

# HCL OneDB 2.0.1

# **OneDB Security Guide**

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# Chapter 1. Security in HCL OneDB™

The *HCL OneDB™ Security Guide* documents methods for keeping your data secure by preventing unauthorized viewing and altering of data or database objects, including how to use the secure-auditing facility of the database server.

This information is for the following users:

- · Database administrators
- · Database server administrators
- · Operating system administrators
- · Database system security officers

# Securing data

This section contains information about methods for keeping your data secure by preventing unauthorized viewing and altering of data or other database objects.

# HCL OneDB™ directory security

HCL OneDB™ utilities and product directories are secure by default.

- The database server utilities check security before and after the database server starts. See Utilities for checking directory security (UNIX) on page 3.
- The directory permissions of the installation path and key subdirectories must meet security requirements to prevent attacks on HCL OneDB™ programs. See Installation path security requirements (UNIX) on page 5.
- The onsecurity utility checks the security of the directories of the installation path. When you run this utility manually or when you install HCL OneDB™ Version 11.50.xC4 (or later version), you are notified of potentially dangerous directory permissions and how to correct the problems. See The onsecurity utility (UNIX) on page 7.
- You cannot continue to use many programs with the database server if a security problem in \$ONEDB\_HOME or its subdirectories arises. See Securing \$ONEDB\_HOME and its subdirectories on page 12
- Most HCL OneDB™ utilities run as secure users and belong to a secure group. See Users and group membership for running utilities on page 14
- The chunk files that hold the data for HCL OneDB™ must be secure also. See Security of the chunk files on page 15.
- Use the DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH configuration parameter to control the location from which shared objects, such as
  external modules, can be loaded. See Security for loading external modules on page 16.

# Utilities for checking directory security (UNIX™)

The database server utilities make security checks before the database server starts.

To provide increased security, key server utilities check if your environment is secure. Before the database server starts, the following settings must be unchanged from the settings established during installation:

- The permissions on directories in the installation path. When you install a new version of your database server, follow the installation instructions to ensure that the permissions of all key files and directories are set appropriately. If you change the path permissions after installation in such a way that the server utilities detect that the path is not secure, HCL OneDB™ will not start.
- The permissions on <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME</code> and its subdirectories. For each directory, the database server checks that the directory exists, that it is owned by user **onedb** and the correct group (as shown in Installation path security requirements (UNIX) on page 5), and that directory permissions do not include write permissions for the group or other users.
- The permissions on the onconfig file.

The configuration file must belong to the Database Server Administrator (DBSA) group. If the DBSA group is **onedb** (the default group), the <code>onconfig</code> file must be owned by user **onedb**; otherwise, the ownership is not restricted. The file must not have write permissions for others.

• The permissions on the sqlhosts file.

Under the default configuration, the sqlhosts file is located in the <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/etc</code> directory. The owner must be user **onedb**, the group must be either the **onedb** group or the DBSA group, and the file must not have public write permissions. If the file is specified through an <code>ONEDB\_SQLHOSTS</code> environment variable, the owner and group are not checked; however, public write permissions are not permitted.

· File name lengths.

The length of the onconfig file name in SONEDB\_HOME/etc must be less than 256 bytes.

If the tests for any of these conditions fail, the utilities exit with an error message.

Utilities check that the path specified by the ONEDB\_HOME environment variable is secure whenever you attempt to start major programs like oninit, onmode, etc. The security check stops programs from starting if the \$ONEDB\_HOME path is not secure to help prevent the possibility that attackers can change software that is secure to software that is not secure. Use the onsecurity utility to diagnose the problem, and in some cases, to change directory permissions.

In rare circumstances, troubleshooting security issues can require that utilities that run as root user or user **onedb** can start in a nonsecure environment temporarily (that is, root and user **onedb** are not stopped by the utilities that detect a security problem in the  $\$ONEDB\_HOME$  path). See the IFX\_NO\_SECURITY\_CHECK environment variable documentation in the HCL  $OneDB^{m}$  Guide to SQL: Reference for more information.

The installation media for HCL OneDB $^{\text{TM}}$ , Version 11.50.xC4 and later completes a security check on the selected destination path before the binary files are copied to the target host computer. See the security-related documentation in the latest version of HCL OneDB $^{\text{TM}}$  Installation GuideHCL OneDB $^{\text{TM}}$  Installation Guide for UNIX $^{\text{TM}}$ , Linux $^{\text{TM}}$ , and Mac OS X for more information.

The onsecurity utility is available on your host computer as a stand-alone tool to check directory permissions of the path specified by the ONEDB\_HOME environment variable after you have installed HCL OneDB™, Version 11.50.xC4 and later versions. The onsecurity utility is copied to \$ONEDB\_HOME/bin.

## Installation path security requirements (UNIX™)

The owner, group, and write access settings of the directories in the installation path and key subdirectories must be secure to prevent attacks on HCL OneDB™ programs.

HCL OneDB™ checks directory permissions when it is started to help prevent security breaches, such as a denial-of-service attack or a time-of-check, time-of-use (TOCTOU) attack (also known as a race condition).

The installation path is secure when each directory in it (from the root directory to the installation directory) meets all of the following conditions:

- The user that owns the directory is trusted.
- Either the group that owns the directory is trusted or the group cannot write in the directory.
- There is no public write access to the directory. A directory with public write access is inherently not secure because any user can move or rename the directory or a file within it.

The main installation directory must be owned by user **onedb**, must belong to group **onedb**, and must not have public write permission. Typically, no user requires write permission on the directory, but in many environments user **onedb** is granted this permission.

To complete a transaction on the database server that requires trusted privileges, a user must have a user name and belong to a group that matches the names of corresponding, trusted entities that exist on the computer. If a user or group name is not in the environment, the name is not trusted.

## Trusted users and groups (UNIX™)

A trusted user or a trusted group is a user or group that you empower with administering the database server and other important systems.

#### **Trusted users**

To run HCL OneDB™ securely, you must trust the following users on your host computer:

#### root

The host environment is not secure unless you can trust anyone who has been legitimately designated a superuser.

## bin and sys

Some environments have these user accounts set up to own programs in system directories such as /bin and /usr/lib when the owner is not **root**.

#### informix

The database server is not secure unless you can trust anyone who has been legitimately given the most authoritative privileges over the HCL OneDB™ instance.

## **Trusted groups**

You must also trust the following groups:

#### • Group informix

Because group **informix** must have read and write permissions on the chunk files that hold data, any user in this group can read or modify any unencrypted data in a database. The only user that belongs to group **informix** is user **informix**.

Because group **informix** must have read and write permissions on the chunk files that hold data, any user in this group can read or modify any data in a database. The only user that belongs to group **informix** is user **informix**.

• Group ID 0 (zero)

This group typically has authority over many key directories. The name of the account with group ID 0 varies across operating systems: group **root**, group **wheel** or group **system**.

• Groups bin and sys (when present)

These groups typically administer system files and directories that do not belong to group root.

## Secure directory permissions (UNIX™)

The installation directory and its subdirectories require specific permissions, depending on each directory's function.

Table 1. Secure permissions for the installation directory and subdirectories

Subdirectory	Owner	Group	Permissions (octal)
. (\$ONEDB_HOME)	informix	informix	755
bin	informix	informix	755
lib	informix	informix	755
gls	informix	informix	755
msg	informix	informix	755
etc	informix	DBSA	775
aaodir	informix	AAO	775
dbssodir	informix	DBSSO	775
tmp	informix	informix	770

See Administrative roles and role separation on page 136 for more information about Database Server Administrator (DBSA), Audit Analysis Officer (AAO), and Database System Security Officer (DBSSO) groups.

## The onsecurity utility (UNIX™)

The onsecurity utility checks the security of a file, directory, or path. It also troubleshoots the security problems if any are detected.

#### **Purpose**

Use the onsecurity command for one or more of the following purposes:

- Check whether a path leading to a directory or a file is secure.
- · Generate diagnostic output that explains the nature of the security problem.
- Generate a script that can be run user root to remedy the security problems. You can use the script as generated or
  modify it to meet your environment's security requirements.
- For special circumstances only, specify that particular users, groups, or directories that are normally not trusted can be trusted by the HCL OneDB™ utilities. Add the information to files in the /etc/onedb directory.

Most frequently, when you run the command on the HCL OneDB™ installation path, you receive a message that the path is secure. If the path is secure, you are not required to do any further work with the utility for the path.



**Important:** The onsecurity utility itself cannot change file permissions. It supports an extensive set of options by which you can specify how you would like the problem fixed, and upon request, it generates a script that user root can run to modify permissions or settings. Changes to file or directory permissions can result from user root



running the script that onsecurity generates, but changes to permissions or settings cannot be made directly by any onsecurity command.

## **Syntax**

```
Options

"[-ggroup]"

"[-uuser]"

"[-i]"

"[-n]"

"[-e]"

"[-e]"

"[-d] [{-t | -v | -q}][-r <fix actions>]"

Fix actions

"[-o {chmod | chgrp [=group] | add}]"

"[-o {chmod | add}]"
```

## **Parameters**

The following table identifies the syntax terms of the onsecurity syntax diagram.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
path	Specifies the directory or file path that the utility analyzes.	
group	Specifies a group name or a group number.	
user	Specifies a user name or user number.	

The following table describes valid options for the onsecurity command.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-d	Prints debugging information.	Implies the -v option.
-h	Prints a help message listing the supported options and their functions.	
-V	Prints short version information and exits the command-line utility.	
-version	Prints extended version information and exits the command-line utility.	
-t	Prints a terse analysis of the path only if a security problem is detected.	
-v	Prints a verbose analysis of the path, regardless of whether a security problem is detected .	
-q	Runs the command in quiet mode. The command prints no information but just exits with a status of either 0 (all paths are secure) or 1 (at least one part of a path is not secure).	when you use this option, even if the path is not
-r	Generates recommendation about how to fix security problems on the path, if there are any.	If the utility detects a security problem in the path, it prints a diagnosis of the problem in a shell script that user <b>root</b> can run to fix the security problem.  Review the suggested remedy before running the
		script.
-g group	Designates the specified group as trusted for this run of the onsecurity command. Other utilities do not trust this group. A group specified by this option is not added to the list of trusted groups in the /etc/onedb subdirectory.	If the specified group is already a trusted group, this option has no effect on the diagnostic output or the generated script.
-u user	Designates the specified user as trusted for this run of the onsecurity command. Other utilities do not trust this user. A user specified by this option is not added to the list of trusted users in the /etc/onedb subdirectory.	If the specified user is already a trusted user, this option has no effect on the diagnostic output or the generated script.
-i	Directs the onsecurity command to process directories belonging to user and group <b>informix</b> as not trusted.	This option is generally more useful in checking the path security of non-HCL OneDB™ software.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-n	Directs the onsecurity command to process directories belonging to a system user or system group, such as sys or bin, as not trusted.	
-е	Directs the onsecurity command to not check files in /etc/onedb.	
-p	Runs the onsecurity command in a mode that is appropriate for non-root installations.	When you run the command with the -p option on a path to a non-root installation, you are adding your user login name to the list of trusted users. Also, when you run the command, this option:
		<ul> <li>Processes directories belonging to user and group informix as not trusted.</li> <li>Excludes files in /etc/onedb from the security check.</li> </ul>
-G fix action	Configure the security script that onsecurity generates so that directories with nonsecure group permissions are set as indicated by the specified action.	If you do not specify the -G option, the command assumes that you intended to specify -G chmod.
-U fix action	Configure the security script that onsecurity generates so that directories with nonsecure user permissions are set as indicated by the specified action.	If you do not specify the -U option, the command assumes that you intended to specify -U chown.
-O fix action	Configure the security script that onsecurity generates so that directories with nonsecure write access settings are set as indicated by the specified action.	If you do not specify the -O option, the command assumes that you intended to specify -O chmod.
chgrp [=group]	Changes the current group to the group that you specify.	If you do not specify a group, changes the group to group 0 (which is called <b>root</b> , <b>wheel</b> , or <b>system</b> , depending on your operating system).
chown [=user]	Changes the current owner to the user that you specify as a fix action.	If you do not specify a user, changes the owner to user <b>root</b> .
chmod	Removes write access of the group or user on directories, depending on whether the -G or -O option is invoked prior.	

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
add	<ul> <li>With -G option: Adds current nonsecure group assigned to directory to the /etc/onedb/trusted.gids file</li> <li>With -U option: Adds current nonsecure owner of directory to the /etc/onedb/trusted.uids file</li> <li>With -O option: Adds nonsecure directories to the etc/onedb/trusted.insecure.dir ectories file</li> </ul>	Important: Use the add option in the onsecurity command only if there is no acceptable alternative. onsecurity -O add is particularly hazardous if you are not vigilant about the security of your system after running the command. You must not use the -O add option.

### **Usage**

When the onsecurity utility detects a problem, it is crucial that you fix the problem before running any of the other HCL OneDB™ utilities because they will exit reporting the same problem. Use the -r option to view the recommended actions to correct detected security flaws. If after reading the diagnostic output you realize that you want to configure the script to override the database server's security mechanisms to allow certain nonsecure users, groups, or directory permissions in the installation path, you can use the -r option with -G, -U, or -O.

When you use the -r option, a script is written to standard output that would fix security problems. The script is not run by the onsecurity utility. A user who has root privileges must review the proposed fix before running the script. The script cannot be run by a user who does not have root privileges.

To run the onsecurity utility so that it does not flag a specific group or specific user as a security problem, you can use the -g and -u options. For example, if you added -g 8714 or -g ccusers to the command line, the onsecurity utility would not report that the group is untrusted.

The -g and -u options do not change any directory settings and do not change what constitutes secure settings for the database server. These options affect only the diagnostic output of onsecurity; not the trusted entities in the /etc/onedb/subdirectories and not the script generated with the -r option.

The -p option is only useful for checking the security of a non-root installation path. This option implicitly has the properties of the -i, -e, and -u options.

#### **Examples**

The following example shows the output from running the onsecurity utility on a path that is secure:

```
$ onsecurity /usr/informix/11.50.FC4
# /usr/informix/11.50.FC4 resolves to /work4/informix/Operational/11.50.FC4
(path is trusted)
```

In the preceding example, the specified path /usr/informix/11.50.FC4 traverses at least one symbolic link to end up at the actual directory /work4/informix/Operational/11.50.FC4, but the whole path is secure.

The following example shows the output from running onsecurity on a path that is not secure:

```
$ onsecurity /work/informix/ids-11
# !!! SECURITY PROBLEM !!!
# /work/informix/ids-11 (path is not trusted)
# Analysis:
# User
             Group
                           Mode Type Secure Name
      root 0 root 0755 DIR YES /
# 0
      root 0
                    root 0755 DIR YES /work
# 0
      unknown 8714 ccusers 0777 DIR NO /work/informix
# 203
# 200
      informix 102 informix 0755 DIR NO /work/informix/ids-11
# Name: /work/informix
# Problem: owner <unknown> (uid 203) is not trusted
# Problem: group ccusers (gid 8714) is not trusted but can modify the directory
# Problem: the permissions 0777 include public write access
```

In the preceding example, the informix directory of the path /work/informix has the following security flaws:

- · the owner of this directory is not a trusted user
- · the group that controls the directory is not trusted
- · the directory has public write access

## Securing \$ONEDB\_HOME and its subdirectories

When the \$ONEDB\_HOME directory is not secure, run a security script to reset directory permissions.

#### About this task

To secure the \$ONEDB\_HOME directory and its subdirectories, you can run the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc/fix-installdir-security script as user **root** or generate a security script to run with the onsecurity utility.

To generate a security script:

- 1. Run the following command to generate the secure.sh script: \$ONEDB\_HOME/bin/onsecurity-r \$ONEDB\_HOME
- 2. Run the secure.sh script to secure the installation path:

#### Choose from:

UNIX and Linux: \$ONEDB\_HOME/tmp/secure.sh

#### What to do next

Although user **informix** has permission to run the script, the script cannot fix the problems unless the directory is owned by user **informix**. The database server message indicates what still must be fixed. The script also shows files and directories under \$ONEDB\_HOME that belong to an unexpected owner or group or have public write permission.

## Disabling the security check of \$ONEDB\_HOME and subdirectories

You must never disable security checking on \$ONEDB\_HOME, but you can partially disable the automatic security check of a specific installation directory.

### About this task

This task is intended only if you have no other recourse in order to do essential work on the database server and can accept the consequences of disabling security on \$ONEDB\_HOME. If you disable the security checking, you must use the ifmx\_security.sh script to limit the number of SUID and SGID programs on your system.



**Important:** The following script causes HCL OneDB™ to run with an \$ONEDB\_HOME that has public write access, which can open up your system to security breaches.

To disable security checking:

As the user root, run the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc/record-installdir-is-insecure script.

#### Resul

After this script runs successfully, the warning messages still open when the utilities are run, but the programs continue. You can specify the value of \$ONEDB\_HOME on the command line as an argument to the script. Thus, you are not required to set \$ONEDB\_HOME in the **root** user environment.

#### Results

The record-installdir-is-insecure script creates a /etc/onedb directory (if necessary) that is owned by **root** and has 555 permissions. In this directory, the script creates a file named server-xx.xx.yyy that has 444 permissions. The xx.xx portion of the file name is the major version number and yyy portion is the fix pack number. This file lists the \$ONEDB\_HOME values for which security checking is disabled.

If you later upgrade HCL OneDB™, you will be prompted to verify that you want to continue using an \$ONEDB\_HOME that is not secure in the newer version.

# Security warnings and error messages at server startup (UNIX™)

If a security check that a server utility performs at startup detects a problem, the security check returns an error message or warning.

These messages are returned when the message file and internationalization support are unavailable. Therefore, the error messages do not have error numbers and are not translated.

The following list shows security-related messages that can open when startup of the database server is attempted. In most environments, the server utility automatically exits when it detects one of these problems.

- ONEDB\_HOME or ONCONFIG is too long. Maximum length for \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc/\$ONCONFIG is 255 characters.
- ONEDB\_ SQLHOSTS is too long. Maximum length is 255 characters.
- TBCONFIG is not supported and will not be used.
- User onedb not found.
- Group onedb not found.
- Could not access logical-file file name.
- Logical-file file name is not owned by user with id UID.
- $\bullet$  Logical-file file name not owned by group with id  ${\it GID}.$
- Logical-file file name has insecure mode mode.

The following table defines the variables used in the preceding messages.

Variable	Explanation
file name	A name of the file or directory
logical-file	onconfig, ONEDB_ SQLHOSTS, ONEDB_HOME, or ONEDB_HOME/xxx (where xxx is one of a number of subdirectories under \$ONEDB_HOME).  For example, if the ONEDB_HOME environment variable is set to /usr/onedb, the message might read: ONEDB_ SQLHOSTS /usr/onedb/etc/sqlhosts is not owned by the user with id 1234.
mode	An octal permissions value
UID	A user ID
GID	A group ID

# Users and group membership for running utilities

Most utilities run as secure users and belong to a secure group.

The following database server utilities are SUID root and SGID onedb:

- onaudit
- onbar\_d
- ondblog
- onedcu
- oninit
- onmode
- ON-Monitor
- onshowaudit
- onsmsync
- onsnmp
- onsrvapd
- ontape
- snmpdm

The following database server utilities are SGID onedb:

- oncheck
- onedpdu
- onlog
- onparams
- onspaces

- onstat
- xtree

**UNIX™** and **Linux™** only: The previous utilities do not run if the installation path is not secure. This is a security precaution to help prevent tampering with your HCL OneDB™ installation.



**Restriction:** You cannot use the following utilities on HDR secondary servers, remote stand-alone (RS) secondary servers, or shared disk (SD) secondary servers:

- · archecker
- HPL
- · dbimport
- dbexport
- dbload
- ondblog
- onload
- · onmonitor
- onparams
- · onperf
- · onshowaudit
- onsnmp
- onspaces
- onunload

# Security of the chunk files

For HCL OneDB™ security, store data in chunk files that are owned by user **onedb**, belong to group **onedb**, and have 660 permissions.

For non-root installations of HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$ , the owner of the installation must also own the chunk files where data is stored. Chunk files for non-root installations of HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  must have permissions set to 600.

The directory holding the chunk files must be secure, following the same rules as those that ensure the installation directory is secure. Similarly, all other files and directories configured for use by HCL OneDB™ must be secure.

You can use the onsecurity utility to check if there are security problems with the directory holding the chunk files. The utility prints a diagnosis of any such problems, and can suggest a way to fix them.

Do not use / tmp as the directory for any log files or dump files. However, it is generally safe to create and use a subdirectory such as / tmp/onedb if the subdirectory has appropriately restricted permissions. Typically, a subdirectory like / tmp/onedb is owned by user and group **onedb** and does not have any public access permissions.

## Security for loading external modules

Use the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** configuration parameter to control the location from which shared objects, such as external modules, can be loaded.

Use the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** configuration parameter to specify a comma-separated list of valid directory prefix locations from which the database server can load external modules, such as DataBlade® modules. **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** takes effect when the database server is restarted after the parameter has been set.

Use the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** configuration parameter to control the location from which shared objects can be loaded, and enforce policies and standards on the formats of the EXTERNAL NAME clause of the CREATE FUNCTION, CREATE PROCEDURE, and CREATE ROUTINE statements.

If the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** configuration parameter is not set or is not present in the onconfig file, security checks for loading external modules are not performed.

You must include in the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** settings every file system in which your security policy authorizes DataBlade® modules and UDRs to be located. DataBlade® modules provided with HCL® OneDB® are stored under the \$ONEDB\_HOME/extend directory. For extensibility to work properly when security is turned on, the string "\$ONEDB\_HOME/extend" must be part of **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH**.

For more information about the **DB\_LIBRARY\_PATH** configuration parameter, see the *HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Reference*.

## Network data encryption

Use network encryption to encrypt data transmitted between server and client, and between server and other server.

*Encryption* is the process of transforming data into an unintelligible form to prevent the unauthorized use of the data. To read an encrypted file, you must have access to a secret decryption key or password. Unencrypted data is called *plain text*; encrypted data is called *cipher text*. A *cipher* is an encryption-decryption algorithm.

## Enterprise replication and high availability network data encryption

You can configure network data encryption for Enterprise Replication and high availability clusters by using configuration parameters.

You can use Enterprise Replication and high availability encryption parameters to encrypt the data traffic between the servers participating in Enterprise Replication and high availability clusters (High-Availability Data Replication, remote stand-alone secondary servers, and shared disk secondary servers). High availability encryption works with Enterprise Replication encryption and each operates whether the other is enabled or not.

The following configuration parameters configure encryption for Enterprise Replication and high availability clusters:

- ENCRYPT\_CIPHERS: defines all ciphers and modes that can be used by the current database session
- ENCRYPT\_MAC: controls the level of message authentication code (MAC) generation
- ENCRYPT\_MACFILE: specifies a list of the full path names of MAC key files
- ENCRYPT\_SWITCH: defines the frequency at which ciphers or secret keys are renegotiated

- ENCRYPT\_CDR: sets the level of encryption for Enterprise Replication
- ENCRYPT\_HDR: enables or disables HDR encryption
- ENCRYPT\_SMX: sets the level of encryption for remote stand-alone and shared disk secondary servers

When working with each other, high availability and Enterprise Replication share the same **ENCRYPT\_CIPHERS**, **ENCRYPT\_MAC, ENCRYPT\_MACFILE** and **ENCRYPT\_SWITCH** configuration parameters.

• One network port must be configured for high availability.

For information about these configuration parameters, see HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Reference.

## Secure sockets layer protocol

Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) and its successor, Transport Layer Security (TLS), are communication protocols that use encryption to provide privacy and integrity for data communication through a reliable end-to-end secure connection between two points over a network.



Note: In this documentation, the same information applies to TLS as to SSL.

You can use SSL for the following connections:

- .NET Core Provider Driver for JDBC and SQLJ connections with HCL OneDB™
- HCL® OneDB® ESQL/C connections with HCL OneDB™
- HCL OneDB™ ODBC Driver connections with HCL OneDB™
- DB-Access connections
- · Enterprise Replication connections
- High-availability data replication (HDR) connections between an HDR primary server and one or more secondary servers of any type (HDR secondary, SD secondary, or RS secondary)
- Distributed transaction connections, which span multiple database servers
- The dbexport, dbimport, dbschema, and dbload utility connections
- · Connection Manager connections between servers in a cluster

### Digital certificates that exchange keys in SSL connections

SSL uses digital certificates, which are electronic ID cards issued by a trusted party, to exchange keys for encryption and server authentication.

The trusted entity that issues a digital certificate is known as a Certificate Authority (CA).

The CA issues a digital certificate for only a limited time. When the expiration date passes, you must acquire another digital certificate.

With SSL, the data that moves between a client and server is encrypted by a symmetric key algorithm. With a symmetric key algorithm, the same encryption key is used to encrypt and decrypt the data. In an SSL communication, both communication partners (SSL client and SSL server) use the same encryption key. As this key can be used to decrypt the data, it must

be kept a secret and shared only between the two SSL communication partners. Therefore, at the beginning of an SSL connection, an asymmetric key (private-public key) algorithm is used for the exchange of the secret symmetric key.

When a client attempts to connect to a secure server, an SSL handshake occurs. The handshake involves the following events:

- 1. The server sends its digital certificate to the client.
- 2. The client verifies the validity of the server digital certificate. For this to occur, the client must possess the digital certificate of the CA that issued the server digital certificate.

If the handshake succeeds, these events occur:

- 1. The client generates a random symmetric key and sends it encrypted to the server. For this encryption, the client uses the public part of the asymmetric key. This public key is contained in the server digital certificate.
- 2. The server receives the encrypted symmetric key and decrypts it with its private key.

Data encrypted with the public key can be decrypted only with the corresponding private key, which is only in the possession of the server. With that, it is guaranteed, that the symmetric key remains a secret, shared only between the client and the server.

As both the server and client now know the symmetric key, they can use it to encrypt the data transferred between server and client for the duration of the session. Data encryption and decryption with a symmetric key algorithm is much more efficient than with an asymmetric key algorithm. Therefore, the asymmetric key algorithm is only used to exchange the symmetric key at the beginning of an SSL connection. Then the symmetric key algorithm is used for the bulk of the data moved during the connection.

In a most simplistic setup for SSL communication, the SSL server only uses a single self-signed certificate. Therefore no involvement of a CA is needed. To authenticate the SSL server, an SSL client needs a copy of the server's self-signed certificate in its own client keystore. During the SSL handshake, the server sends its self-signed certificate to the client. The client looks for the copy of this certificate in its own keystore and compares the two certificates. An exact match is expected for the SSL handshake to succeed.

#### **Keystores that store SSL keys and digital certificates**

A keystore is a protected database that stores SSL keys and digital certificates. Both the client and server must have a keystore that stores the digital certificates used in SSL communication.

The keystore has the PKCS#12 standard format with encrypted content and a password is needed in order to access it. Therefore, both, the database server as well as the database client, need the respective password for their individual keystore in order to access it. To allow keystore access without providing the password interactively or upon startup of the database server or the database client, the keystore password can be stored in a password stash file in an encrypted format.

To stash the keystore password, use the utility "onkstash" and specify the file path name of the keystore and the cleartext password on the command line. The stash file is created with the same file path name but a different filename extension, "\*.stl".

To get the password when accessing their respective keystore, both, the database server as well as the database client, can use the password stash file if it exists at the expected location and has the correct filename extension.

For information about tools for creating the client and server keystores, also see the OpenSSL documentation at www.openssl.org.

#### The server keystore and its configuration

The keystore stores the server's own digital certificate and corresponding private key, as well as CA certificates for authenticating all other servers that HCL OneDB™ is connecting to. The server keystore must be located in the ONEDB\_HOME/ssl directory. The name of the keystore file must be server\_name.pl2, where server\_name is the value specified in the DBSERVERNAME configuration parameter.

Each HCL OneDB™ instance must have its own keystore.

Each certificate in the keystore must have a unique "friendly name" to be used as identifier for the certificate. When you set up HCL OneDB™ to use SSL, you must specify this "friendly name" of the server's own digital certificate with the SSL\_KEYSTORE\_LABEL configuration parameter in the server configuration file.

The keystore is protected by a password that HCL OneDB $^{\text{M}}$  must know so that it can access the digital certificates in the keystore for SSL communications. HCL OneDB $^{\text{M}}$  stores its keystore password in an encrypted form in a stash (.stl) file in the ONEDB\_HOME/ssl directory. The name of the keystore stash file must be  $server\_name$ . stl.

The password for the keystore is mandatory, because this password protects the server's private key in the keystore.

The permissions on the ONEDB\_HOME/ssl/server\_name.p12 and  $ONEDB_HOME/ssl/server_name.stl$  files must be 600, with onedb set as both the owner and the group, even though HCL OneDB $^{\text{M}}$  does not enforce these permissions.

## The client keystore and its configuration

The keystore on the HCL OneDB™ client stores the CA certificates needed for the authentication of all servers to which the client is connecting. A database client can retrieve its keystore password from a stash file. This stash file can be created with the utility **onkstash** to contain the keystore password in an encrypted form.

For HCL OneDB™ SQLI clients (ESQL/C, ODBC, DB-Access, and the dbexport, dbimport, dbschema, and dbload utilities), the location of the keystore and its stash file is not fixed. Instead, the conssl.cfg file in the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc directory specifies the keystore file and (optionally the stash file) for HCL OneDB™ clients.

The following table shows the client configuration parameters that are in the conssl.cfg file.

Table 2. Client configuration parameters in the conssl.cfg file

HCL® OneDB® Client Configuration	
Parameter	Description
SSL_KEYSTORE_ FILE	This is the fully qualified file name of the keystore that stores the CA certificates for authentication of all of the servers to which the client connects.
SSL_KEYSTORE_ STH	This is the fully qualified file name of the stash file containing the encrypted keystore password. This parameter is optional and is only needed if the stash file is at a location or has a file name different from the expected default.

If a conssl.cfg file does not exist or the SSL\_KEYSTORE\_FILE and SSL\_KEYSTORE\_STH configuration parameters are not set, the client uses <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/etc/client.pl2</code> and <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/etc/client.stl</code> as the default keystore and keystore stash file names for the client.

## Configuring a server instance for secure sockets layer connections

Configure the HCL OneDB $^{\text{m}}$  instance for Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) connections by adding connection information to the sqlhosts file, setting SSL configuration parameters, and configuring the keystore and the digital certificates it stores.

#### About this task



**Note:** Transport Layer Security (TLS) is the successor to SSL. In this documentation, the same information applies to TLS as to SSL.

To configure the HCL OneDB™ instance for SSL connections:

Update connection information in the sqlhosts file (UNIX™) or the SQLHOSTS registry (Windows™) to include information about SSL connections. Use the:

#### **Choose from:**

- onsocssl protocol for ESQL/C, ODBC, DB-Access, dbexport utility, dbimport utility, dbschema utility, or dbload utility connections
- $^{\circ}$  drsocssl protocol for DRDA® connections

#### **Example**

The following table shows an example of an sqlhosts file configured for both SSL and non-SSL connections.

Table 3. Example of sqlhosts file configured for SSL connections

Server Name	Protocol	Host Name	Server Name
server1_on	onsoctcp	sanfranci	s1_on
		SCO	

Server Name	Protocol	Host Name	Server Name
sever1_on_ssl	onsocssl	sanfranci sco	s1_on_ssl
server1_dr_ssl	drsocssl	sanfranci sco	s1_dr_ssl

For more information about the sqlhosts file or SQLHOSTS registry, see the HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Guide.

- 2. Update configuration parameters in the onconfig file, as follows:
  - a. Specify the friendly name of the server digital certificate in the SSL\_KEYSTORE\_LABEL configuration parameter.

The friendly name can contain up to 512 bytes.

For example, specify:

```
SSL_KEYSTORE_LABEL server1_ssl
```

b. Configure poll threads for SSL connections by using the **NETTYPE** configuration parameter.

If you do not configure poll threads, HCL OneDB™ starts one poll thread.

For the protocol, specify socssl.

For example, specify:

```
NETTYPE socssl,3,50,NET
```

c. Configure Encrypt Virtual Processors (VPs) for SSL encryption and decryption operations, by using the **VPCLASS** parameter.

