be compiled using either OpenSSL or yaSSL (see Configuring SSL Library Support).

OpenSSL and yaSSL offer the same basic functionality, but additional features are available in MySQL distributions compiled using OpenSSL:

• OpenSSL supports a more flexible syntax for specifying ciphers for the `--ssl-cipher` option, and supports a wider range of encryption ciphers from which to choose. See Command Options for Encrypted Connections, and Section 5.2, “Encrypted Connection TLS Protocols and Ciphers”.

• OpenSSL supports the `--ssl-capath` option. MySQL distributions compiled using yaSSL do not because yaSSL does not look in any directory and do 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 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.

5.5 Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH

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


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.
Chapter 6 Security Plugins

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MySQL includes several plugins that implement security features:

• Plugins for authenticating attempts by clients to connect to MySQL Server. Plugins are available
  for several authentication protocols. For general discussion of the authentication process, see
  Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. For characteristics of specific authentication plugins, see
  Section 6.1, “Authentication Plugins”.

• (MySQL Enterprise Edition only) MySQL Enterprise Audit, implemented using a server plugin, uses
  the open MySQL Audit API to enable standard, policy-based monitoring and logging of connection
  and query activity executed on specific MySQL servers. Designed to meet the Oracle audit
  specification, MySQL Enterprise Audit provides an out of box, easy to use auditing and compliance
  solution for applications that are governed by both internal and external regulatory guidelines. See
  Section 6.2, “MySQL Enterprise Audit”.

6.1 Authentication Plugins

The following sections describe pluggable authentication methods available in MySQL and the plugins
that implement these methods. For general discussion of the authentication process, see Section 4.10,
“Pluggable Authentication”.

6.1.1 Native Pluggable Authentication

MySQL includes two plugins that implement native authentication; that is, authentication based
on the password hashing methods in use from before the introduction of pluggable authentication.
This section describes mysql_native_password, which implements authentication against
the mysql.user system table using the native password hashing method. For information about
mysql_old_password, which implements authentication using the older (pre-4.1) native password
hashing method, see Section 6.1.2, “Old Native Pluggable Authentication”. For information about these
password hashing methods, see Section 2.2.4, “Password Hashing in MySQL”.

The mysql_native_password native authentication plugin is backward compatible. Older clients that
do not support authentication plugins do use the native authentication protocol, so they can connect to
servers that support pluggable authentication.
The following table shows the plugin names on the server and client sides.

Table 6.1 Plugin and Library Names for Native Password Authentication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_native_password</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_native_password</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>None (plugins are built in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to native pluggable authentication:

- Installing Native Pluggable Authentication
- Using Native Pluggable Authentication

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

### Installing Native Pluggable Authentication

The `mysql_native_password` plugin exists in server and client forms:

- The server-side plugin is built into the server, need not be loaded explicitly, and cannot be disabled by unloading it.
- The client-side plugin is built into the `libmysqlclient` client library and is available to any program linked against `libmysqlclient`.

### Using Native Pluggable Authentication

MySQL client programs use `mysql_native_password` by default. The `--default-auth` option can be used as a hint about which client-side plugin the program can expect to use:

```shell
shell> mysql --default-auth=mysql_native_password ...
```

If an account row specifies no plugin name, the server authenticates the account using either the `mysql_native_password` or `mysql_old_password` plugin, depending on whether the password hash value in the `Password` column used native hashing or the older pre-4.1 hashing method. Clients must match the password in the `Password` column of the account row.

#### 6.1.2 Old Native Pluggable Authentication

MySQL includes two plugins that implement native authentication; that is, authentication based on the password hashing methods in use from before the introduction of pluggable authentication. This section describes `mysql_old_password`, which implements authentication against the `mysql.user` system table using the older (pre-4.1) native password hashing method. For information about `mysql_native_password`, which implements authentication using the native password hashing method, see Section 6.1.1, “Native Pluggable Authentication”. For information about these password hashing methods, see Section 2.2.4, “Password Hashing in MySQL”.

**Note**

Passwords that use the pre-4.1 hashing method are less secure than passwords that use the native password hashing method and should be avoided.
The `mysql_old_password` native authentication plugin is backward compatible. Older clients that do not support authentication plugins do use the native authentication protocol, so they can connect to servers that support pluggable authentication.

The following table shows the plugin names on the server and client sides.

**Table 6.2 Plugin and Library Names for Old Native Password Authentication**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_old_password</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_old_password</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>None (plugins are built in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to old native pluggable authentication:

- **Installing Old Native Pluggable Authentication**
- **Using Old Native Pluggable Authentication**

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

### Installing Old Native Pluggable Authentication

The `mysql_old_password` plugin exists in server and client forms:

- The server-side plugin is built into the server, need not be loaded explicitly, and cannot be disabled by unloading it.
- The client-side plugin is built into the `libmysqlclient` client library and is available to any program linked against `libmysqlclient`.

### Using Old Native Pluggable Authentication

MySQL client programs can use the `--default-auth` option to specify the `mysql_old_password` plugin as a hint about which client-side plugin the program can expect to use:

```
shell> mysql --default-auth=mysql_old_password ...
```

If an account row specifies no plugin name, the server authenticates the account using either the `mysql_native_password` or `mysql_old_password` plugin, depending on whether the password hash value in the `Password` column used native hashing or the older pre-4.1 hashing method. Clients must match the password in the `Password` column of the account row.

### 6.1.3 Client-Side Cleartext Pluggable Authentication

As of MySQL 5.5.10, a client-side authentication plugin is available that enables clients to send passwords to the server as cleartext, without hashing or encryption. This plugin is built into the MySQL client library.

The following table shows the plugin name.

**Table 6.3 Plugin and Library Names for Cleartext Authentication**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td>None, see discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_clear_password</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### PAM Pluggable Authentication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>None (plugin is built in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many client-side authentication plugins perform hashing or encryption of a password before the client sends it to the server. This enables clients to avoid sending passwords as cleartext.

Hashing or encryption cannot be done for authentication schemes that require the server to receive the password as entered on the client side. In such cases, the client-side `mysql_clear_password` plugin is used to send the password to the server as cleartext. There is no corresponding server-side plugin. Rather, the client-side plugin can be used by any server-side plugin that needs a cleartext password.

Hashing or encryption cannot be done for authentication schemes that require the server to receive the password as entered on the client side. In such cases, the client-side `mysql_clear_password` plugin is used, which enables the client to send the password to the server as cleartext. There is no corresponding server-side plugin. Rather, `mysql_clear_password` can be used on the client side in concert with any server-side plugin that needs a cleartext password. (The PAM authentication plugin is one such; see Section 6.1.4, “PAM Pluggable Authentication”.)

The following discussion provides usage information specific to cleartext pluggable authentication. For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

**Note**

Sending passwords as cleartext may be a security problem in some configurations. To avoid problems if there is any possibility that the password would be intercepted, clients should connect to MySQL Server using a method that protects the password. Possibilities include SSL (see Chapter 5, *Using Encrypted Connections*), IPsec, or a private network.

As of MySQL 5.5.27, to make inadvertent use of the `mysql_clear_password` plugin less likely, MySQL clients must explicitly enable it. This can be done in several ways:

- Set the `LIBMYSQL_ENABLE_CLEARTEXT_PLUGIN` environment variable to a value that begins with `1`, `Y`, or `y`. This enables the plugin for all client connections.
- The `mysql`, `mysqladmin`, and `mysqlslap` client programs (also `mysqlcheck`, `mysqldump`, and `mysqlshow` for MySQL 5.5.47 and later) support an `--enable-cleartext-plugin` option that enables the plugin on a per-invocation basis.
- The `mysql_options()` C API function supports a `MYSQL_ENABLE_CLEARTEXT_PLUGIN` option that enables the plugin on a per-connection basis. Also, any program that uses `libmysqlclient` and reads option files can enable the plugin by including an `enable-cleartext-plugin` option in an option group read by the client library.

### 6.1.4 PAM Pluggable Authentication

**Note**

PAM pluggable authentication is an extension included in MySQL Enterprise Edition, a commercial product. To learn more about commercial products, see [https://www.mysql.com/products/](https://www.mysql.com/products/).

As of MySQL 5.5.16, MySQL Enterprise Edition supports an authentication method that enables MySQL Server to use PAM (Pluggable Authentication Modules) to authenticate MySQL users. PAM enables a system to use a standard interface to access various kinds of authentication methods, such as traditional Unix passwords or an LDAP directory.

PAM pluggable authentication provides these capabilities:
PAM Pluggable Authentication

- External authentication: PAM authentication enables MySQL Server to accept connections from users defined outside the MySQL grant tables and that authenticate using methods supported by PAM.

- Proxy user support: PAM authentication can return to MySQL a user name different from the external user name passed by the client program, based on the PAM groups the external user is a member of and the authentication string provided. This means that the plugin can return the MySQL user that defines the privileges the external PAM-authenticated user should have. For example, an operating system user named joe can connect and have the privileges of a MySQL user named developer.

PAM pluggable authentication has been tested on Linux and macOS.

The following table shows the plugin and library file names. The file name suffix might differ on your system. The file must be located in the directory named by the plugin_dir system variable. For installation information, see Installing PAM Pluggable Authentication.

### Table 6.4 Plugin and Library Names for PAM Authentication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td>authentication_pam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>mysql_clear_password</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>authentication_pam.so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As of MySQL 5.5.10, the client-side `mysql_clear_password` cleartext plugin that communicates with the server-side PAM plugin is built into the `libmysqlclient` client library and is included in all distributions, including community distributions. Inclusion of the client-side cleartext plugin in all MySQL distributions enables clients from any distribution to connect to a server that has the server-side PAM plugin loaded.

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to PAM pluggable authentication:

- How PAM Authentication of MySQL Users Works
- Installing PAM Pluggable Authentication
- Uninstalling PAM Pluggable Authentication
- Using PAM Pluggable Authentication
- PAM Unix Password Authentication without Proxy Users
- PAM LDAP Authentication without Proxy Users
- PAM Unix Password Authentication with Proxy Users and Group Mapping
- PAM Authentication Access to Unix Password Store
- PAM Authentication Debugging

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. For information about the `mysql_clear_password` plugin, see Section 6.1.3, “Client-Side Cleartext Pluggable Authentication”. For proxy user information, see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

### How PAM Authentication of MySQL Users Works

This section provides a general overview of how MySQL and PAM work together to authenticate MySQL users. For examples showing how to set up MySQL accounts to use specific PAM services, see Using PAM Pluggable Authentication.
1. The client program and the server communicate, with the client sending to the server the client user name (the operating system user name by default) and password:
   • The client user name is the external user name.
   • For accounts that use the PAM server-side authentication plugin, the corresponding client-side plugin is `mysql_clear_password`. This client-side plugin performs no password hashing, with the result that the client sends the password to the server as cleartext.

2. The server finds a matching MySQL account based on the external user name and the host from which the client connects. The PAM plugin uses the information passed to it by MySQL Server (such as user name, host name, password, and authentication string). When you define a MySQL account that authenticates using PAM, the authentication string contains:
   • A PAM service name, which is a name that the system administrator can use to refer to an authentication method for a particular application. There can be multiple applications associated with a single database server instance, so the choice of service name is left to the SQL application developer.
   • Optionally, if proxying is to be used, a mapping from PAM groups to MySQL user names.

3. The plugin uses the PAM service named in the authentication string to check the user credentials and returns 'Authentication succeeded, Username is `user_name`' or 'Authentication failed'. The password must be appropriate for the password store used by the PAM service. Examples:
   • For traditional Unix passwords, the service looks up passwords stored in the `/etc/shadow` file.
   • For LDAP, the service looks up passwords stored in an LDAP directory.