If Encrypt VPs are not configured, HCL OneDB™ starts one Encrypt VP the first time an SSL operation occurs.

You can also use the onmode -p command to add or drop Encrypt VPs when the database server is in online mode.



Tip: For large systems, configure multiple Encrypt VPs.

d. If you want to control the version of the TLS protocol to be used, set the configuration parameter TLS\_VERSION accordingly.

For example, specify:

```
TLS_VERSION 1.1,1.2
```

to allow the use of TLS protocol versions 1.1 and 1.2, but disallow the use of TLS protocol version 1.0.

3. Set up a digital certificate, the keystore and its password stash file by using the OpenSSL utility openssl.

When you create the keystore, be sure to:

- Name the keystore as servername.p12, where servername is value of the DBSERVERNAME configuration parameter.
- Create the password stash file using the utility onkstash.
- $\circ$  Create the keystore and its stash file in the <code>ONEDB\_HOME/ssl directory</code>.
- $\circ$  Set the permissions on the <code>ONEDB\_HOME/ssl/server-name.p12</code> and <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/ssl/server-name.stl</code> files to 600, with <code>onedb</code> set as both the owner and the group, even though HCL OneDB $^{\text{M}}$  does not enforce these permissions.

#### For example, specify:

```
openssl genrsa -out server1.key.pem
openssl req -new -x509 -key server1.key.pem \
    -subj '/CN=OneDB Server 1' -days 365 -out server1.cert.pem
cat server1.key.pem server1.cert.pem > server1.all.pem
openssl pkcs12 -export -in server1.all.pem -name server1_ssl \
    -passout pass:server1passwd -out server1_on.p12
onkstash server1_on.p12 server1passwd
```



- The above commands create a simple keystore that contains just a single self-signed certificate. As such, the certificate is the server's own certificate and at the same time is to be used by the client in lieu of a real CA certificate when authenticating the server. In such a scenario there is no certificate from a CA involved.
- The PEM files contain the generated private key in unencrypted form. Therefore you may want to remove the PEM files after you have successfully created the keystore and its password stash file. Or at least move them to a safe place.

For information about the keystore, the password stash file, and digital certifications, see Secure sockets layer protocol on page 17.

#### What to do next

If any of the HCL OneDB™ utilities (such as DB-Access) must connect to the server by SSL, you must also configure a client keystore for the utility in the server environment, following the steps in Configuring a client for SSL connections on page 22.

## Configuring a client for SSL connections

Configure an ESQL/C, ODBC, DB-Access, dbexport, dbimport, dbschema, or dbload database client by adding connection information to the sqlhosts file, setting SSL configuration parameters, and configuring the keystore and the digital certificates it stores.

#### Before you begin

The client and the server must be enabled with a mutual TLS version. Set the TLS version on the server with the TLS\_VERSION configuration parameter.

#### About this task



**Note:** Transport Layer Security (TLS) is the successor to SSL. In this documentation, the same information applies to TLS as to SSL.

1. Update connection information in the sqlhosts file (UNIX™) or the SQLHOSTS registry (Windows™), by using the onsocssl protocol for SSL SQLI client connections.

#### **Example**

The following table shows an example of an sqlhosts file configured for these client connections.

Table 4. Example of sqlhosts file configured for

#### SSL SQLI client connections

Server Name	Protocol	Host Name	Server Name
sf_on	onsoctcp	sanfranci	sf_serv
		sco	
oak_on	onsocssl	oakland	oak_serv

2. Using a text editor, create a conssl.cfg file in the <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/etc</code> directory. The file must contain the following information:

#### Choose from:

- SSL\_KEYSTORE\_FILE information that specifies the fully qualified file name of the keystore that stores the CA
  certificates for authenticating all the servers to which the client connects
- SSL\_KEYSTORE\_STH information that specifies the fully qualified file name of the stash file containing the encrypted keystore password.

This parameter is optional and is only needed if the stash file is at a different location or has a different file name than the keystore file itself.

The format of the conssl.cfg file is:

```
Parameter Value # Comment
```

For example, the conssl.cfg file might contain this information:

```
SSL_KEYSTORE_FILE /work/keystores/ssl_client.p12 # Keystore file
```

Create the keystore.

The client keystore must contain all the certificates that are needed to authenticate the server during the SSL handshake.

Generally, these certificates are CA certificates. You get such CA certificates from the CA that signed the server's certificate. However, if the server's certificate is self-signed, then the client keystore must contain a copy of this self-

signed certificate in its keystore. In this case, you must extract that certificate from the server keystore and add it to the client keystore.

When you create the keystore, be sure that:

- · The name and location of the keystore and optional stash file are as specified in the conssl.cfg file.
- Permissions on the keystore and its stash file are set to 666, even though the permissions are not enforced.

For more information on the OpenSSL utility commands, see the OpenSSL documentation at http://www.openssl.org.

- If the certificate created for the server is self-signed:
  - a. Log on to the database server machine and extract the certificate from the server keystore:

```
openssl pkcs12 -in $ONEDB_SERVER.p12 \
  -passin pass:SERVERPASSWD \
  -out SSL_KEYSTORE_LABEL.cert.pem -nokeys
```

- b. Transfer the output file SSL\_KEYSTORE\_LABEL.cert.pem from the server machine to the client machine.
- c. Create the client keystore using the exported certificate in the PEM file as input:

```
openssl pkcs12 -export -out client.p12 \
  -passout pass:CLIENTPASSWD -in SSL_KEYSTORE_LABEL.cert.pem \
  -caname LABEL1 -nokeys
```



**Note:** You must specify the option "-caname ..." in order to give a "friendly name" to the certificate as identifier in the client keystore.

d. Use the utility onkstash to create the stash file with the keystore password:

```
onkstash client.p12 CLIENTPASSWD
```

- If your client connects to several different database servers or your database server has a CA-signed certificate:
  - a. Collect all the certificates needed for the authentication of each database server into a single PEM file:
    - For a database server that uses a single self-signed certificate, use a command as described above to extract that certificate from the server's keystore.
    - For a database server that uses a certificate signed by a CA, get all needed CA certificates from the CA.
    - In case there are duplicates in the collected certificates, eleminate all duplicates. Duplicate
      certificates may be collected e.g. when the same CA signed the certificates of several different
      database servers.
    - Concatenate all unique certificates into a single PEM file.
  - b. On the client machine, create the client keystore using the single PEM file with the unique certificates as input:

```
openssl pkcs12 -export -out client.p12 -passout pass:CLIENTPASSWD \
-in SINGLE_PEM_FILE -nokeys -caname LABEL1 -caname LABEL2 ...
```



**Note:** Make sure to specify the option "-caname ..." multiple times with an individual friendly name as unique identifier for each certificate in the input PEM file.

c. Use the utility onkstash to create the stash file with the keystore password:

onkstash client.p12 CLIENTPASSWD

## Background Knowledge on Keystores

This topic offers some generic insights into keystores and how they are used for secure communications with the TLS (Transport Layer Security) protocol. While the first part provides the theoretical background, the second part shows examples for applying this in practice using OpenSSL.

## Concepts of Keys, Certificates and Keystores for TLS

This section explains keystores for TLS/SSL (Transport Layer Security / Secure Socket Layer) connections between database clients and servers.

With the client-server architecture being the norm for database systems, the communication between the database client and the database server generally occurs over a network connection. While such a network connection may be completely inside a private network, like an intranet of a company, it can just as well include public sections using the internet. Especially connecting to the ever more popular servers and services in the cloud almost always involves sections of the public internet. In addition, new legislation, like the GDPR (General Data Protection Regulation) in the European Union, require a stronger protection for the privacy of data. Securing the communication between database client and server is an important aspect and a requirement to be taken seriously.

## A high level view of TLS/SSL

TLS and its meanwhile deprecated predecessor SSL are an evolving series of protocol versions that use various encryption algorithms to secure an individual connection between a client and a server. With regard to the OSI (Open Systems Interconnection) model, the TLS/SSL protocols are situated in the presentation layer. An important part of the protocol is the initial negotiation of encryption algorithms and methods that are to be used for the connection. This is also known as the SSL/TLS handshake. It allows a client and server with different capabilities to figure out, which protocol version, algorithms and methods to use in order to best comply with the given requirements.

The authentication of the communication partner during the TLS handshake is optional. Most commonly, only the client authenticates the server it connects to. With that, the client as connection initiator can rest assured to connect to the desired server and not to an imposter. Rarely, the server also authenticates the client as part of the TLS handshake. Often, client authentication is done by other means when the connection already is established and secured, for example, by requiring the user to provide some kind of user ID and password.

To encrypt the data transferred over a secure connection, the client and server must agree on an encryption key that they can use for the duration of the connection. As symmetric encryption is used, both communication partners must have the same encryption key and use it to encrypt data before sending it, as well as to decrypt received data. Obviously, this encryption key must remain a secret, shared only by the client and the server. Anybody else knowing this encryption key would be able to

eavesdrop on the communication, decrypt the data and thus be able to read the clear text. Therefore, this agreement on a symmetric encryption key, only shared between client and server, must be done in a secure way - before the communication data can be encrypted.

This can be done by using asymmetric encryption for the transfer of the secret symmetric encryption key during the TLS handshake. Asymmetric encryption uses a pair of encryption keys. The public key is used to encrypt data. This data can be decrypted only with the corresponding private key of the pair. Usually, the server owns both keys and sends the public key to the client. As this key is not a secret, it can be sent without encrypting it. The client generates a random key as the symmetric key to be used for the connection. It encrypts this symmetric key using the public key received from the server and then sends this encrypted symmetric key to the server. The server decrypts the symmetric key using the private key. With that, both communication partners now are in possession of the same symmetric key and can subsequently use it to encrypt all the data sent over the connection. As only the server posses the private key, nobody apart from the server can decrypt the encrypted symmetric key sent from the client to the server. With that, the transfer of the symmetric key from the client to the server is secure.

The symmetric encryption is computationally much more efficient than asymmetric encryption. Therefore, the asymmetric encryption is only used for the secure transfer of the relatively small symmetric key itself during the TLS handshake. Then symmetric encryption can be used for the bulk of the data transferred between client and server for the duration of the connection

## TLS handshake, certificates and public-private key pairs

TLS/SSL uses certificates of the X.509 v3 certificate standard for the authentication of the communication partner. The structure of such certificates is expressed in ASN.1 (Abstract Syntax Notation One) and therefore is very flexible. For a basic understanding of the authentication during the TLS handshake, only a few certificate components are considered here: the issuer name, the subject name, the subject public key and the certificate signature. Besides these, certificates have a defined begin and end date of their validity, a serial and a version number, among other components. The issuer and subject names are distinguished names that commonly contain fields like country, organization, organizational unit, distinguished name qualifier, state or province name, common name and a serial number. Less often used fields in a distinguished name are a locality, title, surname, given name, initials, pseudonyms and a generation qualifier. In some cases, an e-mail address is included in the common name field.

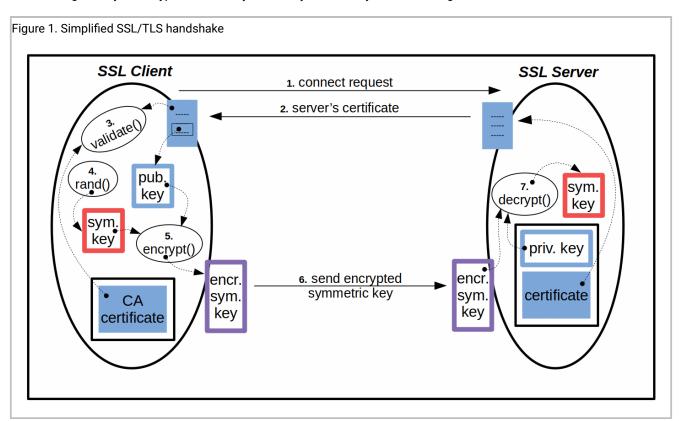
The issuer name is the distinguished name of the certificate issuer. Usually, the issuer of a certificate is a certificate authority (CA), an entity that is trusted by all communication partners. When issuing (or "signing") a certificate, the CA creates the certificate signature using its own private key and thereby confirms the validity of the certificate. In particular, this means that the subject public key of the certificate is bound to the subject name. The validity of the certificate signature in turn can be verified by using the public key of the CA. The CA's public key is contained in the CA's own certificate, the so called CA certificate.

The subject name is the distinguished name of the certificate owner, i.e. the person or entity that receives the issued certificate from the CA. Additional verification checks may be done by a CA to verify that the certificate owner really corresponds to the subject name. The subject public key is the public key for which the certificate owner posses the matching private key.

When a client authenticates a server, the client has already received the server's certificate. In this certificate, the client finds the issuer name, where the issuer normally is a CA. Using the issuer name, the client checks whether it has its own copy of this issuer's CA certificate. The client (hopefully) finds a copy of this CA certificate and uses the CA's public key in this CA certificate to verify the certificate signature in the server's certificate. As the client itself has its own copy of the CA certificate, the client trusts that this really is not a manipulated copy of the original CA certificate. And the client trusts the CA, i.e. that the CA issued and signed the server's certificate for this server (and not somebody else). With that, the client rests assured, that the server's certificate received from the server really is from this desired server (and not from an imposter). The client now has successfully authenticated the server and proceeds with the TLS handshake.

At this point, you may note that anyone could have previously received the server's certificate (or picked it up by eavesdropping) and use it to pose as the server. However, continuing with the TLS handshake, the client uses the public key in the server's certificate to encrypt the randomly created symmetric key for the connection. An imposter could receive this encrypted symmetric key, but would not be able to decrypt it, because only the real server posses the private key needed for the decryption. Therefore, a wannabe imposter, who only somehow obtained the server's certificate, cannot successfully establish a secure connection with the client.

As we have just seen, the server's certificate received by the client serves two purposes: For one, the client uses it to authenticate the server. But as the certificate also contains the server's public key, the client can extract it from the certificate and use it right away to encrypt the randomly created symmetric key before sending it to the server.



- 1. The SSL client sends a connect request to the SSL server.
- 2. The SSL server sends its own certificate to the SSL client.

- 3. The SSL client uses its own copy of the CA certificate to validate the server's certificate, i.e. authenticate the server.
- 4. The SSL client generates a random symmetric key.
- 5. The SSL client uses the public key from the server's certificate to encrypt the generated symmetric key.
- 6. The SSL client sends the encrypted symmetric key to the SSL server.
- 7. The SSL server uses its own private key to decrypt the received encrypted symmetric key.
- 8. Now both, SSL client and SSL server, have the same symmetric key and can start using it to encrypt and decrypt communication data.

Certificates and the corresponding keys play an important role in the TLS handshake. They need to be readily available for use during the TLS handshake. But at the same time they should be sufficiently protected. The server wants to keep its private key out of sight from everybody else. The server and the client also don't want anybody to manipulate the certificates. Especially the client wants to be sure that the CA certificates used to authenticate servers are authentic copies of the CA's original certificates rather than fake certificates planted by somebody else to falsely authenticate some fake server certificate. Therefore, both, the server as well as the client, use keystores to keep their key and certificates safe and accessible at the same time.

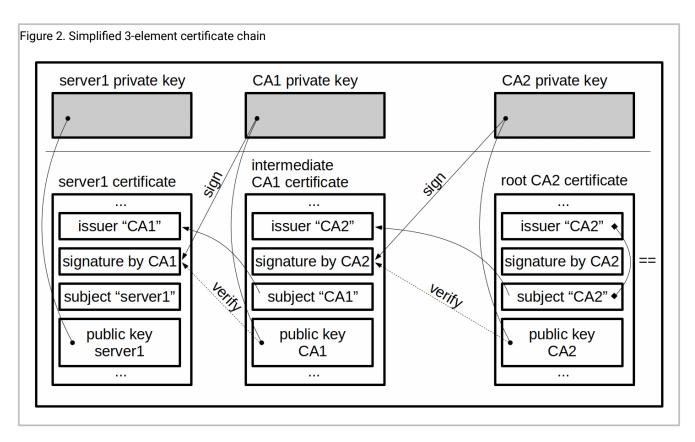
## Relationship between certificates and keys

For authentication purposes as in the TLS handshake, certificates and keys are pairs. The private key is kept separate, as it must remain private to its owner. The corresponding certificate not only contains information about the owner (subject) and issuer (as distinguished names), but also the public part of the private-public key pair, as well as a signature. The signature in the certificate is created by the issuer of the certificate. To create the signature, the issuer must use its own private key. This signature then can be verified using the public key of the issuer.

Normally, the server uses a certificate that is issued by a trusted third party, a certificate authority (CA). The certificate used by the server therefore is called a user certificate, or also server certificate. The CA certificate is the certificate of the CA that issued and signed the server certificate. The CA certificate contains the CA's public key needed by the client to verify the CA's signature in the server certificate. With that, the server owns its private key and the server certificate, whereas the client only possesses a copy of the CA certificate.

If the CA is trusted by all parties, then the CA certificate is issued and signed by the CA itself. In such a certificate the issuer name and the subject name are the same, and the certificate is called a root CA certificate. The client therefore only needs this root CA certificate to authenticate a server.

In some cases, a client may not directly trust the CA that issued a server certificate. In this case, the client possesses a copy of the CA certificate that in turn is issued and signed by yet another CA. The client sees that in the CA certificate the issuer and subject names are different. As the client does not trust this intermediate CA, the client also needs to find a root CA certificate that issued and signed the intermediate CA certificate. It becomes obvious, that this can recursively repeat itself for a couple of times, until the client finds a trusted root CA certificate. The certificates involved therefore build a so called certificate chain, with the server certificate at one end, the root CA certificate at the opposite end, and a varying number of intermediate CA certificates in the middle.



It is possible, that a server itself issues its own server certificate. Such a certificate is called a selfsigned (server) certificate. In this case, there is no CA involved, and the client does not need any CA certificate to authenticate the server. Instead, the client possesses an exact copy of the server's selfsigned certificate (received by "other means"). To authenticate a server, the client checks that the copy of the self-signed certificate in its own possession exactly matches the server certificate received during the TLS handshake.

## **Keystores**

The server as well as the client have reasons to keep their key and certificates needed for TLS/SSL communications in a safe place. The server mainly wants to make sure that its private key remains private. Whereas the client is concerned with the certificates being authentic, i.e. that they have not been manipulated. For both purposes a keystore is used to keep encryption keys and certificates in a safe and organized place. As an abstract concept, a keystore can be implemented in different ways: as a collection of files in a directory structure with restrictive access permissions, in some proprietary format of a "database file" or in a file with a standardized format. Keeping so called "PEM" files in a directory is an example for the first kind of keystores and can be used with OpenSSL. The proprietary "CMS" format of "\*.kdb" files implemented by IBM's GSKit is an example for the second kind. This section concentrates on the public PKCS #12 standard for keystore files, an example for the third implementation kind.

PKCS #12 defines a file format for storing different cryptography objects in a single file. It is part of the Public-Key Cryptography Standards (PKCS) family of standards published by RSA Laboratories. PKCS #12 is the successor to Microsoft's "PFX" and therefore offers some compatibility between these two formats.

In addition to (local) file keystores, there are also several remote keystore services. Proprietary examples of these are Amazon Web Services Key Management Service (AWS KMS) and Microsoft Azure Key Vault. Key Management Interoperability Protocol (KMIP) services are available from several vendors or providers and adhere to the public KMIP standard.

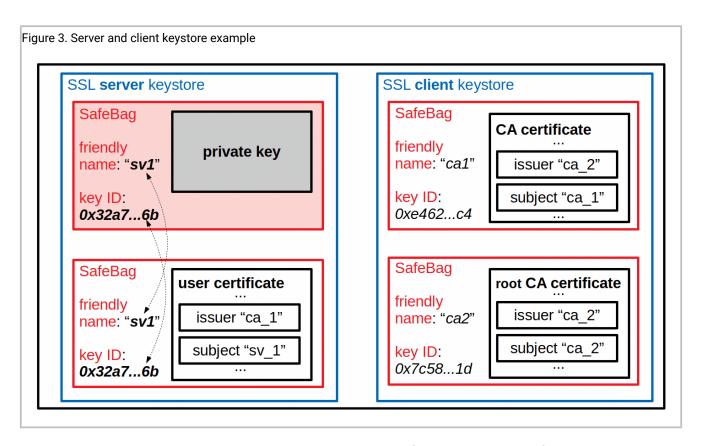
## Keystore content

Cryptography objects like a private key and certificates are stored in individual SafeBag containers within a PKCS #12 keystore file. Normally, at least the SafeBag containing a private key is encrypted using a PBE (password based encryption) method. The keystore file itself also can be encrypted, usually with the same password. With that, access to all content in a PKCS #12 keystore is secured with a password.

The Safebag containers can have several attributes. The most commonly used SafeBag attributes are a Friendly Name and a Key ID. These are used to identify the objects in the keystore and relate them to each other, as explained below. Especially the more human readable Friendly Name is useful for managing the objects in a keystore.

For SSL/TLS communications, the keystore of a server contains just one private key. And for a private key in a keystore, there also must be the corresponding user certificate with the public key of the key pair. The private key and the corresponding user certificate are stored in different SafeBags, because at least the SafeBag with the private key is encrypted. As the certificate is used publicly, the SafeBag containing it normally is not encrypted. The relation between the private key and the corresponding user certificate in their individual SafeBags is realized by both SafeBags having the same Friendly Name and the same Key ID attributes. The Friendly Name makes it also easy for an administrator to understand, which is the user certificate corresponding to the private key in a keystore.

Besides the private key and the corresponding user certificate, the keystore may contain additional certificates. These are then considered CA certificates. They could be the CA certificates from the certificate chain used for signing the server's user certificate, but could just as well be completely unrelated CA certificates. For a server it is normally sufficient to have its private key and the corresponding user certificate in the keystore. CA certificates can be present, but are not needed, because the server normally does not authenticate the client. For a client, the CA certificate(s) needed to authenticate the server must be in the keystore. The client does not need a private key and therefore also has no user certificate.



Client authentication during the TLS handshake is a seldom used option of the SSL/TLS protocol. If activated, the server asks the client for its own user certificate, sometimes also called client certificate. In this case, the client has its own private key and the corresponding user certificate in its keystore, and sends this user certificate to the server to fulfill the server's request. The server in turn needs the proper CA certificate(s) in its own keystore, so that it can use them to authenticate the client. These CA certificates are from the certificate chain that was used to issue and sign the client's user certificate. Often, both user certificates, the server's as well as the client's, are issued and signed by the same CA(s). Then the CA certificates in both keystores are the same. However, this is not a requirement. The user certificates of server and client can just as well be issued by different CAs.

### Certificate authorities

As explained before, a certificate authority (CA) is "an entity that is trusted by all communication partners". For TLS communication, this means that a CA is trusted to issue a user certificate only after having checked that the requester for the certificate really is who he says.

For TLS communication, CA is trusted to issue a user certificate only after having checked that the requester for the certificate really is who he says. The extent of this checking is of various degrees. Basic checking usually means verifying that the requester is the owner of the stated e-mail address and internet domain. More elaborate verification may include a proper postal address, entry in a trade register, and even more background checks. The more checking is performed, the trustworthier are the CA and the certificates it issues. These factors also have an effect on the price to be paid for the certificate. This applies mostly to public CAs.

Returning to the basic principle of "an entity that is trusted by all communication partners", a company or organization also can setup its own CA for all internal database communication. As long as all database servers and database clients reside e.g. within the same intranet, all in-house communication partners can agree upon and trust a "home-grown" CA that issues user certificates for the database servers and distributes its own CA certificates to the database clients. As a concept, this may even be acceptable for certain B2B communications, where a database client may be outside of the intranet. Still, the client may trust the CA certificate received from the company for access to a database service of this same company.

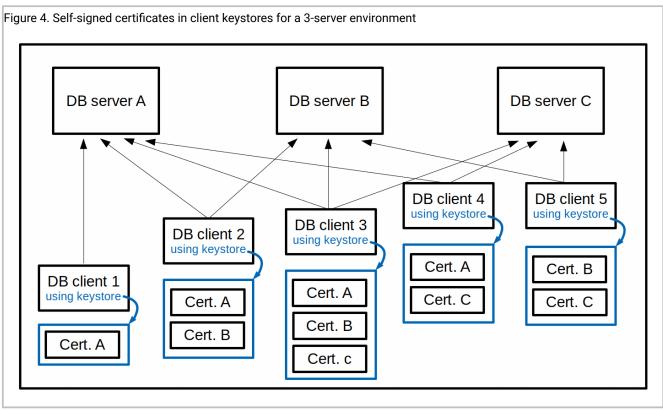
With that, the use of CAs can be divided into three basic categories:

- Using a public CA (and paying for the certificates issued).
- Setting up a home-grown CA (for a limited number of well known and trusting communication partners).
- Not using a CA at all (but only using self-signed certificates).

## Using only self-signed certificates

This is the simplest setup for TLS communications. The server only needs a private key and the corresponding self-signed certificate that contains the public key of the key pair. The client only needs an exact copy of the server's self-signed certificate. No CA certificate is needed. Therefore, it is not necessary to request a certificate from a public CA and pay for it, nor is it necessary to set up a home-grown CA to issue certificates for the server. The client receives the copy of the self-signed certificate from a trusted source, probably some system administrator for the in-house database environment. With that, such a setup is quite valid from a security point of view. And it is simple to implement, at least as long as clients connect to just one single SSL server.

However, as such a simple database environment grows over time and more database servers get added, things become more complex. A client that connects to more than one database server needs an exact copy of each individual server's self-signed certificate. Managing the database clients' keystores gets more complicated, as the keystores contain multiple self-signed certificates, probably with different expiration dates. If one of the certificates expires, it may be necessary to re-create the complete keystore, combining the still valid certificates with the new replacement for the one expired certificate. The same is necessary when a new database server gets added to the environment. Every database client that should connect to this new database server needs its existing keystore to be re-created by adding the new self-signed certificate of the new database server. In a rather dynamic environment, this can become an ongoing and quite tiresome task.



One "simple solution" in such an environment would be to give each database server the same selfsigned certificate with the same private key. That way, all database clients only need a copy of this one self-signed certificate and can use it to authenticate all database servers alike when connecting to them. The private key in such a scenario would no longer be very private. Most probably, any responsible security administrator will veto such an approach. A second "simple solution" might be to give each database client the same keystore with all the self-signed certificates of all the database servers, regardless of whether an individual database client needs all of them or not. Still, changes in the database server landscape require

Using a CA is far easier in a dynamic environment with more frequent changes in the database server landscape,

# Setting up a home-grown certificate authority (CA)

updating of all database client keystores.

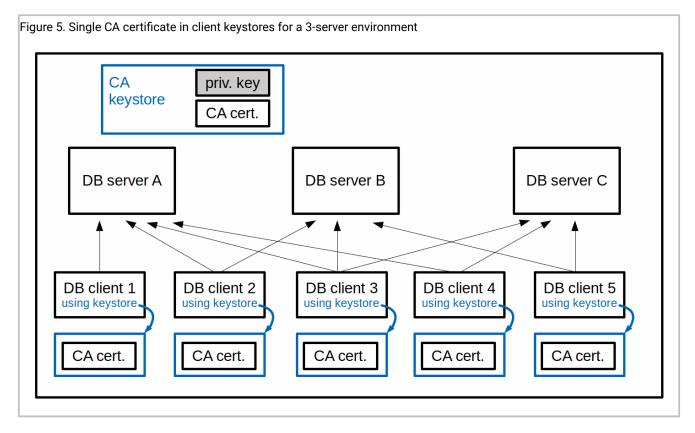
While it seams easier to set up keystores for TLS communications without involving a CA, this is not always the case. Especially in an environment with a dynamic database server landscape, properly maintaining the keystores for the database clients with all the self-signed certificates can become a permanent headache. On the other hand, using certificates from a public CA (instead of only selfsigned certificates) entails the overhead of dealing with the public CA and the associated costs. Therefore, setting up a "home-grown" CA can be a valid compromise. As long as all communication partners (e.g. within a company intranet) agree to trust their own CA, there may be little reason to use a publicly trusted CA. Instead, the complete control over one's own CA and the absence of costs are strong advantages.

Setting up a home-grown CA is not very difficult. All that this CA needs is a private key and the corresponding certificate that contains the public key. In the scenario of a home-grown CA, there is little use for any intermediate CAs. Therefore, the certificate of the CA is the root CA certificate, which actually is a self-signed certificate. A self-signed root CA certificate is

created in the same way as a self-signed server certificate. For convenience (and security), the CA's private key and root CA certificate probably should be stored in its own keystore, just for the CA.

With the CA in place, the procedure for obtaining a user certificate for a database server pretty much is the same as it would be with a public CA. First, a private key needs to be generated for the server. Instead of using this private key to create a self-signed certificate, it is used to create a certificate request. This certificate request already contains most of the certificate content, including the public key that matches the server's private key. The certificate request is given to the CA. The CA uses the certificate request together with its own private key to create and sign the user certificate. The created user certificate is handed back to the database server. Now, the database server's keystore can be created with the server's private key and this user certificate.

In this case, the certificate is for a database server, it therefore also is called server certificate. But for the CA itself, there is no difference between a user certificate for a server or a user certificate for a client. They are just user certificates (as opposed to CA certificates). The CA may also hand its own CA certificate to the server, as any client will need this CA certificate to authenticate the server. In the home-grown CA environment, the administrator can directly distribute the CA certificate to the database clients. Or even better, create a keystore for the database clients that contains just this CA certificate and distribute this ready-to-use keystore to all the database clients.



Compared to using self-signed server certificates the overhead of the CA's keystore has been added. But at the same time, the keystores of the clients have been simplified. In fact, all clients can just use a copy of the same keystore. However, the real advantage of using a (home-grown) CA shows in a dynamic database server landscape: Adding or removing database servers does not require any change in the keystores of the database clients. All that is needed for a new database server is

done on the server side: create a new private key, a new certificate request, have the CA create and sign the user certificate for the new database server using its own existing private key, then create the database server's keystore.

## Examples for creating keystores using OpenSSL

This section demonstrates examples for creating keystores for TLS/SSL (Transport Layer Security / Secure Socket Layer) connections between database clients and servers. The examples in this topic use the tool and utilities provided by OpenSSL. The examples have been tested on Linux (x86 64-bit) as OS, using OpenSSL 1.1.1. For more information on OpenSSL, see <a href="https://www.openssl.org/">https://www.openssl.org/</a>.

## Using the OpenSSL tool and utilities

Some general considerations regarding OpenSSL:

· openssl:

OpenSSL provides a single tool, "openssl", that is used at the command line to run different utilities for the various objects. Examples for such utilities used in this topic are:

- o genrsa: generate a RSA private key
- req: generate certificate requests or self-signed certificates
- x509: handle or create and sign certificates of the X.509 standard.
- pkcs12: create or parse PKCS #12 keystore files
- rand: generate a sequence of random bytes
- · version: display OpenSSL version information

#### PEM

Privacy-Enhanced Mail (PEM) is a de facto file format for handling and storing cryptographic objects like private keys, certificates and certificate requests. It is a convenient format for use with "openss!" and its utilities, and therefore also used extensively in the examples. Cryptographic objects generally are ASN.1 and DER encoded objects, i.e. consist of binary data that includes non-printable character/byte sequences. PEM uses base64 encoding for binary data and adds one line for headers and footers to individual objects. The resulting text files are not really human readable, but can be handled easily, e.g. sending them in an e-mail.

Random number generator

It may be necessary to create a file ".rnd" in the user's home directory, so that "openssl" can use its content as seed value for the random number generator. If the file is absent, an "openssl" command may fail with an error like the following:

```
Can't load ~/.rnd into RNG
140102054789568:error:2406F079:random number generator:RAND_load_file:
Cannot open file:../crypto/rand/randfile.c:88:Filename=~/.rnd
```

In this case, the file can easily be created by putting some random bytes into it, e.g. with the following command:

```
$ openssl rand 256 > ~/.rnd
```

The command generates a sequence of 256 random bytes and writes them to the file ".rnd" in the user's home directory. Afterwards, any "openssl" command that previously failed with the above error message can be repeated and should then run without producing the error.