4. Otherwise, the authentication string indicates whether proxying occurs. If the string contains no PAM group mapping, proxying does not occur. In this case, the MySQL user name is the same as the external user name.

5. Otherwise, proxying is indicated based on the PAM group mapping, with the MySQL user name determined based on the first matching group in the mapping list. The meaning of “PAM group” depends on the PAM service. Examples:
   • For traditional Unix passwords, groups are Unix groups defined in the `/etc/group` file, possibly supplemented with additional PAM information in a file such as `/etc/security/group.conf`.
   • For LDAP, groups are LDAP groups defined in an LDAP directory.

   If the proxy user (the external user) has the `PROXY` privilege for the proxied MySQL user name, proxying occurs, with the proxy user assuming the privileges of the proxied user.

### Installing PAM Pluggable Authentication

This section describes how to install the PAM authentication plugin. For general information about installing plugins, see Installing and Uninstalling Plugins.

To be usable by the server, the plugin library file must be located in the MySQL plugin directory (the directory named by the `plugin_dir` system variable). If necessary, configure the plugin directory location by setting the value of `plugin_dir` at server startup.

The plugin library base name is `authentication_pam`. The file name suffix differs per platform (for example, `.so` for Unix and Unix-like systems, `.dll` for Windows).

To load the plugin at server startup, use the `--plugin-load` option to name the library file that contains it. With this plugin-loading method, the option must be given each time the server starts.
For example, put these lines in the server my.cnf file (adjust the .so suffix for your platform as necessary):

```ini
[mysqld]
plugin-load=authentication_pam.so
```

After modifying my.cnf, restart the server to cause the new settings to take effect.

Alternatively, to load the plugin at runtime, use this statement (adjust the .so suffix for your platform as necessary):

```sql
INSTALL PLUGIN authentication_pam SONAME 'authentication_pam.so';
```

To verify plugin installation, examine the INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS table or use the SHOW PLUGINS statement (see Obtaining Server Plugin Information). For example:

```
mysql> SELECT PLUGIN_NAME, PLUGIN_STATUS
    FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS
    WHERE PLUGIN_NAME LIKE '%pam%';
```

If the plugin failed to initialize, check the server error log for diagnostic messages.

To associate MySQL accounts with the PAM plugin, see Using PAM Pluggable Authentication.

### Uninstalling PAM Pluggable Authentication

The method used to uninstall the PAM authentication plugin depends on how you installed it:

- If you installed the plugin at server startup using a --plugin-load option, restart the server without the option.
- If you installed the plugin at runtime using an INSTALL PLUGIN statement, it remains installed across server restarts. To uninstall it, use UNINSTALL PLUGIN:

```
UNINSTALL PLUGIN authentication_pam;
```

### Using PAM Pluggable Authentication

This section describes in general terms how to use the PAM authentication plugin to connect from MySQL client programs to the server. The following sections provide instructions for using PAM authentication in specific ways. It is assumed that the server is running with the server-side PAM plugin enabled, as described in Installing PAM Pluggable Authentication, and that client programs are recent enough to include the client-side plugin.

To refer to the PAM authentication plugin in the IDENTIFIED WITH clause of a CREATE USER or GRANT statement, use the name authentication_pam. For example:

```
CREATE USER user
  IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam
    AS 'auth_string';
```

The authentication string specifies the following types of information:
• The PAM service name (see How PAM Authentication of MySQL Users Works). Examples in the following discussion use a service name of mysql-unix for authentication using traditional Unix passwords, and mysql-ldap for authentication using LDAP.

• For proxy support, PAM provides a way for a PAM module to return to the server a MySQL user name other than the external user name passed by the client program when it connects to the server. Use the authentication string to control the mapping from external user names to MySQL user names. If you want to take advantage of proxy user capabilities, the authentication string must include this kind of mapping.

For example, if an account uses the mysql-unix PAM service name and should map operating system users in the root and users PAM groups to the developer and data_entry MySQL users, respectively, use a statement like this:

CREATE USER user
IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam
AS 'mysql-unix, root=developer, users=data_entry';

Authentication string syntax for the PAM authentication plugin follows these rules:

• The string consists of a PAM service name, optionally followed by a PAM group mapping list consisting of one or more keyword/value pairs each specifying a PAM group name and a MySQL user name:

    pam_service_name[,pam_group_name=mysql_user_name]...

The plugin parses the authentication string for each connection attempt that uses the account. To minimize overhead, keep the string as short as possible.

• Each pam_group_name=mysql_user_name pair must be preceded by a comma.

• Leading and trailing spaces not inside double quotation marks are ignored.

• Unquoted pam_service_name, pam_group_name, and mysql_user_name values can contain anything except equal sign, comma, or space.

• If a pam_service_name, pam_group_name, or mysql_user_name value is quoted with double quotation marks, everything between the quotation marks is part of the value. This is necessary, for example, if the value contains space characters. All characters are legal except double quotation mark and backslash (\). To include either character, escape it with a backslash.

If the plugin successfully authenticates the external user name (the name passed by the client), it looks for a PAM group mapping list in the authentication string and, if present, uses it to return a different MySQL user name to the MySQL server based on which PAM groups the external user is a member of:

• If the authentication string contains no PAM group mapping list, the plugin returns the external name.

• If the authentication string does contain a PAM group mapping list, the plugin examines each pam_group_name=mysql_user_name pair in the list from left to right and tries to find a match for the pam_group_name value in a non-MySQL directory of the groups assigned to the authenticated user and returns mysql_user_name for the first match it finds. If the plugin finds no match for any PAM group, it returns the external name. If the plugin is not capable of looking up a group in a directory, it ignores the PAM group mapping list and returns the external name.

The following sections describe how to set up several authentication scenarios that use the PAM authentication plugin:

• No proxy users. This uses PAM only to check login names and passwords. Every external user permitted to connect to MySQL Server should have a matching MySQL account that is defined to use PAM authentication. (For a MySQL account of 'user_name'@'host_name' to match
the external user, \textit{user} must be the external user name and \textit{host} must match the host from which the client connects.\) Authentication can be performed by various PAM-supported methods. Later discussion shows how to authenticate client credentials using traditional Unix passwords, and passwords in LDAP.

PAM authentication, when not done through proxy users or PAM groups, requires the MySQL user name to be same as the operating system user name. MySQL user names are limited to 16 characters (see Section 4.3, “Grant Tables”), which limits PAM nonproxy authentication to Unix accounts with names of at most 16 characters.

- Proxy users only, with PAM group mapping. For this scenario, create one or more MySQL accounts that define different sets of privileges. (Ideally, nobody should connect using those accounts directly.) Then define a default user authenticating through PAM that uses some mapping scheme (usually based on the external PAM groups the users are members of) to map all the external user names to the few MySQL accounts holding the privilege sets. Any client who connects and specifies an external user name as the client user name is mapped to one of the MySQL accounts and uses its privileges. The discussion shows how to set this up using traditional Unix passwords, but other PAM methods such as LDAP could be used instead.

Variations on these scenarios are possible:

- You can permit some users to log in directly (without proxying) but require others to connect through proxy accounts.
- You can use one PAM authentication method for some users, and another method for other users, by using differing PAM service names among your PAM-authenticated accounts. For example, you can use the \texttt{mysql-unix} PAM service for some users, and \texttt{mysql-ldap} for others.

The examples make the following assumptions. You might need to make some adjustments if your system is set up differently.

- The login name and password are \texttt{antonio} and \texttt{antonio_password}, respectively. Change these to correspond to the user you want to authenticate.
- The PAM configuration directory is \texttt{/etc/pam.d}.
- The PAM service name corresponds to the authentication method (\texttt{mysql-unix} or \texttt{mysql-ldap} in this discussion). To use a given PAM service, you must set up a PAM file with the same name in the PAM configuration directory (creating the file if it does not exist). In addition, you must use the PAM service name in the authentication string of \texttt{CREATE USER} or \texttt{GRANT} statements for any account that authenticates using that service.

The PAM authentication plugin checks at initialization time whether the \texttt{AUTHENTICATION_PAM_LOG} environment value is set in the server's startup environment. If so, the plugin enables logging of diagnostic messages to the standard output. Depending on how your server is started, the message might appear on the console or in the error log. These messages can be helpful for debugging PAM-related issues that occur when the plugin performs authentication. For more information, see PAM Authentication Debugging.

### PAM Unix Password Authentication without Proxy Users

This authentication scenario uses PAM to check external users defined in terms of operating system user names and Unix passwords, without proxying. Every such external user permitted to connect to MySQL Server should have a matching MySQL account that is defined to use PAM authentication through traditional Unix password store.

\begin{note}
Traditional Unix passwords are checked using the \texttt{/etc/shadow} file. For information regarding possible issues related to this file, see PAM Authentication Access to Unix Password Store.
\end{note}
1. Verify that Unix authentication permits logins to the operating system with the user name antonio and password antonio_password.

2. Set up PAM to authenticate MySQL connections using traditional Unix passwords by creating a mysql-unix PAM service file named /etc/pam.d/mysql-unix. The file contents are system dependent, so check existing login-related files in the /etc/pam.d directory to see what they look like. On Linux, the mysql-unix file might look like this:

```bash
#%PAM-1.0
auth include password-auth
account include password-auth
```

For macOS, use login rather than password-auth.

The PAM file format might differ on some systems. For example, on Ubuntu and other Debian-based systems, use these file contents instead:

```bash
@include common-auth
@include common-account
@include common-session-noninteractive
```

3. Create a MySQL account with the same user name as the operating system user name and define it to authenticate using the PAM plugin and the mysql-unix PAM service:

```sql
CREATE USER 'antonio'@'localhost'
IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam
AS 'mysql-unix';
GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES
ON mydb.*
TO 'antonio'@'localhost';
```

Here, the authentication string contains only the PAM service name, mysql-unix, which authenticates Unix passwords.

4. Use the mysql command-line client to connect to the MySQL server as antonio. For example:

```bash
shell> mysql --user=antonio --password --enable-cleartext-plugin
Enter password: antonio_password
```

The server should permit the connection and the following query should return output as shown:

```sql
mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER(), @@proxy_user;
+-------------------+-------------------+--------------+
| USER()            | CURRENT_USER()    | @@proxy_user |
+-------------------+-------------------+--------------+
| antonio@localhost | antonio@localhost | NULL         |
+-------------------+-------------------+--------------+
```

This demonstrates that the antonio operating system user is authenticated to have the privileges granted to the antonio MySQL user, and that no proxying has occurred.

**Note**

The client-side mysql_clear_password authentication plugin leaves the password untouched, so client programs send it to the MySQL server as cleartext. This enables the password to be passed as is to PAM. A cleartext password is necessary to use the server-side PAM library, but may be a security problem in some configurations. These measures minimize the risk:

- To make inadvertent use of the mysql_clear_password plugin less likely, MySQL clients must explicitly enable it (for example, with the --enable-

- To avoid password exposure with the mysql_clear_password plugin enabled, MySQL clients should connect to the MySQL server using an encrypted connection. See Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

PAM LDAP Authentication without Proxy Users

This authentication scenario uses PAM to check external users defined in terms of operating system user names and LDAP passwords, without proxying. Every such external user permitted to connect to MySQL Server should have a matching MySQL account that is defined to use PAM authentication through LDAP.

To use PAM LDAP pluggable authentication for MySQL, these prerequisites must be satisfied:

- An LDAP server must be available for the PAM LDAP service to communicate with.
- LDAP users to be authenticated by MySQL must be present in the directory managed by the LDAP server.

Configure MySQL for PAM LDAP authentication as follows:

1. Verify that Unix authentication permits logins to the operating system with the user name antonio and password antonio_password.

2. Set up PAM to authenticate MySQL connections using LDAP by creating a mysql-ldap PAM service file named /etc/pam.d/mysql-ldap. The file contents are system dependent, so check existing login-related files in the /etc/pam.d directory to see what they look like. On Linux, the mysql-ldap file might look like this:

   ```
   #%PAM-1.0
   auth required pam_ldap.so
   account required pam_ldap.so
   ```

   If PAM object files have a suffix different from .so on your system, substitute the correct suffix.

   The PAM file format might differ on some systems.

3. Create a MySQL account with the same user name as the operating system user name and define it to authenticate using the PAM plugin and the mysql-ldap PAM service:

   ```
   CREATE USER 'antonio'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam AS 'mysql-ldap';
   GRANT ALL PRIVILEGES ON mydb.* TO 'antonio'@'localhost';
   ```

   Here, the authentication string contains only the PAM service name, mysql-ldap, which authenticates using LDAP.

4. Connecting to the server is the same as described in PAM Unix Password Authentication without Proxy Users.

PAM Unix Password Authentication with Proxy Users and Group Mapping

The authentication scheme described here uses proxying and PAM group mapping to map connecting MySQL users who authenticate using PAM onto other MySQL accounts that define different sets of privileges. Users do not connect directly through the accounts that define the privileges. Instead, they
connect through a default proxy account authenticated using PAM, such that all the external users are mapped to the MySQL accounts that hold the privileges. Any user who connects using the proxy account is mapped to one of those MySQL accounts, the privileges for which determine the database operations permitted to the external user.

The procedure shown here uses Unix password authentication. To use LDAP instead, see the early steps of PAM LDAP Authentication without Proxy Users.

Note

Traditional Unix passwords are checked using the /etc/shadow file. For information regarding possible issues related to this file, see PAM Authentication Access to Unix Password Store.

1. Verify that Unix authentication permits logins to the operating system with the user name antonio and password antonio_password.

2. Verify that antonio is a member of the root or users PAM group.

3. Set up PAM to authenticate the mysql-unix PAM service through operating system users by creating a file named /etc/pam.d/mysql-unix. The file contents are system dependent, so check existing login-related files in the /etc/pam.d directory to see what they look like. On Linux, the mysql-unix file might look like this:

```
#%PAM-1.0
auth            include         password-auth
account         include         password-auth
```

For macOS, use login rather than password-auth.

The PAM file format might differ on some systems. For example, on Ubuntu and other Debian-based systems, use these file contents instead:

```
@include common-auth
@include common-account
@include common-session-noninteractive
```

4. Create a default proxy user ('''@''') that maps external PAM users to the proxied accounts:

```
CREATE USER ''@'' IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam
    AS 'mysql-unix, root=developer, users=data_entry';
```

Here, the authentication string contains the PAM service name, mysql-unix, which authenticates Unix passwords. The authentication string also maps external users in the root and users PAM groups to the developer and data_entry MySQL user names, respectively.

The PAM group mapping list following the PAM service name is required when you set up proxy users. Otherwise, the plugin cannot tell how to perform mapping from external user names to the proper proxied MySQL user names.

Note

If your MySQL installation has anonymous users, they might conflict with the default proxy user. For more information about this issue, and ways of dealing with it, see Default Proxy User and Anonymous User Conflicts.

5. Create the proxied accounts and grant to them the privileges required for MySQL access:

```
CREATE USER 'developer'@'localhost'
```
If you do not let anyone know the passwords for these accounts, clients cannot use them to connect directly to the MySQL server. Instead, it is expected that users who authenticate using PAM will use the developer or data_entry account by proxy based on their PAM group.

6. Grant to the proxy account the PROXY privilege for each proxied account:

   GRANT PROXY
   ON 'developer'@'localhost'
   TO ''@'';
   GRANT PROXY
   ON 'data_entry'@'localhost'
   TO ''@'';

7. Use the mysql command-line client to connect to the MySQL server as antonio.

   shell> mysql --user=antonio --password --enable-cleartext-plugin
   Enter password: antonio_password

   The server authenticates the connection using the default ''@'' proxy account. The resulting privileges for antonio depend on which PAM groups antonio is a member of. If antonio is a member of the root PAM group, the PAM plugin maps root to the developer MySQL user name and returns that name to the server. The server verifies that ''@'' has the PROXY privilege for developer and permits the connection. The following query should return output as shown:

   mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER(), @@proxy_user;
   +-------------------+---------------------+--------------+
   | USER()            | CURRENT_USER()      | @@proxy_user |
   +-------------------+---------------------+--------------+
   | antonio@localhost | developer@localhost | ''@''        |
   +-------------------+---------------------+--------------+

   This demonstrates that the antonio operating system user is authenticated to have the privileges granted to the developer MySQL user, and that proxying occurred through the default proxy account.

   If antonio is not a member of the root PAM group but is a member of the users PAM group, a similar process occurs, but the plugin maps user PAM group membership to the data_entry MySQL user name and returns that name to the server:

   mysql> SELECT USER(), CURRENT_USER(), @@proxy_user;
   +-------------------+----------------------+--------------+
   | USER()            | CURRENT_USER()       | @@proxy_user |
   +-------------------+----------------------+--------------+
   | antonio@localhost | data_entry@localhost | ''@''        |
   +-------------------+----------------------+--------------+

   This demonstrates that the antonio operating system user is authenticated to have the privileges of the data_entry MySQL user, and that proxying occurred through the default proxy account.

   Note
   The client-side mysql_clear_password authentication plugin leaves the password untouched, so client programs send it to the MySQL server as
cleartext. This enables the password to be passed as is to PAM. A cleartext password is necessary to use the server-side PAM library, but may be a security problem in some configurations. These measures minimize the risk:

- To make inadvertent use of the `mysql_clear_password` plugin less likely, MySQL clients must explicitly enable it (for example, with the `--enable-cleartext-plugin` option). See Section 6.1.3, “Client-Side Cleartext Pluggable Authentication”.

- To avoid password exposure with the `mysql_clear_password` plugin enabled, MySQL clients should connect to the MySQL server using an encrypted connection. See Section 5.1, “Configuring MySQL to Use Encrypted Connections”.

### PAM Authentication Access to Unix Password Store

On some systems, Unix authentication uses a password store such as `/etc/shadow`, a file that typically has restricted access permissions. This can cause MySQL PAM-based authentication to fail. Unfortunately, the PAM implementation does not permit distinguishing “password could not be checked” (due, for example, to inability to read `/etc/shadow`) from “password does not match.” If you are using Unix password store for PAM authentication, you may be able to enable access to it from MySQL using one of the following methods:

- Assuming that the MySQL server is run from the `mysql` operating system account, put that account in the `shadow` group that has `/etc/shadow` access:

  1. Create a `shadow` group in `/etc/group`.
  2. Add the `mysql` operating system user to the `shadow` group in `/etc/group`.
  3. Assign `/etc/group` to the `shadow` group and enable the group read permission:

```bash
chgrp shadow /etc/shadow
chmod g+r /etc/shadow
```

  4. Restart the MySQL server.

- If you are using the `pam_unix` module and the `unix_chkpwd` utility, enable password store access as follows:

```bash
chmod u-s /usr/sbin/unix_chkpwd
setcap cap_dac_read_search+ep /usr/sbin/unix_chkpwd
```

Adjust the path to `unix_chkpwd` as necessary for your platform.

### PAM Authentication Debugging

The PAM authentication plugin checks at initialization time whether the `AUTHENTICATION_PAM_LOG` environment value is set (the value does not matter). If so, the plugin enables logging of diagnostic messages to the standard output. These messages may be helpful for debugging PAM-related issues that occur when the plugin performs authentication.

Some messages include reference to PAM plugin source files and line numbers, which enables plugin actions to be tied more closely to the location in the code where they occur.

Another technique for debugging connection failures and determining what is happening during connection attempts is to configure PAM authentication to permit all connections, then check the system log files. This technique should be used only on a `temporary` basis, and not on a production server.
Configure a PAM service file named `/etc/pam.d/mysql-any-password` with these contents (the format may differ on some systems):

```
# PAM-1.0
auth    required    pam_permit.so
account required    pam_permit.so
```

Create an account that uses the PAM plugin and names the `mysql-any-password` PAM service:

```
CREATE USER 'testuser'@'localhost'
    IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_pam
    AS 'mysql-any-password';
```

The `mysql-any-password` service file causes any authentication attempt to return true, even for incorrect passwords. If an authentication attempt fails, that tells you the configuration problem is on the MySQL side. Otherwise, the problem is on the operating system/PAM side. To see what might be happening, check system log files such as `/var/log/secure`, `/var/log/audit.log`, `/var/log/syslog`, or `/var/log/messages`.

After determining what the problem is, remove the `mysql-any-password` PAM service file to disable any-password access.

### 6.1.5 Windows Pluggable Authentication

**Note**

Windows pluggable authentication is an extension included in MySQL Enterprise Edition, a commercial product. To learn more about commercial products, see [https://www.mysql.com/products/](https://www.mysql.com/products/).

As of MySQL 5.5.16, MySQL Enterprise Edition for Windows supports an authentication method that performs external authentication on Windows, enabling MySQL Server to use native Windows services to authenticate client connections. Users who have logged in to Windows can connect from MySQL client programs to the server based on the information in their environment without specifying an additional password.

The client and server exchange data packets in the authentication handshake. As a result of this exchange, the server creates a security context object that represents the identity of the client in the Windows OS. This identity includes the name of the client account. Windows pluggable authentication uses the identity of the client to check whether it is a given account or a member of a group. By default, negotiation uses Kerberos to authenticate, then NTLM if Kerberos is unavailable.

Windows pluggable authentication provides these capabilities:

- **External authentication**: Windows authentication enables MySQL Server to accept connections from users defined outside the MySQL grant tables who have logged in to Windows.

- **Proxy user support**: Windows authentication can return to MySQL a user name different from the external user name passed by the client program. This means that the plugin can return the MySQL user that defines the privileges the external Windows-authenticated user should have. For example, a Windows user named `joe` can connect and have the privileges of a MySQL user named `developer`.

The following table shows the plugin and library file names. The file must be located in the directory named by the `plugin_dir` system variable.

**Table 6.5 Plugin and Library Names for Windows Authentication**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plug-in</td>
<td>authentication_windows</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Windows Pluggable Authentication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>authentication_windows_client</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>authentication_windows.dll</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The library file includes only the server-side plugin. As of MySQL 5.5.13, the client-side plugin is built into the libmysqlclient client library.

The server-side Windows authentication plugin is included only in MySQL Enterprise Edition. It is not included in MySQL community distributions. The client-side plugin is included in all distributions, including community distributions. This permits clients from any 5.5.13 or higher distribution to connect to a server that has the server-side plugin loaded.

The Windows authentication plugin is supported on any version of Windows supported by MySQL 5.5 (see https://www.mysql.com/support/supportedplatforms/database.html). It requires MySQL Server 5.5.16 or higher.

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to Windows pluggable authentication:

- Installing Windows Pluggable Authentication
- Uninstalling Windows Pluggable Authentication
- Using Windows Pluggable Authentication

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”. For proxy user information, see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

Installing Windows Pluggable Authentication

This section describes how to install the Windows authentication plugin. For general information about installing plugins, see Installing and Uninstalling Plugins.