· OpenSSL configuration

OpenSSL has a lot of configuration options. Many of them are setting default values that affect "openssl" commands by replacing absent command line options. Therefore, if an "openssl" command does not produce the desired result, it may be possible to specify an additional command line option rather than changing the system wide configuration for OpenSSL. Configuration changes may not only affect "openssl" commands, but also the functionality of the crypto library and its API functions. Changing of the OpenSSL configuration therefore should be done with utmost care, and in any case not without discussing things with the responsible system administrator.

With some "openssl" commands, it is also possible to specify an alternative configuration file on the command line. This can be a locally modified copy of the generic configuration file, just to use it with a particular command run. The name of the system wide configuration file is "openssl.cnf". The location of the file depends on the individual installation of OpenSSL. It can be determined with the following command:

```
$ openssl version -d
```

The file "openssl.cnf" can be found in the directory shown as OPENSSLDIR.

## Setting up a CA with OpenSSL

To setup a CA with OpenSSL:

1. Create a RSA private key in a PEM file:

```
$ openssl genrsa -out rootCA1.key.pem -aes256 \
-passout pass:calpasswd
```

The command creates the private key with the default size of 2048 bits and writes it encrypted in PEM format to the file "rootCA1.key.pem". The option "-aes256" tells the command to encrypt the private key using AES256 encryption. The encryption is based on the given password "ca1passwd".

The output PEM file can be parsed using the following command. As the private key is encrypted, the password for the content in the input file must be provided:

```
$ openssl rsa -in rootCA1.key.pem -passin pass:calpasswd -text -noout
RSA Private-Key: (2048 bit, 2 primes)
modulus: ...
publicExponent: 65537 (0x10001)
privateExponent: ...
prime1: ...
prime2: ...
exponent1: ...
exponent2: ...
coefficient: ...
$
```

where the "..." stand for blocks of binary data in hex format that is undecipherable without much deeper knowledge of the algorithm internals for RSA keys.

2. Using the CA's private key, create a self-signed root CA certificate in a PEM file:

```
$ mydn="/C=US/ST=Florida/L=Anytown/0=Acme Software Inc./OU=Database CA/"
$ mydn=${mydn}"CN=Database CA Root1/emailAddress=dba_cal@acme.info"
$ openssl req -new -x509 -key rootCA1.key.pem -passin pass:calpasswd \
> -subj "${mydn}" -days 365 -out rootCA1.cert.pem
```

The command "openssl req" uses the previously generated private key to create a self-signed certificate and writes it to the output file "rootCA1.cert.pem". Because the private key in the key input file is encrypted, the password for the key input file must be provided. The validity of the certificate is one year beginning with the creation. The option "-x509" causes the command to create a self-signed certificate rather than a certificate request.

The option "-subj ..." specifies the distinguished subject name of the certificate owner. As this is a self-signed certificate, the issuer name automatically is the same as the subject name. For convenience, the longish subject name is given as the variable "\${mydn}", defined by the previous two shell commands. A distinguished name consists of several fields like country, state, location, organization, organizational unit, common name, etc. The format is a '/' that starts each field, followed by the field specifier, '=', and the field value string. "/C=US" therefore means field "country" has the value "US". Note that the individual fields have a maximum length. E.g. the country field can only have two characters for the 2-letter country code.

The following command can be used to parse the certificate in the PEM file and output its content:

```
$ openssl x509 -in rootCA1.cert.pem -text -noout
Certificate:
    Data:
        Version: 3 (0x2)
        Serial Number: ...
        Signature Algorithm: sha256WithRSAEncryption
        Issuer: C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
                OU = Database CA, CN = Database CA Root1,
                emailAddress = dba_ca1@acme.info
        Validity
            Not Before: Jun 2 08:50:33 2021 GMT
            Not After : Jun 2 08:50:33 2022 GMT
        Subject: C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
                 OU = Database CA, CN = Database CA Root1,
                 emailAddress = dba_ca1@acme.info
        Subject Public Key Info:
            Public Key Algorithm: rsaEncryption
                RSA Public-Key: (2048 bit)
                Modulus: ...
                Exponent: 65537 (0x10001)
        X509v3 extensions:
            X509v3 Subject Key Identifier:
                10:6B:B1:E1:C9:D9:9A:7F:B4:FF:9C:16:77:DD:56:9E:A1:58:6C:01
            X509v3 Authority Key Identifier:
                10:6B:B1:E1:C9:D9:9A:7F:B4:FF:9C:16:77:DD:56:9E:A1:58:6C:01
            X509v3 Basic Constraints: critical
```

```
CA:TRUE
Signature Algorithm: sha256WithRSAEncryption
...
$
```



- As a root CA certificate, it is self-signed. Therefore, subject name and issuer name are the same. For
  the same reason, the X509 version 3 extensions Subject Key Identifier and Authority Key Identifier also
  are the same.
- The Signature Algorithm is "sha256WithRSAEncryption". A signature algorithm of lower quality, like
  "sha1WithRSAEncryption", may not be accepted by newer versions of crypto libraries. With "openssl",
  "sha256WithRSAEncryption" normally is chosen by default. If for some reason the "openssl" command
  created a certificate with a lower quality signature algorithm, it may be better to include the option "sha256" in the creation command to ensure compatibility with different crypto libraries, especially for
  newer versions.
- The X509 version 3 extension Basic Constraints is present and has the attribute values critical and CA:TRUE. While the attribute critical is not so important, the attribute CA:TRUE is. Because this certificate is intended to be a (root) CA certificate, the extension attribute CA:TRUE is required by some crypto libraries, especially with newer versions. If the extension and attribute are missing, then the certificate later may not be considered a valid CA certificate. This is a typical cause for a client side authentication error during the TLS handshake. The error message can be something like "no CA certificate found", or similar.

The private key and corresponding certificate are all that is needed for a functioning CA. The objects are stored in separate PEM files, which may be a bit cumbersome for safekeeping, but the PEM format is most convenient for issuing and signing user certificates for database servers. The private key is encrypted in its PEM file and therefore sufficiently protected. It is possible to store both, the private key and the certificate, in a password protected PKCS #12 keystore, but the protection would not be better than in the encrypted PEM file. Instead, the key and certificate would need to be extracted again into PEM files in order to use them for issuing and signing user certificates.

# Creating the keystore for a database server

#### About this task

As SSL server, a database server needs to own a private key and the corresponding certificate. Both items should be stored in a PKCS #12 keystore file. To avoid the disadvantages of using self-signed certificates (as explained in the topic "Concepts of Keys, Certificates and Keystores for TLS"), the database server should use certificates issued by a CA. However, requesting and receiving certificates from an established public CA may be a slow process and usually even costs real money. The compromise between these two possibilities is to use one's own CA - a CA that was set up as shown in the previous example.

1. Create a RSA private key for the database server in a PEM file:

```
$ openssl genrsa -out server1.key.pem
```

The command creates the private key with the default size of 2048 bits and writes it in PEM format to the output file "server1.key.pem". The PEM file can be parsed with a command like:

```
openssl rsa -in server1.key.pem -text -noout
```



**Note:** The private key in the PEM file is not encrypted.

2. Use the server's private key to create a certificate request:

```
$ mydn="/C=US/ST=Florida/L=Anytown/O=Acme Software Inc./OU=DB Servers/"
$ mydn=${mydn}"CN=DB Server 1/emailAddress=db1@acme.info"
$ openssl req -new -key server1.key.pem \
> -subj "${mydn}" -out server1.req.pem
```

The command "openssl req" uses the previously generated private key to create a new certificate request and writes it to the output file "server1.req.pem". The option "-subj ..." specifies the subject name of this database server. For convenience, the longish subject name is given as the variable "\${mydn}", defined by the previous two shell commands. This subject name is a distinguished name that consists of several fields like country, state, location, organization, organizational unit, common name, etc. The fields in the string are separated by a '/'.

The PEM file with the certificate request can be parsed with the following command:

```
$ openssl req -in server1.req.pem -text -noout
Certificate Request:
    Data:
        Version: 1 (0x0)
        Subject: C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
                 OU = DB Servers, CN = DB Server 1,
                 emailAddress = db1@acme.info
        Subject Public Key Info:
           Public Key Algorithm: rsaEncryption
               RSA Public-Key: (2048 bit)
               Modulus: ...
               Exponent: 65537 (0x10001)
        Attributes:
            a0:00
    Signature Algorithm: sha256WithRSAEncryption
$
```



**Note:** The Signature Algorithm is "sha256WithRSAEncryption". A signature algorithm of lower quality, like "sha1WithRSAEncryption", may not be accepted by newer versions of crypto libraries. With "openssl", "sha256WithRSAEncryption" normally is the default configuration. If for some reason the "openssl" command



created a certificate request with a lower quality signature algorithm, it may be a good idea to override the default configuration by adding the option "-sha256" to the command.

The PEM file with this certificate request now must be passed to the CA, so that the CA, based on the request, can issue and sign the user certificate.

3. As CA, use the certificate request to issue and sign the user certificate for the database server:

```
$ openssl x509 -req -inform PEM -in server1.req.pem -set_serial 5 \
> -CA rootCA1.cert.pem -CAkey rootCA1.key.pem -passin pass:calpasswd \
> -days 365 -outform PEM -out server1.cert.pem
```

The command reads the input certificate request file "server1.req.pem" (as specified in PEM format) and writes the signed certificate to the output file "server1.cert.pem" (also in the specified PEM format). The certificate is valid for 1 year beginning with the creation time.

This command must be performed as the CA, because it needs the CA's root CA certificate as well as the CA's private key. Both are read from PEM files as specified by the options "-CA rootCA1.cert.pem -CAkey rootCA1.key.pem".

Because the CA's private key in file "rootCA1.key.pem" is encrypted, it is also necessary that the CA running this command provides the password for the input PEM file with the CA's private key. When creating the CA's private key, the password specified for this PEM file was "ca1passwd".



**Note:** For compatibility reasons with different versions of different crypto libraries, it may be necessary to add the option "-extensions usr\_cert" to the command. This option refers to section "[usr\_cert]" in the OpenSSL configuration file. There, it is stated:

- # These extensions are added when 'ca' signs a request.
- # This goes against PKIX guidelines but some CAs do it and some software
- # requires this to avoid interpreting an end user certificate as a CA.

(With OpenSSL version 1.1.1, used to test the example commands, this option does not make a difference for the issued certificate.)

The CA then hands the newly issued user certificate as file "server1.cert.pem" back to the requester, i.e. to the database server. For completeness, the CA also hands over a copy of its own CA certificate in PEM format, i.e. file "rootCA1.cert.pem". (While with OpenSSL the database server does not need the CA certificate that signed its own user certificate, this may be required by some other security libraries. Therefore the CA generally should provide a copy together with the user certificate.)

4. Create the keystore for the database server:

The keystore for the database server must contain the database server's private key and the corresponding user certificate. The user certificate is the one just received from the CA. Both items are in PEM files, "server1.key.pem" and "server1.cert.pem", that can be readily used to create the keystore with the following command. The inclusion

of the CA certificate in the keystore is optional for OpenSSL, but may be required by some other security library. Therefore the following command also uses file "rootCA1.cert.pem", so that the keystore is more compatible.

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -export -in server1.cert.pem -inkey server1.key.pem \
> -name server1 -certfile rootCA1.cert.pem -caname rootCA1 \
> -passout pass:slpasswd -out server1.p12
```

The option "-export" causes the command to export the content read from the three input files into a PKCS #12 format keystore. The output file is "server1.p12" and the keystore is protected with password "s1passwd". The option "-name server1" tells the command to use "server1" as value for the friendly name attribute of the Safebags with the database server's private key and the user certificate. The option "-caname rootCA1" provides the friendly name attribute value "rootCA1" for the SafeBag with the CA certificate.

The content of the new keystore in file "server1.p12" can be parsed and examined with the following command:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:s1passwd -nodes -info
MAC: sha1, Iteration 2048
MAC length: 20, salt length: 8
PKCS7 Encrypted data: pbeWithSHA1And40BitRC2-CBC, Iteration 2048
Certificate bag
Certificate bag
PKCS7 Data
Shrouded Keybag: pbeWithSHA1And3-KeyTripleDES-CBC, Iteration 2048
Bag Attributes
    friendlyName: server1
   localKeyID: B8 D8 27 ED 1C FF 82 5F 50 42 AA 5E 5D FF E8 A2 95 C4 17 A5
subject=C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
       OU = DB Servers, CN = DB Server 1, emailAddress = db1@acme.info
issuer=C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
      OU = Database CA, CN = Database CA Root1,
      emailAddress = dba_ca1@acme.info
----BEGIN CERTIFICATE----
----END CERTIFICATE----
Bag Attributes
   friendlyName: rootCA1
subject=C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
       OU = Database CA, CN = Database CA Root1,
       emailAddress = dba_cal@acme.info
issuer=C = US, ST = Florida, L = Anytown, O = Acme Software Inc.,
      OU = Database CA, CN = Database CA Root1,
      emailAddress = dba_cal@acme.info
----BEGIN CERTIFICATE----
----END CERTIFICATE----
Bag Attributes
   friendlvName: server1
   localKeyID: B8 D8 27 ED 1C FF 82 5F 50 42 AA 5E 5D FF E8 A2 95 C4 17 A5
Kev Attributes:
----BEGIN PRIVATE KEY----
----END PRIVATE KEY----
```





- The output of the above command shows that there are two certificates and one private key in the keystore. The private key is encrypted with PBE (password based encryption) and stored in a "shrouded keybag". The friendlyName and the localKeyID attribute values of the SafeBags for the private key and the corresponding user certificate are matching. The SafeBag with CA certificate has different values for those attributes.
- It is possible to combine all three input PEM files into a single PEM file, e.g. with a simple "cat" command, and then for the "openssl pkcs12 -export" command only provide the name of the single file with the "-in ..." option, omitting the options "-inkey ..." and "-certfile ...". Still, the "-name ..." and "-caname ..." options are always needed, as otherwise the private key or one of the certificates may be stored without a friendlyName attribute and later not be accepted for use in the TLS handshake.
- For a private key, the corresponding user certificate must be contained in the input. Furthermore, only
  one private key with corresponding user certificate should be present. A keystore normally does not
  contain multiple pairs of private key and corresponding user certificate.
- If additional certificates are present, then they are considered CA certificates and also stored in the keystore. For each CA certificate in the input, an option "-caname ..." with an individual value must be provided. Multiple "-caname ..." option values are applied for the additional certificates in the order they appear on the command line.
- Each certificate can be stored only once in the keystore, with a distinct friendlyName attribute value.
   Duplicate certificates in the input therefore should be eliminated beforehand. Duplicate certificates in a keystore are considered an error.

### 5. Remove the PEM file with the database server's private key:

The database server's private key now is stored with password protection in the PKCS #12 keystore. But it is still unprotected in the PEM file "server1.key.pem". To prevent misuse of this private key, the PEM file should be removed, or otherwise specially protected. Alternatively, the private key PEM file can be created with password protection right away. See the step "Create a RSA private key in a PEM file:" in the previous example for "Setting up a CA with OpenSSL" where this was done for the CA's private key. If the private key PEM file is password protected, then the password must be supplied for every read access to the private key. I.e. option "-passin pass:..." would be needed for the commands when creating the certificate request and when creating the keystore.

# Creating the keystore for a database client

#### About this task

The database client needs the CA certificate (chain) in order to authenticate the database server during the TLS handshake. Based on the examples above, the database server's user certificate was issued and signed by a home-grown CA. Therefore, the database client needs the CA certificate of this CA. As the CA used its root CA certificate to sign the database server's user certificate, there are no intermediate CAs involved. When authenticating the database server, the OneDB chain of certificates therefore is very simple. It consists only of the database server's user certificate and the CA's root CA certificate.

The database client receives the database server's user certificate during the TLS handshake, and therefore only needs the root CA certificate in its own keystore. With that, just the PEM file with the root CA certificate is needed to create the database client's keystore.

Create the keystore using the root CA certificate:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -export -nokeys -in rootCA1.cert.pem \
> -caname rootCA1 -passout pass:c1passwd -out client1.p12
```

The command reads the root CA certificate from the input file "rootCA1.cert.pem" and creates the keystore in output file "client1.p12". This keystore is protected by password "c1passwd". The option "-nokeys" tells the command that no private key is to be read (or expected) from the input file.

The option "-caname rootCA1" provides "rootCA1" as value for the friendly name attribute of the SafeBag container, that holds the certificate in the keystore. As there is only this single (root) CA certificate in the input file, only a single "-caname ..." option is needed in the command. Even though the keystore contains only a single certificate, it is necessary to specify the "-caname ..." option with a friendly name attribute value. Omitting the option results in a SafeBag without the friendly name attribute and the certificate being ignored during the TLS handshake. This then causes an authentication failure during the TLS handshake, because no suitable CA certificate was found in the keystore.

(As for the database client only CA certificate(s) are needed, the keystore neither contains a private key nor a user certificate that would correspond to a private key. It is therefore not necessary to create a private key and corresponding user certificate for the database client. This also implies that all certificates in the database client's keystore are CA certificates, where at least one of them should be a root CA certificate.)

The content of the new keystore in file "client1.p12" can be parsed and examined with the following command:

Now, the keystores for database server and database client have been created. The given examples are for a simple scenario where a home-grown CA is used to issue and sign the certificates for all database servers. For this, the home-grown CA uses a single self-signed root CA certificate. Therefore, database clients that have just this one root CA certificate in their keystore can connect to all database servers. The certificate chain used by the database client during the TLS handshake to authenticate the database server is trivial: it consists only of the database server's user certificate (received from the server during the TLS handshake) and the root CA certificate found in the database client's keystore.

## Few details to know when using "openssl"

# Modifying an existing keystore

With the command "openssl pkcs12" it is not really possible to modify an existing keystore, e.g. to add or remove a CA certificate or to renew an expired certificate. If something needs to be changed in a keystore, then the keystore must be recreated from scratch using "openssl pkcs12 -export ..." with input from PEM files. If the original PEM input files are no longer available, then it is possible to extract the content of the existing keystore as a whole or partially into PEM files.

## Extracting objects from a keystore into PEM files

Extracting objects from an existing keystore into a PEM file can be useful when a keystore needs to be changed, but original PEM files are no longer available. The basic command "openssl pkcs12" parses a PKCS #12 input file and produces PEM output. It can therefore be used to extract keystore content into a PEM file for re-use with a new "openssl pkcs12 -export ..." command. As the PKCS #12 keystores are password protected, the correct password for the keystore must be supplied to access and parse the content of a keystore file.

Following are some examples for extracting objects from a keystore. The examples use the database server's keystore as it was created in the previous example. This keystore contains a private key and the corresponding user certificate as well as the (root) CA certificate, and the password for this keystore is "s1passwd".

• Extract only the user certificate from the keystore:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:s1passwd \
> -clcerts -nokeys -out s1.ext1.pem
```

The command parses the PKCS #12 input file "server1.p12" using password "s1passwd" and writes the output in PEM format to file "s1.ext1.pem". The option "-clcerts" tells the command to output only the user certificate, but not the CA certificate. The option "-nokeys" causes the command to exclude the private key from the output.

The output file "s1.ext1.pem" contains the database server's user certificate in PEM format between the header and footer lines, like:

```
----BEGIN CERTIFICATE----
MIIDrzCCApcCAQUwDQYJKoZIhvcNAQELBQAwgaIxCzAJBgNVBAYTAlVTMRAwDgYD
...
Ylz7hya2c7No4sFBRsHSQXJPXFRo0hG8ThiJZesjehmUnfE=
----END CERTIFICATE----
```

Besides the actual PEM object as shown above, the output file contains some information on the PEM object, like the attributes friendly name and localKeyID of the SafeBag containers in the PKCS #12 keystore. In case of a certificate, also the certificate's issuer name and subject name are included as human readable information. This makes it fairly easy to verify, that the desired object was extracted from the keystore. The additional information can be removed with a text editor, if this is deemed necessary. However, the header and footer lines marking the begin and end of the PEM content should remain intact. Usually, other "openss!" commands that accept a PEM file as input conveniently ignore the additional, human readable information.

The PEM output file can be further parsed by the appropriate "openssl" command. For certificates in a PEM file, this is the command "openssl x509", e.g.:

Omitting the option "-nokeys" from the extract command includes the private key separate PEM section in the output. Because by default private keys get protected with PBE (password based encryption), the command without "-nokeys" then prompts twice for the password to use for the private key. The interactive prompting for this password can be avoided by either providing the password on the command line as "-passout pass:..." or by not protecting the private key in the PEM file with the option "-nodes". PEM output files that contain unprotected private keys should not be left 'unattended'.

The PEM section with a PBE protected private key in an output file would look like:

```
----BEGIN ENCRYPTED PRIVATE KEY----
MIIFHDBOBgkqhkiG9w0BBQ0wQTApBgkqhkiG9w0BBQwwHAQIDRjU76XwLYUCAggA
...
1Dw3Imvms7AnpD+4i0GNAg==
----END ENCRYPTED PRIVATE KEY----
```

• Extract only the CA certificate(s) from the keystore:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:slpasswd \
> -cacerts -nokeys -out s1.ext2.pem
```

Here, the option "-cacerts" tells the command to only output CA certificates but no user certificate. Without the option "-nokeys", the private key would be included in the output as explained already above. Also as explained above, the certificate in the output PEM file "s1.ext2.pem" can be further parsed using the command "openssl x509 -in s1.ext2.pem -text -noout".

Extract only the private key from the keystore:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:s1passwd -nocerts \
> -passout pass:pkextpw -out s1.ext3.pem
```

Here, the option "-nocerts" excludes all certificates from the output. With that, only the private key is included in the output. By default, the private key is PBE protected in the output and therefore, the password for the output is provided as "pkextpw" with the option "-passout pass:pkextpw". The PEM section in the output file "s1.ext3.pem" looks like the following:

```
----BEGIN ENCRYPTED PRIVATE KEY----
MIIFHDBOBgkqhkiG9w0BBQ0wQTApBgkqhkiG9w0BBQwwHAQINL3IaWjpZeACAggA
```

```
. . .
JmO+VpfOb/o6BNN9UfcHcA==
----END ENCRYPTED PRIVATE KEY----
```

Knowing that the database server's private key is a RSA key, the private key in the PEM output file can be parsed with the following command. As the private key in the PEM file is password protected, the password is needed:

```
$ openssl rsa -in s1.ext3.pem -passin pass:pkextpw -text -noout
RSA Private-Key: (2048 bit, 2 primes)
modulus:
    00:e1:7b:21:f4:dc:b1:be:d3:2a:5c:33:69:75:35:
    6b:ab
publicExponent: 65537 (0x10001)
privateExponent:
    07:2f:ee:98:28:84:bd:e9:6b:3b:3f:24:48:69:28:
prime1:
    00:fb:5c:69:e2:c4:8e:b6:91:81:35:e6:bd:a2:71:
    52:73:58:17:9f:46:fd:d1:b7
prime2:
    00:e5:a4:72:1a:81:66:b8:b1:e0:6f:9a:4f:dc:ad:
   8d:ca:f8:d0:ab:34:cb:e5:ad
exponent1:
   70:e7:20:94:80:0f:4e:47:eb:0e:c7:f6:b3:c9:7a:
    d5:ea:62:a9:e3:5c:4c:df
exponent2:
    51:71:98:12:34:70:84:f2:79:01:bb:bd:b5:2b:68:
    b9:5f:b3:49:f5:08:97:65
coefficient:
   25:68:e6:7d:50:f3:40:02:69:03:44:bf:10:39:e3:
   71:2c:27:ed:c3:40:87:5e
```

It is possible to extract the private key without PBE protection by using the option "-nodes". In this case, no output password with option "-passout pass:..." is needed. The PEM section of an unprotected private key in the output file would look like:

```
----BEGIN PRIVATE KEY----
MIIEvAIBADANBgkqhkiG9w0BAQEFAASCBKYwggSiAgEAAoIBAQDheyH03LG+0ypc
usCJOrhtwwVxLCftw0CHXg==
----END PRIVATE KEY----
```



Warning: PEM files containing unprotected private keys should not be left 'unattended'.

• Extracting all objects from a keystore into a single PEM file:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:s1passwd \
> -out s1.ext4.pem -passout pass:slextpw
```

Using the input password "s1passwd", the command parses the PKCS #12 input file "server1.p12" and writes all objects found in the keystore to the PEM output file "s1.ext4.pem". The private key in the PEM output file is PBE protected with the output password "s1extpw". As expected, the output file contains the encrypted private key, the user certificate that corresponds to the private key, and the root CA certificate.

As with the previous example, using option "-nodes" instead of option "-passout pass:s1extpw" would write the private key without PBE protection to the output file.

## Using a single PEM input file to create a keystore

The previous example to create the database server's keystore used three PEM input files, one with the database server's private key, one with the database server's user certificate that corresponds to the private key, and one PEM file with the root CA certificate. An alternative way is to first combine all three input files into a single PEM file and then use it as single input file to create the keystore.

The output file from the extract command in the example above in fact is a single PEM file that contains everything for the database server's keystore. Therefore, it can be used to re-create the database server's keystore, in a different output file, with the following command:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -export -in s1.ext4.pem -passin pass:slextpw \
> -name server1 -caname rootCA1 \
> -out server1.extracted.p12 -passout pass:slpasswd
```

The command reads the PEM input file "s1.ext4.pem" that was created with the extract command in the previous example. Because in this PEM file the private key is PBE protected, the password "s1extpw" must be given with the option "-passin pass:...". The output is written to the new PKCS #12 keystore file "server1.extracted.p12" and for this keystore the password "s1passwd" is specified with the option "-passout pass:...". The options "-name server1" and "-caname rootCA1" provide the values for the friendly name attributes of the SafeBag containers in the keystore. The name "server1" is used for the two SafeBags containing the private key and the corresponding user certificate. The name "rootCA1" is used for the SafeBag holding the CA certificate.



**Note:** The options "-name ..." and "-caname ..." must be provided. Without these options, the SafeBags in the keystore would not have a friendly name attribute and hence the keystore would not work as expected during the TLS handshake. It could be argued, that the command could use the human-readable information in the PEM input file, as this also contains the friendly name attributes. However, this human-readable information is not really part of the PEM content. The "openssl pkcs12" command ignores such additional information and uses only the PEM content of the input file.

It becomes obvious, that the command also works with an input file that just contains the PEM content, including the PEM header and footer lines (i.e. without the human-readable information that was added by the extract command). Therefore, it is also possible to simply concatenate several PEM files with a private key, corresponding user certificates and several CA certificates into a single file, e.g. using the "cat" command. Such a combined PEM file can be used as single input file for the above command.

## Extracting certificates for the database client from the database server's keystore

When using a CA to issue and sign the user certificate for a database server, then the database client needs the CA certificate (or the chain of CA certificates if intermediate CAs are involved) to authenticate the database server during the TLS handshake. If the CA certificate(s) are already in the database server's keystore (and the PEM files of the certificate(s) perhaps not at hand), it may be the easiest to extract the CA certificates from the database server's keystore and then use the extracted certificates(s) to create the database client's keystore. For the extraction, a command like the following can be used:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server1.p12 -passin pass:slpasswd \
> -cacerts -nokeys -out server1.cacerts.pem
```

However, in an environment where the database server uses a self-signed certificate and no CA is involved, things are slightly different. In this case, the database client needs the self-signed certificate of the database server to use it like a CA certificate during the TLS handshake. But from the viewpoint of the database server, this self-signed certificate is not a CA certificate, instead it is the database server's own user certificate. Therefore, to extract the self-signed certificate from the database server's keystore, the option "-clcerts" should be used instead of the option "-cacerts". The command therefore would look like the following:

```
$ openssl pkcs12 -in server2.p12 -passin pass:s2passwd \
> -clcerts -nokeys -out server2.selfsignedcert.pem
```

Assuming a keystore for database server 2 that contains the database server's private key and the corresponding self-signed certificate, the command extracts this self-signed certificate and stores it in the PEM output file "server2.selfsignedcert.pem".

When creating the client keystore, the command "openssl pkcs12 -export ..." in both cases, for a self-signed certificate as well as CA certificate(s), needs the appropriate "-caname ..." option. In the database client's perspective, both certificates are CA certificates and are to be loaded without a corresponding private key.

## X.509v3 certificate extension "Basic Constraints"

A certificate can contain several different extensions, so called "x509v3 extensions". One of them is the "Basic Constraints" extension that, depending on the version of a security library, can play a role in the TLS handshake. While older versions may not require that this extension is present in certificates, newer versions often do. The "Basic Constraints" extension can have two attributes: the attribute "critical" may be present or absent, the attribute "CA" can have two values, "true" or "false". While the "critical" attribute does not yet seem to be a required attribute with commonly used versions of security libraries, the attribute "CA" is required by some. Notably, current versions of IBM's GSKit as well as OpenSSL 1.1 require the "CA" attribute to be "true" for CA certificates. This means, a certificate that does not have the extension "Basic Constraints: CA:TRUE" is not considered a CA certificate and therefore ignored in a keystore.

It is good practice to make sure that all CA certificates as well as self-signed user certificates of database servers contain this extension "Basic Constraints: CA:TRUE". When using "openssl" to create certificates or certificate requests, the extension normally is inserted correctly by default. However, if you notice that your certificate creation or signing commands produce a CA certificate or self-signed certificate without the correct extension, then it may be worth the effort to figure out, why this happens and how to correct it.

The first check probably is in the OpenSSL configuration file, "openssl.cnf", located in the directory shown by command "openssl version -d". This file normally has different sections marked with "[ section\_label ]". It is normal to have a configuration parameter "basicConstraints=CA:FALSE" in section "[ usr\_cert ]", as this section is used when creating user certificates. Also section "[ v3\_req ]" usually contains the parameter "basicConstraints=CA:FALSE". This section is used when creating certificate requests, and it is assumed that certificate requests are generally created for user certificates. On the other hand, section "[ v3\_ca ]" is the section used by CAs and therefore has the parameter "basicConstraints = critical,CA:true". In addition, section "[ req ]" normally contains a parameter "x509\_extensions = v3\_ca" which tells the "openssl req" command to use section "[ v3\_ca ]" also when creating self-signed certificates and therefore self-signed certificates normally get the correct extension.

If the default OpenSSL configuration file does not have the correct configuration parameters, or some other change is deemed necessary, then the default configuration file can be copied to a local file and modified. Then this locally modified file can be used at least to test changes. A local configuration file can be specified with option "-config ..." for "openssl req" commands, and with option "-extfile ..." for "openssl x509 -req" commands when signing certificates. Both commands also accept an option "-extensions ..." that can be used to specify a specific configuration file section to be used for the command.

# Column-level encryption

You can use column-level encryption to store sensitive data in an encrypted format. After encrypting sensitive data, such as credit card numbers, only users who can provide a secret password can decrypt the data.

Use the built-in ENCRYPT\_AES() and ENCRYPT\_TDES() encryption functions to encrypt data in columns containing the following character data types or smart large object data types:

- CHAR
- NCHAR
- VARCHAR
- NVARCHAR
- LVARCHAR
- BLOB
- CLOB

You can also use the SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement to set an encryption password for a session. If you do this, only users who can provide a secret password can view, copy, or modify encrypted data.

The built-in ENCRYPT\_AES(), ENCRYPT\_TDES(), DECRYPT\_CHAR(), and DECRYPT\_BINARY() encryption and decryption functions can use the session-level password if the password is not explicitly specified in the encryption or decryption function. If you use the SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement, you are not required to provide the same password in every encryption or decryption function.

After HCL OneDB™ prepares a statement that contains a password (and, optionally, a hint), HCL OneDB™ keeps the password and hint in shared memory in an encrypted format. HCL OneDB™ only decrypts a copy of the password or hint when any statement related to encryption is being executed. HCL OneDB™ uses a randomly generated session key to encrypt the

password and hint in memory. This means that if the server fails with an AF (assertion failure) error, or if the shared memory is paged out of main memory, it is hard to find plain text passwords in the core dump. HCL OneDB™ never writes a password to disk. It records hints with the encrypted data, but they are lightly encrypted and not readily understood.

When you set encryption passwords for column data, you can specify these types of encryption:

· Column-level encryption. All values in a specific column of a database table are encrypted with the same password (word or phrase), the same encryption algorithm, and the same cipher mode. For column-level encryption, you can store the hint outside the encrypted column, rather than repeating it in every row.



**7 Tip:** If encryption functions are not used, users can enter unencrypted data into columns that are meant to contain encrypted data. To ensure that data entered into a field is always encrypted, use views and INSTEAD OF triggers.

 Cell-level encryption (also called row-column or set-column level encryption). Within a column of encrypted data, many different passwords, encryption algorithms, or modes are used. This type of encryption might be necessary to protect personal data.

Passwords and hints that you declare with SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD are not stored as plain text in any table of the system catalog. To prevent other users from accessing the plain text of encrypted data or of a password, you must avoid actions that might compromise the secrecy of a password:

- Unless your database is accessible only by a secure network, you must enable the Encryption Communication Support Module (ENCCSM) to protect data transmission between the database server and any client system.
- · Do not index encrypted columns and do not create a functional index on a decrypted column. This would store plaintext data in the database, defeating the purpose of encryption.
- Do not store passwords in a trigger or in a user-defined routine (UDR) that exposes the password to the public. Use the session password before you activate the trigger, invoke the UDR, or pass any password as a parameter to a UDR.

When you set a password, the database server transfers the password and any hint to a 128-bit key that is used to encrypt the password and hint. Passwords and hints are not stored as clear text. The key is a time-based random value per instance. The database server starts the key when the server starts; the key is deleted when the database server shuts down.

Although it is possible to store both encrypted and unencrypted data in a single column, your application must determine which rows contain encrypted data and which rows contain unencrypted data. In addition, the application must provide for using the correct code to handle the difference, because the built-in decryption functions fail if they are applied to unencrypted data. The simplest way to avoid this error is for all rows to use encryption in a column where any row is encrypted. For more information, see the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

A query for encrypted data must specify an unencrypted column on which to select the rows. For information about queries, syntax, and reusing encrypted data, see the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

An encrypted value uses more storage space in a column than the corresponding plain text value. This occurs because all of the information required to decrypt the value, except the encryption key, is stored with the value. Therefore, embedding zero bytes in the encrypted result is not recommended.

The database server includes an Encrypt Virtual Processor. If the encrypt option of the **VPCLASS** parameter is not defined in the onconfig file, the database server starts one Encrypt VP the first time that any encryption or decryption functions defined for column-level encryption are called. You can define multiple Encrypt VPs if necessary to decrease the time required to start the database server. For more information, the configuration parameters chapter in the HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Administrator's Reference.

When the database server is in online mode, you can use the onmode -p command to add or drop Encrypt VPs. For example, to add four more Encrypt VPs, use:

```
onmode -p 4 encrypt
```

To drop three Encrypt VPs, use:

```
onmode -p -3 encrypt
```

For more information, see the onmode utility chapter in the HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Reference.

## **Encrypting column data**

You can store sensitive data in encrypted format.

#### About this task

Before you set the encryption password and encrypt data, you must be sure the encrypted data can fit in the column.

To encrypt a column:

- Calculate the size of the encrypted column. If necessary, modify the column.
   For examples of two methods for calculating the size of an encrypted column, see Example showing how to determine the size of an encrypted column on page 52.
- 2. Insert information about the encryption password into your code. Use the SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement to specify either a password or a password and a hint. Use the ENCRYPT\_AES() or the ENCRYPT\_TDES() function to define encrypted data.

For an example of how to insert a password into your code and use the ENCRYPT function, see Example showing how to encrypt a column on page 53.

#### Results

Use the DECRYPT\_BINARY(), and DECRYPT\_CHAR() functions to query encrypted data. For an example of querying encrypted data, see Example showing how to query encrypted data on page 53.

See the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax for more information about:

- The SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement and the syntax to use to specify the password and the hint
- The ENCRYPT and DECRYPT functions

## Example showing how to determine the size of an encrypted column

The size of the column must be large enough to store the encrypted data.

The following example shows how the size of a Credit Card column is calculated:

```
DATA SIZE 16 bytes
    ENCRYPTED DATA SIZE = (DATA SIZE + blocksize8) / blocksize8 *
blocksize8 = 24 bytes (integer operation)
    OR ENCRYPTED DATA SIZE = (DATA SIZE - DATA SIZE% blocksize8 +
blocksize8 ) = 24 bytes
    (For ENCRYPT_TDES, round up to (N + 1) * 8 bytes, for example
13 bytes round up to 16 bytes, 16 bytes to 24 bytes)
    HEADER SIZE = 11 bytes (for Base64 encoding)
    IV SIZE = 8 bytes (fixed size)
    HINT SIZE = 32 bytes (maximum size)
    ENCRYPTED HINT SIZE = 40 bytes (maximum size)
BASE64 SIZE = ((INPUT DATA SIZE + 2) / 3) \times 4
(integer operation)
    OR BASE64 SIZE = ((INPUT DATA SIZE + 2) -
(INPUT DATA SIZE + 2) \% 3) / 3 \star 4
    TOTAL SIZE = HEADER SIZE
    + BASE64(IV SIZE + ENCRYPTED DATA SIZE + ENCRYPTED HINT)
                        = 11 + BASE64(8 + 24 + 40)
                = 11 + (72 + 2) / 3 * 4
                = 11 + 96 = 107
```

In the previous example, Initialization Vector (IV) is a pseudo-random series of bytes that is used to initiate encryption when using some cipher modes. IV size is the number of random series of bytes; for HCL OneDB $^{\text{m}}$ , this is 8 bytes.

If the hint is not stored in the column, the total size in the previous example is 55 bytes.

Another way to determine the encrypted column size is to calculate as follows:

Without the hint, you can calculate as follows:

```
SELECT LENGTH(ENCRYPT_TDES("1234567890123456",
   "password", ""))
FROM "onedb".systables
WHERE tabid = 1
```



**Important:** If the column size is smaller than the returned data size from ENCRYPT and DECRYPT functions, the encrypted data is truncated when it is inserted and it is not possible to decrypt the data (because the header indicates that the length must be longer than the data received).

## Example showing how to encrypt a column

You can use the SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement to restrict access to data in a column.

The following example shows how to use the encryption password in a column that contains a social security number:

```
create table emp
(    name char(40),
    salary money,
    ssn lvarchar(67)
    );

    set encryption password "one two three 123";
        insert into emp values ("Alice", 50000, encrypt_aes
('123-456-7890'));
        insert into emp values ("Bob", 65000, encrypt_aes
('213-656-0890'));
        select name, salary, decrypt_char(ssn, "one two three 123")
from emp where name = 'Bob';
```

## Example showing how to query encrypted data

You can query encrypted data with the DECRYPT function or the SET ENCRYPTION PASSWORD statement.

The following example shows how to use the decrypt function to query encrypted data:

```
select name, decrypt_char(ssn, "one two three 123") from emp;
    or
set encryption password "one two three 123";
select name, salary, decrypt_char(ssn) from emp where name = 'Bob';
```

# Connection security

You can administer the security of the connections to the database server by using authentication and authorization processes.

The first step toward connecting to the HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  server is authentication. Authentication is the mechanism of verifying the identity of a user or an application. The HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  server supports a traditional authentication mechanism in which a user must provide a valid user ID and password combination to connect to a database. But you can configure the database server to add or modify an authentication mechanism.

By default in root installations, access to the database server also requires that the authentication credentials match the credentials of an OS user account on the HCL OneDB™ host computer. However, you can change the **USERMAPPING** parameter setting in the onconfig file to selectively remove the dependency on local OS user accounts and to enable a database server administrator (DBSA) to grant database server access to specific users without the OS user accounts.

With a non-root installation, the user who installs the product is the DBSA and typically chooses this type of installation because it requires less system administrator overhead than a root installation. The database server of a non-root installation cannot authenticate users or applications based solely on their login to the local OS. The DBSA must set up internal users to grant database access to others. Typically, the number of database users with a non-root installation is lower than with many root installations.

Authenticated users must specify a database to which to connect. A user can perform certain database actions or access certain database objects only if they have been authorized to do so by the DBA. For example, users with CONNECT privileges can connect to a database and run queries, while users with RESOURCE privileges can also create objects. See the HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax for details about database-level privileges.

On a multitier network, you can create trusted connections between an application server and the HCL OneDB™ database server. You can use trusted connections to set the identity of each specific user accessing a database through the middletier server, which facilitates discretionary access control and auditing based on user identity. Without a trusted connection in such an environment, each action on a database is performed with the single user ID of the middle-tier server, potentially lessening granular control and oversight of database security.

Enterprise Replication and high availability connections cannot use authentication modules, but can function with these modules by restricting specific network ports to the replication and high availability connections.

You can configure HCL® OneDB® to check whether the ID of the user who is running the program matches the ID of the user who is trying to connect to the database.

You can limit the ability of denial-of-service attacks to prevent legitimate connections to the database server from being blocked.

### Authentication mechanisms

You can configure the HCL OneDB™ server authentication mechanisms to meet varying requirements, such as different security methods required for local and remote connections, database access by users without operating system accounts on the servers host computer, and non-root installation.

Authentication is the mechanism of verifying the identity of a user or an application.

The simplest, default authentication method operates for a local connection by relying on OS user lookup. For this type of connection, a user ID and password pair are passed directly to the OS for verification that the user is legitimate. This method requires that users are granted connection privileges by the DBSA and have corresponding OS user accounts on the HCL OneDB™ host computer.

On UNIX™ and Linux™, the HCL OneDB™ installation can be configured to support other authentication mechanisms that maintain security while reducing the dependency on system administrator and root-level privileges.

### **Authentication layers**

You can develop modules and configure a server to have a self-defined authentication mechanism for local and remote connections. An authentication-layer mechanism can function so that you are not required to make changes in the application. The database server supports these authentication layers:

- Pluggable Authentication Modules (PAM) for HCL® OneDB® systems running on UNIX™ or Linux™. The PAM
  framework provides a set of APIs for authentication, account, session, and password management.
- Lightweight Directory Access Protocol (LDAP) Authentication Support for Windows™. Use the LDAP Authentication
  Support module when you want to use an LDAP server to authenticate users.

The HCL OneDB™ client can be a local or a remote user. For network-based business models, the database server uses the network authentication mechanism provided by the OS, but requires the DBSA to set up trusted-hosts information or trusted-user information. Trusted-hosts information is set in the hosts.equiv file or the file specified by the REMOTE\_SERVER\_CFG configuration parameter. Trusted-user information is set in each user's rhosts file or in the file specified by the REMOTE\_USERS\_CFG configuration parameter. You can modify lookup options in the sqlhosts file.

Users that connect to the database server without login to the host computer OS are internal users.

# Internal users (UNIX™, Linux™)

The DBSA can grant database access to users that do not authenticate on the OS of the host computer by mapping PAMauthenticated users to OS-level entities or by configuring the server to perform internal authentication.

Internally authenticated users can connect even if the user cannot be identified by the OS.

Removing the dependency on a local host OS account for database server-access can reduce administrative work. For internal users, the DBSA is not required to coordinate with the OS Administrator to ensure that every user that must have server access also has an OS account.

There are two different types of internal users: mapped users and internally authenticated users. A mapped user connects to a database after providing a password that is validated in an authentication layer outside the database server. An internally authenticated user must provide a password matching one stored on the server, where authentication is an internal process.

# Mapped users (UNIX™, Linux™)

The DBSA can configure the server to allow database access by external users. External users attempting to connect through Kerberos single sign-on (SSO), a Pluggable Authentication Module (PAM), or internal authentication can be mapped to an OS-level profile for processing connection requests. External users attempting to connect through a Pluggable Authentication Module (PAM) or internal authentication can be mapped to an OS-level profile for processing connection requests.

Sometimes running an SQL statement requires the database server to interact with the OS, typically to read or write a file, or to run a program through the SPL SYSTEM statement. When interaction with the OS is required, the database server must be provided OS credentials to manage the file or run the program.

Users can be mapped to one of the following surrogate user identities:

- · A UID and GID pair defined in the database server
- · An existing OS user account on the database server host computer

After a user authenticates, whenever the database server interacts with the OS on behalf of the user, the surrogate user properties specified by the user mapping are invoked. The simplest mapping is identity mapping when the user name maps directly to the OS properties of a user with the same name. If you are the OS Administrator, you can use the /etc/onedb/allowed.surrogates file to specify which surrogate users and groups can be used so that mapped users are not granted owner access to sensitive systems, such as databases, print spoolers, email, or the operating system, itself.



**Note:** The allowed.surrogates file is not used or read by non-root installations of the database server, because the database server does not perform operations or run commands as the user who started the session.

The CREATE USER and GRANT ACCESS TO PROPERTIES statements can create complex mappings of surrogate properties, including:

- user ID
- · user name
- · surrogate groups
- · home directory
- authorization privilege (DBSA, DBSSO, AAO, or BARGROUP)

The CREATE USER and ALTER USER statements associate OS-level privileges by mapping users to OS properties and storing this information in a series of system catalog tables.

Users can be mapped DB-Access. After a DBSA sets the USERMAPPING configuration parameter in the <code>onconfig</code> file, and maps externally authenticated users to surrogate properties in tables of the SYSUSER database, it is possible for the mapped users to connect to the database server without a local OS account.

In order to enable mapped users functionality, the USERMAPPING configuration parameter must be set to either BASIC or ADMIN.

After you set the USERMAPPING configuration parameter to BASIC or ADMIN, you can use the following DDL operations on mapped users:

- ALTER USER
- CREATE USER
- DROP USER
- GRANT ACCESS TO PROPERTIES
- SET USER PASSWORD
- RENAME USER
- REVOKE ACCESS

## Mapped user surrogates in the allowed.surrogates file (UNIX™, Linux™)

The OS Administrator can use the /etc/onedb/allowed.surrogates file to control which OS users and groups can act as surrogates for mapped users.

The database server uses surrogate user properties while it performs operating system operations on behalf of a mapped user. OS user names, user IDs, group names, and group IDs specified in /etc/onedb/allowed.surrogates file are cached in shared memory during server start-up and after you run onmode -cache surrogates, and are checked during user creation and before the user is allowed to connect to the server.

The onmode-cache surrogates command causes the server to reread the allowed.surrogates file and store the user names, user IDs, group names, and group IDs values in shared memory cache. If the cache-refresh fails, previously stored surrogate names are cleared from the cache, effectively disabling mapped users. Changes in shared memory cache affect new sessions. Existing connections on the server are unaffected.

The improved control makes root installations of HCL OneDB™ more secure by preventing the DBSA from specifying surrogates that could compromise operating system security.



**Note:** The allowed. surrogates file is not used or read by non-root installations of HCL OneDB<sup>m</sup>, because the database server does not perform operations or run commands as the user who started the session.

# Specifying surrogates for mapped users (UNIX™, Linux™)

Specify operating system (OS) user names, user IDs, group names, and group IDs in the allowed.surrogates file to control which OS users and groups can act as surrogates for mapped users.

- 1. Create a file named allowed.surrogates in the /etc/onedb directory.
  The allowed.surrogates file must be owned by root instead of onedb. The file must not have execute permissions and only the file owner can have write permission.
- 2. In the allowed.surrogates file, enter the OS user names, user IDs, OS group names, group IDs, ranges of user IDs, and ranges of group IDs that you want to allow as surrogates.
  - a. Enter comma-separated OS user names, user IDs, and ranges of user IDs after entering the user: label.

#### **Example**

```
users:user1,user2,105,104,300,400..500
```

b. Enter comma-separated OS group names, group IDs, and ranges of group IDs after entering the group: label.

#### Example

```
groups:ifx_dbsa,group1,group2,root,1,10..20
```

The group and user labels are case-insensitive, and can be pluralized. Entries are separated by commas. Ranges of user IDs and group IDs are inclusive, with the upper and lower ranges separated by two periods. You must specify both an upper and lower limit for ranges. Comment lines begin with # and are ignored. Blank lines are also ignored.

If the allowed.surrogates file is formatted incorrectly, then user mapping is disabled and an error is logged in the online log file. If a user name or group name cannot be identified, the name is logged in the online log file and otherwise ignored, and the cache is cleared.

#### Example

The following example of an allowed.surrogates file entry specifies user user1, user 40, users 45-50, and group 10 as acceptable surrogates.

```
#Surrogate IDs
USERS:user1,40,45..50
GROUP:10
```

# Internally authenticated users (UNIX™, Linux™)

The DBSA can configure the server to authenticate users by checking their credentials with a hashed password that is stored inside the database server.

The DBSA creates internally authenticated users with the CREATE USER statement and sets up a password that is stored in the HCL OneDB™ SYSINTAUTHUSERS catalog table of the SYSUSER database.

The DBSA can administer internally authenticated users with the CREATE USER, DROP USER, ALTER USER, and RENAME USER SQL statements. Users can change their own password with the SET USER PASSWORD statement.

# Location and file names for mapped users' generated files (UNIX™, Linux™)

The generated files for some mapped users are created in a different default location, and are named differently.

If a mapped user is created with a non-OS surrogate UID and a home directory is not specified for this user, the working directory of the user is set to <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/users/server\_servernumber/uid\_UID</code>. Generated files, such as explain output files and debug files are stored in the user's working directory.

Generated files are renamed to have a username\_prefix, where username is the name of mapped user. For example on server number 2, the sqexplain.out file for mapped user fred, who has a UID of 3000, would be \$ONEDB\_HOME/users/server\_2/uid\_3000/fred\_sqexplain.out

If the length of the directory exceeds 256 bytes, the database server generates a warning, and files are generated in \$ONEDB\_HOME, instead.

If a CREATE USER or ALTER USER statement was used to specify the mapped user's home directory, then remote clients' files are generated in user's home directory and local clients' files are generated in the user's current working directory. File names changed to have a <code>username\_</code> prefix, where <code>username</code> is the name of the mapped user. Distinguishing the files of a specific mapped user is important, because multiple users can be mapped to the same surrogate UID.

If there are characters in a mapped user's name that interfere with file creation, characters are changed to '\_. For example, the generated files of mapped user **foo/bar** are renamed with the prefix foo\_bar\_.

## Connections to a non-root installation (UNIX™, Linux™)

A non-root installation of a database server runs without user **root** or user **onedb** privileges. Installation and user administration of a non-root server can be easier, but this type of installation does not support all product features.

A user who installs the database server without user **root** privileges performs a non-root installation. The user who completes non-root installation is the DBSA and creates and controls the other user accounts that can connect to the server. Installation and administration of the server does not depend on the root-level privileges associated with user **onedb** and group **onedb**.

The non-root server cannot authenticate users based on system calls to the OS level. The DBSA of the installation must create internal users to grant database server access to other users.

Consider non-root installation for easier product setup and embeddability, or for security in an environment that does not require high scalability. This type of installation might be preferable in environments where access to root privileges is rigorously controlled and it is difficult to obtain permission to create accounts like user **onedb** and group **onedb**.



**Important:** See "Non-root installation" in the *HCL OneDB™ Installation GuideHCL OneDB™ Installation Guide for UNIX™,* Linux™, and Mac OS X for important information about product features not supported with a server running without root privileges.

#### Shared-memory and stream-pipe connections to a non-root installation

You must include the  $_{\tt cfd}$  option in the  ${\tt sqlhosts}$  file to use shared-memory and stream-pipe connections on servers that have a non-root installation of HCL OneDB $^{\tt m}$ .

For root installations of the database server, communication files required for shared-memory and stream-pipe connections are stored in and accessed from the /INFORMIXTMP directory, a location where a non-root installation of HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  does not have write permission.

Use the cfd option in the sqlhosts file to set the directory where you want to store the communication files necessary for shared-memory and stream-pipe connections. Non-root installations of HCL OneDB™ now store communication files in the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etcdirectory by default. Clients connecting to the server now check the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc directory if communication files are not found in the /INFORMIXTMP directory.

Non-root installations of the database server do not have permission to write to the /INFORMIXTMP directory, so shared-memory and stream-pipe connection communication files are not written to the <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/etc</code> directory if no communication files directory is specified as an option in the <code>sqlhosts</code> file.

Clients connecting to the HCL OneDB™ server first check the /INFORMIXTMP directory for communication files before checking the \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc directory for communication files. If the client and server for a non-root installation of HCL OneDB™ are located in different locations, then the communication files are not in the /INFORMIXTMP or \$ONEDB\_HOME/

etc directories, and the connection fails. In this case, you must specify the cfd value in the sqlhosts file for the connection attempt to succeed.

### Distributed queries on non-root installations

You can perform distributed queries on non-root server installations after you set the REMOTE\_USERS\_CFG or REMOTE\_SERVER\_CFG configuration parameter. The REMOTE\_USERS\_CFG configuration parameter specifies an alternative to using ~/.rhosts files for listing trusted users on a remote server. REMOTE\_SERVER\_CFG configuration parameter specifies an alternative to using the etc/hosts.equiv file for listing trusted remote hosts.

# Creating database server users (UNIX™, Linux™)

If you have DBSA privileges, you can create internally authenticated users or you can create users who do not have accounts on the host system. To create these types of users, you must map each user to the appropriate user and group privileges, regardless of whether these users have operating system accounts on the database server host computer.

#### Before you begin

After a non-root database server is installed, users cannot immediately connect to the server with passwords because permission issues prevent OS authentication. Additionally, users do not yet exist in the internal database. The only way to initially connect to a non-root server is without a password. Because only a DBSA can create users, the database owner must make a connection without a password, and then create users in the database. The DBSA can create a user with or without a password. The method of establishing the initial connection without a password is provided in this task.

- You must have DBSA privileges. By default, the owner of a non-root server is a DBSA. When you create or modify user accounts, you can use CREATE USER or ALTER USER statements to grant the DBSA privilege to other users.
- · For a non-root installation only: After installation, you must connect to the database server by using DB-Access.

On local clients, you can start DB-Access and establish a connection to the server by using a user name and password. Alternatively, on the command prompt, a user can run the dbaccess command and then run other SQL statements to connect without a password, as follows:

```
>dbaccess - -
> database sysuser;

Database selected.
>
```

If you want to connect from a remote computer without a password, you must have trusted-host information or trusted-user information specified. Trusted-host information is in the hosts.equiv file or the file specified by the REMOTE\_SERVER\_CFG configuration parameter. Trusted-user information is in each user's rhosts file or the file specified by the REMOTE\_USERS\_CFG configuration parameter.

#### About this task

To create user accounts for database users:

Run the CREATE USER statement, in the format shown in the following examples:

```
CREATE DEFAULT USER WITH PROPERTIES USER 'guest';

CREATE USER username WITH PASSWORD password
```

#### What to do next

To enable a new user to successfully connect to the server:

You are not required to specify information in the USERMAPPING configuration parameter when you create users. However, if you want to enable the mapped or internal user to successfully connect to the server, you must set the USERMAPPING configuration parameter, as follows:

- If you do not want mapped users to have administrative privileges, set the USERMAPPING parameter to BASIC.
- If you want to make it possible for selected mapped users to have administrative privileges, set the USERMAPPING parameter to ADMIN.

No administrative privileges are given to any users until you provide that access when you run a CREATE USER (or ALTER USER) statement. You can grant ADMIN privileges to users with surrogate property AUTHORIZATION. The valid values are dbsa, dbsso, aao and bargroup.

# Maintaining database server users (UNIX™, Linux™)

You can modify, drop, or rename a database server user account that was created with the CREATE USER statement.

### Before you begin

Prerequisites:

· You must have DBSA privileges.

### **About this task**

To manage user accounts:

Run one of the following statements, as appropriate:

#### **Choose from:**

- Run the ALTER USER statement to change user properties such as user, password, groups, authorization privilege, home directory, and to enable or disable the account of an internally authenticated user, or of the default internally authenticated user.
- Run the DROP USER statement to remove the user.
- Run the RENAME USER statement to give the user a different name.

If you are a user whose account was created with the CREATE USER statement, you can run the SET USER PASSWORD statement to change your password.

### Example

### **Examples**

To grant DBSA authorization to a user named foo, run the following statement:

ALTER USER foo ADD AUTHORIZATION (dbsa);

To remove the DBSA authorization from user foo, run the following statement:

ALTER USER foo DROP AUTHORIZATION (dbsa);

To remove a user named david, run this command:

DROP USER david

To give a user named **ann** the new name of ann2, run this command:

RENAME USER ann to ann2

To change a password to pwd3439 for a user named radha, run this command

ALTER USER radha MODIFY PASSWORD pwd3439

If you are a user, not a DBSA, you can change your password, for example, from **js12342394** to **jayal89**, by running this command:

SET USER PASSWORD OLD js12342394 NEW jayal89

# User mapping tables (UNIX™, Linux™)

The user mapping tables in the SYSUSER database are system tables that map users to OS-level properties that enable HCL® OneDB® access and control level of discretionary access privileges.

#### sysusermap table

Database: SYSUSER

#### Table 5. Schema of the sysusermap table

Column	Туре	Description
usern		PUBLIC or a mapped user name
ame	(32)	
surroga	INT	Identification number for a surrogate user identity. This number is generated when you run the GRANT
te_id		ACCESS TO statement to create a mapped user.

### syssurrogates table

Database: SYSUSER

Table 6. Schema of the syssurrogates table

Col					
umn	Туре	Description			
surrog	SERIAL	Identification number for a surrogate user identity. This number is generated when you run the GRANT ACCESS TO statement to create a mapped user.			
ate_ID		ACCESS TO Statement to create a mapped user.			
os_us ern ame	CHAR( 32)	User name of an operating system account on the HCL® OneDB® host computer to be used as the surrogate user identity.			
		The os_username field is null when you set a value to the UID keyword in the GRANT ACCESS TO statement.			
uid	INT	User identifier number that corresponds with the permissions to which you want to map a user, users, or PUBLIC. This number and the corresponding <i>gid</i> value together form a surrogate user identity.			
		The uid field is null when you specify a name with USER keyword in the GRANT ACCESS TO statement.			
gid	INT	Group identifier number that corresponds with the permissions to which you want to map a user, users, or PUBLIC.			
group name	CHAR( 32)	A group name that exists on the operating system of the HCL® OneDB® host computer.			
home dir	VARCH AR(2 55)	Full path name in which user files are stored. The uid and gid must own the directory and have READ, WRITE, and EXECUTE permissions. The directory must not have PUBLIC WRITE permission.			
usera uth	CHAR( 10)	Contains userauth pattern that indicates whether the user has server administrator privileges.			

# syssurrogategroups table

Database: SYSUSER

Table 7. Schema of the syssurrogategroups table

Column	Туре	Description
surroga te_id	INT	Identification number for a surrogate user identity. This number is generated when you run the GRANT ACCESS TO statement to create a mapped user.
gid	INT	Group identifier number that corresponds with the permissions to which you want to map a user, users, or PUBLIC.
groupn ame	CHAR( 32)	A group name that exists on the operating system of the HCL® OneDB® host computer.

Table 7. Schema of the syssurrogategroups table (continued)

Column	Туре	Description
group	SMAL	Unique number associated with the group information.
seq	LINT	

## sysintauthusers table

Database: SYSUSER

Before a user connects to a database of a non-root installation, the server must authenticate the user by verifying credentials in sysintauthusers table. The value that is stored in the sysintauthusers table of the sysusers database is hashed with a 64-bit random salt that is also stored.

Table 8. Schema of the sysintauthusers table

Col	<b>T</b>	D
umn	Туре	Description
user n ame	NCHAR(32)	Name for the user.
salt	BIGINT	64-bit salt that the server uses to morph the password before applying the hashing algorithm. The server can use salt to change a password so that two users with the same password do not have the same hashed password in the database. Salt improves security because it prevents password guessing.
hash ed_p ass word	VARCHAR(1 28)	A sha-256 hashed and base-64 encoded password.
hash _t ype	CHAR(16)	Type of hashing algorithm used. Currently the SHA-256 algorithm is used.
upda ted	DATETIME YEAR TO SECOND {TIMESTA MP}	N/A
flags	INTEGER	Flags used to store some account information (such as the account lock).
min_ cha nge	INTERVAL DAY(7) TO SECOND	N/A

Table 8. Schema of the sysintauthusers table (continued)

### Col

•••		
umn	Туре	
max	INTERVAL	N/A
_cha	DAY(7) TO	
nge	SECOND,	
inact	INTERVAL	N/A
ive	DAY(7) TO	
	SECOND	
ac_e	DATETIME	N/A
	YEAR TO	
	SECOND	

# Guest account (Windows™)

Disable the Windows™ Guest account to prevent anonymous logins.

By default, the Windows™ Guest account is disabled. If you enable the Guest account, remote and local users can connect to the database server anonymously. Disable the Guest account in the Windows™ Control Panel. Also, set the configuration parameter SECURITY\_LOCAL\_CONNECTION = 1 to prevent local users from connecting by specifying a user name that is different from the user who is running the client process.

# Trusted-context objects and trusted connections

You can use trusted-context objects and trusted connections to increase system performance and security within a three-tier application model.

Trusted connections are established through a trusted-context database object, which must be created and defined by a user who holds the DBSECADM role. Trusted-context objects can contain:

- · Attributes for defining a trusted connection
- · Authentication requirements for trusted-connection users
- Roles for defining the access privileges of trusted-connection users

If a trusted-connection request matches all of a trusted-context object's attributes, the system grants a trusted connection. If a connection request contains an attribute that does not match the trusted-context object, the system rejects the request.

If you are a Database Administrator, and users are accessing your database through a middle-tier server, you can use trusted-context objects to:

- · Increase system security
- Increase overall system performance
- · Reduce maintenance overhead

- · Control user privileges
- · Preserve auditing capability of user access

If you are an Application Developer, and you are accessing a database through a middle-tier server, you can use trusted connections to:

- Maintain your user ID when you access a database server
- · Share a single database connection with other users
- · Increases overall system performance

# The three-tier application model

The traditional three-tier application model has system performance and security issues that can be addressed by trusted-context objects and trusted connections.

### The traditional three-tier application model

In a traditional three-tier application model, all interaction between users and a database server occurs through a database connection established in a middle-tier server. Users log into the middle tier, and the middle tier then logs into the database server. The ID and password stored on the middle tier, rather than the user's ID and password, are used for all authorization checking and auditing required to access the database server. All activity occurring through the middle tier is performed and recorded as if it comes from a single user, rather than from the multiple users that log into the middle tier.

### Security drawbacks of the traditional three-tier application model

The loss of user identity that occurs on the traditional three-tier application model causes the following security problems:

- · Diminished user accountability
- Inability for users with the DBSECADM role to set specific user access privileges, resulting in over-granting or over-restricting user access to resources

#### Connection options and related issues for some middle-tier servers

Some middle-tier servers are capable of establishing a new, different connection for each user ID and password. In this case, connection requests require that all user IDs and passwords be stored and authenticated in two places. The extra storage and connection requirements cause the following problems:

- Reduced system performance because creating new connections requires more system overhead
- Increased maintenance requirements for management of user IDs and passwords in multiple locations

## Requirements for trusted-context objects and trusted connections

Before you create trusted-context objects and use trusted connections, you must ensure that system and user requirements are met.

To create trusted-context objects you must have a user ID that has been granted the DBSECADM role.

To create trusted connections, you must be using an application that connects to the HCL OneDB™ Database server through TCP/IP. Local communication protocols are not supported. The following APIs can be used to request trusted connections:

- HCL OneDB™ ESQL/C
- HCL OneDB™ JDBC Driver
- HCL OneDB™ ODBC Driver

## Creating a trusted-context object

You must create trusted-context objects before you can create trusted connections to a database server.

#### Before you begin

If you are managing trusted-connection users' access privileges, verify that the privileges available through currently defined ROLE objects are appropriate, or request that the Database Administrator define roles with privileges appropriate for users.

To create trusted-context objects, use the CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT statement. Define the attributes of the object to meet the requirements of database users.

#### Choose from:

- After the CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT clause, specify the name of the trusted-context object.
- After the USER keyword, specify the system authorization ID (user ID) of the primary user.



**Note:** The BASED UPON CONNECTION USING SYSTEM AUTHID clause used for IBM® DB2® servers also works in place of the USER keyword.

• After the ADDRESS keyword, specify the IPv4 addresses, IPv6 addresses, or secure domain names of all workstations that must use a trusted connection.



**Note:** Locations based on Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) must not be used. Recycling IP addresses can result in unapproved users receiving trusted-locations status.

- Enter the ENABLE attribute to make the trusted-context object functional. Trusted-context objects have default state
  of DISABLE.
- If the connection is used by multiple, specific users, specify other trusted-connection users' IDs after the WITH USE FOR clause.
- If the connection is available to any user, enter the PUBLIC attribute after the WITH USE FOR clause.
- If you are specifying authentication (password) requirements for users, use the WITH AUTHENTICATION or WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION attributes after each user's ID or after the WITH USE FOR PUBLIC clause.
- If you are assigning roles to specific users, use ROLE keyword, followed by the role name, after the user's WITH AUTHENTICATION or WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION attributes.
- If you are assigning a default role to users, use the DEFAULT ROLE clause, followed by the role name. Trusted-context objects have default state of NO DEFAULT ROLE.

#### What to do next

After you have created a trusted-context object, you can make changes to it by using the following statements:

- · Use the ALTER TRUSTED CONTEXT statement to change the definition of a trusted-context object.
- Use the RENAME TRUSTED CONTEXT statement to change the name of a trusted-context object.
- Use the DROP TRUSTED CONTEXT statement to remove the trusted-context definition from the HCL OneDB™ system catalog.

## Examples of defining trusted locations

These trusted-context examples show how to define trusted locations by using the ADDRESS attribute.

## Example 1: Using an IPv4 address

In this example, trusted-context object text grants user newton a trusted connection if the request comes from the IPv4 address 192.0.2.1.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx1

USER newton

ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1')

ENABLE;
```

### Example 2: Using an IPv6 address

In this example, trusted-context object tox2 grants user brock a trusted connection if the request comes from the IPv6 address 2001:0DB8:0000:0000:0008:0800:200C:417A.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx2

USER brock

ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '2001:0DB8:0000:0000:0008:0800:200C:417A')

ENABLE;
```



Tip: You can use the compressed form of the IPv6 address: 2001:DB8::8:800:200C:417A.

#### Example 3: Using a secure domain name

In this example, trusted-context object tox3 grants user hayes a trusted connection if the request comes from the secure corona.testlab.ibm.com domain.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx3
USER hayes
ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS 'corona.testlab.ibm.com')
ENABLE;
```

### Example 4: Defining multiple trusted locations in a single trusted-context object

### **Example**

In this example, trusted-context object tox4 grants user newton a trusted connection if the request comes from the IPv4 address 192.0.2.1, the IPv4 address 194.0.6.3, or the secure corona.testlab.ibm.com domain.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx4

USER newton

ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1',

ADDRESS '194.0.6.3',

ADDRESS 'corona.testlab.ibm.com')

ENABLE;
```

## Examples of specifying authentication requirements for trusted connections

These examples show how to specify authentication requirements for trusted connections by using the WITH USE FOR clause and the WITH AUTHENTICATION and WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION attributes.

### Example 1: Specifying authentication requirements for a group of users

The WITH USE FOR clause specifies which users can share a trusted connection. The PUBLIC attribute specifies that any user can connect on a trusted-connection switch request.

In this example, trusted-context object text grants user newton a trusted connection if the request is coming from the IPv4 address 192.0.2.1. The trusted connection can be switched to any other user, and switching does not require a password from the new user.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx1
USER newton
ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1')
ENABLE
WITH USE FOR PUBLIC WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION;
```

### Example 2: Specifying authentication requirements for specific users

The WITH AUTHENTICATION clause specifies that switch requests from the specified user or group of users require authentication (a password). WITH USE FOR clauses that do not specify WITH AUTHENTICATION do not require a password for switching.