To be usable by the server, the plugin library file must be located in the MySQL plugin directory (the directory named by the plugin_dir system variable). If necessary, configure the plugin directory location by setting the value of plugin_dir at server startup.

To load the plugin at server startup, use the --plugin-load option to name the library file that contains it. With this plugin-loading method, the option must be given each time the server starts. For example, put these lines in the server my.cnf file:

```
[mysqld]
plugin-load=authentication_windows.dll
```

After modifying my.cnf, restart the server to cause the new settings to take effect.

Alternatively, to load the plugin at runtime, use this statement:

```
INSTALL PLUGIN authentication_windows SONAME 'authentication_windows.dll';
```

`INSTALL PLUGIN` loads the plugin immediately, and also registers it in the mysql.plugins system table to cause the server to load it for each subsequent normal startup without the need for --plugin-load.

To verify plugin installation, examine the INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS table or use the SHOW PLUGINS statement (see Obtaining Server Plugin Information). For example:
If the plugin failed to initialize, check the server error log for diagnostic messages.

To associate MySQL accounts with the Windows authentication plugin, see Using Windows Pluggable Authentication. Additional plugin control is provided by the authentication_windows_use_principal_name and authentication_windows_log_level system variables. See Server System Variables.

**Uninstalling Windows Pluggable Authentication**

The method used to uninstall the Windows authentication plugin depends on how you installed it:

- If you installed the plugin at server startup using a --plugin-load option, restart the server without the option.

- If you installed the plugin at runtime using an INSTALL PLUGIN statement, it remains installed across server restarts. To uninstall it, use UNINSTALL PLUGIN:

  ```
  UNINSTALL PLUGIN authentication_windows;
  ```

  In addition, remove any startup options that set Windows plugin-related system variables.

**Using Windows Pluggable Authentication**

The Windows authentication plugin supports the use of MySQL accounts such that users who have logged in to Windows can connect to the MySQL server without having to specify an additional password. It is assumed that the server is running with the server-side plugin enabled, as described in Installing Windows Pluggable Authentication, and that client programs are recent enough to include the client-side plugin built into libmysqld (MySQL 5.5.13 or higher). Once the DBA has enabled the server-side plugin and set up accounts to use it, clients can connect using those accounts with no other setup required on their part.

To refer to the Windows authentication plugin in the IDENTIFIED WITH clause of a CREATE USER or GRANT statement, use the name authentication_windows. Suppose that the Windows users Rafal and Tasha should be permitted to connect to MySQL, as well as any users in the Administrators or Power Users group. To set this up, create a MySQL account named sql_admin that uses the Windows plugin for authentication:

```
CREATE USER sql_admin
  IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_windows
  AS 'Rafal, Tasha, Administrators, "Power Users"';
```

The plugin name is authentication_windows. The string following the AS keyword is the authentication string. It specifies that the Windows users named Rafal or Tasha are permitted to authenticate to the server as the MySQL user sql_admin, as are any Windows users in the Administrators or Power Users group. The latter group name contains a space, so it must be quoted with double quote characters.

After you create the sql_admin account, a user who has logged in to Windows can attempt to connect to the server using that account:
No password is required here. The `authentication_windows` plugin uses the Windows security API to check which Windows user is connecting. If that user is named Rafal or Tasha, or is a member of the Administrators or Power Users group, the server grants access and the client is authenticated as `sql_admin` and has whatever privileges are granted to the `sql_admin` account. Otherwise, the server denies access.

Authentication string syntax for the Windows authentication plugin follows these rules:

- The string consists of one or more user mappings separated by commas.
- Each user mapping associates a Windows user or group name with a MySQL user name:

  ```
  win_user_or_group_name=mysql_user_name
  win_user_or_group_name
  ```

  For the latter syntax, with no `mysql_user_name` value given, the implicit value is the MySQL user created by the `CREATE USER` statement. Thus, these statements are equivalent:

  ```
  CREATE USER sql_admin
  IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_windows
  AS 'Rafal, Tasha, Administrators, "Power Users"';
  CREATE USER sql_admin
  IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_windows
  AS 'Rafal=sql_admin, Tasha=sql_admin, Administrators=sql_admin, "Power Users"=sql_admin';
  ```

- Each backslash character (\) in a value must be doubled because backslash is the escape character in MySQL strings.
- Leading and trailing spaces not inside double quotation marks are ignored.
- Unquoted `win_user_or_group_name` and `mysql_user_name` values can contain anything except equal sign, comma, or space.
- If a `win_user_or_group_name` and or `mysql_user_name` value is quoted with double quotation marks, everything between the quotation marks is part of the value. This is necessary, for example, if the name contains space characters. All characters within double quotes are legal except double quotation mark and backslash. To include either character, escape it with a backslash.
- `win_user_or_group_name` values use conventional syntax for Windows principals, either local or in a domain. Examples (note the doubling of backslashes):

  ```
  domain\user
  .\user
domain\group
  .\\group
  BUILTIN\WellKnownGroup
  ```

When invoked by the server to authenticate a client, the plugin scans the authentication string left to right for a user or group match to the Windows user. If there is a match, the plugin returns the corresponding `mysql_user_name` to the MySQL server. If there is no match, authentication fails.

A user name match takes preference over a group name match. Suppose that the Windows user named `win_user` is a member of `win_group` and the authentication string looks like this:

```
'win_group = sql_user1, win_user = sql_user2'
```

When `win_user` connects to the MySQL server, there is a match both to `win_group` and to `win_user`. The plugin authenticates the user as `sql_user2` because the more-specific user match
Windows Pluggable Authentication

takes precedence over the group match, even though the group is listed first in the authentication string.

Windows authentication always works for connections from the same computer on which the server is running. For cross-computer connections, both computers must be registered with Windows Active Directory. If they are in the same Windows domain, it is unnecessary to specify a domain name. It is also possible to permit connections from a different domain, as in this example:

```
CREATE USER sql_accounting
  IDENTIFIED WITH authentication_windows
  AS 'SomeDomain\Accounting';
```

Here `SomeDomain` is the name of the other domain. The backslash character is doubled because it is the MySQL escape character within strings.

MySQL supports the concept of proxy users whereby a client can connect and authenticate to the MySQL server using one account but while connected has the privileges of another account (see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”). Suppose that you want Windows users to connect using a single user name but be mapped based on their Windows user and group names onto specific MySQL accounts as follows:

- The `local_user` and `MyDomain\domain_user` local and domain Windows users should map to the `local_wlad` MySQL account.
- Users in the `MyDomain\Developers` domain group should map to the `local_dev` MySQL account.
- Local machine administrators should map to the `local_admin` MySQL account.

To set this up, create a proxy account for Windows users to connect to, and configure this account so that users and groups map to the appropriate MySQL accounts (`local_wlad`, `local_dev`, `local_admin`). In addition, grant the MySQL accounts the privileges appropriate to the operations they need to perform. The following instructions use `win_proxy` as the proxy account, and `local_wlad`, `local_dev`, and `local_admin` as the proxied accounts.

1. Create the proxy MySQL account:

```sql
CREATE USER win_proxy
  IDENTIFIED WITH  authentication_windows
  AS 'local_user = local_wlad,
   MyDomain\domain_user = local_wlad,
   MyDomain\Developers = local_dev,
   BUILTIN\Administrators = local_admin';
```

2. For proxying to work, the proxied accounts must exist, so create them:

```sql
CREATE USER local_wlad IDENTIFIED BY 'secret_wlad_pass';
CREATE USER local_dev IDENTIFIED BY 'secret_dev_pass';
CREATE USER local_admin IDENTIFIED BY 'secret_admin_pass';
```

If you do not let anyone know the passwords for these accounts, clients cannot use them to connect directly to the MySQL server. Instead, it is expected that users who authenticate using Windows will use the `win_proxy` proxy account.

You should also execute GRANT statements (not shown) that grant each proxied account the privileges required for MySQL access.

3. Grant to the proxy account the PROXY privilege for each proxied account:

```sql
GRANT PROXY ON local_wlad TO win_proxy;
```
Now the Windows users `local_user` and `MyDomain\domain_user` can connect to the MySQL server as `win_proxy` and when authenticated have the privileges of the account given in the authentication string (in this case, `local_wlad`). A user in the `MyDomain\Developers` group who connects as `win_proxy` has the privileges of the `local_dev` account. A user in the `BUILTIN\Administrators` group has the privileges of the `local_admin` account.

To configure authentication so that all Windows users who do not have their own MySQL account go through a proxy account, substitute the default proxy account (`''@''`) for `win_proxy` in the preceding instructions. For information about default proxy accounts, see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”.

Note

If your MySQL installation has anonymous users, they might conflict with the default proxy user. For more information about this issue, and ways of dealing with it, see Default Proxy User and Anonymous User Conflicts.

To use the Windows authentication plugin with Connector/NET connection strings in Connector/NET 6.4.4 and higher, see Using the Windows Native Authentication Plugin.

### 6.1.6 Socket Peer-Credential Pluggable Authentication

As of MySQL 5.5.10, a server-side `auth_socket` authentication plugin is available that authenticates clients that connect from the local host through the Unix socket file. The plugin uses the `SO_PEERCRED` socket option to obtain information about the user running the client program. Thus, the plugin can be used only on systems that support the `SO_PEERCRED` option, such as Linux.

The source code for this plugin can be examined as a relatively simple example demonstrating how to write a loadable authentication plugin.

The following table shows the plugin and library file names. The file must be located in the directory named by the `plugin_dir` system variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td><code>auth_socket</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>None, see discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td><code>auth_socket.so</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to socket pluggable authentication:

- Installing Socket Pluggable Authentication
- Uninstalling Socket Pluggable Authentication
- Using Socket Pluggable Authentication

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

### Installing Socket Pluggable Authentication

This section describes how to install the socket authentication plugin. For general information about installing plugins, see Installing and Uninstalling Plugins.
To be usable by the server, the plugin library file must be located in the MySQL plugin directory (the directory named by the `plugin_dir` system variable). If necessary, configure the plugin directory location by setting the value of `plugin_dir` at server startup.

To load the plugin at server startup, use the `--plugin-load` option to name the library file that contains it. With this plugin-loading method, the option must be given each time the server starts. For example, put these lines in the server `my.cnf` file:

```
[mysqld]
plugin-load=auth_socket.so
```

After modifying `my.cnf`, restart the server to cause the new settings to take effect.

Alternatively, to load the plugin at runtime, use this statement:

```
INSTALL PLUGIN auth_socket SONAME 'auth_socket.so';
```

`INSTALL PLUGIN` loads the plugin immediately, and also registers it in the `mysql.plugins` system table to cause the server to load it for each subsequent normal startup without the need for `--plugin-load`.

To verify plugin installation, examine the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS` table or use the `SHOW PLUGINS` statement (see Obtaining Server Plugin Information). For example:

```
mysql> SELECT PLUGIN_NAME, PLUGIN_STATUS
    FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS
    WHERE PLUGIN_NAME LIKE '%socket%';
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUGIN_NAME</th>
<th>PLUGIN_STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auth_socket</td>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the plugin failed to initialize, check the server error log for diagnostic messages.

To associate MySQL accounts with the socket plugin, see Using Socket Pluggable Authentication.

### Uninstalling Socket Pluggable Authentication

The method used to uninstall the socket authentication plugin depends on how you installed it:

- If you installed the plugin at server startup using a `--plugin-load` option, restart the server without the option.

- If you installed the plugin at runtime using an `INSTALL PLUGIN` statement, it remains installed across server restarts. To uninstall it, use `UNINSTALL PLUGIN`:

```
UNINSTALL PLUGIN auth_socket;
```

### Using Socket Pluggable Authentication

The socket plugin checks whether the socket user name (the operating system user name) matches the MySQL user name specified by the client program to the server, and permits the connection only if the names match.

Suppose that a MySQL account is created for an operating system user named `valerie` who is to be authenticated by the `auth_socket` plugin for connections from the local host through the socket file.
CREATE USER 'valerie'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED WITH auth_socket;

If a user on the local host with a login name of stefanie invokes mysql with the option --user=valerie to connect through the socket file, the server uses auth_socket to authenticate the client. The plugin determines that the --user option value (valerie) differs from the client user's name (stephanie) and refuses the connection. If a user named valerie tries the same thing, the plugin finds that the user name and the MySQL user name are both valerie and permits the connection. However, the plugin refuses the connection even for valerie if the connection is made using a different protocol, such as TCP/IP.

### 6.1.7 Test Pluggable Authentication

MySQL includes a test plugin that checks account credentials and logs success or failure to the server error log. This is a loadable plugin (not built in) and must be installed prior to use.

The test plugin source code is separate from the server source, unlike the built-in native plugin, so it can be examined as a relatively simple example demonstrating how to write a loadable authentication plugin.

**Note**

This plugin is intended for testing and development purposes, and is not for use in production environments or on servers that are exposed to public networks.

The following table shows the plugin and library file names. The file name suffix might differ on your system. The file must be located in the directory named by the plugin_dir system variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plugin or File</th>
<th>Plugin or File Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Server-side plugin</td>
<td>test_plugin_server</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client-side plugin</td>
<td>auth_test_plugin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library file</td>
<td>auth_test_plugin.so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sections provide installation and usage information specific to test pluggable authentication:

- Installing Test Pluggable Authentication
- Uninstalling Test Pluggable Authentication
- Using Test Pluggable Authentication

For general information about pluggable authentication in MySQL, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”.

### Installing Test Pluggable Authentication

This section describes how to install the test authentication plugin. For general information about installing plugins, see Installing and Uninstalling Plugins.

To be usable by the server, the plugin library file must be located in the MySQL plugin directory (the directory named by the plugin_dir system variable). If necessary, configure the plugin directory location by setting the value of plugin_dir at server startup.

To load the plugin at server startup, use the --plugin-load option to name the library file that contains it. With this plugin-loading method, the option must be given each time the server starts.
Test Pluggable Authentication

For example, put these lines in the server `my.cnf` file (adjust the `.so` suffix for your platform as necessary):

```sql
[mysqld]
plugin-load=auth_test_plugin.so
```

After modifying `my.cnf`, restart the server to cause the new settings to take effect.

Alternatively, to load the plugin at runtime, use this statement (adjust the `.so` suffix for your platform as necessary):

```sql
INSTALL PLUGIN test_plugin_server SONAME 'auth_test_plugin.so';
```

`INSTALL PLUGIN` loads the plugin immediately, and also registers it in the `mysql.plugins` system table to cause the server to load it for each subsequent normal startup without the need for `--plugin-load`.

To verify plugin installation, examine the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS` table or use the `SHOW PLUGINS` statement (see Obtaining Server Plugin Information). For example:

```sql
mysql> SELECT PLUGIN_NAME, PLUGIN_STATUS
          FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS
         WHERE PLUGIN_NAME LIKE '%test_plugin%';
```

+--------------------+---------------+
| PLUGIN_NAME        | PLUGIN_STATUS |
|--------------------+---------------+
| test_plugin_server | ACTIVE        |
```

If the plugin failed to initialize, check the server error log for diagnostic messages.

To associate MySQL accounts with the test plugin, see Using Test Pluggable Authentication.

Uninstalling Test Pluggable Authentication

The method used to uninstall the test authentication plugin depends on how you installed it:

- If you installed the plugin at server startup using a `--plugin-load` option, restart the server without the option.

- If you installed the plugin at runtime using an `INSTALL PLUGIN` statement, it remains installed across server restarts. To uninstall it, use `UNINSTALL PLUGIN`:

  ```sql
  UNINSTALL PLUGIN test_plugin_server;
  ```

Using Test Pluggable Authentication

To use the test authentication plugin, create an account and name that plugin in the `IDENTIFIED WITH` clause:

```sql
CREATE USER 'testuser'@'localhost' IDENTIFIED WITH test_plugin_server;
SET PASSWORD FOR 'testuser'@'localhost' = PASSWORD('testpassword');
```

Then provide the `--user` and `--password` options for that account when you connect to the server. For example:

```shell
shell> mysql --user=testuser --password
Enter password: testpassword
```
The plugin fetches the password as received from the client and compares it with the value stored in the `authentication_string` column of the account row in the `mysql.user` system table. If the two values match, the plugin returns the `authentication_string` value as the new effective user ID.

You can look in the server error log for a message indicating whether authentication succeeded (notice that the password is reported as the “user”):

```
[Note] Plugin test_plugin_server reported: 'successfully authenticated user testpassword'
```

### 6.2 MySQL Enterprise Audit

**Note**

MySQL Enterprise Audit is an extension included in MySQL Enterprise Edition, a commercial product. To learn more about commercial products, see https://www.mysql.com/products/.

As of MySQL 5.5.28, MySQL Enterprise Edition includes MySQL Enterprise Audit, implemented using a server plugin named `audit_log`. MySQL Enterprise Audit uses the open MySQL Audit API to enable standard, policy-based monitoring and logging of connection and query activity executed on specific MySQL servers. Designed to meet the Oracle audit specification, MySQL Enterprise Audit provides an out of box, easy to use auditing and compliance solution for applications that are governed by both internal and external regulatory guidelines.

When installed, the audit plugin enables MySQL Server to produce a log file containing an audit record of server activity. The log contents include when clients connect and disconnect, and what actions they perform while connected, such as which databases and tables they access.

After you install the plugin (see Section 6.2.1, “Installing MySQL Enterprise Audit”), it writes an audit log file. By default, the file is named `audit.log` in the server data directory. To change the name of the file, set the `audit_log_file` system variable at server startup.

Audit log file contents are not encrypted. See Section 6.2.2, “MySQL Enterprise Audit Security Considerations”.

The audit log file is written in XML, with auditable events encoded as `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements. To select the file format, set the `audit_log_format` system variable at server startup. For details on file format and contents, see Section 6.2.3, “Audit Log File Formats”.

To control what information the audit log plugin writes to its log file, set the `audit_log_policy` system variable. By default, this variable is set to `ALL` (write all auditable events), but also permits values of `LOGINS` or `QUERIES` to log only login or query events, or `NONE` to disable logging.

For more information about controlling how logging occurs, see Section 6.2.4, “Audit Log Logging Control”. For descriptions of the parameters used to configure the audit log plugin, see Section 6.2.7, “Audit Log Options and System Variables”.

If the audit log plugin is enabled, the Performance Schema (see MySQL Performance Schema) has instrumentation for it. To identify the relevant instruments, use this query:

```
SELECT NAME FROM performance_schema.setup_instruments
WHERE NAME LIKE '%/alog/%';
```

### Changes from Older MySQL Enterprise Audit Versions

Several changes were made to the audit log plugin in MySQL 5.5.34 for better compatibility with Oracle Audit Vault.
MySQL 5.7 changed audit log file output to a new format. This format has been backported to MySQL 5.5 and it is possible to select either the old or new format using the `audit_log_format` system variable, which has permitted values of `OLD` and `NEW` (default `OLD`). The two formats differ as follows:

- Information within `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements written in the old format using attributes is written in the new format using subelements.

- The new format includes more information in `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements. Every element includes a `RECORD_ID` value providing a unique identifier. The `TIMESTAMP` value includes time zone information. Query records include `HOST`, `IP`, `OS_LOGIN`, and `USER` information, as well as `COMMAND_CLASS` and `STATUS_CODE` values.

Example of old `<AUDIT_RECORD>` format:

```xml
<AUDIT_RECORD
  TIMESTAMP="2013-09-15T15:27:27"
  NAME="Query"
  CONNECTION_ID="3"
  STATUS="0"
  SQLTEXT="SELECT 1"
/>
```

Example of new `<AUDIT_RECORD>` format:

```xml
<AUDIT_RECORD>
  <TIMESTAMP>2013-09-15T15:27:27 UTC</TIMESTAMP>
  <RECORD_ID>3998_2013-09-15T15:27:27</RECORD_ID>
  <NAME>Query</NAME>
  <CONNECTION_ID>3</CONNECTION_ID>
  <STATUS>0</STATUS>
  <STATUS_CODE>0</STATUS_CODE>
  <USER>root[root] @ localhost [127.0.0.1]</USER>
  <OS_LOGIN/></OS_LOGIN>
  <HOST>localhost</HOST>
  <IP>127.0.0.1</IP>
  <COMMAND_CLASS>select</COMMAND_CLASS>
  <SQLTEXT>SELECT 1</SQLTEXT>
</AUDIT_RECORD>
```

When the audit log plugin rotates the audit log file, it uses a different file name format. For a log file named `audit.log`, the plugin previously renamed the file to `audit.log.TIMESTAMP`. The plugin now renames the file to `audit.log.TIMESTAMP.xml` to indicate that it is an XML file.

If you change the value of `audit_log_format`, use this procedure to avoid writing log entries in one format to an existing log file that contains entries in a different format:

1. Stop the server.
2. Rename the current audit log file manually.
3. Restart the server with the new value of `audit_log_format`. The audit log plugin will create a new log file, which will contain log entries in the selected format.

The API for writing audit plugins has also changed. The `mysql_event_general` structure has new members to represent client host name and IP address, command class, and external user. For more information, see Writing Audit Plugins.

### 6.2.1 Installing MySQL Enterprise Audit

This section describes how to install MySQL Enterprise Audit, which is implemented using the `audit_log` plugin. For general information about installing plugins, see Installing and Uninstalling Plugins.
Installing MySQL Enterprise Audit

Note

If installed, the `audit_log` plugin involves some minimal overhead even when disabled. To avoid this overhead, do not install MySQL Enterprise Audit unless you plan to use it.

To be usable by the server, the plugin library file must be located in the MySQL plugin directory (the directory named by the `plugin_dir` system variable). If necessary, configure the plugin directory location by setting the value of `plugin_dir` at server startup.

The plugin library file base name is `audit_log`. The file name suffix differs per platform (for example, `.so` for Unix and Unix-like systems, `.dll` for Windows).

To load the plugin at server startup, use the `--plugin-load` option to name the library file that contains it. With this plugin-loading method, the option must be given each time the server starts. For example, put the following lines in the server `my.cnf` file (adjust the `.so` suffix for your platform as necessary):

```
[mysqld]
plugin-load=audit_log.so
```

After modifying `my.cnf`, restart the server to cause the new settings to take effect.

Alternatively, to load the plugin at runtime, use this statement (adjust the `.so` suffix for your platform as necessary):

```
INSTALL PLUGIN audit_log SONAME 'audit_log.so';
```

`INSTALL PLUGIN` loads the plugin, and also registers it in the `mysql.plugins` system table to cause the plugin to be loaded for each subsequent normal server startup without the need for `--plugin-load`.

To verify plugin installation, examine the `INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS` table or use the `SHOW PLUGINS` statement (see Obtaining Server Plugin Information). For example:

```
mysql> SELECT PLUGIN_NAME, PLUGIN_STATUS
    FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.PLUGINS
    WHERE PLUGIN_NAME LIKE 'audit%';
```

```
+-------------+---------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUGIN_NAME</th>
<th>PLUGIN_STATUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audit_log</td>
<td>ACTIVE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
+-------------+---------------+
```

If the plugin failed to initialize, check the server error log for diagnostic messages.