In this example, the trusted-context object  $t_{CX2}$  grants user  $t_{Newton}$  a trusted connection if the request is coming from the IPv4 address  $t_{Newton}$ . The trusted connection can be switched to  $t_{Newton}$  provides a password. The trusted connection can be switched to  $t_{Newton}$  provides a password.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx2

USER newton
ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1')
ENABLE
WITH USE FOR brock WITH AUTHENTICATION,
hayes WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION;
```

# Example of assigning a default role in a trusted-context object

This example demonstrates how to assign a default role for users of a trusted connection by using the DEFAULT ROLE clause. You can use the structure of this example to specify privileges for users of a trusted-context object.

#### **Example**

Roles and privileges established through the trusted-context object allow a user to gain privileges in addition to the ones they already have.

A new user of a switched trusted connection inherits either a default role or a specific role from a trusted-context object. If a trusted-context object does not define a specific role for a trusted-connection user, the user inherits the default role, and all the access privileges that the Database Administrator defined for that default role.

In this example, the trusted-context object text grants user brock a trusted connection if the request is coming from the IPv4 address 192.0.2.1. The trusted connection that brock is granted can be switched to any user. brock and all other trusted connection users are granted the default MANAGER role, and all MANAGER privileges that were previously defined by the Database Administrator.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx1

USER brock

ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1')

DEFAULT ROLE MANAGER

ENABLE

WITH USE FOR PUBLIC WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION;
```

## Example of assigning user-specific privileges in a trusted-context object

This example demonstrates how to assign user-specific privileges for a trusted connection by using the ROLE object. You can use the structure of this example to assign privileges for users of a trusted-context object.

#### **Example**

In this example, the trusted-context object  $_{\texttt{tcx1}}$  grants user  $_{\texttt{newton}}$  a trusted connection if the request is coming from the IPv4 address  $_{\texttt{192.0.2.1}}$ . The trusted connection that  $_{\texttt{newton}}$  is granted can be switched to  $_{\texttt{brock}}$  without a password. The trusted connection can be switched to  $_{\texttt{hayes}}$ , but  $_{\texttt{hayes}}$  must provide a password.

newton is granted the default AUDITOR role and privileges. If the connection is switched to brock, brock is granted the default AUDITOR role and privileges. If the connection is switched to hayes, hayes is granted the specific MANAGER role and privileges instead of the AUDITOR role and privileges.

```
CREATE TRUSTED CONTEXT tcx1
USER newton
ATTRIBUTES (ADDRESS '192.0.2.1')

DEFAULT ROLE AUDITOR
ENABLE
WITH USE FOR brock WITHOUT AUTHENTICATION,
hayes WITH AUTHENTICATION ROLE MANAGER;
```

## Creating a trusted connection

Using your application, you can create a trusted connection to your database.

#### Before you begin

Before you can create a trusted connection, ensure that you have met the following prerequisites:

- The trusted-context object is enabled.
- Your user ID has CONNECT privileges to the database.
- · Your user ID matches the primary user ID in the trusted-context object.
- Your connection request is coming from a trusted location that is defined in the trusted-context object.

To request a trusted connection, use the appropriate command from within your application.

#### Choose from:

· HCL OneDB™ ESQL/C

Use the TRUSTED keyword within the existing CONNECT statement.

```
EXEC SQL CONNECT TO 'database_name' TRUSTED;
```

HCL OneDB™ JDBC Driver

Include the TRUSTED\_CONTEXT=TRUE; property in the database URL.

```
jdbc:onedb://hostname:portnumber/database_name:
    ONEDB_SERVER = server_name; TRUSTED_CONTEXT=TRUE;
```

HCL OneDB™ ODBC Driver

Local transactions are supported on the OneDB ODBC Driver, but distributed (XA) transactions are not.

For local transactions, call the SQLSetConnectAttr function to set the SQL\_ATTR\_USE\_TRUSTED\_CONTEXT attribute before you open a connection.

You can also request a connection by including the TCTX = 1 attribute in the connection string.

## Switching the user ID on a trusted connection

You can switch user IDs after a trusted connection is established.

#### Before you begin

Ensure that at least one of the following statements is true:

- The new user ID is the primary user ID defined in the trusted-context object.
- The new user ID is explicitly defined as a user in the trusted-context object.
- The trusted-context object is defined as WITH USE FOR PUBLIC.



**Attention:** During a user-ID switch, the database connection is maintained, but the switch results in a new connection environment. Objects such as temporary tables and WITH HOLD cursors are lost in the new environment.

To switch to a different user, use the appropriate command in your application:

#### **Choose from:**

- HCL OneDB™ ESQL/C, HCL OneDB™ JDBC Driver, and HCL OneDB™ ODBC Driver
  - For a switch request without authentication requirements, use the SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION statement without a user password.

```
SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION TO 'user_ID';
```

 For a switch request with authentication requirements, include the new user's password in the SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION statement.

SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION TO 'user\_ID' USING 'user\_password';

# Rules for switching the user ID on a trusted connection

Specific rules apply to switching users on a trusted connection. Use the following rules to preserve security and auditing capability for trusted connections that are used by multiple users.

#### **Example**

Table 9. Rules for switching users on a trusted connection, and potential errors related to the rules.

Switching Rule	Related Errors
The switch request must be made on a	If the switch request is not made on a transaction boundary, the system rolls
transaction boundary.	back the transaction, sends the switch request to the server for processing,
	drops the connection, and then returns an error message.
	SQLCODE -30020
The switch request must not come from	If the switch request is made from within a stored procedure, the system
within a stored procedure.	returns an error message indicating an invalid operation in the environment.
	The system does not drop the connection and can process subsequent
	requests.
	SQLCODE -30090
The switch request must come from a user	If the switch request is made with an authorization ID that is not allowed on
ID that is allowed on the trusted connection.	the trusted connection, the system drops the connection and returns an error
	message.
	SQLCODE -32509
Trusted-connection requests from user	If the trusted-context object requires authentication to switch the user ID, but
IDs that require authentication to switch	the appropriate authentication token is not provided in the connection, the
must provide a correct authentication token	system drops the connection and returns an error message.
(password).	
	SQLCODE -26456

Table 9. Rules for switching users on a trusted connection, and potential errors related to the rules. (continued) **Switching Rule Related Errors** 

connection must be enabled when a switch request is made.

The trusted-context object used for a trusted 
If the trusted-context object associated with the trusted connection is dropped or disabled and a switch request for that trusted connection is made, the system drops the connection and returns an error message.

SQLCODE -26456

The new, switched user ID must hold CONNECT privileges to the database. If the switch request is made with a user ID allowed on the trusted connection but that user ID does not hold CONNECT privilege on the database, then the system returns an error message, but does not drop the connection.

SOLCODE -387

If the connection is dropped because of any of the issues previously described, the only requests acceptable by the system are:

- · A COMMIT statement
- A ROLLBACK SQL statement
- · A DISCONNECT request
- A CONNECT request

# Pluggable authentication modules (UNIX™ or Linux™)

A Pluggable Authentication Module (PAM) is a well-defined framework for supporting different authentication modules that were originally developed by Sun Microsystems. PAM is supported in both 32- and 64-bit modes on Solaris, Linux™, HP-UX and AIX®.

System administrators can use PAM to implement different authentication mechanisms for different applications. For example, the requirements of a system like the UNIX™ login program might be different from an application that accesses sensitive information from a database. PAM allows for many such scenarios in a single computer because the authentication services are attached at the application level.

System administrators can use PAM to enable an application to select the authentication as required. You can stack many modules one after another to enable the application to be authenticated in multiple ways before the application grants access. PAM provides a set of APIs to support authentication, account management, session management, and password management.

The system administrator can enable or disable the use of PAM. By default, the database server uses the traditional HCL OneDB™ authentication mechanism (which is based on the BSD rhosts mechanism) to avoid forcing major changes on users.

To use PAM with HCL® OneDB®:

- Your HCL OneDB™ database server must be on an operating system platform that supports PAM.
- If your client applications are written with Client SDK, the version of Client SDK must be sufficiently recent.
- If your client applications use Distributed Relational Database Architecture™ (DRDA®) connections, you can configure
  password authentication but not challenge-response authentication.
- You must have the appropriate PAM service configured in the operating system.
- You must decide which PAM authentication method provides sufficient security: the client connection password, correct input to a challenge-response prompt (for example, a RADIUS authentication server), or a combination of both.
- For Linux™ platforms, when you configure PAM to require both password and challenge-response authentication, the PAM service always ignores the password that is sent in the client connection request and prompts for the password a second time.
- If you require that an application authenticate in challenge-response mode before connecting to the database server, then design the application to handle the challenge prompt.
- You must ensure that Enterprise Replication and high availability clusters are not affected by PAM authentication.
- You must modify the server entry in the sqlhosts file for both the client application and the database server (if they are on separate computers or in separate locations on a single computer).

## The name of the PAM service

The PAM service name identifies the PAM module.

This PAM module typically is located in the /usr/lib/security directory and its parameters are listed in the /etc/pam.conf file.

In Linux<sup>m</sup>, the /etc/pam.conf file can be replaced with a directory called /etc/pam.d, where there is a file for each PAM service. If /etc/pam.d exists, /etc/pam.conf is ignored by Linux<sup>m</sup>. See the system documentation for the details of this configuration file.

## Authentication modes with PAM

The pluggable authentication mode (PAM) determines whether a user can authenticate by providing a password, responding correctly to a challenge, or a combination of both.

You can use either authentication mode for Client SDK connections. You can use the password authentication mode for Distributed Relational Database Architecture™ (DRDA®) connections.

The PAM implementation in HCL® OneDB® takes advantage of the fact that for explicit connection requests, the client sends a password to the server. You can set up PAM to make this password the only requirement for authentication to the server.

When you configure PAM to use the challenge-response protocol, authentication is complete after the user enters the correct reply to a question or other prompt. With this authentication mode, an application must be designed to respond to the challenge prompt correctly before it connects to the database server. You can set up PAM authentication to use the challenge-response mode only so that PAM ignores the client connection password.

For Linux™ platforms, if PAM is configured to authenticate users with the challenge-response protocol, the password from the client is ignored always. The PAM service on Linux™ prompts for the user password a second time if both password and challenge-response authentication are enabled.

## PAM required stack size

You can customize the stack size available for PAM modules.

The PAM feature loads operating system or third-party PAM modules (shared libraries) into the **onedb** user thread. The stack size requirements of these PAM modules cannot be predicted. For instance, on Linux<sup>™</sup> some modules require more than 128 KB of stack space. Use the **PAM\_STACKSIZE** configuration parameter to customize the stack size for PAM modules.

For example, set PAM\_STACKSIZE in the onconfig file as follows:

```
PAM_STACKSIZE 64 # Stack size needed for the PAM modules (K Bytes)
```

On UNIX™, the default value of PAM\_STACKSIZE is 32 KB.

On Linux™, the default value is 128 KB plus the value of the **STACKSIZE** configuration parameter.

# Configuring a connection to use PAM

You configure a connection to use a pluggable authentication module (PAM) by adding the PAM options to the connection information in the sqlhosts file.

## About this task

To configure a connection to use PAM, you must know:

- The name of the PAM module.
- · Whether the PAM module raises a challenge in addition to accepting a simple user name and password combination.

To configure PAM authentication for a connection:

Edit the sqlhosts file for the connection. Include the s=4 option and the PAM options pam\_serv, to specify the PAM service, and pamauth, to specify the authentication mode.

### **Example**

The following sqlhosts file entry shows a connection that is configured to use PAM challenge authentication:

```
ifxserver2 onsoctcp servermc portnum1 s=4,pam_serv=(pam_chal),pamauth=(challenge)
```

The following sqlhosts file entry shows a connection that is configured to use PAM password authentication:

```
ifxserver2 onsoctcp servermc portnum2 s=4,pam_serv=(pam_pass),pamauth=(password)
```

The following sqlhosts file entry shows a Distributed Relational Database Architecture<sup>M</sup> (DRDA®) connection that is configured to use PAM password authentication:

```
ifxserver3 drsoctcp serverdrda portnum3 s=4,pam_serv=(pam_pass),pamauth=(password)
```

## Define a PAM service

If you define your own PAM service for the HCL OneDB™ server instead of using one of the services that are already defined in the pam. conf file, you must include the auth and account functions.

Include the auth and account functions for the service.

On UNIX™, add the following lines to the pam. conf file:

```
pam_service auth sufficient path_and_filename
pam_service account sufficient path_and_filename
```

where pam\_service is the name of the PAM service and path\_and\_filename is the path and file name of your PAM file.

### For example:

```
pam_service auth sufficient /opt/mycompany/lib/mypam.so
pam_service account sufficient /opt/mycompyny/lib/mypam.so
```

See the operating system documentation for the complete PAM configuration instructions.

# LDAP authentication support on Windows™

LDAP Authentication on Windows™ is set up and configured like the Pluggable Authentication Module (PAM) that is used on UNIX™ and Linux™. Use the LDAP Authentication Support module when you want to use an LDAP server to authenticate your system users. The module contains source code that you can modify for your specific LDAP Authentication Support module.

The authentication module is a DLL that usually is located in the <code>%ONEDB\_HOME%\dbssodir\lib\security</code> directory. The parameters of the module are listed in the <code>%ONEDB\_HOME%\dbssodir\pam.conf</code> file. The source code for a fully functional LDAP Authentication Module and samples of the required configuration files are included in the <code>%ONEDB\_HOME% \demo\authentication</code> directory.

The LDAP Authentication Module provides single-module authentication only. The module does not support features such as module stacking. The system administrator can enable or disable the authentication.

# Installing and customizing the LDAP authentication support module

### Before you begin

Before you can use the HCL® OneDB® LDAP Authentication Module to create your authentication module, you must have an LDAP server and the LDAP client-side system.

### About this task

Your LDAP client-side system typically includes LDAP libraries and header files. These libraries and header files are required to compile the LDAP module.

To customize the LDAP Authentication Support module:

- 1. Customize the pam\_ldap.c file that is included with HCL® OneDB®.
- 2. Compile the pam\_ldap.c file into a DLL and place it in a secure directory.



**Tip:** Place the pam\_ldap.c file in the %ONEDB\_HOME%\dbssodir\lib directory.

#### What to do next

Your installation also includes a template of a configuration file, pam\_ldap\_tmpl, for the LDAP module. This configuration file contains site-specific information. You must store site-specific information in this configuration file, because the file enables a single LDAP module to work in different settings.

## Configuring the LDAP module

Use the template of a PAM configuration file to configure your LDAP module.

#### About this task

To configure your LDAP module:

- 1. Copy the template file to %ONEDB\_HOME% \dbssodir\etc and name it pam.conf.
- 2. Customize the file to accommodate your local security settings. See the template file, pam.conf\_tmpl, for details about how to customize the file.

# Configuring HCL OneDB™ for LDAP

## About this task

To configure a server to use an LDAP Authentication Support module, edit the sqlhosts file. The system administrator must know:

- The name of the module.
- Whether the module raises a challenge in addition to accepting a simple user name and password combination.

The following sqlhosts file entry shows a server configured to use PAM challenge authentication:

```
ifxserver1 onsoctcp servermc portnum1 s=4,pam_serv=(pam_chal),pamauth=(challenge)
```

The following sqlhosts file entry shows a server configured to use PAM password authentication:

```
ifxserver2 onsoctcp servermc portnum2 s=4,pam_serv=(pam_pass),pamauth=(password)
```

## Authentication mode with the LDAP module

The LDAP Authentication Support module determines whether a simple password is sufficient or other challenges are required. Implementation of the module in HCL® OneDB® takes advantage of the fact that for explicit connections, a password is sent to the server by the client. This password can be used to satisfy the LDAP Authentication Support module in cases where a simple password is used. If the authentication mode involves responding to single or multiple challenges, the applications must be able to respond to the challenges.

# Authentication module deployment

When you use authentication modules, you must consider the following issues:

- Implicit connections with authentication modules on page 78
- Application development for authentication modules on page 78
- Distributed transactions and authentication modules on page 80
- · Client APIs and authentication support modules on page 81
- Compatibility issues with authentication modules on page 82

# Implicit connections with authentication modules

Authentication responses to authentication modules, such as PAM and LDAP, expect a password. However, in implicit connections to the database server, there is no password.

PAM and LDAP are challenge oriented systems, in that the authentication response (the password) is supplied in response to a message from the authentication module. Implicit connections can work under PAM and LDAP only in challenge mode. Implicit connections in password mode result in failure.

# Application development for authentication modules

The authentication method depends on the PAM or LDAP Authentication Support module installed.

The authentication method can involve challenge and response. When the PAM or LDAP Authentication Support module raises a challenge, these processes occur:

- 1. The database server forwards the challenge to the client.
- 2. The application must respond to the challenge by using a callback function that is provided by an API in the HCL OneDB™ Client Software Development Kit (Client SDK) (Client SDK), such as the Java™ Database Connectivity (JDBC) Driver.
- 3. If the server to which the client is connecting is set up for challenge, the application must register a callback function with a Client SDK component.
- 4. When the Client SDK API receives a challenge from the server, the challenge is forwarded to the application by the callback function.
- 5. The application must respond to the challenge.
- 6. The Client SDK component forwards the response to the database server.

The application must be prepared to respond to multiple challenges and cannot assume the number of challenges or the challenges themselves.

The following example shows syntax of the callback function:

### char \*challenge

the character buffer in which the challenge is given by the server. The size of the buffer is fixed at 512 bytes, defined by **PAM\_MAX\_MSG\_SIZE** in the pam\_appl . h file.

### char \*response

the character buffer in which the response is provided by the user. The size of the buffer is fixed at 512 bytes, defined by **PAM\_MAX\_RESP\_SIZE** in the pam\_appl.h file.

## int msg\_style

contains a number that indicates the type of the message given by the server. Based on the type of the response, the application can take appropriate action in the callback function.

The client application must register the callback function before making the first connection. If the callback function is not registered when the first connection is made to the database server, and the server responds, then ESQL/C returns error -1809.

The following example shows a very simple program that first registers a callback function and then unregisters it.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <security/pam_appl.h>
static int user_callback(char *challenge, char *response,
int msg_style);
int main(void)
   EXEC SQL char passwd[]="password";
   int retval = 0;
    /* first register the callback */
    retval = ifx_pam_callback(user_callback);
    if (retval == -1)
       printf("Error in registering callback\n");
        return (-1);
    }
    else
       EXEC SQL database test; /* successful connection */
        /\star Note that this is an implicit connection. So, the
        * application should be ready to respond to challenges.*/
       printf ("sqlcode on pam connect = %d\n", SQLCODE);
   }
    retval = ifx_pam_callback(NULL); /* unregister the callback
                                      * function */
    if (retval == -1)
       printf("Error in registering callback\n");
        return (-1);
```

```
else
   {
    /* This connection throw error -1809, since the callback
    * function was unregistered statement */
        EXEC SQL database test;
       printf ("sqlcode on connect = %d\n", SQLCODE);
   }
    return 0;
static int user_callback(char *challenge, char *response,
int msg_style)
    switch (msg_style)
        /* If the msg_style is PAM_PROMPT_ECHO_OFF, the
        * application should not echo the user's response. */
       case PAM_PROMPT_ECHO_OFF:
        case PAM_PROMPT_ECHO_ON :
                printf("%s: %d:", challenge, msg_style);
                scanf("%.*s", PAM_MAX_RESP_SIZE, response);
               break:
       case PAM_ERROR_MSG:
       case PAM_TEXT_INFO:
       default:
                printf("%s: %d\n", challenge, msg_style);
   }
    return 0;
```

## Distributed transactions and authentication modules

When HCL® OneDB® initiates a distributed connection after the session is established, it cannot respond to authentication challenges because the timing is unpredictable. Also, the password required to connect to the local server might not be the same as the password required to connect to the remote server. Consequently, authentication for distributed connections must be completed by the remote server on the basis of trust. The remote server must trust the local server and the remote administrators must explicitly permit the user to connect from the local server to the remote server.

HCL® OneDB® provides two options to support distributed connection PAM authentication:

### 1. sysuser:sysauth

The sysauth table in the sysuser database on a server records the trusted remote servers and the host on which those servers run and controls incoming connections from other servers. If PAM or an LDAP Authentication Support Module is enabled in the remote servers, the system administrator can enter authorized users in the sysauth table in the sysuser database for each remote server.

Database: sysuser

Table: sysauth

Table 10. Schema of the sysauth table

Column	Туре
username	CHAR(32)
groupname	CHAR(32)
servers	VARCHAR(128)
hosts	VARCHAR(128)

The table can contain multiple rows for a single user to permit connections from different servers and hosts. A unique index exists on the combination of username, servers, and hosts, none of which allow nulls. The groupname column must be empty; any value in the column is ignored.

For example, to permit the server to accept distributed transactions from a user known as user1 from database server server1 running on host host1.example.com:

```
insert into sysauth values ("user1", NULL, "server1", "host1.example.com");
```

For forward compatibility, ensure that each row in the table identifies one user name, one HCL® OneDB® server name, and one host name. Do not use comma-separated or space-separated lists of server or host names in one entry.

2. On Linux/Unix platforms through OS rhosts PAM module, for example, define your PAM configuration file as

```
auth sufficient pam_rhosts.so
auth required pam_unix.so
account required pam_unix.so
```

# Client APIs and authentication support modules

Only specific HCL OneDB™ client APIs support PAM and LDAP Authentication Support modules. To use the other APIs when an authentication module is enabled on HCL® OneDB®, you can connect to a **DBSERVERALIASES**.

The following HCL OneDB™ client APIs support PAM and LDAP Authentication Support modules:

- ESQL/C
- ODBC
- JDBC

The other APIs do not support PAM and LDAP Authentication Support modules. To use them against a version of HCL® OneDB® that has an enabled authentication module, connect to a **DBSERVERALIASES** that does not have the PAM parameters in the sqlhosts file.

The following client APIs, tools, and applications do not support PAM or LDAP Authentication Support modules:

- LibC++
- · Client DataBlade® API
- OLE DB
- Visual Basic Applications using ODBC
- Ilogin and ODBC Test connection

For more information about ESQL/C, ODBC, and JDBC, see the HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  ESQL/C Programmer's Manual, the HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  ODBC Driver Programmer's Manual, and the HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  JDBC Driver Programmer's Guide.

# Compatibility issues with authentication modules

Only specific HCL OneDB™ products support authentication modules. To use the other products when an authentication module is enabled on HCL® OneDB®, you can connect to a **DBSERVERALIASES**.

Not all HCL OneDB™ products and tools support PAM or LDAP authentication:

- The DB-Access, dbexport, dbimport, dbload, and dbschema utilities support PAM. If they receive a challenge, they
  pass the challenge to the user and wait for a response. This process is repeated for each challenge that the PAM
  module raises.
- The onmode, onstat, and oncheck server administration utilities do not use PAM. However, because these utilities operate on all HCL® OneDB® ports, the utilities can function with a PAM-enabled port.
- Other server utilities do not support PAM.

If you are using any tools that do not support PAM or LDAP authentication modules, then make connections to a **DBSERVERALIASES** that does not have the PAM parameters in the sqlhosts file.

# Securing local connections to a host

The database server administrator (DBSA) can use the **SECURITY\_LOCALCONNECTION** configuration parameter to set up security checking for local connections with the same host.

The following table shows the settings of the SECURITY\_LOCALCONNECTION configuration parameter that you can use.

Table 11. SECURITY\_LOCALCONNECTION configuration parameter settings

Setti	g Explanation
0	No security checking occurs.
1	HCL® OneDB® compares the user ID of the owner trying to connect with the connection user ID. If these do not match, HCL® OneDB® rejects the connection.
2	HCL® OneDB® performs the same checking that is performed when <b>SECURITY_LOCALCONNECTION</b> is set to 1. In addition, HCL® OneDB® gets the peer port number from the network API and verifies that the connection is coming from the client program.
	If you set <b>SECURITY_LOCALCONNECTION</b> to 2, you must have SOCTCP or IPCSTR network protocols.

If **SECURITY\_LOCALCONNECTION** is set to 1 or 2, HCL® OneDB® establishes a connection only if the connection meets the requirements of the security check.

# Limiting denial-of-service flood attacks

HCL® OneDB® has multiple listener threads (listen\_authenticate) to limit denial-of-service (DOS) attacks.

These threads authenticate client requests, while the main listener thread only accepts the incoming requests and forks new threads for authentication.

You can use the **MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS** configuration parameter to configure the number of the threads authenticating at any point in time.

You can use the **LISTEN\_TIMEOUT** configuration parameter to configure the timeout value for incomplete connections.

DOS attacks can occur when you use external mechanisms such as Telnet to connect to the port reserved for a database server. For example, if you use Telnet to connect to the port reserved for a database server service, but do not send data, and a separate session attempts to connect to the server through an application such as DB-Access, the listener thread is blocked while waiting for information from the Telnet session and the listener thread cannot accept the connection to the application used in the second session. If during the waiting period, an attacker launches a distributed DOS (DDOS) attack in a loop, you can receive a flood attack on the connection leading to poor connection performance.

## LISTEN\_TIMEOUT and MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS configuration parameters

You can use configuration parameters to reduce the risk of a hostile, denial-of-service (DOS) flood attack.

You can customize the following configuration parameters:

- **LISTEN\_TIMEOUT**. Sets the incomplete connection timeout period. The default incomplete connection timeout period is 60 seconds.
- MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS. Restricts the number of incomplete requests for connections. The default maximum number of incomplete connections is 1024.

If you do not set the **LISTEN\_TIMEOUT** and **MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS** configuration parameters and a flood of unauthorized attacks occurs, the Listener VP might become insecure and it might not be able to listen to a valid request in a timely manner.

If you set the **LISTEN\_TIMEOUT** and **MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS** configuration parameters, and then someone tries to break into the system and reaches the maximum limit specified, the following information in the online message log is the notification that the system is under attack:

```
%d incomplete connection at this time.
System is under attack through invalid clients
on the listener port.
```

Depending on the machine capability of holding the threads (in number), you can configure

**MAX\_INCOMPLETE\_CONNECTIONS** to a higher value and depending on the network traffic, you can set **LISTEN\_TIMEOUT** to a lower value to reduce the chance that the attack can reach the maximum limit.

You can use the onmode -wm or onmode -wf commands to change the values of these configuration parameters while the server is online. For more information, see the HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Administrator's Reference.

# Discretionary access control

Discretionary access control verifies whether the user who is attempting to perform an operation has been granted the required privileges to perform that operation.

You can perform the following types of discretionary access control:

- Create user roles to control which users can perform operations on which database objects. See User roles on page 84.
- Control who can create databases. See Setting permission to create databases on page 85.
- Prevent unauthorized users from registering user-defined routines. See Security for external routines (UDRs) on page 86.
- Control whether other users besides the DBSA can view executing SQL statements. See Enabling non-DBSA users to view SQL statements in an active session on page 86.

### User roles

A role is a work-task classification, such as payroll or payroll manager. Each defined role has privileges on the local database object granted to the role. You use the CREATE ROLE statement to define a role.

After you create a role, use the GRANT statement to grant privileges to one or more users associated with the role name.

When a role is granted to a user, the role grantor or the role grantee (user) must use the SET ROLE statement to activate the role. Only then does the user have the privileges of the role.



**Important:** The scope of a role's privileges is the current database only. When the SET ROLE statement is run, the role is set in the current database only. As a security precaution, a user with role privileges cannot access tables on a remote computer through a view, trigger, or programmed procedure.

For more information about creating and using roles, see the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

# Role separation

When you install a database server instance, you implement role separation by setting the INF\_ROLE\_SEP environment variable to a non-zero integer value. Role separation enforces separating administrative tasks by people who run and audit the database server. If INF\_ROLE\_SEP is not set, then user **onedb** can perform all administrative tasks.

You cannot switch on role separation by resetting the environment after the server instance has been installed without role separation, and you cannot selectively implement role separation on only some of the databases of the same database server.

For more information about the INF\_ROLE\_SEP environment variable, see the *HCL OneDB* $^{\text{M}}$  Guide to SQL: Reference. For more information about role separation, see Using role separation on page 139.

# Default roles

An administrator can define a default role to assign to individual users or to the PUBLIC group for a particular database.

The default role is automatically applied when a user establishes a connection with the database.

Each user has whatever privileges are granted to the user individually and the privileges of the default role. A user can switch from the current individual role to the default role by using the SET ROLE DEFAULT statement.

If different default roles are assigned to a user and to PUBLIC, the default role of the user takes precedence. If a default role is not assigned to a user, the user only has individually granted and public privileges.

# Granting privileges for a default role

### About this task

To define and grant privileges for a default role:

- 1. Select an existing role in the current database to use as a default role or create the role that you want to use as a default role. Use the CREATE ROLE *rolename* statement to create a new role in the current database.
- 2. Use the GRANT statement to grant privileges to the role.
- 3. Grant the role to a user and set the role as the default user or PUBLIC role by using the syntax GRANT DEFAULT ROLE *rolename* TO *public*.

#### **Results**

Use the REVOKE DEFAULT ROLE statement to disassociate a default role from a user.

A user must use the SET ROLE DEFAULT statement to change any other current role to the default role.

See the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax for more information about using these statements.

# Setting permission to create databases

Use the **DBCREATE\_PERMISSION** configuration parameter to give specified users permission to create databases and thus prevent other users from creating databases.

### About this task

If you do not set the DBCREATE\_PERMISSION configuration parameter, any user can create a database.

The **onedb** user always has permission to create databases.

To set permission to create databases:

1. To restrict the ability to create databases to the **onedb** user, add the following line to the onconfig file:

### **Example**

DBCREATE\_PERMISSION onedb

2. You can include multiple instances of **DBCREATE\_PERMISSION** in the onconfig file to give additional users permission to create databases.

#### Example

For example, to grant permission to a user named watsonjay, add this line to the onconfig file:

DBCREATE\_PERMISSION watsonjay

# Security for external routines (UDRs)

External routines with shared libraries that are outside the database server can be security risks. External routines include user-defined routines (UDRs) and the routines in DataBlade® modules.

A database server administrator (DBSA), the user **onedb** by default, can implement security measures that establish which users can register external routines. This prevents unauthorized users from registering the external routines.

Use the IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE configuration parameter to restrict the ability of users to register external routines.

The default value of the IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE configuration parameter is 1 (or On).

When the IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE configuration parameter is set to On:

- You can grant a user the privileges to create or drop a UDR that has the EXTERNAL clause.
- The EXTEND role is operational and you can grant a user the privileges to create or drop an external routine that has the EXTERNAL clause.

When you grant the EXTEND role to a specific user, the **sysroleauth** system catalog table is updated to reflect the new built-in role.

After you set the **IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE** configuration parameter to On, a DBSA can use the following syntax to grant and revoke privileges to and from specific users.

- GRANT extend To username
- REVOKE extend From username

If you do not want to restrict UDR access, set the **IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE** configuration parameter to 0 (or Off). When the **IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE** parameter is set to Off, the EXTEND role is not operational and any user can register external routines.

The dbimport utility, in particular, is affected when the **IFX\_EXTEND\_ROLE** configuration parameter is set to On because a user who uses dbimport to create a new database has not been given an extend role on that database.

For more information, see the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## Enabling non-DBSA users to view SQL statements in an active session

You can enable non-database server administrator (DBSA) users to view SQL statements in an active session.

By default, the onstat commands that show the SQL statement text from an active session are restricted to DBSA users. To remove this restriction, set the UNSECURE\_ONSTAT configuration parameter to 1. The onstat commands that show SQL statements include onstat -g his, onstat -g ses, onstat -g stm, onstat -g ssc, and onstat -g sql.

The UNSECURE\_ONSTAT configuration parameter takes effect when the database server is shut down and restarted.

## Label-based access control

You can use label-based access control (LBAC), an implementation of multi-level security (MLS), to control who has read access and who has write access to individual rows and columns of data.

MLS systems process information with different security levels, permit simultaneous access by users with different security clearances, and allow users access only to information for which they have authorization. MLS is a well-known implementation of mandatory access control (MAC). If you hold the Database Security Administrator (DBSECADM) role in HCL® OneDB®, you can configure the LBAC objects to meet your security requirements:

- 1. Security policies. You attach a security policy to a table that you want to protect from unauthorized access. To create a security policy, you define security labels that determine who can access the table's data. You can have one or more security policies on your system, depending on your organization's requirements.
- 2. Security labels. You associate security labels with one or more objects in a table (data labels) and with users (user labels). When a user attempts to access an LBAC-protected table object, the system compares the user label to the data label to determine if the user can have access. If the user was not granted any label, access in most circumstances is automatically blocked.
- 3. Security label components. Security label components are the building blocks of LBAC security policies. You use these components to form security policies, which, in combination with security labels, represent different user access privileges. The variety of security label components that you can create, and the flexibility that you have in constructing security policies and security labels, offers you flexibility in the way you design your organization's LBAC solution.

LBAC complements discretionary access control (DAC). When a user attempts to access a protected table, HCL® OneDB® enforces two levels of access control. The first level is DAC. With DAC, HCL® OneDB® verifies whether the user attempting to access the table has been granted the required privileges to perform the requested operation on that table. The second level is LBAC, which controls access at the row level, column level, or both levels. The user's credentials are a combination of DAC privileges and granted LBAC-protected data access.

# Configuring label-based access control

The general procedure involves a few SQL-based tasks that define precise but flexible database security objects.

### Before you begin

Before you implement label-based access control (LBAC), you must identify the data that must to be protected, who can access that data, and what tables cannot be protected.

#### About this task

The following list outlines the major tasks in setting up a basic implementation with HCL® OneDB®:

- 1. The database server administrator (DBSA) grants the DBSECADM role.
- 2. The DBSECADM defines the security objects:
  - a. Creates security label components to define the attributes of sensitive data and the corresponding attributes of users who can have read access or write access to this data.
  - b. Creates security policies to reflect the organization's restrictions about who can access protected data.
  - c. Creates security labels for the security policies.
  - d. Grants security labels to users who must have access to the protected data.
  - e. *To protect new tables*: Uses the CREATE TABLE statement with the SECURITY POLICY clause and specifies how security objects protect data at the row level, column level, or at both levels.
  - f. *To protect existing tables:* Uses the ALTER TABLE statement with the ADD SECURITY POLICY clause and specifies how security objects protect data at the row level, column level, or at both levels.

## Example

## Tables to exclude from LBAC protection

#### What to do next

LBAC does not protect the following categories of tables:

- · virtual-table interface (VTI) tables
- · tables with virtual-index interface (VII)
- · temporary (TEMP) tables
- typed tables
- · hierarchical tables

## How security labels control access

Security labels rely on security label components to store information about the classification of data and about which users have access authority.

Label-based access control (LBAC) works by comparing the labels that you have associated with users against labels that you have associated with data by using a predefined rule set (IDSLBACRULES). You construct these labels with security label components, which represent different levels of data classification and access authority. Before you design an LBAC implementation, you must know how the labels store information in the components and how user operation and component type affect label comparison.

LBAC compares values for each user and data label when someone attempts access to a protected table. A user without a security label has a NULL value. When you create a security label, you select its values by choosing elements from each security label component that is part of the policy. Variations in the way you group the elements provide the differing values among labels that contain the same components.

LBAC compares, one-by-one, each component value of a user label to the corresponding component value in the data label. The comparison between labels is done in the sequence that the components are listed in the labels. The comparison determines if the user label component meets the appropriate IDSLBACRULE criterion for access. When all the values in the user label meet the criteria for access, the user label dominates the data label and can work with the protected data. If

any user label values do not dominate, then the user's credentials do not fit the criteria of the protecting security label. LBAC denies protected-data access to a user with a NULL value, unless the DBSECADM has granted the user an exemption to the security policy protecting the table.

### **Read Access Rules**

When a user attempts to retrieve data from an LBAC-protected table with a SELECT operation, the comparison follows Read Access Rules.

### **IDSLBACREADARRAY**

The array component of the user security label must be greater than or equal to the array component of the data security label. The user can read data only at or below the level of the value in the array component of the user label, where level is the value's relative ranking in the order of array elements.

#### **IDSLBACREADSET**

The user security label set component must include every element in the value for the set component of the data security label.

### **IDSLBACREADTREE**

The tree component of the user security label must include at least one of the elements in the value for the tree component of the data security label or an ancestor of one such element.

#### **Write Access Rules**

When a user attempts an INSERT, UPDATE, or DELETE operation, the comparison follows Write Access Rules.

### **IDSLBACWRITEARRAY**

The array component of the user security label must be equal to the array component of the data security label. The user can write data only at the level of the value in the array component of the user label, where level is the value's relative ranking in the order of array elements.

#### **IDSLBACWRITESET**

The user security label set component must include every element in the value for the set component of the data security label.

## **IDSLBACWRITETREE**

The tree component of the user security label must include at least one of the elements in the value for the tree component of the data security label or an ancestor of one such element.

# **Database Security Administrator Role**

The database security administrator role (DBSECADM) is required to create and maintain label-based access control security objects.

DBSECADM is a powerful server-level role that has the following responsibilities for all databases running on the HCL® OneDB® installation:

- Create, drop, alter, and rename security label components
- · Create, drop, and rename security policies
- · Create, drop, and rename security labels
- · Attach security policies to tables and detach security policies
- Grant security labels to users and revoke security labels
- Grant and revoke exemptions from security policies
- Grant and revoke the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege

## Granting the Database Security Administrator role

A DBSA uses the GRANT DBSECADM statement to give database security administrator authority to a user.

### Before you begin

You must be a DBSA to grant DBSECADM.

#### About this task

Grant the DBSECADM role by issuing the GRANT DBSECADM statement, as described in the HCL OneDB<sup>T</sup> Guide to SQL: Syntax.

### **Example**

The following statement gives DBSECADM authority to user sam:

GRANT DBSECADM TO sam;

### What to do next

# Revoking the database security administrator role

A DBSA uses the REVOKE DBSECADM statement to take away database security administrator authority from a user who previously was granted this role.

### Before you begin

You must be a DBSA to revoke the DBSECADM role. You must know the login name from whom you want to revoke the DBSECADM role.

### About this task

Use the REVOKE DBSECADM statement to revoke the DBSECADM role, as described in HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

### **Example**

The following statement revokes DBSECADM authority from user sam:

REVOKE DBSECADM FROM sam;

### What to do next

# Security label components

Security label components are security objects for defining security policies. The elements of these components are used to define security labels, which control access to protected tables.

Security label components represent any criteria that your organization might use to decide if a user must have access to a table row or column. Typical examples of such criteria include:

- · How much authority the user has in the organization
- · Which confidential data, if any, the user is entitled to read or write
- · To which department the user belongs
- · Whether the user is involved in a particular project

Before you create security label components, you must know how your organization's privacy plan corresponds with a data classification scheme. You also must identify the security policy and security labels that you build from the components. Data classifications that you implement through label-based access control (LBAC) map to the elements that you list when you create security label components. When a user attempts to access protected data, the label values of a user is compared to the label values of the row or column. Security label components, and their elements that are used in the security labels, specify these values.

### Types of security label components

There are three types of security label components:

- ARRAY: Each element represents a point on an ordered scale of relative values (see Security label component type: ARRAY on page 92)
- SET: Each element represents one member of an unordered set (see Security label component type: SET on page 93)
- TREE: Each element represents a node in a tree-like hierarchy (see Security label component type: TREE on page 94)

As you design an LBAC solution, you identify the security label component type that best reflects the relationship among varying authority levels and groups of users. A basic LBAC implementation can draw on the organization's existing categorizations to name and group the elements, so that the elements are entities the organization already uses. As an overview, the following examples briefly describe the way security label components can function in two different situations.

### Example of a component reflecting a strictly ranked data classification scheme

If you are creating a security label component to represent a simple, linear ranking of data-access classifications, you use a component of type ARRAY. An ARRAY-type security label component that represents four data-access classifications can have the following elements: Top Secret, Secret, Confidential, and Unclassified.

## Example of a component reflecting an organizational chart

The executive management of a fictional information-services corporation in the United States named "JK Enterprises" wants to limit access to specific rows of data on a database to which all employees have access. JK Enterprises has branched its national organization into regions and subregions. Much of JK Enterprises' privacy policy to be implemented with LBAC allows or denies access based on the user's affiliation with a regional level. The higher-level regions encompass larger areas of the organization. For example, an employee designated as part of the West regional level is entrusted with more authority than employees designated with the subordinate Southwest, California, and Pacific Northwest regional levels. The security label component type that best suits this set of criteria is TREE. Therefore, the user with DBSECADM authority at JK Enterprises creates a security label component named region and identifies the following elements for the component:

- West
- Southwest
- California
- Pacific Northwest

Because the regions of JK Enterprises encompass the entire United States, the four regions previously listed compose a partial list of elements. The diagram in Security label component type: TREE on page 94 illustrates all the elements of this company's region security label component.

# Security label component type: ARRAY

Security label component type ARRAY represents a ranked group of elements.

The elements in an ARRAY component represent an ordered scale of relative values; the first element listed has the highest value and the last has the lowest.

The maximum number of elements in an ARRAY type of security label component is 64. An ARRAY component of a security label has the value of only one of its elements when it is compared after the IDSLBACRULES.



**Example:** If the fictional company JK Enterprises defines security label component level as a ranking of the company's four different privacy levels, as in the following statement:

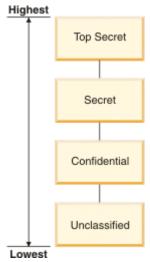
```
CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT level

ARRAY [ 'Top Secret', 'Secret', 'Confidential', 'Unclassified' ];
```



Then Figure 6: Relationship of elements in an ARRAY example on page 93 illustrates the order of the elements:

Figure 6. Relationship of elements in an ARRAY example



When an ARRAY component in the user label is compared to an ARRAY component of a data label:

- For Read Access: The IDSLBACREADARRAY rule lets the user component dominate when its value is greater than or equal to the value of the component in the data security label. The user can read data only at or below the level of the value in the array component of the user label.
- For Write Access: The IDSLBACWRITEARRAY rule lets the user component dominate when its value is equal to the value of the component in the data label. The user can write data only at the level of the value in the array component of the user label.

# Security label component type: SET

Security label component type SET is used to represent a group of unordered elements.

A SET-type security label component consists of an unordered list of elements. There is no ranking or other relationship among elements in this type of component.

The maximum number of elements that can exist in a SET is 64. The value of a SET-type component in a security label can consist of one or more elements.

## **Example**

The following statement creates a SET-type security label component named function with three elements:

```
CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT function
SET {'Developer', 'Administrative', 'Legal'};
```

When a SET component in the user label is compared to a SET component of a data label:

- For read access, the IDSLBACREADSET rule lets the user label dominate when the SET component of the user security label includes all the elements of the value for the SET component of the data security label.
- For write access, the IDSLBACWRITESET rule lets the user label dominate when the SET component of the user security label includes all the elements of the value for the SET component of the data security label.

# Security label component type: TREE

Security label component type TREE contains a group of elements that represent a family of parent-child relationships.

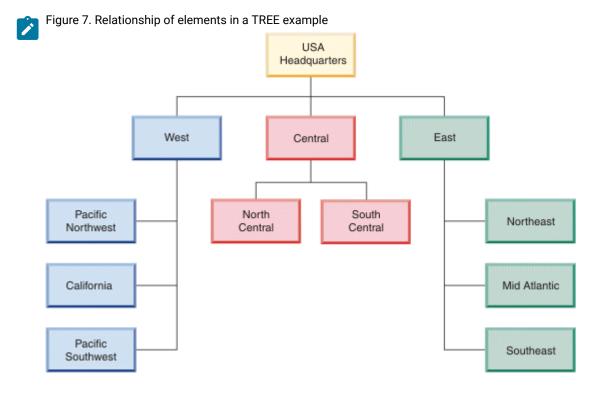
The elements in this type of security label component can be thought of as being in a tree. The first element you specify for a TREE-type component is ROOT, which represents the highest level of authority. Then you specify the other elements sequentially to follow the different levels of children and grandchildren that you want in the component.

The maximum number of elements in a TREE security label component is 64. The value of a TREE component in a label can be one or more of its nodes.



**Example:** JK Enterprises decides that its levels of authority to access protected data must follow its organizational chart. The company can use this scheme to outline its TREE security label component. The following example shows a statement creating the region security label component:

Figure 7: Relationship of elements in a TREE example on page 95 illustrates the relationships among the TREE component elements in this example.



When a user label with one or more TREE components is compared to a data label with TREE components:

- For read access, the IDSLBACREADTREE rule lets the user label dominate and have read access when the label's
  TREE component includes at least one of the elements in the value for the tree component of the data label or the
  ancestor of one such element.
- For write access, the IDSLBACWRITETREE rule lets the user label dominate and have write access when each of the label's TREE components includes at least one of the elements in the value for the tree component of the data label or the ancestor of one such element.

# Creating security label components

The CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement defines this database security object.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to create security label components.

### About this task

When you create a security label component you must provide the following information:

- A name for the component
- The type of component it is (ARRAY, SET, or TREE)
- · A complete list of elements

Create a security label component by issuing the CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement, as described in HCL  $OneDB^{m}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## **Example**

The following example shows a CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement that creates a SET-type component with name department and elements Marketing, HR, and Finance:

```
CREATE SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT department

SET {'Marketing', 'HR', 'Finance'};
```

# Altering security label components

The ALTER SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement adds one or more new elements to an existing component.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to add one or more elements to a security label component, and you must know what type of component it is.

### About this task

When you alter a security label component, remember the following rules:

- A security label component can consist of no more than 64 elements.
- If the component you want to alter is of type ARRAY or TREE, you must know the relationships that all the elements of the resulting component have with one another.
- The ALTER SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement cannot modify or drop any existing elements.

Add one or more elements to a security label component by issuing the ALTER SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement, as described in  $HCL\ OneDB^{\text{TM}}\ Guide\ to\ SQL:\ Syntax.$ 

### Example

The following example shows an ALTER SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT statement that adds to a SET-type component the elements Training, QA, and Security:

```
ALTER SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT department

ADD SET {'Training', 'QA', 'Security'};
```

# Security policies

Security policies are database objects that you create and use to protect tables from unauthorized access.

A security policy is a named database object defined by a group of security label components.

A security policy is attached to one or more tables to allow only users with valid label-based access control credentials to read or write protected data. A user has valid credentials when the user has a security label that dominates when compared to a labeled row or column after the IDSLBACRULES. A security policy has no effect on data that has no security label.

No more than one security policy can be attached to a table, and a security policy can include no more than 16 security label components. You attach a security policy to a table by using a clause in a CREATE TABLE or ALTER TABLE statement. See Protecting tables at row and column levels on page 100 for how to attach the policy to a table.

# Creating security policies

You create security policies after you have created security label components.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to create a security policy. The maximum number of security label components with which you can build a security policy is 16.

### About this task

The order in which you list security label components when you create a security policy does not indicate any sort of precedence or other relationship among the components, but it is important to know the order when creating security labels with built-in SECLABEL functions.

Create a security policy by issuing the CREATE SECURITY POLICY statement, as described in HCL OneDB $^{\text{TM}}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

### Example

The following example shows this SQL statement, where company is the security policy name and region and department are security label components used in the policy:

```
CREATE SECURITY POLICY company
COMPONENTS region, department;
```

## Security labels

Security labels are objects applied to rows and columns in order to protect these data, and granted to users to give them access to protected data.

When users try to access protected data, label-based access control compares the user label to the data label. The process of this comparison is detailed in How security labels control access on page 88.

When you create a security label:

- You identify to what security policy the label belongs.
- You assign a value for each security label component in the security policy.

You apply just one label to a row or column. For a given security policy, you typically grant to a user one label to define both read and write access. But you can grant a user one label for read access and a different label for write access to data protected by the same security policy. When the read-access label differs from the write-access label granted to a user, the user can only write to data objects that can be accessed by the user's read-access label.

# Creating security labels

The CREATE SECURITY LABEL statement defines a new security label for a specified security policy.

## Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to create a security label.

#### About this task

When you create a security label, you complete the following steps:

- · Specify a security policy to which the label belongs.
- · Identify the components of that policy.
- Identify one or more elements of each component.
- · Name the label.

Create a security label by issuing the CREATE SECURITY LABEL statement, as described in HCL OneDB $^{\text{TM}}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

### Example

The following example shows a CREATE SECURITY LABEL statement:

```
CREATE SECURITY LABEL company.label2

COMPONENT level 'Secret',

COMPONENT function 'Administrative',

COMPONENT region 'Southwest';
```

### What to do next

This statement defines label2 in security policy company.

## Granting security labels

The GRANT SECURITY LABEL statement grants a security label to a user or to a list of users.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to grant a label to users. Users specified in a GRANT SECURITY LABEL statement cannot be the DBSECADM who issues it.

### **About this task**

When you issue the GRANT SECURITY LABEL statement, you can optionally specify that the users receive the label for read access, write access, or all access. If you do not specify access, then the statement grants users an all-access label.

If a user is granted a different security label for read access than for write access, then the values given for the security label components must follow these rules:

- For security label components of type ARRAY, the value must be the same in both security labels.
- For security label components of type SET, the values given in the security label used for WRITE access must be a subset of the values given in the security label used for READ access. If all of the values are the same, this is considered a subset, and is allowed.
- For security label components of type TREE, every element in the TREE component of the security label for write
  access must be either an element or a descendent of an element in the TREE component of the security label for read
  access.

To grant a security label, see the documentation about the GRANT SECURITY LABEL statement in HCL OneDB $^{\text{m}}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax

In the following example of this SQL statement, label2 of the company security policy is granted to user maria.

```
GRANT SECURITY LABEL company.label2
TO maria;
```

### What to do next

# Revoking security labels

The REVOKE SECURITY LABEL statement revokes a security label from a user or from a list of users.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to issue the REVOKE SECURITY LABEL statement.

### About this task

When you issue the statement, you optionally can also:

- Revoke every security label of a security policy from users.
- · Specify read-access or write-access label, or both labels, if the users have two different labels for a security policy.

Revoke a security label by issuing the REVOKE SECURITY LABEL statement, as described in HCL OneDB $^{\text{m}}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## Example

In the following example of this SQL statement, label2 of the company security policy is revoked from user maria.

```
REVOKE SECURITY LABEL company.label2
FROM maria;
```

## What to do next

# Security label support functions

Security label support functions are expressions for manipulating security labels.

You typically use the security label support functions (SECLABEL functions) to specify a label in data-manipulation (DML) operations on protected table rows. In these operations, however, the security label support functions do not provide any

more access to protected data than is already provided by your security credentials. There are three built-in functions for label-based access control in HCL® OneDB®:

- The SECLABEL\_BY\_NAME function provides a security label directly by specifying its name.
- The SECLABEL\_BY\_COMP function provides a security label directly by specifying its component values.
- The SECLABEL\_TO\_CHAR function returns a security label in the security label string format.

You can reference a security label with these functions by providing one of the following pieces of information:

- · A name, as declared in the CREATE SECURITY LABEL or RENAME SECURITY LABEL statement.
- A list of values for each component of the security policy of the security label.
- An internal encoded value that the IDSSECURITYLABEL data type stores.

These functions can convert between the various forms of a security label.

See the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax for more information about and examples of security label support functions.

## Protecting tables at row and column levels

Protect rows and columns by associating them with security objects by including clauses in the CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements.

After you have created the security objects required for your label-based access control (LBAC) implementation, you must apply them to the tables that you want to protect. The main actions to protect the data at this stage are:

- Attach a security policy to each table containing data to be protected by LBAC.
- Associate the necessary rows and columns with security labels.

Data in a table can only be protected by security labels that are part of the security policy protecting the table. Data protection, including attaching a security policy to a table, can be done when creating the table or later by altering the table.

## Protected table with row-level granularity

A table can be marked as protected with row-level granularity during CREATE TABLE or ALTER TABLE by attaching a security policy and by specifying the security label column. The security label column must be of the IDSSECURITYLABEL data type.

If users attempt to access a row to which they do not have the required LBAC credentials, the system responds to the users as if the row did not exist.

## **Example**

## Protected table with column-level granularity

A database table can be marked as protected with column-level granularity during CREATE TABLE or ALTER TABLE by attaching a security policy to such table and by attaching a security label to one or more columns of that table. When a column is associated with a security label, that column becomes a protected column. The security policy attached to the table affects what security label can be applied to the column.

If users attempt to access a column to which they do not have the required LBAC credentials, the system generates an error message.

## Security label column (IDSSECURITYLABEL data type)

The column holding the label for row-level granularity must be of the IDSSECURITYLABEL data type. Only a user who holds the DBSECADM role can create, alter, or drop a column of this data type. ISDSECURITYLABEL is a built-in DISTINCT OF VARCHAR(128) data type. A table that has a security policy can have only one IDSSECURITYLABEL column.

The following constraints cannot be applied to a security label column:

- · Referential constraints
- Check constraints
- · Primary key or unique constraints if the security label column is the only column in constraint
- · Column protection
- Encryption

For more information about the IDSSECURITYLABEL data type, see the HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  Guide to SQL: Reference and HCL OneDB $^{\text{\tiny{M}}}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## Simultaneous row-level and column-level protection on a table

A protected table can be defined with both row and column-level granularities. If both row and column granularity are applied to a table, then LBAC enforces column-level before row-level access control.

You can apply row and column-level protection on a table in a single statement rather than issuing separate statements for the two granularities when you do the either of the following steps:

- When you create a new LBAC-protected table
- · When you alter a table to add row-level protection in addition to the existing column-level protection

The following example shows a CREATE TABLE statement and an ALTER TABLE statement that set up two tables with both row and column-level protection.

```
CREATE TABLE T5

(C1 IDSSECURITYLABEL,
C2 int,
C3 char (10) COLUMN SECURED WITH label6)
SECURITY POLICY company;

ALTER TABLE T6
ADD (C1 IDSSECURITYLABEL),
MODIFY (C2 INT COLUMN SECURED WITH label7),
ADD SECURITY POLICY company;
```

For more information about how these statements work, see Applying row-level protection on page 102, Applying column-level protection on page 102, HCL  $OneDB^{\text{TM}}$  Guide to SQL: SQ

# Applying row-level protection

Protect row-level data by associating the table with a security policy and inserting an IDSSECURITYLABEL-type column.

#### Before you begin

### **About this task**

There are two methods for applying row-level protection:

- 1. For a new table: Use the CREATE TABLE statement with the appropriate IDSSECURITYLABEL and SECURITY POLICY clauses, as described in *HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax*.
- 2. For an existing table: Use the ALTER TABLE statement with the appropriate IDSSECURITYLABEL and ADD SECURITY POLICY clauses, as described in *HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax*.

### Example

The following example shows a statement that applies row-level protection when you create a new table (T1) by using the security policy named company and the security label named label2.

```
CREATE TABLE T1

(C1 IDSSECURITYLABEL,

C2 int,

C3 char (10))

SECURITY POLICY company;
```

The following statement provides an example of applying row-level protection on a table (T2) that already exists on the database, by using the security policy named company. The default value for C1 is label3.

```
ALTER TABLE T2

ADD (C1 IDSSECURITYLABEL DEFAULT 'label3'),

ADD SECURITY POLICY company;
```

#### What to do next

# Applying column-level protection

Protect column-level data by associating the table with a security policy and attaching a security label to one or more columns.

### About this task

There are two methods for applying column-level protection:

- 1. For a new table: Use the CREATE TABLE statement with the COLUMN SECURED WITH and SECURITY POLICY clauses, as described in *HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL*: Syntax.
- 2. For an existing table: Use the ALTER TABLE statement with the MODIFY (your\_column COLUMN SECURED WITH) and ADD SECURITY POLICY clauses, as described in *HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax*.

### Example

The following example shows a statement that applies column-level protection when a new table ( $_{\text{T3}}$ ) is created by using the security policy named  $_{\text{company}}$  and a security label named  $_{\text{label4}}$ .

```
CREATE TABLE T3
(C1 CHAR (8),
C2 int COLUMN SECURED WITH label4,
C3 char (10))
SECURITY POLICY company;
```

The following statement provides an example of applying column-level protection on a table ( $_{\text{T4}}$ ) that already exists on the database by using the security policy named  $_{\text{company}}$  and a security label named  $_{\text{label5}}$ .