If the plugin has been previously registered with `INSTALL PLUGIN` or is loaded with `--plugin-load`, you can use the `--audit-log` option at server startup to control plugin activation. For example, to load the plugin at startup and prevent it from being removed at runtime, use these options:

```
[mysqld]
plugin-load=audit_log.so
audit-log=FORCE_PLUS_PERMANENT
```

If it is desired to prevent the server from running without the audit plugin, use `--audit-log` with a value of `FORCE` or `FORCE_PLUS_PERMANENT` to force server startup to fail if the plugin does not initialize successfully.

For additional information about the parameters used to configure operation of the `audit_log` plugin, see Section 6.2.7, “Audit Log Options and System Variables”.

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Audit log file contents are not encrypted. See Section 6.2.2, “MySQL Enterprise Audit Security Considerations”.

6.2.2 MySQL Enterprise Audit Security Considerations

Contents of audit log files produced by the audit log plugin are not encrypted and may contain sensitive information, such as the text of SQL statements. For security reasons, audit log files should be written to a directory accessible only to the MySQL server and to users with a legitimate reason to view the log. The default file name is `audit.log` in the data directory. This can be changed by setting the `audit_log_file` system variable at server startup. Other audit log files may exist due to log rotation.

6.2.3 Audit Log File Formats

The MySQL server calls the audit log plugin to write an audit record to its log file whenever an auditable event occurs. Typically the first audit record written after plugin startup contains the server description and startup options. Elements following that one represent events such as client connect and disconnect events, executed SQL statements, and so forth. Only top-level statements are logged, not statements within stored programs such as triggers or stored procedures. Contents of files referenced by statements such as `LOAD DATA` are not logged.

To select the log format that the audit log plugin uses to write its log file, set the `audit_log_format` system variable at server startup. These formats are available:

- New-style XML format (`audit_log_format=NEW`): An XML format that has better compatibility with Oracle Audit Vault than old-style XML format. MySQL 5.7 introduced this format, which was backported to MySQL 5.5 as of MySQL 5.5.34.

- Old-style XML format (`audit_log_format=OLD`): The original audit log format used by default in older MySQL series. MySQL 5.5 uses old-style XML format by default.

  **Note**

  Changing the value of `audit_log_format` can result in writing log entries in one format to an existing log file that contains entries in a different format. To avoid this issue, use the procedure described at Audit Log File Format.

Audit log file contents are not encrypted. See Section 6.2.2, “MySQL Enterprise Audit Security Considerations”.

The following sections describe the available audit logging formats:

- New-Style XML Audit Log File Format
- Old-Style XML Audit Log File Format

New-Style XML Audit Log File Format

Here is a sample log file in new-style XML format (`audit_log_format=NEW`), reformatted slightly for readability:

```xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<AUDIT>
  <AUDIT_RECORD>
    <TIMESTAMP>2017-10-16T14:06:33 UTC</TIMESTAMP>
    <RECORD_ID>1_2017-10-16T14:06:33</RECORD_ID>
    <NAME>Audit</NAME>
    <SERVER_ID>1</SERVER_ID>
    <VERSION>1</VERSION>
    <STARTUP_OPTIONS>/usr/local/mysql/bin/mysqld
     --socket=/usr/local/mysql/mysql.sock
     --port=3306</STARTUP_OPTIONS>
  </AUDIT_RECORD>
</AUDIT>
```
The audit log file is written as XML, using UTF-8 (up to 4 bytes per character). The root element is `<AUDIT>`. The root element contains `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements, each of which provides information...
about an audited event. When the audit log plugin begins writing a new log file, it writes the XML declaration and opening `<AUDIT>` root element tag. When the plugin closes a log file, it writes the closing `</AUDIT>` root element tag. The closing tag is not present while the file is open.

Elements within `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements have these characteristics:

- Some elements appear in every `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element. Others are optional and may appear depending on the audit record type.
- Order of elements within an `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element is not guaranteed.
- Element values are not fixed length. Long values may be truncated as indicated in the element descriptions given later.
- The `<`, `>`, `"`, and `&` characters are encoded as `&lt;`, `&gt;`, `&quot;`, and `&amp;`, respectively. NUL bytes (U+00) are encoded as the ? character.
- Characters not valid as XML characters are encoded using numeric character references. Valid XML characters are:

  ```
  #x9 | #xA | #xD | [#x20-#xD7FF] | [#xE000-#xFFFD] | [#x10000-#x10FFFF]
  ```

The following elements are mandatory in every `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element:

- `<NAME>`

  A string representing the type of instruction that generated the audit event, such as a command that the server received from a client.

  Example:

  ```xml
  <NAME>Query</NAME>
  ```

  Some common `<NAME>` values:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audit</td>
<td>When auditing starts, which may be server startup time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connect</td>
<td>When a client connects, also known as logging in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Query</td>
<td>An SQL statement (executed directly)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepare</td>
<td>Preparation of an SQL statement; usually followed by Execute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Execute</td>
<td>Execution of an SQL statement; usually follows Prepare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shutdown</td>
<td>Server shutdown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit</td>
<td>When a client disconnects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NoAudit</td>
<td>Auditing has been turned off</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

  The possible values are Audit, Binlog Dump, Change user, Close stmt, Connect Out, Connect, Create DB, Daemon, Debug, Delayed insert, Drop DB, Execute, Fetch, Field List, Init DB, Kill, Long Data, NoAudit, Ping, Prepare, Processlist, Query, Quit, Refresh, Register Slave, Reset stmt, Set option, Shutdown, Sleep, Statistics, Table Dump, Time.

  With the exception of Audit and NoAudit, these values correspond to the `COM_xxx` command values listed in the `mysql_com.h` header file. For example, Create DB and Change user correspond to `COM_CREATE_DB` and `COM_CHANGE_USER`, respectively.

- `<RECORD_ID>`

  A unique identifier for the audit record. The value is composed from a sequence number and timestamp, in the format `<SEQ_TIMESTAMP>`. When the audit log plugin opens the audit log file, it initializes the sequence number to the size of the audit log file, then increments the sequence by 1 for each record logged. The timestamp is a UTC value in `YYYY-MM-DDThh:mm:ss` format indicating the date and time when the audit log plugin opened the file.
Audit Log File Formats

Example:

<RECORD_ID>12_2017-10-16T14:06:33</RECORD_ID>

• <TIMESTAMP>

A string representing a UTC value in YYYY-MM-DDThh:mm:ss UTC format indicating the date and time when the audit event was generated. For example, the event corresponding to execution of an SQL statement received from a client has a <TIMESTAMP> value occurring after the statement finishes, not when it was received.

Example:

<TIMESTAMP>2017-10-16T14:09:45 UTC</TIMESTAMP>

The following elements are optional in <AUDIT_RECORD> elements. Many of them occur only with specific <NAME> element values.

• <COMMAND_CLASS>

A string that indicates the type of action performed.

Example:

<CMD_CLASS>drop_table</COMMAND_CLASS>

The values correspond to the Com_xxx status variables that indicate command counts; for example Com_drop_table and Com_select count DROP TABLE and SELECT statements, respectively. The following statement displays the possible names:

```
SELECT LOWER(REPLACE(VARIABLE_NAME, 'COM_', '')) AS name
FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.GLOBAL_STATUS
WHERE VARIABLE_NAME LIKE 'COM%'
ORDER BY name;
```

• <CONNECTION_ID>

An unsigned integer representing the client connection identifier. This is the same as the value returned by the CONNECTION_ID() function within the session.

Example:

<CONNECTION_ID>127</CONNECTION_ID>

• <DB>

A string representing the default database name.

Example:

<DB>test</DB>

• <HOST>

A string representing the client host name.

Example:
Audit Log File Formats

- `<HOST>localhost</HOST>`
  A string representing the client IP address.
  Example:
  `<IP>127.0.0.1</IP>`

- `<MYSQL_VERSION>`
  A string representing the MySQL server version. This is the same as the value of the `VERSION()` function or `version` system variable.
  Example:
  `<MYSQL_VERSION>5.5.59-log</MYSQL_VERSION>`

- `<OS_LOGIN>`
  A string representing the external user (empty if none). The value may differ from the `<USER>` value, for example, if the server authenticates the client using an external authentication method.
  Example:
  `<OS_LOGIN>jeffrey</OS_LOGIN>`

- `<OS_VERSION>`
  A string representing the operating system on which the server was built or is running.
  Example:
  `<OS_VERSION>x86_64-Linux</OS_VERSION>`

- `<PRIV_USER>`
  A string representing the user that the server authenticated the client as. This is the user name that the server uses for privilege checking, and may differ from the `<USER>` value.
  Example:
  `<PRIV_USER>jeffrey</PRIV_USER>`

- `<PROXY_USER>`
  A string representing the proxy user (see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”). The value is empty if user proxying is not in effect.
  Example:
  `<PROXY_USER>developer</PROXY_USER>`

- `<SERVER_ID>`
  An unsigned integer representing the server ID. This is the same as the value of the `server_id` system variable.
  Example:
Audit Log File Formats

• `<SERVER_ID>`

A string representing the text of an SQL statement. The value can be empty. Long values may be truncated. The string, like the audit log file itself, is written using UTF-8 (up to 4 bytes per character), so the value may be the result of conversion. For example, the original statement might have been received from the client as an SJIS string.

Example:

```xml
<SQLTEXT>DELETE FROM t1</SQLTEXT>
```

• `<STARTUP_OPTIONS>`

A string representing the options that were given on the command line or in option files when the MySQL server was started. The first option is the path to the server executable.

Example:

```xml
<STARTUP_OPTIONS>/usr/local/mysql/bin/mysqld --port=3306 --log_output=FILE</STARTUP_OPTIONS>
```

• `<STATUS>`

An unsigned integer representing the command status: 0 for success, nonzero if an error occurred. This is the same as the value of the `mysql_errno()` C API function. See the description for `<STATUS_CODE>` for information about how it differs from `<STATUS>`.

The audit log does not contain the SQLSTATE value or error message. To see the associations between error codes, SQLSTATE values, and messages, see Server Error Message Reference.

Warnings are not logged.

Example:

```xml
<STATUS>1051</STATUS>
```

• `<STATUS_CODE>`

An unsigned integer representing the command status: 0 for success, 1 if an error occurred.

The `STATUS_CODE` value differs from the `STATUS` value: `STATUS_CODE` is 0 for success and 1 for error, which is compatible with the EZ_collector consumer for Audit Vault. `STATUS` is the value of the `mysql_errno()` C API function. This is 0 for success and nonzero for error, and thus is not necessarily 1 for error.

Example:

```xml
<STATUS_CODE>0</STATUS_CODE>
```

• `<USER>`

A string representing the user name sent by the client. This may differ from the `<PRIV_USER>` value.

Example:

```xml
<User>root[root] @ localhost [127.0.0.1]</User>
```
Audit Log File Formats

- `<VERSION>`

An unsigned integer representing the version of the audit log file format.

Example:

```xml
<VERSION>1</VERSION>
```

Old-Style XML Audit Log File Format

Here is a sample log file in old-style XML format (audit_log_format=OLD), reformatted slightly for readability:

```xml
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="utf-8"?>
<AUDIT>
  <AUDIT_RECORD
    TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:00 UTC"
    RECORD_ID="1_2017-10-16T14:25:00"
    NAME="Audit"
    SERVER_ID="1"
    VERSION="1"
    STARTUP_OPTIONS="--port=3306"
    OS_VERSION="i686-Linux"
    MYSQL_VERSION="5.5.59-log"/>
  <AUDIT_RECORD
    TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:24 UTC"
    RECORD_ID="2_2017-10-16T14:25:00"
    NAME="Connect"
    CONNECTION_ID="4"
    STATUS="0"
    STATUS_CODE="0"
    USER="root"
    OS_LOGIN=""
    HOST="localhost"
    IP="127.0.0.1"
    COMMAND_CLASS="connect"
    PRIV_USER="root"
    PROXY_USER=""
    DB="test"/>
  ...
  <AUDIT_RECORD
    TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:24 UTC"
    RECORD_ID="6_2017-10-16T14:25:00"
    NAME="Query"
    CONNECTION_ID="4"
    STATUS="0"
    STATUS_CODE="0"
    USER="root[root] @ localhost [127.0.0.1]"
    OS_LOGIN=""
    HOST="localhost"
    IP="127.0.0.1"
    COMMAND_CLASS="drop_table"
    SQLTEXT="DROP TABLE IF EXISTS t"/>
  ...
  <AUDIT_RECORD
    TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:24 UTC"
    RECORD_ID="8_2017-10-16T14:25:00"
    NAME="Quit"
    CONNECTION_ID="4"
    STATUS="0"
    STATUS_CODE="0"
    USER="root"
    OS_LOGIN=""
    HOST="localhost"
    IP="127.0.0.1"
    COMMAND_CLASS="connect"
  <AUDIT_RECORD
    TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:32 UTC"
    RECORD_ID="12_2017-10-16T14:25:00"
```
The audit log file is written as XML, using UTF-8 (up to 4 bytes per character). The root element is `<AUDIT>`. The root element contains `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements, each of which provides information about an audited event. When the audit log plugin begins writing a new log file, it writes the XML declaration and opening `<AUDIT>` root element tag. When the plugin closes a log file, it writes the closing `</AUDIT>` root element tag. The closing tag is not present while the file is open.

Attributes of `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements have these characteristics:

- Some attributes appear in every `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element. Others are optional and may appear depending on the audit record type.
- Order of attributes within an `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element is not guaranteed.
- Attribute values are not fixed length. Long values may be truncated as indicated in the attribute descriptions given later.
- The `<`, `>`, `"`, and `&` characters are encoded as `&lt;`, `&gt;`, `&quot;`, and `&amp;`, respectively. NUL bytes (U+00) are encoded as the `?` character.
- Characters not valid as XML characters are encoded using numeric character references. Valid XML characters are:
  
  #x9 | #xA | #xD | [#x20-#xD7FF] | [#xE000-#xFFFD] | [#x10000-#x10FFFF]

The following attributes are mandatory in every `<AUDIT_RECORD>` element:

- **NAME**
  
  A string representing the type of instruction that generated the audit event, such as a command that the server received from a client.
  
  Example: `NAME="Query"`

Some common `NAME` values:

- **Audit** When auditing starts, which may be server startup time
- **Connect** When a client connects, also known as logging in
- **Query** An SQL statement (executed directly)
- **Prepare** Preparation of an SQL statement; usually followed by Execute
- **Execute** Execution of an SQL statement; usually follows Prepare
- **Shutdown** Server shutdown
- **Quit** When a client disconnects
- **NoAudit** Auditing has been turned off

The possible values are Audit, Binlog Dump, Change user, Close stmt, Connect Out, Connect, Create DB, Daemon, Debug, Delayed insert, Drop DB, Execute, Fetch, Field List, Init DB, Kill, Long Data, NoAudit, Ping, Prepare, Processlist, Query, Quit, Refresh, Register Slave, Reset stmt, Set option, Shutdown, Sleep, Statistics, Table Dump, Time.

With the exception of "Audit" and "NoAudit", these values correspond to the COM_xxx command values listed in the mysqli_com.h header file. For example, "Create DB" and "Change user" correspond to COM_CREATE_DB and COM_CHANGE_USER, respectively.

- **RECORD_ID**
  
  A unique identifier for the audit record. The value is composed from a sequence number and timestamp, in the format `SEQ_TIMESTAMP`. When the audit log plugin opens the audit log file, it
initializes the sequence number to the size of the audit log file, then increments the sequence by 1 for each record logged. The timestamp is a UTC value in `YYYY-MM-DDThh:mm:ss` format indicating the date and time when the audit log plugin opened the file.

Example: `RECORD_ID="12_2017-10-16T14:25:00"`

- **TIMESTAMP**

A string representing a UTC value in `YYYY-MM-DDThh:mm:ss` UTC format indicating the date and time when the audit event was generated. For example, the event corresponding to execution of an SQL statement received from a client has a `TIMESTAMP` value occurring after the statement finishes, not when it was received.

Example: `TIMESTAMP="2017-10-16T14:25:32 UTC"`

The following attributes are optional in `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements. Many of them occur only for elements with specific values of the `NAME` attribute.

- **COMMAND_CLASS**

A string that indicates the type of action performed.

Example: `COMMAND_CLASS="drop_table"`

The values correspond to the `Com_`xxx status variables that indicate command counts; for example `Com_drop_table` and `Com_select` count `DROP TABLE` and `SELECT` statements, respectively. The following statement displays the possible names:

```sql
SELECT LOWER(REPLACE(VARIABLE_NAME, 'COM_', '')) AS name 
FROM INFORMATION_SCHEMA.GLOBAL_STATUS 
WHERE VARIABLE_NAME LIKE 'COM%'
ORDER BY name;
```

- **CONNECTION_ID**

An unsigned integer representing the client connection identifier. This is the same as the value returned by the `CONNECTION_ID()` function within the session.

Example: `CONNECTION_ID="127"`

- **DB**

A string representing the default database name.

Example: `DB="test"`

- **HOST**

A string representing the client host name.

Example: `HOST="localhost"`

- **IP**

A string representing the client IP address.

Example: `IP="127.0.0.1"`

- **MYSQL_VERSION**

A string representing the MySQL server version. This is the same as the value of the `VERSION()` function or `version` system variable.
Audit Log File Formats

Example: `MYSQL_VERSION="5.5.31-log"`

- **OS_LOGIN**
  A string representing the external user (empty if none). The value may differ from `USER`, for example, if the server authenticates the client using an external authentication method.
  Example: `OS_LOGIN="jeffrey"`

- **OS_VERSION**
  A string representing the operating system on which the server was built or is running.
  Example: `OS_VERSION="x86_64-Linux"`

- **PRIV_USER**
  A string representing the user that the server authenticated the client as. This is the user name that the server uses for privilege checking, and it may differ from the `USER` value.
  Example: `PRIV_USER="jeffrey"`

- **PROXY_USER**
  A string representing the proxy user (see Section 4.11, “Proxy Users”). The value is empty if user proxying is not in effect.
  Example: `PROXY_USER="developer"`

- **SERVER_ID**
  An unsigned integer representing the server ID. This is the same as the value of the `server_id` system variable.
  Example: `SERVER_ID="1"`

- **SQLTEXT**
  A string representing the text of an SQL statement. The value can be empty. Long values may be truncated. The string, like the audit log file itself, is written using UTF-8 (up to 4 bytes per character), so the value may be the result of conversion. For example, the original statement might have been received from the client as an SJIS string.
  Example: `SQLTEXT="DELETE FROM t1"`

- **STARTUP_OPTIONS**
  A string representing the options that were given on the command line or in option files when the MySQL server was started.
  Example: `STARTUP_OPTIONS="--port=3306 --log_output=FILE"`

- **STATUS**
  An unsigned integer representing the command status: 0 for success, nonzero if an error occurred. This is the same as the value of the `mysql_errno()` C API function. See the description for `STATUS_CODE` for information about how it differs from `STATUS`.
  The audit log does not contain the SQLSTATE value or error message. To see the associations between error codes, SQLSTATE values, and messages, see Server Error Message Reference.
  Warnings are not logged.
6.2.4 Audit Log Logging Control

This section describes how to control general characteristics of audit logging, such as the file to which the audit log plugin writes events and the format of written events.

- **Audit Log File Name**
- **Audit Log File Format**
- **Audit Logging Write Strategy**
- **Audit Log File Space Management and Name Rotation**

For additional information about the system variables that affect audit logging, see Section 6.2.7, “Audit Log Options and System Variables”.

**Audit Log File Name**

To control the audit log file name, set the `audit_log_file` system variable at server startup. By default, the name is `audit.log` in the server data directory. For security reasons, the audit log file should be written to a directory accessible only to the MySQL server and to users with a legitimate reason to view the log.

When the audit plugin initializes, it checks whether a file with the audit log file name already exists. If so, the plugin checks whether the file ends with an `</AUDIT>` tag and truncates the tag before writing any `<AUDIT_RECORD>` elements. If the log file exists but does not end with `</AUDIT>` or the `</AUDIT>` tag cannot be truncated, the plugin considers the file malformed and fails to initialize. This can occur if the server exits unexpectedly with the audit log plugin running. No logging occurs until the problem is rectified. Check the error log for diagnostic information:

```
[ERROR] Plugin 'audit_log' init function returned error.
```

To deal with this problem, either remove or rename the malformed log file and restart the server.

**Audit Log File Format**

To control the audit log file format, set the `audit_log_format` system variable at server startup. By default, the format is `OLD` (old-style XML format). For information about available formats, see Section 6.2.3, “Audit Log File Formats”.

---

**Example:** `STATUS="1051"

- **STATUS_CODE**

  An unsigned integer representing the command status: 0 for success, 1 if an error occurred.

  The `STATUS_CODE` value differs from the `STATUS` value: `STATUS_CODE` is 0 for success and 1 for error, which is compatible with the EZ_collector consumer for Audit Vault. `STATUS` is the value of the `mysql_errno()` C API function. This is 0 for success and nonzero for error, and thus is not necessarily 1 for error.

  **Example:** `STATUS_CODE="0"

- **USER**

  A string representing the user name sent by the client. This may differ from the `PRIV_USER` value.

- **VERSION**

  An unsigned integer representing the version of the audit log file format.

  **Example:** `VERSION="1"`
Note

Changing the value of `audit_log_format` can result in writing log entries in one format to an existing log file that contains entries in a different format. To avoid this issue, use the following procedure:

1. Stop the server.
2. Either change the value of the `audit_log_file` system variable so the plugin writes to a different file, or rename the current audit log file manually.
3. Restart the server with the new value of `audit_log_format`. The audit log plugin creates a new log file and writes entries to it in the selected format.

Audit Logging Write Strategy

The audit log plugin can use any of several strategies for log writes. Regardless of strategy, logging occurs on a best-effort basis, with no guarantee of consistency.

To specify a write strategy, set the `audit_log_strategy` system variable at server startup. By default, the strategy value is `ASYNCHRONOUS` and the plugin logs asynchronously to a buffer, waiting if the buffer is full. It's possible to tell the plugin not to wait (`PERFORMANCE`) or to log synchronously, either using file system caching (`SEMISYNCHRONOUS`) or forcing output with a `sync()` call after each write request (`SYNCHRONOUS`).

For asynchronous write strategy, the `audit_log_buffer_size` system variable is the buffer size in bytes. Set this variable at server startup to change the buffer size. The plugin uses a single buffer, which it allocates when it initializes and removes when it terminates. The plugin does not allocate this buffer for nonasynchronous write strategies.

Asynchronous logging strategy has these characteristics:

- Minimal impact on server performance and scalability.
- Blocking of threads that generate audit events for the shortest possible time; that is, time to allocate the buffer plus time to copy the event to the buffer.
- Output goes to the buffer. A separate thread handles writes from the buffer to the log file.