```
ALTER TABLE T4

MODIFY (C1 CHAR (8) COLUMN SECURED WITH label5),

ADD SECURITY POLICY company;
```

# Exemptions

Exemptions modify security credentials of users by disabling one or more of the IDSLBACRULES for a component type in a security policy.

Since exemptions are based on a security label component type for a particular security policy, this exemption does not apply outside that security policy. Within the security policy, the exemption applies to all instances of the component type.

Exemptions can be useful for allowing trusted users do administrative work for which otherwise it would be cumbersome to grant all necessary label-based access control credentials. For example, if your job is to classify incoming data, a typical practice would be for the DBSECADM to grant you exemptions so that you can write to any data row in the security policy.

If users hold an exemption to every rule of a security policy, then they have complete access to all data protected by that policy.

Exemptions provide very powerful access. Do not grant them without careful consideration.

# Granting exemptions

The GRANT EXEMPTION statement gives a user an exemption from one or more access rules of a security policy.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to grant exemptions.

## About this task

Grant an exemption by issuing the GRANT EXEMPTION statement, as described in the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## Example

The following statement grants user maria an exemption from the IDSLBACWRITETREE rule in security policy company:

```
GRANT EXEMPTION
ON RULE IDSLBACWRITETREE
FOR company
TO maria
```

## What to do next

To grant a user exemptions from all IDSLBACRULES of a security policy, specify ALL in place of the policy name in the statement. Typically, this type of exemption is practical for a user who is responsible for loading and unloading data in protected tables.

# Revoking exemptions

The REVOKE EXEMPTION statement revokes from a user an exemption on one or more access rules of a security policy.

### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to revoke exemptions.

### About this task

Revoke an exemption by issuing the REVOKE EXEMPTION statement, as described in the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## **Example**

The following statement revokes from user maria an exemption from the IDSLBACWRITETREE rule in security policy company:

REVOKE EXEMPTION ON RULE IDSLBACWRITETREE FOR company FROM maria

### What to do next

To revoke all IDSLBACRULES exemptions that a user has for a security policy, specify ALL in place of the policy name in the statement.

# Maintaining a label-based access-control implementation

Optimizing database performance can require adjusting the values of configuration parameters for security policies and user credentials.

Run the onstat -g cac lbacplcy and onstat -g cac lbacusrc commands to monitor the label-based access control (LBAC) caches.

Set the following configuration parameters to control the LBAC caches:

### **PLCY\_HASHSIZE**

Specifies the number of hash buckets in the security policy information cache.

## PLCY\_POOLSIZE

Specifies the maximum number of entries in each hash bucket of the security policy information cache.

### USRC\_HASHSIZE

Specifies the number of hash buckets in the LBAC credential memory cache.

## USRC\_POOLSIZE

Specifies the maximum number of entries in each hash bucket of the LBAC credential memory cache.

## **Tuning the LBAC caches**

Poor performance of a database with tables protected by LBAC can indicate that the system is unnecessarily relying on disk operation more than on LBAC-related caching to retrieve information from memory.

Fine-tuning one or more of the LBAC configuration parameters in the <code>onconfig</code> file can improve performance for queries that are frequently run on protected tables. For example, if the value for the PLCY\_HASHSIZE configuration parameter is set too low, there are not enough hash buckets that are allocated for security policy information caching and so some database performance that involves LBAC-protected tables declines.

# Dropping security objects

Use the DROP SECURITY statement to remove a security label component, a security policy, or a security label from the database.

## Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to remove a security object.

#### About this task

Three valid keyword definitions of the DROP SECURITY statement are as follows:

- 1. DROP SECURITY POLICY *policy* removes a security policy; this can be used in RESTRICT and CASCADE modes

  Choose from:
  - Example: DROP SECURITY POLICY company removes the policy named company from the database
- 2. DROP SECURITY LABEL policy.label removes a security label; this can be used in RESTRICT mode

### **Choose from:**

- Example: DROP SECURITY LABEL company.label2 removes the label named label2.
- 3. DROP SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT *component* removes a security label component; this can be use in RESTRICT mode

### **Choose from:**

• Example: DROP SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT department removes the component department.

For more information about the DROP SECURITY statement, including details about the RESTRICT and CASCADE modes, see  $HCL\ OneDB^{\text{\tiny{M}}}\ Guide\ to\ SQL$ : Syntax.

### Results

When the DROP SECURITY statement executes successfully, the database server deletes any rows that reference the name or the numeric identifier of the specified object from the tables of the system catalog, including the following tables:

#### What to do next

- · sysecpolicies for security policies
- · sysseclabels for security labels
- sysseclabelcomponents for security label components

# Renaming security objects

Use the RENAME SECURITY statement to rename a security policy, a security label, or a security label component.

#### Before you begin

You must hold the DBSECADM role to rename a security object.

#### About this task

The three valid clauses for the RENAME SECURITY statement are as follows:

1. POLICY old\_name TO new\_name renames a security policy

### **Choose from:**

- Example: RENAME SECURITY POLICY company TO subsidiary; renames the policy named company to subsidiary
- 2. LABEL security\_policy.old\_name TO new\_name renames a security label; in this statement you also indicate the security policy to which the label belongs

### **Choose from:**

- Example: RENAME SECURITY LABEL subsidiary.label8 TO label9; renames label8 to label9, which belongs to security policy subsidiary
- 3. LABEL COMPONENT old\_name TO new\_name specifies a security label component

#### Choose from:

• Example: RENAME SECURITY LABEL COMPONENT department TO division; renames the component department to division.

For more information about the RENAME SECURITY statement, see HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

#### **Results**

The RENAME SECURITY statement replaces the *old\_name* with the specified *new\_name* in the table of the system catalog in which the renamed security object is registered:

## What to do next

- · sysecpolicies.secpolicyname for security policies
- sysseclabels.seclabelname for security labels
- sysseclabelcomponents.compname for security label components.

This statement does not, however, change the numeric value of the sysecpolicies.secpolicyid, sysseclabels.seclabelid, or sysseclabelcomponents.compid of the renamed security object.

# HCL OneDB™ security considerations for label-based access control

The wide range of HCL® OneDB® capabilities requires certain precautions and planning to ensure protected tables can be accessed appropriately.

The following actions require holding the DBSECADM role after you have implemented label-based access control (LBAC) on your database server:

- Using the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege (see SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION statement on page 107)
- Exporting schema and data (see The dbschema, dbexport, and dbimport Utilities on page 108)
- Importing data (see The dbschema, dbexport, and dbimport Utilities on page 108)

These actions require the user to have read and write access credentials:

• Backing up and restoring with onbar.utility (see Backup and restore on page 107)

To prevent unauthorized access to protected tables, take extra precautions with the following database operations and objects:

- The onlog utility on page 108
- The oncheck utility on page 108
- Enterprise replication on page 108
- Data definition language (DDL) operations on page 109
- INSERT INTO . . . SELECT FROM Statement on page 109
- · High Performance Loader .RET and .FLT files (see Data loading and unloading on page 108)
- Temporary tables created by the INTO TEMP clause on page 109
- User-defined routines on page 109 created with DBA keywords

### SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION statement

You can use The SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION statement to assume the identity of another user, including the user's LBAC credentials for protected tables.

HCL® OneDB® 11.10 and later versions that have label-based access control (LBAC) capability handles the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege differently from earlier versions of the database server that did not have LBAC functionality. The newer versions of HCL® OneDB® require the DBSECADM to grant the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege. Because the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege can be used to assume the LBAC credentials of another user, the DBSECADM must be careful in granting the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege.

If the database server has been converted from an earlier version that did not support LBAC, users who held the DBA privilege are automatically granted the SETSESSIONAUTH access privilege for PUBLIC in the migration process. You must initialize the converted server as a version that supports LBAC security policies to remove the SETSESSIONAUTH privilege from all DBAs and enable the DBSECADM role to grant this privilege.

For more information about how SET SESSION AUTHORIZATION operates with LBAC, see HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

## Backup and restore

Users who are responsible for backing up or restoring protected data with an onbar utility must have LBAC read-and-write access credentials for the corresponding server tables. LBAC security remains intact during backup and after being restored on the server, but to protect the saved backup data you must take other precautions.

You can restore of a specific table or set of tables that have previously been backed up with onbar. These tables can be restored to a specific point in time. During table-level restore of LBAC-protected tables, ensure that the schema command files specify the security policy with the target table. Because a protected target table is created during the restore, the user running the table level restore must hold the DBSECADM role. Also, LBAC rules are enforced when the INSERT statement from the schema command file is executed to load the target table. If the entire table is to be restored, the user must possess the necessary LBAC credentials.

You cannot use the archecker utility to perform a table-level restore.

## The dbschema, dbexport, and dbimport Utilities

LBAC rules are enforced on protected tables when the dbschema and dbexport utilities are run. Only those rows are unloaded where the user's security label dominates the column label, row label, or both. Since both dbschema and dbexport utilities must read LBAC catalogs, the user running these utilities must have the appropriate LBAC credentials or exemptions to access the data.

The dbimport utility creates and populates a database from text files. The user importing LBAC-protected data with this utility must have the DBSECADM role. After the import process is complete, the DBSECADM role does not have any exemptions that were defined before the import process.

## Data loading and unloading

HCL® OneDB® provides a number of ways to load and unload data, for example, the dbload utility.

LBAC rules are applied when these statements are executed, or utilities are run, on protected tables. The user's security label must dominate the column label, row label, or both. If an entire table is to be loaded/unloaded, then the user must have the necessary LBAC credentials to read and write all the labeled rows and columns. Alternatively, the DBSECADM can grant an exemption to the user so that the security policy protecting the tables can be bypassed.

### The onlog utility

The onlog utility displays all or selected portions of the logical log. This command can take input from selected log files, the entire logical log, or a backup tape of previous log files. The log records can expose data that is protected by LBAC on a live database. Take precautions to ensure data is not exposed by misuse of this utility.

## The oncheck utility

The oncheck utility can display pages from tables or chunks, which can expose data that is protected by LBAC on a live database. Take precautions to ensure data is not exposed by misuse of this utility.

## **Enterprise replication**

You cannot apply LBAC to a table participating in Enterprise Replication. Also, you cannot define an Enterprise Replication replicate on a table that is protected by LBAC.

## Data definition language (DDL) operations

LBAC does not restrict users on your system from performing data definition language (sometimes called *data definition statements*) operations. For example, a user whom has not been granted security policy credentials or an exemption can run TRUNCATE TABLE or DROP TABLE on an LBAC-protected table.

### **INSERT INTO . . . SELECT FROM Statement**

When the INSERT INTO . . . SELECT FROM statement is used on an LBAC-protected table to create another table, ensure that the new table is protected by the same security policy used to protect the source table. Otherwise, the new table can potentially expose data in violation of your organization's privacy policy. Note that this potential data exposure can happen if the statement is used to create a permanent table, or to create a temporary table and then inserted into a permanent one.

## Temporary tables created by the INTO TEMP clause

The INTO TEMP clause of the SELECT statement creates a temporary table to hold the query results. If the table being selected from is a protected table, the query-result data in the intermediate temporary table is not protected by LBAC. Take the necessary precautions to ensure that the data in the temporary table is not exposed to unauthorized users.

#### **User-defined routines**

You can register user-defined routines (UDRs) with the DBA keyword. If a user is granted the execute privilege on a UDR, the database server automatically grants the user temporary DBA privileges that are enabled only when the user is executing the UDR. The user executing the DBA UDR assumes the identity of a DBA for the duration of the UDR has the DBA's user label during that time. Avoid using protected tables in DBA UDRs.

# Other HCL OneDB™ functionality with label-based access control

HCL® OneDB® has non-security functionality that operates seamlessly with label-based access control.

HCL® OneDB® label-based access control (LBAC) is designed to work smoothly with all parts of the database server and without excessive user intervention to contain unauthorized data exposure. The following areas of HCL® OneDB® are highlighted to address potential areas of concern.

### **High-availability clusters**

High-availability clusters (High-Availability Data Replication, shared disk secondary servers, and remote stand-alone secondary servers) provide a way to provide one or more copies of the database server. LBAC objects created on a database of the primary server are replicated to the secondary servers. All tables protected on the primary server are protected on the secondary servers.

#### Example

## **Distributed queries**

You can query more than one database on the same database server or across multiple database servers. This type of query is called a distributed query. LBAC rules are applied to distributed queries involving protected tables and local synonyms of

remote protected tables. Queries issued from a non-LBAC server but involving LBAC-protected tables on a different server also require that the user have the necessary LBAC credentials to access the protected data on the other server.

### **Fragmentation**

You can use fragmentation to control where data is stored at the table level using a fragmentation strategy. HCL® OneDB® ensures that the source and targets tables have the required identical LBAC security objects for attaching and detaching fragments.

### Synonyms and views

Views and synonyms can be created on existing tables and views that are located in the current database, or in another database of the local database server or of a remote database server. LBAC rules are applied when a user attempts to access data through views and synonyms on protected tables.

#### Violations tables

HCL® OneDB® provides a facility to track rows that violate constraints. The START VIOLATIONS TABLE statement creates a special violations table that holds nonconforming rows that fail to satisfy constraints and unique indexes during INSERT, UPDATE, and DELETE operations on target tables. In order to prevent unauthorized exposure of protected data through a violations table, HCL® OneDB® secures the violation table with same security policy as the target table when the START VIOLATIONS TABLE statement is executed.

### Referential integrity scans

LBAC rules are applied when the ON DELETE CASCADE option is specified and when an INSERT statement to a child table generates a referential integrity scan on the parent table.

### Storage space encryption

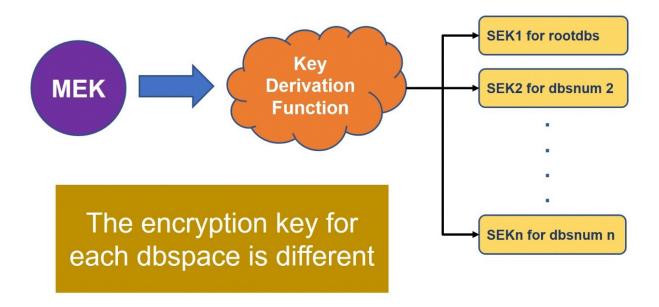
You can encrypt storage spaces (dbspaces, blobspaces and smart blobspaces) with Onedb Server. The data in encrypted storage spaces is unintelligible without the encryption key. Encrypting storage spaces is an effective way to protect sensitive information that is stored on disk.

You can enable storage space encryption by setting the DISK\_ENCRYPTION configuration parameter.

Each storage space is encrypted separately with its own encryption key. By default, the encryption cipher is set to AES with 128-bit keys. You can specify a stronger encryption key by including the cipher option in the DISK\_ENCRYPTION con?guration parameter value.

Any storage space that you create when storage space encryption is enabled is automatically encrypted, unless you explicitly specify to create it as unencrypted with the onspaces utility. If you initialize a new database server before setting the DISK\_ENCRYPTION con?guration parameter, the root dbspace and all storage spaces created before setting DISK\_ENCRYPTION are not encrypted. However, you can encrypt unencrypted storage spaces, including the root dbspace, by running a restore that encrypts the spaces.

As mentioned above, each storage space is encrypted with its own *Space Encryption Key (SEK)*. The SEKs are generated by the system (oninit) based on a *Master Encryption Key (MEK)*. The MEK is created by the onkstore utility and can be stored locally in the keystore created by the onkstore, or remotely in a Remote Key Server (RKS). In both cases, you must use the onkstore utility to create a keystore that will contain a MEK or the credentials necessary to reach the MEK at a Remote Key Server.



See The onkstore utility for information on creating and managing keystore ?les.

Once you have created and veri?ed your keystore ?le, you enable storage space encryption by setting the DISK\_ENCRYPTION con?guration parameter to point to the keystore you created and then restarting the database server. The value of the DISK\_ENCRYPTION parameter is a comma-separated list of attributes, one of which points to your keystore ?le. For example:

DISK\_ENCRYPTION keystore=/work/ifmx/keystores/my\_ks,cipher=aes192

See The DISK\_ENCRYPTION con?guration parameter for information on setting this important value correctly.

### Using a locally stored Master Encryption Key

When using a local Master Encryption Key (MEK), the MEK is created locally and stored inside the keystore file pointed by the DISK\_ENCRYPTION configuration parameter. In this scenario, the MEK is generated locally by the onkstore and placed inside the keystore file.

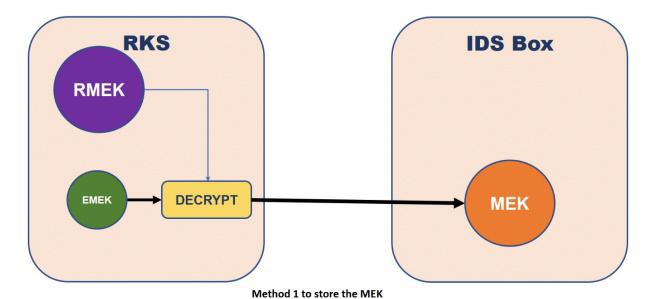
### Using a remotely stored Master Encryption Key

The Master Encryption Key can also be created and/or stored in a Remote Key Server. Currently, it is possible to use servers that conform with the KMIP standard and also, selected Cloud Providers (Amazon AWS KMS and Azure KeyVault at this moment). If using a Remote Key Server, the credentials necessary to access the Remote Key Server are recorded inside the keystore file pointed by the DISK\_ENCRYPTION configuration parameter.

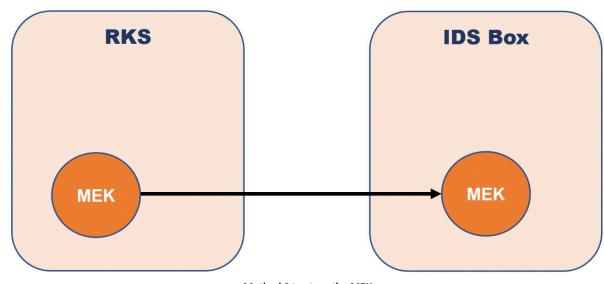
The credentials needed to reach the RKS change depending on the type of RKS you are using. You can see details about this on the description of the onsktore utilty.

If you are using a RKS, there are two options on how we manage the MEK:

• Option 1: The MEK is stored at the RKS encrypted using a a Remote Master Encryption Key. The Remote Master Encryption Key (RMEK) is a managed key (managed by the RKS) and never leaves the RKS. Currently, we will use this method with AWS-KMS and Azure KeyVault RKS. In the case of AWS, the MEK is generated remotely at the AWS infrastructure. In the case of Azure, the MEK is generated locally. In bothe cases the MEK will the be encrypted with RMEK and the result stored at the Cloud server.



• **Option 2**: The MEK is the Managed Key (Managed by the RKS), its encrypted and protected internally by the RKS. Currently, this method is used with KMIP RKS.



### Method 2 to store the MEK

## **Keystore Files May Be Shared**

Once you have a valid keystore file, whether a local or network type, it can be used with any number of IDS instances. You are not required to create a new keystore file for an HDR secondary, for example. It can utilize a copy of the keystore file (along with any associated stash file) from the primary, or an entirely different keystore file. There is no forced connection between the encryption keys used for a primary node and HDR or RSS secondaries. However, the SDS secondary must use the same keystore file used by its primary, as they are reading from the same disk. That file may be a duplicate or the same inode, as long as the contents are identical between the file used by the primary and the one used by the SDS secondary.

# Creating encrypted or unencrypted storage spaces

When storage space encryption is enabled, the storage spaces that you create are encrypted by default, however, you can specify to create unencrypted storage spaces. When storage space encryption is disabled, you cannot create encrypted storage spaces.

#### About this task

To create an encrypted storage space, set the DISK\_ENCRYPTION configuration parameter, restart the database server, and then run the appropriate onspaces or SQL administration API command.

To create an unencrypted storage space when storage space encryption is enabled, use one of the following methods:

- Run the appropriate onspaces command for the storage space and include the -u option.
- Run the appropriate SQL administration API command for the storage space and include the unencrypt option.

# Changing storage space encryption during a restore

When storage space encryption is enabled, storage spaces are restored with the same encryption state as during the back up, by default. However, you can specify to restore storage spaces as encrypted or unencrypted.

#### About this task

The encryption state of storage spaces on disk does not affect the encryption state of backups. Storage spaces that are encrypted on disk are unencrypted during a backup. To encrypt backed up storage spaces, set the BACKUP\_FILTER configuration parameter to the name of an encryption utility. When you restore a storage space that was encrypted on disk before its backup, the storage space is encrypted during the restore, unless you specify to restore the space as unencrypted. Similarly, you can restore a storage space that was not encrypted on disk by specifying to encrypt the space during the restore.

You can choose to restore some or all storage spaces as encrypted or unencrypted.

The following table shows the ways you can encrypt and decrypt storage spaces during a restore with the ON-Bar utilities when storage space encryption is enabled.

Table 12. Storage space encryption options during a restore

Task	Method
Encrypt or decrypt all existing storage spaces	Run a full restore with the -encrypt or -decrypt option.
Encrypt or decrypt critical storage spaces	Run a cold restore with the -encrypt or -decrypt option and specify the spaces with the -D option.
Encrypt or decrypt some non-critical storage spaces	Run a warm restore with the -encrypt or -decrypt option and specify the spaces with the -D option.
Encrypt or decrypt all storage spaces for a tenant database (ON-Bar only)	Run a tenant restore with the onbar -T command and include the -encrypt or -decrypt option.
Encrypt or decrypt storage spaces that are created by a roll-forward of logical logs	Include the rollfwd_create_dbs=encrypt or rollfwd_create_dbs=decrypt option in the DISK_ENCRYPTION configuration parameter value.

During an external restore, storage spaces are restored to the same encryption state as during the backup. You cannot change the encryption state of storage spaces during an external restore.

When storage space encryption is not enabled, you see the following behavior:

- If you attempt to encrypt storage spaces during a restore with the -encrypt option, the restore fails.
- If you restore encrypted storage spaces, the storage spaces are restored as unencrypted.

## **Example**

### **Examples**

The following command encrypts all existing storage spaces during a whole-system restore:

```
onbar -r -encrypt -w
```

The following command decrypts all storage spaces that belong to a tenant database:

```
onbar -T tenant1 -decrypt -t "08-08-2016 00:00:00"
```

# Monitoring the encryption of storage spaces

You can monitor whether storage space encryption is enabled and which storage spaces are encrypted.

#### About this task

To determine whether storage space encryption is enabled, run the oncheck -pr command. If storage space encryption is enabled, the output includes the following line, which identifies the encryption cipher:

```
Encryption-at-rest is enabled using cipher 'cipher'
```

If the root dbspace is encrypted, the output of the oncheck -pr command contains the following line:

```
The ROOT Dbspace is encrypted
```

To see which storage spaces are encrypted, use one of the following methods:

- Run the onstat -d command. Position 6 of the flags field contains an E if the storage space is encrypted.
- Query the **sysdbspaces** table in the **sysmaster** database. The **is\_encrypted** column shows whether a storage space is encrypted.

# Auditing data security

This section contains information about how to audit the security of your database.

# Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB™ secure auditing facility

This chapter provides an overview of auditing and of auditing terminology. It describes audit events, explains in detail how audit masks are configured and used, and indicates how to perform audit analysis. It also introduces the various audit administration roles.

# Secure-auditing facility

Auditing creates a record of selected activities that users perform. An audit administrator who analyzes the audit trail can use these records for the following purposes:

In

- To detect unusual or suspicious user actions and identify the specific users who performed those actions
- · To detect unauthorized access attempts

- · To assess potential security damage
- · To provide evidence in investigations, if necessary
- To provide a passive deterrent against unwanted activities, as long as users know that their actions might be audited



/ Important: Make sure that users know that every action they perform against the database can be audited and that they can be held responsible for those actions.

You cannot use auditing to track transactions to reconstruct a database. The database server has archive and backup facilities for that purpose. The HCL OneDB™ Backup and Restore Guide explains these facilities.

### Audit to Syslog facility (ASL)

In the classic auditing of OneDB, audit log records are written to numbered files on the local file system. While the classic auditing continues to be supported, the audit subsystem for OneDB on Unix-based systems has been modified to allow audit records to be sent to the syslog daemon, which can be configured to handle the messages in many different ways. Different systems have different syslog daemons with different capabilities and different ways of configuring them. To use ASL auditing, new options have been provided in onaudit and onshowaudit and new audit configuration parameters are introduced in the audit configuration file.

### **POSIX Syslog**

The basic functionality used by OneDB is defined by the POSIX standard. POSIX defines four functions — openlog(), syslog(), closelog(), and setlogmask() and one header <syslog.h>. POSIX does not define the behaviour or configuration of the syslog daemon itself; it only requires the functions (primarily syslog()) to report messages.

For more information, see onaudit utility on page 165, onshowaudit utility on page 171, and the audit configuration file on page 199.

### Audit events

Any database server activity that can potentially alter or reveal data or the auditing configuration is considered an event. You can use the database server secure-auditing facility to audit and keep a record of events either when they succeed or fail, or when the activity is attempted. You can identify each audit event by a four-letter event code. Audit event codes and fields on page 175 lists the audit-event codes and describes the events that you can audit with the secure-auditing facility.

You can specify events that you want to audit in an audit mask. Auditing is based on the notion of audit events and audit masks.

### Audit masks

Audit masks specify those events that the database server must audit. You can include any event in a mask. The masks are associated with user IDs, so that specified actions that a user ID takes are recorded. Global masks \_default, \_require, and **\_exclude** are specified for all users in the system.

Before you use auditing, you must specify which audit events to audit. To specify audited events, add the events to the masks. You must also perform other tasks, which Audit administration on page 136, describes.

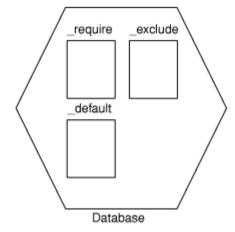
The database server does not provide auditing for objects or processes. For example, you cannot ask the database server to audit all access attempts on a certain object. You can, however, filter audit records from the audit trail based on objects with the audit-analysis tools, which Audit analysis on page 153, describes.

Figure 8: Audit masks after installation on page 117 represents a set of audit masks. The actual masks and their features are explained in Audit masks and audit instructions on page 120.

Figure 8. Audit masks after installation

#### After installation:

- Create audit masks
- Turn on auditing



After installation is complete, you can create the audit masks and turn on auditing.



Important: If auditing is off, the database server does not audit any events, even if events are specified in the masks.

In addition to the three masks that Figure 8: Audit masks after installation on page 117 shows, you can specify user masks for individual users. You can use user masks to audit some users more than others and target different types of activities for different users. Except for the audit administrator who maintains the masks, a user cannot tell which events are being audited. For a description of user masks, see User masks on page 121.

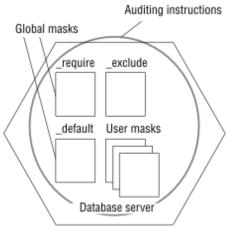
You can also create template masks for creating new user masks. For a description of template masks, see Template masks on page 121.

Masks and their events are called auditing instructions, as Figure 9: The auditing instructions on page 118 shows. You have significant flexibility regarding the auditable facets of HCL OneDB™. You can select anything from minimal audit instructions, in which no events are audited, to maximal audit instructions, in which all security-relevant database server events are audited for all users.

Figure 9. The auditing instructions

Defining masks:

- You must specify the events to audit within one or more audit masks.
- You can create masks for individual users.
- You can change the audit instructions during regular system operation.
- You can change a single mask during regular system operation.



After you define the auditing instructions and turn on auditing, you can modify one or more audit masks as requirements change and you identify potential security threats. For information about how to change audit masks, see Audit administration on page 136.

## Selective row-level auditing

Auditing can be configured so that row-level events of only selected tables are recorded in the audit trail. Selective row-level auditing can compact audit records so that they are more manageable and potentially improve database server performance.

The onaudit utility supports an option (the -R flag) that can be run to enable selective row-level auditing. The CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE statements are used as SQL commands that flag specific tables for inclusion in the row-level audit event records.

You can start selective row-level auditing either when you initially start auditing of your databases or while the auditing utility is already running.

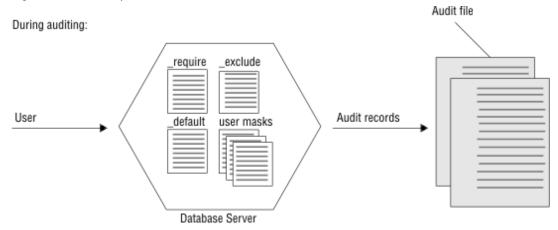
One reason to use selective row-level auditing is that it can filter out auditable events that are not important to database security. For example, an administrative user of the HCL OneDB™ installation with confidential data must be able to track when users perform actions on the database server that endanger the security of the system. With row-level auditing of all tables on the system, the audit record contains information about auditable events on system tables that contain reference information for database administration and tables that contain sensitive confidential information. If the administrator must investigate a security breach by examining the audit records, there can be large amounts of information from the system tables that hinder finding the relevant event on the tables containing the confidential data. By flagging only the security-critical tables for row-level auditing, the audit trail is parsed to a more compact set of records that is easier to analyze.

# Audit process

When you turn on auditing, the database server generates audit records for every event that the auditing instructions specify.

The database server stores the audit records in an audit file. The collection of audit records makes up the audit trail. (The audit trail might consist of more than one audit file.)

Figure 10. The audit process



An audit administrator must specify and maintain the audit configuration, which includes the following information:

- · The audit mode
- · How the database server behaves if it encounters an error when writing audit records to the audit trail
- For UNIX™, the directory in which the audit trail is located
- For UNIX™, the maximum size of an audit file before the database server automatically starts another audit file

These topics are explained in Audit configuration on page 124.

The database server generates audit records and writes them to the audit file or to an event log regardless of whether the client user that performs the audited action is local or remote. The database server includes both the user login and database server name in every audit record to help pinpoint a specific initiator and action.

### Audit trail

Review the audit trail regularly. The database server offers a data-extraction utility, onshowaudit, that you can use to select audit data for specific users or database servers.

After you extract data, you can specify that it be formatted to load into a database for subsequent manipulation with SQL. Audit analysis overview on page 130 explains this process.

When the database server stops writing to one audit file and begins writing to a different audit file, an event alarm is generated. If you use an alarm program, you can modify it to watch for the new audit event to archive audit records, monitor records, or remove them. See the event alarms documentation in HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Administrator's Reference for more information about how to make use of the audit event notification.

Details about the Audit Trail Switch Event Alarm:

- Class ID: 72
- Severity: 2
- · Class Message: Audit trail is switched to a new file
- Message: This message is displayed when the database server switches to a new audit trail file.

## Roles for database server and audit administration

The operating-system administrator (OSA) can set up the following roles for database server administration and audit administration, in addition to any administrative roles that your operating system might have:

- The database server administrator (DBSA) maintains and tunes the database server
- An audit administrator can have either or both of the following roles:
  - Database system security officer (DBSSO), who specifies and maintains the audit masks
  - Audit analysis officer (AAO), who turns auditing on and off, sets up and maintains the audit configuration, and reads and analyzes audit-trail data

Although role separation provides more secure auditing, these roles are optional. Before the database server software is installed, the OSA, or whoever installs the database server, decides whether to have separate or combined DBSSO and AAO roles for audit administration and who must perform each role.

For detailed information about roles and role separation, see Using role separation on page 139. For information about setting up role separation and creating a user group for each role, see your HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Installation Guide.

## Audit masks and audit instructions

As described in Audit masks on page 116, an audit mask specifies a set of events to be audited when a user performs them. Audit events are derived from a combination of user and global masks. Audit event codes and fields on page 175 lists the set of auditable events. The set of events is fixed, but you use masks to specify only the ones that you are required to audit.

The following table lists four types of audit masks.

Mask Type

Mask Name

Individual user masks

username

**Default mask** 

\_default

Global masks

\_require and \_exclude

**Template masks** 

\_maskname

The following section describes the first three kinds of masks. For a description of template masks, see page Template masks on page 121.

### User masks

The global masks are always applied to user actions that are performed during a session in which auditing is turned on. Audit masks are applied in the following order:

- 1. An individual user mask or if none, the \_default mask
- 2. The \_require mask
- 3. The \_exclude mask

When a user initiates access to a database, the database server checks whether an individual user mask exists with the same username as the account that the user uses. If an individual user mask exists, the database server reads the audit instructions in it first and ignores the \_default mask. If no individual user mask exists, the database server reads and applies the audit instructions in the \_default mask to that user.

In addition to default and individual masks, the database server reads and applies the audit instructions in the \_require and \_exclude masks. These masks are global because they apply to all users. Audit events in the \_require mask are audited, even if they are not found in the \_default or individual user masks. Audit events in the \_exclude mask are not audited, even if the previously read masks specifically require them.



**Important:** If the audit instructions of these masks conflict, the instructions in the last mask to be read are used. Masks are read in the following order: *username*, \_default, \_require, and \_exclude.

Users cannot tell if individual user masks exist for their accounts. Also, users are not required to do anything to enable auditing of their actions. After an audit administrator turns on auditing, it operates automatically and users cannot disable it.

When the database server is installed, no audit masks exist. An audit administrator must specify all masks, including the default mask and the global masks.



**Important:** Actions that the *DBSA*, an audit administrator, or user **onedb** generally performs are potentially dangerous to the security of the database server. To reduce the risk of an unscrupulous user abusing the **onedb** account, it is recommended that the actions of **onedb** always be audited. This procedure is intended to prevent an unscrupulous user from using **onedb** to tamper with auditing or from granting discretionary access to another unscrupulous user.

# Template masks

As you become accustomed to the types of auditing that seem useful at your site, you might notice that certain auditing practices occur repeatedly. You can create template audit masks to help set up auditing for situations that recur or for various types of users.

For example, you might define a template mask called \_guest and copy it to individual user masks for people who use your database server for a short time. You can copy a template mask to a user mask and modify it at the same time, perhaps turning off events that were audited in the template mask.



**Important:** All template mask names must be unique, contain fewer than eight characters, and begin with an underscore (\_). These naming rules distinguish template masks from individual user masks.

You cannot create template masks with the following names because the database server already uses them:

- \_default
- \_require
- \_exclude

When the database server is installed, no template masks exist. The number of template masks you can create is unlimited.

### Audit instructions

An audit administrator sets the audit instructions that the database server performs. The administrator must set an amount of auditing that is comprehensive enough to prove useful but not so exhaustive that it adversely affects system resources. When role separation exists, the DBSSO creates audit masks and the AAO configures mandatory auditing for the DBSA and the DBSSO. You can find advice on how to set the audit instructions in *A Guide to Understanding Audit in Trusted Systems* (published by the National Computer Security Center, NCSC-TG-001, June 1988).

This section suggests how to choose events to audit, how to set the audit instructions, and how the choices affect performance. For details of how to create and modify audit masks, see Audit administration on page 136.

All the audit masks that the database server uses are stored in the system-monitoring interface (SMI) sysaudit table in the sysmaster database. The masks are updated automatically when the database server is upgraded to a newer version. Although information stored in the sysmaster database is available through SQL, you must use the onaudit utility for all audit-mask creation and maintenance. (See The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.) Also, see the description of the sysmaster database in the HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Reference.

# Resource and performance implications

The amount of database server auditing enabled at any given time has a direct effect on operating-system resources and database server performance. Audit records that the database server generates are stored on disk. The greater the number of audit records generated, the more disk space required (for storage), and the greater the amount of CPU time required to process audit records (for storage, viewing, deletion, archiving, and restoration).

How system resources and performance are affected depends on these factors:

- · Number of users/events audited
- · Processor configuration
- · System and user load
- Disk space
- Workload

For example, a system with parallel-processing capabilities, several terabytes of available disk space, 64 users, and full auditing might experience little degradation in performance and a relatively small disk-space ratio for audit data. However, a single-processor configuration with low disk space, multiple users, and full auditing might experience significant system-resource degradation and relatively rapid disk-space consumption by the audit trail.

From a system performance standpoint, the greatest overhead is incurred when you audit all database server security-related events that all users perform. Full auditing can severely degrade system performance and response time, and also require a significant amount of disk space for audit-record storage (depending on the amount of database server user activity). However, full auditing provides the most audit information and thus reduces the security risk.

When you are configuring the auditing parameters for your system, determine what actions the database server takes if it becomes unable to write to audit files, such as when the audit trail exceeds available storage capacity.

You can turn off auditing to eliminate the effect on system performance, but then auditing cannot contribute to system security. At a minimum, you must audit the initiation of new user sessions.

The database server event that, if audited, has the most significant effect on system performance and disk space is Read Row (RDRW). In an established database that is primarily accessed by users who search for information, every row presented to every user generates an audit record. On a high-volume system, this quickly produces large numbers of audit records.

# Special auditing considerations

Certain certification and accreditation organizations require that the installation process itself be audited. After configuring the operating system to accept audit data, the OSA must make sure that the AAO audits the actions taken during installation.

# Level of auditing granularity

The secure-auditing facility can audit the following events at the fragment level of granularity and shows additional information for fragmented objects:

- · Alter Table (ALTB). The partition list that follows the alter-table operation is in the event record.
- Create Index (CRIX). The index can be fragmented; the event record includes fragmentation information.
- Create Table (CRTB). The table can be fragmented; the event record includes fragmentation information.
- Delete Row (DLRW). The partition and the record ID within the partition are in the event record.
- Insert Row (INRW). The partition and the record ID within the partition are in the event record.
- Read Row (RDRW). The partition and the record ID within the partition are in the event record.
- Update Row (UPRW). The partition and the record ID within the partition are in the event record.



**Attention:** Use row-level auditing only when absolutely necessary. Row-level auditing slows the database server dramatically and fills audit directories quickly.

For more information about the fields in an audit-event record, see Audit event codes and fields on page 175.

In addition, the database server audits the following events to the RESTRICT/CASCADE level:

- Drop Table (DRTB)
- Drop View (DRVW)
- · Revoke Table Access (RVTB)

For more information about the corresponding SQL statements, see the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax.

### Use of various masks

The \_require mask can be a valuable tool because it audits every database server user for the events that are specified in this mask. You can use this mask to perform the bulk of the auditing. You can use the \_require mask to make rapid changes to the auditing configurations for all users by adding or removing items from this one mask.

The \_exclude mask is also useful. It is read last, so its contents take precedence over the instructions in the other masks. As the name implies, the audit events that you specify in the \_exclude mask are excluded from auditing. This exclusion is true of every event, including those specified in the \_require mask. The Read Row audit event, for example, is a good candidate for the \_exclude mask. Read Row is a common event that can generate huge amounts of potentially useless data in the audit trail.

How you use the \_default and individual user masks depends on the number of users and their activities. For example, if you have only a few users, you might want to give each one an individual mask. You might then use the \_default mask to audit events that are initiated by users who do not normally use your database, and configure the \_default mask with a high level of security. To offset any detrimental effects on system performance, set up less-comprehensive individual user masks for frequent users. Or, if you have many users and do not want to create many individual user masks, leave the \_default mask empty and rely on the \_require mask for most of your auditing.

# Audit configuration

The AAO can monitor the audit configuration, as Audit administration on page 136 describes. Setting the audit configuration consists of performing the following tasks:

- Turning auditing on or off
- · Specifying audit modes
- Using the ADTCFG file
- On UNIX™, determining properties of the audit files

Sections that follow describe these topics.

# Auditing on or off

An audit administrator determines whether auditing is on or off. Auditing is turned off by default when the database server is installed. As Audit administration on page 136, describes, the AAO can turn auditing on and off at any time, by using the onaudit utility, which The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161, describes. The database server can be in either online or quiescent mode for the changes to take effect.

When the AAO turns on auditing, all sessions, new and current, start auditing auditable events. Both existing sessions and new sessions produce records. All user sessions that are started thereafter also produce audit records.

Similarly, when the AAO turns off auditing, auditing stops for all existing sessions, and new sessions are not audited. If the AAO turns off auditing and then turns it on again while the database server is in online mode, existing sessions resume producing audit records.

# The ADTCFG file

Configuration parameters in the ADTCFG file specify the properties of the audit configuration. The classic configuration parameters are **ADTERR**, **ADTMODE**, **ADTPATH**, **ADTROWS**, and **ADTSIZE** of which ADTMODE is now deprecated.

For **ASL** (Audit to Syslog), there are additional configuration parameters which are added to the audit configuration file based on the options used with onaudit utility. These are **ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED**, **ADT\_DBSSO**, **ADT\_DBSA**, **ADT\_SYSLOG\_ENABLED**, **ADT\_SYSLOG\_IDENTIFIER**, **ADT\_SYSLOG\_OPTIONS**, **ADT\_SYSLOG\_FACILITY**, and **ADT\_SYSLOG\_PRIORITY**.

For more information, see the ADTCFG file on page 199.

The path name for the default ADTCFG file follows.

#### UNIX™