With asynchronous logging, the integrity of the log file may be compromised if a problem occurs during a write to the file or if the plugin does not shut down cleanly (for example, in the event that the server host exits unexpectedly). To reduce this risk, set `audit_log_strategy` to use synchronous logging.

A disadvantage of `PERFORMANCE` strategy is that it drops events when the buffer is full. For a heavily loaded server, the audit log may have events missing.

Audit Log File Space Management and Name Rotation

The audit log file has the potential to grow very large and consume a lot of disk space. To enable management of the space used by its log files, the audit log plugin provides the `audit_log_rotate_on_size` and `audit_log_flush` system variables, which control audit log file rotation and flushing. Rotation can be done manually, or automatically based on file size.

**Manual audit log file rotation.** By default, `audit_log_rotate_on_size=0` and there is no log rotation except that which you perform manually. In this case, the audit log plugin closes and reopens the log file when the `audit_log_flush` value changes from disabled to enabled. Log file renaming must be done externally to the server. Suppose that the log file name is `audit.log` and you want to maintain the three most recent log files, cycling through the names `audit.log.1` through `audit.log.3`. On Unix, perform rotation manually like this:

1. From the command line, rename the current log files:
At this point, the plugin is still writing to the current log file, which has been renamed to `audit.log.1`.

2. Connect to the server and flush the log file so the plugin closes it and reopens a new `audit.log` file:

```sql
SET GLOBAL audit_log_flush = ON;
```

**Automatic size-based audit log file rotation.** If `audit_log_rotate_on_size` is greater than 0, setting `audit_log_flush` has no effect. Instead, whenever a write to the log file causes its size to exceed the `audit_log_rotate_on_size` value, the audit log plugin closes the file, renames it, and opens a new log file.

The renamed file has a timestamp and `.xml` added to the end. For example, if the file name is `audit.log`, the plugin renames it to a value such as `audit.log.15081807937726520.xml`. The last 7 digits are a fractional second part. The first 10 digits are a Unix timestamp value that can be interpreted using the `FROM_UNIXTIME()` function:

```sql
mysql> SELECT FROM_UNIXTIME(1508180793);
+---------------------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FROM_UNIXTIME(1508180793)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2017-10-16 14:06:33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

**Note**

With size-based log file rotation, renamed log files do not rotate off the end of the name sequence. Instead, they have unique names and accumulate indefinitely. To avoid excessive space use, remove old files periodically, backing them up first as necessary.

### 6.2.5 Audit Log Filtering

The `audit_log_policy` system variable controls what kinds of information the plugin writes. By default, this variable is set to `ALL` (write all auditable events), but also permits values of `LOGINS` or `QUERIES` to log only login or query events, or `NONE` to disable logging.

### 6.2.6 Audit Log Option and Variable Reference

**Table 6.8 Audit Log Option and Variable Reference**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Cmd-Line</th>
<th>Option File</th>
<th>System Var</th>
<th>Status Var</th>
<th>Var Scope</th>
<th>Dynamic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audit-log</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_buffer_size</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_file</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_flush</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_format</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_policy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_rotate_on_size</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_strategy</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Global</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.7 Audit Log Options and System Variables

This section describes the command options and system variables that control operation of MySQL Enterprise Audit. If values specified at startup time are incorrect, the audit log plugin may fail to initialize properly and the server does not load it. In this case, the server may also produce error messages for other audit log settings because it will not recognize them.

To control activation of the `audit_log` plugin, use this option:

- `--audit-log[=value]`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td><code>--audit-log[=value]</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Enumeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Values</td>
<td>OFF, FORCE, FORCE_PLUS_PERMANENT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This option controls how the server loads the `audit_log` plugin at startup. It is available only if the plugin has been previously registered with `INSTALL PLUGIN` or is loaded with `--plugin-load`. See Section 6.2.1, "Installing MySQL Enterprise Audit".

The option value should be one of those available for plugin-loading options, as described in Installing and Uninstalling Plugins. For example, `--audit-log=FORCE_PLUS_PERMANENT` tells the server to load the plugin at startup and prevents it from being removed while the server is running.

This option was added in MySQL 5.5.28.

If the audit log plugin is enabled, it exposes several system variables that permit control over logging:

```
mysql> SHOW VARIABLES LIKE 'audit_log%';
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable_name</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_buffer_size</td>
<td>1048576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_file</td>
<td>audit.log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_flush</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_policy</td>
<td>ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_rotate_on_size</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit_log_strategy</td>
<td>ASYNCHRONOUS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can set any of these variables at server startup, and some of them at runtime.

- `audit_log_buffer_size`
### Audit Log Options and System Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>1048576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Value</td>
<td>4096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Value</td>
<td>18446744073709547520 (64-bit platforms)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum Value</td>
<td>4294967295 (32-bit platforms)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the audit log plugin writes events to the log asynchronously, it uses a buffer to store event contents prior to writing them. This variable controls the size of that buffer, in bytes. The server adjusts the value to a multiple of 4096. The plugin uses a single buffer, which it allocates when it initializes and removes when it terminates. The plugin allocates this buffer only if logging is asynchronous.

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.

- **audit_log_file**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td>--audit-log-file=file_name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td>audit_log_file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>File name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>audit.log</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The name of the file to which the audit log plugin writes events. The default value is `audit.log`. If the file name is a relative path, the server interprets it relative to the data directory. For security reasons, the audit log file should be written to a directory accessible only to the MySQL server and to users with a legitimate reason to view the log.

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.

- **audit_log_flush**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td>audit_log_flush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Boolean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>OFF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When this variable is set to enabled (1 or ON), the audit log plugin closes and reopens its log file to flush it. (The value remains OFF so that you need not disable it explicitly before enabling it again to perform another flush.) Enabling this variable has no effect unless `audit_log_rotate_on_size` is 0.

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.
• **audit_log_format**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td>--audit-log-format=value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td>audit_log_format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Enumeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>OLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Values</td>
<td>OLD, NEW</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The audit log file format. Permitted values are OLD and NEW (default OLD). For details about each format, see Section 6.2.3, "Audit Log File Formats".

Changing the value of `audit_log_format` can result in writing log entries in one format to an existing log file that contains entries in a different format. To avoid this issue, use the procedure described at Audit Log File Format.

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.34.

• **audit_log_policy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td>--audit-log-policy=value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td>audit_log_policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Enumeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>ALL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Values</td>
<td>ALL, LOGINS, QUERIES, NONE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The policy controlling the information written by the audit log plugin to its log file. The following table shows the permitted values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALL</td>
<td>Log all events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NONE</td>
<td>Log nothing (disable the audit stream)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGINS</td>
<td>Log only login events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUERIES</td>
<td>Log only query events</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.
Audit Log Options and System Variables

- **audit_log_rotate_on_size**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td><code>--audit-log-rotate-on-size=#</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td><code>audit_log_rotate_on_size</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the `audit_log_rotate_on_size` value is 0, the audit log plugin does not perform automatic log file rotation. Instead, use `audit_log_flush` to close and reopen the log on demand. In this case, manually rename the file externally to the server before flushing it.

If the `audit_log_rotate_on_size` value is greater than 0, automatic size-based log file rotation occurs. Whenever a write to the log file causes its size to exceed the `audit_log_rotate_on_size` value, the audit log plugin closes the current log file, renames it, and opens a new log file.

For more information about audit log file rotation, see [Audit Log File Space Management and Name Rotation](#).

If you set this variable to a value that is not a multiple of 4096, it is truncated to the nearest multiple. (Thus, setting it to a value less than 4096 has the effect of setting it to 0 and no rotation occurs, except manually.)

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.

- **audit_log_strategy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command-Line Format</td>
<td><code>--audit-log-strategy=value</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced</td>
<td>5.5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Variable</td>
<td><code>audit_log_strategy</code></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Enumeration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Value</td>
<td>ASYNCHRONOUS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Values</td>
<td>ASYNCHRONOUS, PERFORMANCE, SEMISYNCHRONOUS, SYNCHRONOUS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The logging method used by the audit log plugin. These strategy values are permitted:

- **ASYNCHRONOUS**: Log asynchronously. Wait for space in the output buffer.
- **PERFORMANCE**: Log asynchronously. Drop requests for which there is insufficient space in the output buffer.
• **SEMISYNCHRONOUS**: Log synchronously. Permit caching by the operating system.

• **SYNCHRONOUS**: Log synchronously. Call `sync()` after each request.

This variable was added in MySQL 5.5.28.

### 6.2.8 Audit Log Restrictions

MySQL Enterprise Audit is subject to these general restrictions:

• Only SQL statements are logged. Changes made by no-SQL APIs, such as memcached, Node.js, and the NDB API, are not logged.

• Only top-level statements are logged, not statements within stored programs such as triggers or stored procedures.

• Contents of files referenced by statements such as `LOAD DATA` are not logged.

**NDB Cluster.** It is possible to use MySQL Enterprise Audit with MySQL NDB Cluster, subject to the following conditions:

• All changes to be logged must be done using the SQL interface. Changes using no-SQL interfaces, such as those provided by the NDB API, memcached, or ClusterJ, are not logged.

• The plugin must be installed on each MySQL server that is used to execute SQL on the cluster.

• Audit plugin data must be aggregated amongst all MySQL servers used with the cluster. This aggregation is the responsibility of the application or user.
Appendix A MySQL 5.5 FAQ: Security

Questions

• A.1: Where can I find documentation that addresses security issues for MySQL?
• A.2: What is the default authentication plugin in MySQL 5.5?
• A.3: Does MySQL 5.5 have native support for SSL?
• A.4: Is SSL support built into MySQL binaries, or must I recompile the binary myself to enable it?
• A.5: Does MySQL 5.5 have built-in authentication against LDAP directories?
• A.6: Does MySQL 5.5 include support for Roles Based Access Control (RBAC)?

Questions and Answers

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

The best place to start is Chapter 1, Security.

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

• Section 2.1, “Security Guidelines”.
• Section 2.3, “Making MySQL Secure Against Attackers”.
• How to Reset the Root Password.
• Section 2.5, “How to Run MySQL as a Normal User”.
• UDF Security Precautions.
• Section 2.4, “Security-Related mysqld Options and Variables”.
• Section 2.6, “Security Issues with LOAD DATA LOCAL”.
• Chapter 3, Postinstallation Setup and Testing.
• Chapter 5, Using Encrypted Connections.

A.2: What is the default authentication plugin in MySQL 5.5?

The default authentication plugin in MySQL 5.5 is mysql_native_password. For information about this plugin, see Section 6.1.1, “Native Pluggable Authentication”. For general information about pluggable authentication and other available authentication plugins, see Section 4.10, “Pluggable Authentication”, and Section 6.1, “Authentication Plugins”.

A.3: Does MySQL 5.5 have native support for SSL?

Most 5.5 binaries have support for SSL connections between the client and server. See Chapter 5, Using Encrypted 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 5.5, “Connecting to MySQL Remotely from Windows with SSH”.

A.4: Is SSL support built into MySQL binaries, or must I recompile the binary myself to enable it?
Most 5.5 binaries have SSL enabled for client/server connections that are secured, authenticated, or both. See Chapter 5, *Using Encrypted Connections*.

**A.5: Does MySQL 5.5 have built-in authentication against LDAP directories?**

The Enterprise edition includes a PAM Authentication Plugin that supports authentication against an LDAP directory.

**A.6: Does MySQL 5.5 include support for Roles Based Access Control (RBAC)?**

Not at this time.