```
$ONEDB_HOME/aaodir/adtcfg.servernum if it exists, or
$ONEDB_HOME/aaodir/adtcfg if it does not.
```

#### Windows™

```
<code>%ONEDB_HOME%\aaodir\adtcfg.servernum if it exists, or %ONEDB_HOME%\aaodir\adtcfg if it does not.</code>
```

When you turn on auditing, you can set the **ADTMODE** parameter to 0, 1, 3, 5, or 7 in the ADTCFG file to specify the type and level of auditing. However, the **ADTMODE** parameter is now deprecated; you should use **ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED**, **ADT\_DBSA**, and **ADT\_DBSSO** instead.

For example, if you set the **ADTMODE** configuration parameter to 1 in your ADTCFG file, auditing is turned on automatically during database server initialization. After you turn on auditing, the database server records only the audit events defined in the audit masks.

The AAO configures auditing and specifies an error mode, in case an error occurs when an audit record is stored.

If you edit the ADTCFG file to change the audit parameters, the audit configuration is not changed until you reinitialize shared memory. If you use the onaudit utility to change the audit configuration, the changes occur immediately.

Changes made with onaudit are written to an adtcfg.servernum companion file (SERVERNUM is a parameter in the ONCONFIG file, which the HCL OneDB<sup>M</sup> Administrator's Reference describes). The configuration changes take effect in the

server immediately. Henceforth, server instance uses the adtcfg. servernum file for the audit configuration parameters instead of the file adtcfg.

For details, see The onaudit utility: Configure auditing on page 165 and see The ADTCFG file on page 199. For more information about auditing administration, see Administrative roles and role separation on page 136.

# Properties of audit files

As Audit process on page 118 describes, with database server-managed auditing, the database server writes audit records to audit files in an audit trail. This section describes the audit files in more detail.

## Location of audit files (UNIX™)

The audit files are located in a directory that you specify with the onaudit utility or the **ADTPATH** configuration parameter in the \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir/adtcfg UNIX™ file.

If you change the audit path, the change takes effect immediately for all existing sessions. You can use this feature to change the directory when the database server is in online mode, which is useful if the file system that contains the existing audit files becomes full.

Keep the file system that holds the audit trail cleaned out so that ample storage space is always available.

### Location of audit files (Windows™)

Windows™ systems provide an event-logging facility as a common repository for logging events and other useful information. The event-logging facility also provides a user interface to filter, view, and back up the information that is stored there.

Applications cannot write to the Windows™ Security Event log, so auditing messages from the database server are now sent to a log file, whose directory path can be specified by using the onaudit utility. The default path name is <code>%ONEDB\_HOME%</code> \aaodir.

Any messages that the database server writes to its log file are also written to the Windows™ Application Event log.

Keep the file system that holds the audit trail cleaned out so that ample storage space is always available.

### New audit files

The database server creates a new audit file under the following conditions:

- When you initialize the database server
- When you restart the database server after being offline
- When the file reaches a specified size
- · When you manually direct the database server to start a new audit file
- · When you start database server-managed auditing

When the database server writes an audit record, the database server appends the record to the current audit file. If the database server goes offline and is restarted, it starts a new audit file. The ADTLOG file,\$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir/adtlog.server, maintains the number of the audit log currently being used. The number in the ADTLOG file increases by one each time the server restarts, and is used as a starting point when the server checks for and numbers new log files. The server still checks if the file with the name dbservername.number already exists in the directory. If the database server detects an existing file, the audit facility does not modify it. The number is increased and the process is repeated until an unused number is found, and the skipped files are reported in the online log file. HCL OneDB\*\* creates the ADTLOG file if it does not exist.

### **Audit file names**

No matter how you start a new audit file, it follows the same naming convention.

The naming convention is <code>dbservername.integer</code>, where <code>dbservername</code> is the database server name as defined in the <code>onconfig</code> file, and <code>integer</code> is the next available integer after the number defined in the <code>ADTLOG</code> file. Each server's audit file series starts with 0.

For example, if a new audit file is started for a database server maple, and the last audit record was saved in the file maple.123, then the next audit file is named maple.124. If maple.124 already exists, the next available number is used. The names are unique to a specific audit directory, so both auditdir1/maple.123 and auditdir2/maple.123 are acceptable, but writing to a new directory does not change the file checking and naming that begins with the number in the ADTLOG.

Audit file numbers do not repeat unless you remove audit log files and delete the ADTLOG file.

# Windows™ Message Server

HCL OneDB™ for Windows™ runs as a service under the **informix** user account.

The HCL OneDB™ Message Server service communicates with the database server through the named pipes interprocess communications mechanism to receive information and to write it to the Windows™ Application Event log and log file %ONEDB\_HOME%\%ONEDB\_SERVER%.log.

The database server starts Message Server when an instance of the database server first must write a message to the event log. Message Server does not terminate automatically when an instance of the database server terminates.

# Error modes for writing to an audit file

If the database server encounters an error when it writes to the audit file, it can behave in various ways called error modes. You can change the error mode, as Setting the error mode on page 142 describes, at any time during database server operation, even after an error occurs. See also the explanation of onaudit error modes in The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

#### Halt error modes

When the database server is in a halt error mode (1 or 3), it does not allow the session that received the error to continue processing after it writes to the audit trail. The database server might even terminate the session or shut down, depending on the error mode. Descriptions of halt error modes follow:

- Mode 1: A thread is suspended but the session continues when the audit record is successfully written.
- Mode 3: The database server shuts down and the user session cannot continue.

Processing for the session does not continue until the error condition is resolved.

#### Continue error mode

When the database server is in continue error mode (0), it allows the session that received the error to continue processing after it writes to the audit trail. However, the audit record that was being written when the error occurred is lost. The database server writes an error to the message log stating that an error made while writing an audit record has occurred.

If the error continues to occur, all subsequent attempts to write to the audit trail also generate messages in the message log, which can quickly grow very large.

### Access to the audit trail

Standard users must not be able to view or alter audit files. The audit trail (that is, the audit files) must be accessed only with the onshowaudit utility, which has its own protection, as follows:

- · With role separation on, only an AAO can run onshowaudit.
- With role separation off on UNIX™, only user **onedb**, a member of the **onedb** group, or user **root** can run onshowaudit.
- With role separation off on Windows™, only user **onedb** can run **onshowaudit**.

### Access to audit files on UNIX™

The following characteristics control access to audit files in a UNIX™ environment and protect them from being accidentally read or deleted:

Ownership:

onedb

Group ID:

same as \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir

Permissions:

775



aaodir

<aao\_group>

Important: The AAO must be careful when selecting the directory in which the audit files are stored (ADTPATH). The directories in the path must have adequate ownership and access permissions for the level of risk that the AAO allows. The default directory (  $/\,\mbox{tmp}$  ) does not have adequate protection.

The following examples show the security configuration for UNIX™ audit files with no role separation:

Ownership:
informix
Group ID:
informix
Permissions:
775
aaodir/adtcfg.std
Ownership:
informix
Group ID:
informix
Permissions:
644
The following examples show the UNIX™ security configuration with role separation:
aaodir
Ownership:
onedb
Group ID:
<aao_group></aao_group>
Permissions:
775
aaodir/adtcfg.std
Ownership:
onedb
Group ID:

### **Permissions:**

644



**Important:** Because any account with the group ID of **onedb** or superuser (**root**) ownership, or both, can access the audit trail, you must exercise care to protect these accounts and their passwords.

# Access to audit records on Windows™

The following characteristics control access to the Windows™ audit file and protect it from accidental viewing or deletion:

### Ownership:

onedb

#### **Group ID:**

same as %ONEDB\_HOME%\aaodir

The following examples show how to control access to the Windows™ audit file:

aaodir

### Ownership:

onedb

### Group ID:

Administrator

aaodir\adtcfg.std

#### Ownership:

database server administrator

#### Group ID:

Administrator

# Audit analysis overview

The AAO performs audit analysis. This section explains the importance of audit analysis, how to prepare for it, some strategies for audit analysis, and how to react to a perceived security problem.

# Importance of audit analysis

The database server audit mechanism is designed to both deter and reveal attempted and successful, security violations. However, the audit data it generates is only as useful as the analysis and reviews performed on it. Never reviewing or analyzing the audit data is equivalent to disabling auditing altogether (and is, in fact, worse because auditing might reduce database server performance).

If, however, you routinely analyze and review the audit data, you might discover suspicious activity before a successful violation occurs. The first step to terminate any security violation is to detect the problem. If a database server violation occurs, you can use the audit trail to reconstruct the events that lead up to and include this violation.



🚺 Tip: To play the greatest role in the security of your database server, watch the database server activity regularly.

Become accustomed to the types of activity that occur at various times of day at your site. You become the expert on types of user activity when you perform the following actions:

- Review the database server security audit trail on a daily basis, or more frequently, if necessary.
- Note the types of activity that each user performs.

Periodically check the types of events that are audited versus the data that actually is in the security audit trail to ensure that the audit facility is operating properly.

Your continual observance of the audit trail might be the only way to determine if some users browse through the database server. You might catch a user performing an unusual amount of activity at 2 A.M., a time of day when that user is not even at work. After you identify a potential security anomaly, you can then investigate further to determine if anyone on the database server attempts to obtain unauthorized information, if a user misuses the database server, or if a user becomes lenient in self-regulated security enforcement.

# Preparation for audit analysis

This section describes two methods to analyze database server audit records:

- The first method displays audit data as it appears in the audit trail, which you can subject to your own audit-analysis tools. This method guarantees accuracy because no processing is done on the raw audit records.
- · The second method converts the audit records into a form that can be uploaded into a table that the database server manages. You can then use SQL to generate reports based on this data. With the SQL-based method, you can create and use customized forms and reports to manipulate and selectively view audit data, which provides a flexible and powerful audit-analysis procedure. Be sure, however, that records are not deleted or modified from either the intermediate file or from the database before analysis.



Important: The SQL-based procedure is more convenient but remains untrusted because users can use SQL datamanipulation statements to tamper with the records that are copied into a table.

Both methods rely on a utility called onshowaudit, which Audit analysis on page 153 and The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161 describe. For either method, you can extract audit events for specific users, database servers, or both.

To perform audit analysis, first have audit records in your database server. The onshowaudit utility does not remove data from the audit trail. It only reads records from the audit trail and allows them to be viewed or manipulated with standard SQL utilities.

To clear or remove audit logs, delete the files that contain the audit trail.

# Strategies for audit analysis

The primary threat to database server security is unauthorized disclosure or modification of sensitive information. This section contains information about those and other threats that might be discovered through audit analysis.

### **Event failure**

The audit records that indicate that an attempted database server operation failed are particularly important in audit analysis. The audit record can indicate, for example, that a user is attempting to give sensitive data to another user who does not have the correct UNIX™ permissions or Windows™ access privileges to access the data.

#### **Event success**

Failed operations are the most common indicators of a security problem in the audit trail. Somewhat harder to find, but of equal security importance, is any successful but unusual activity for a particular user.

For example, a user who repeatedly creates and drops databases might be attempting to discover and exploit a covert channel to relay sensitive information to an unauthorized process or individual. Watch for a marked increase in the occurrence of database server events that would typically occur infrequently during normal database server use.

Perhaps a particular user who has never granted privileges suddenly shows a great deal of activity in this area, or perhaps a user who has never written large amounts of data into a database begins to generate hundreds of new records. You must determine the extent of the abnormalities (for example, the number of objects that this user accessed) and the possible severity of the compromise (for example, the importance of the accessed objects).

#### Insider attack

An insider attack occurs when an authorized user with malicious intent obtains sensitive information and discloses it to unauthorized users. An unscrupulous user of this sort might not exhibit immediately recognizable signs of system misuse. Auditing is a countermeasure for this threat. Careful auditing might point out an attack in progress or provide evidence that a specific individual accessed the disclosed information.

### **Browsing**

Users who search through stored data to locate or acquire information without legitimate requirement are browsing. Browsers do not necessarily know of the existence or format of the information for which they are looking. Browsers usually perform a large number of similar queries, many of which might fail because of insufficient privileges. Auditing is a countermeasure for this threat. The behavior pattern makes browsers relatively easy to identify in the audit trail.

### Aggregation

An aggregate is an accumulation of information that results from a collection of queries. An aggregate becomes a security threat when it comprises queries to objects that have little significance themselves but as a whole provide information that is considered more important than any component piece. The higher sensitivity of the aggregate results from the sensitivity of

the associations among the individual pieces. Auditing is a countermeasure for this threat. As with browsing, careful auditing might point out an attack in progress or provide evidence that a specific individual accumulated the disclosed information.

# Responses to identified security problems

After you identify the user or users who are responsible for irregularities in the security audit trail, see your site security procedures. If your site has no security procedures regarding potential security breaches, you might consider the following actions:

- Enable additional auditing to further identify the problem.
- Shut down the database server to halt any unauthorized information flow.
- Develop a plan with the supervisor of the user to address the problem.
- · Confront the specific individual.

In some cases, you might find that an otherwise authorized user is browsing a bit too widely on the database server. After some observation, you might want to talk with the supervisor of the user. It might not be wise to talk directly with an individual whose actions are being monitored.

You must ascertain whether a particular problem that is identified through the audit trail is actually someone attempting to breach security or just, for example, a programming error in a newly installed application.

The exact type of security irregularity that might occur and the specific action to take in response to it are not within the scope of this manual.

# DBMS security threats

This section contains information about responses to various kinds of security threats to the DBMS. For more information about various roles, see Administrative roles and role separation on page 136.

# Primary threats

Primary threats to the security of a database server involve unauthorized disclosure or modification of sensitive information. To counter these measures, the DBSSO, DBSA, and OSA must ensure that all users of the DBMS are identified and authenticated before they are able to use or access the software or data.

Users must belong to the correct group to access the database server. They must also have a valid login ID in the operatingsystem password file.

In addition, all users who attempt to access data must satisfy Discretionary Access Control (DAC) restrictions before access is granted. DAC uses SQL statements to specify which users can and cannot access data in the database. Access can be allowed or revoked at the following levels:

- · Database level
- · Table level
- · SPL routine level
- · Column level

- · Role level
- · Fragmentation level

These countermeasures are adequate for legitimate use of the product when users attempt to access the data directly. They cannot, however, counter threats of confidentiality or modification to the data posed by illegitimate use of the product, such as if a privileged user abuses his or her permissions or access privileges.

# Privileged activity threats

Improper or unchecked activity by users with privileged roles (DBSSO, AAO, DBSA, or OSA) can introduce security vulnerabilities and possible threats to the database server. HCL OneDB™ is carefully designed to give the DBSSO, AAO, and DBSA only the abilities required to do their jobs. Nevertheless, these roles and those of operating-system administrators, impart sufficient power that careless use of such power can result in breaches of security.

#### **Database Server Administrator**

The DBSA controls and monitors the database server and can configure role separation during database server installation. The countermeasure to a threat from the DBSA is independent scrutiny of the DBMS audit trail. The DBSSO can enable auditing of all DBSA actions, and the AAO can review DBSA actions in the audit trail.

### **Database System Security Officer**

The DBSSO sets up DBMS audit masks for individual users. The countermeasure to a threat from the DBSSO is independent scrutiny of the DBMS audit trail because auditing DBSSO actions are enabled by the AAO.

### **Operating-System Administrator**

A malicious OSA also poses a serious security threat because the OSA can violate the assumptions about the product environment and the methods that underpin its security functions. As with a DBSSO, the countermeasure to an OSA threat is independent scrutiny of the activities of the OSA, as recorded in the audit trail.

### **Audit Analysis Officer**

The AAO reviews the DBMS audit trail. The countermeasure to this threat is to ensure that an AAO is authorized to view information that might be yielded when the database audit trail is reviewed. It is also important that the output of the onshowaudit utility be accessible only to an AAO and that manipulation of this output also be audited in the audit trail.

# Shared-memory connection threats on UNIX™

A shared-memory connection provides fast access to a database server if the client and the server are on the same computer, but it poses some security risks. False or nontrusted applications can delete or view message buffers of their own or of other local users. Shared-memory communication is also vulnerable to programming errors if the client application explicitly addresses memory or over-indexes data arrays.

The OSA ensures that the shared-memory connection method is not specified in the configuration file for client/server connections. If the client and the server are on the same computer, a client can connect to a server with a stream-pipe connection or a network-loopback connection.

For more information about shared-memory connections, see the HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Guide.

## Threats from malicious software

Database users can easily and unknowingly download malicious or unauthorized software. This is a security threat that can come from not only server machines that host the databases, but also computers used to access the databases.

To protect the database server from malicious software:

- · Keep the database server on a different computer from the clients that must connect to it
- Restrict access to the computer hosting the database server
- Monitor the software installed on the database server computers (for example, by running a checksum process periodically)
- · Keep a record of all the files and permissions on the database server computer
- · Institute a strict security policy
- · Make all users aware of the dangers of starting software of unknown or untrusted origin

Malicious software can defeat security controls in many ways. For example, such software can copy data for subsequent access by an unauthorized user or grant database access privileges to an unauthorized user.

### Remote-access threats

When a user is granted database access privileges, the host computer of the user is not specified. Therefore, the user can gain access to the privileged data from any computer that is configured to connect to the host computer. As a result, a user might not be aware of having remote access to privileged data when the user grants another user direct access to that data. This situation might lead to data that is inappropriately accessed remotely.

Make sure that all users are aware that access privileges are granted to user names, with no dependencies on the origin of the remote connection.

### Obsolete-user threats

A user is identified by an operating-system user name or user ID or both. The data access privileges and individual user audit masks of the software are based on the user name. At the operating-system level, a user account might be removed and this user name might become unassigned.

If any of the access privileges of the software or the individual user audit mask associated with that user name are not removed before the same user name is allocated to a new user, the new user inadvertently inherits the privileges and audit mask of the previous user.

To avoid this problem, have the OSA notify the DBSA when a user account is removed from the operating system. The DBSA can then perform the actions necessary to eliminate references to this name in the DBMS. These actions might involve revoking access privileges and removing an individual audit mask.

# Untrusted software used in a privileged environment

Problems might occur if DBSAs or OSAs run untrusted software. Untrusted software can use the privileges of the DBSA or the OSA to perform actions that bypass or disable the security features of the product or that grant inappropriate access privileges.

The primary countermeasure to this vulnerability is to make sure that DBSAs and OSAs do not run software of unknown or untrusted origin. Operating-system access controls must be used to protect all software that DBSAs and OSAs run against unauthorized modification.

# Distributed database configuration threats

When you set up a distributed database, you configure two or more software installations. The configurations of these software installations might be incompatible.

A distributed database user might be able to gain access to data on a remote system with an incompatible configuration when that data would not be accessible to the same user directly on the remote system. In the worst case, the software might connect two systems that have an account with the same user name but are owned by a different user. Each user is granted the privileges of the other user at access of the database that is located on the host computer of the other user.

When two UNIX™ workstations are connected, the OSA must ensure that accounts with user names in common are owned by the same user.

### Audit administration

This chapter explains how to set up and administer auditing on your database server after the database server is installed and functioning properly.

# Administrative roles and role separation

This section describes the main administrative roles involved in secure auditing:

- The database server administrator (DBSA)
- Audit administrator roles:
  - The database system security officer (DBSSO)
  - The audit analysis officer (AAO)

This section also touches on the roles and responsibilities of database administrators (DBAs), operating-system administrators (OSAs), system users, and privileged users. It tells how to set up role separation and provides guidelines on how to assign roles.

### **Database Server Administrator**

The DBSA configures, maintains, and tunes the database server. The DBSA becomes involved with the security of a database server during installation. Your  $HCL\ OneDB^{TM}\ Administrator's\ Guide\ defines$  the overall role of the DBSA.

Someone who has the appropriate UNIX™ permissions or Windows™ access privileges to view all the data on a database server must perform this role. It is supported by a designated account and software designed to support DBSA tasks.

To use the administrative software designed for this role, the person who performs the role of the DBSA must log on to one or more designated accounts and meet access-control requirements.

If the DBSA group is not group **onedb**, the permissions on oninit must be modified to 6755 (granting others execute permission) so that members of the new DBSA group can start the database server

The DBSA is responsible for granting or revoking the EXTEND role to restrict users who can register DataBlade® modules or external user-defined routines (UDRs).

# **Database System Security Officer**

The DBSSO is a system administrator who performs all the routine tasks related to maintaining the security of a database server.

These tasks include the following actions:

- · Maintaining the audit masks
- · Responding to security problems
- · Educating users

The DBSSO performs these tasks with the onaudit utility. For information, see The onaudit utility on page 160.

The DBSSO role is supported by a designated account and software. To use the audit tools, the users who fill the DBSSO role must log onto the designated account and meet access-control requirements. After the DBSSO users meet the access-control requirements and use the administrative software, their actions can be audited.

- 1
- **Tip:** A DBSSO on UNIX<sup>™</sup> is any user who belongs to the group that owns \$ONEDB\_HOME/dbssodir. On Windows<sup>™</sup>, the Administrator uses registry settings, through the **Role Separation** dialog box that opens during installation, to specify DBSSO users.
- !

**Important:** The onaudit utility can create a potential threat to the security of the database server. An unscrupulous user can abuse a DBSSO account, for example, by turning off auditing for a specific user. To reduce this risk, all actions taken through onaudit must be audited.

# **Audit Analysis Officer**

The AAO configures auditing and reads and analyzes the audit trail. The AAO can specify whether and how auditing is enabled, how the system responds to error conditions, and who is responsible for managing the audit trail.

For database server-managed auditing on UNIX™, the AAO also determines the directory for the audit trail and the maximum size of each audit file.

The AAO can load the audit-trail data into a database server and use SQL to analyze it, either through a utility such as DB-Access or a customized application developed with the HCL® OneDB® SQL API or application development tool.

The AAO performs these tasks with the onaudit and onshowaudit utilities, which The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161 describes. If the AAO uses onaudit to change the audit configuration parameters during a database server session, the new values are written to the adtcfg. servernum file for that instance of the database server.

The installation script for the database server creates a \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir UNIX™ directory or a \*ONEDB\_HOME\* \aaodir Windows™ directory, which contains files that the AAO uses. These files include the adtcfg audit configuration file and the adtcfg.std file, both of which contain examples of valid definitions for audit configuration parameters.

The AAO must have appropriate UNIX™ permissions or Windows™ access privileges to view all the data in the database server to analyze events that might involve sensitive information. The AAO decides whether to audit all actions of the DBSSO and the DBSA.



**Tip:** On UNIX<sup>™</sup>, an AAO is any user who belongs to the group that owns \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir. On Windows<sup>™</sup>, the administrator uses registry settings, through the **Role Separation** dialog box that opens during installation, to specify AAO users.

### Other administrative roles and users

A number of other, more minor, roles might be involved in database server secure auditing.

### **Database Administrator**

A DBA manages access control for a specific database. A DBA cannot change database system modes, add or delete space, or maintain or tune the system. For information about the role and responsibilities of a DBA, see the HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Guide to

SQL: Tutorial. For information about this and other database server roles and users, see your HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Guide.

### **Operating-System Administrator**

The OSA carries out responsibilities and tasks that the database server requires from the operating system. The OSA enables role separation, grants and revokes access to and from the database server if role separation is enforced, and adds new AAO, DBSSO, and DBSA accounts as necessary. In addition, the OSA coordinates with the DBSSO and AAO to perform various security-related functions of the database server, such as periodic reviews of the operating-system audit trail.

No special account exists for the operating-system requirements of the database server, and no special database server protection mechanisms are associated with OSA tasks. For more information, see your operating-system documentation.

### **System Users**

All operating-system accounts, including those for the DBSA, DBSSO, AAO, and the account called **onedb**, potentially can use the database server. All users with accounts who want to use the database server must explicitly be granted access to the database server if role separation is configured to enforce access control on database server users. The DBSA can revoke that access at any time, whether role separation is enabled. For more information about granting or revoking access, see Configuring and enforcing role separation on page 140.

### **Privileged Users**

Privileged users are those users whom the database server recognizes as having additional privileges and responsibilities. These privileged users include the DBSA, DBSSO, AAO, and DBA. In addition, the users **onedb** and **root** can also operate as any privileged user on database servers configured without role separation. Even with role separation, **root** can be a privileged user.

# Using role separation

Role separation is a database server option that allows users to perform different administrative tasks. Role separation is based on the principle of separation of duties, which reduces security risks with a checks-and-balances mechanism in the system. For example, the person who determines what to audit (DBSSO) must be different from the person who monitors the audit trail (AAO), and both must be different from the person who is responsible for the operations of the database server (the DBSA).

# Assigning roles

This section provides general guidelines on how to assign people to accounts and give them access to perform roles. These guidelines must be amended to fit the resources and security policies of your site.

- Have one account for each person who performs a role.
- For example, if you have multiple users who perform the DBSA role, have each person work from a separate account. Establish a one-to-one mapping between accounts and users to make it easier to trace audit events to a single user.
- Have as few DBSA and DBSSO accounts as possible.

The DBSA and DBSSO accounts can compromise the security of the database server. Limit the number of accounts that can disrupt the database server to lower the chance that an unscrupulous user can abuse a privileged account.

· Keep the DBSA and DBSSO roles separate.

You might not have the resources or the requirement to have different users perform the DBSA and DBSSO roles, nor does HCL OneDB™ strictly require this role separation. When you keep the DBSA and DBSSO roles separate, however, you constrain them to perform only those tasks that their duties specify and limit the risk of compromising security.

• Keep the AAO role separate from the DBSA and DBSSO roles.

The AAO determines whether to audit all DBSA or DBSSO actions in the system. It is essential that someone with a role different from that of the DBSA or DBSSO be in charge of auditing configuration, so that all users, including the DBSA and DBSSO, are held accountable for their actions in the system. This constrains users to perform only those tasks that their duties specify and limits the risk of compromising security.

Limit access to the account onedb because it can bypass role-separation enforcement and other database server
access-control mechanisms.

# Configuring and enforcing role separation

The DBSA, or the person who installs the database server, enforces role separation and decides which users are the DBSSO and AAO. To find the group for the DBSA, DBSSO, or AAO, look at the appropriate subdirectory of \$ONEDB\_HOME on UNIX™ or \$ONEDB\_HOME% on Windows™.

On Windows™, role separation is configured only during installation. On UNIX™, you normally configure role separation during installation, but you can also configure it after the installation is complete or after the database server is configured. The OSA who installs the software enforces role separation, and decides which users (Windows™) or groups (UNIX™) are the DBSSO and AAO. On UNIX™, the group that owns \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir is the AAO group; the group that owns \$ONEDB\_HOME/dbssodir is the DBSSO group. By default, group **onedb** is the DBSSO, AAO, and DBSA group.

On UNIX™, if you use the InstallShield MultiPlatform (ISMP) installer in GUI or terminal mode to install the database software, you are asked if you want to configure role separation. If instead you use the scripted bundle installer, then the environment variable INF\_ROLE\_SEP controls whether you are asked to set up separate roles. If the INF\_ROLE\_SEP environment variable exists (with or without a value) role separation is enabled and you are asked to specify the DBSSO and AAO groups. (You are not asked about the DBSA group.) If the INF\_ROLE\_SEP environment variable is not set, then the default group **onedb** is used for all these roles.

You are not required to set INF\_ROLE\_SEP to a value to enable role separation. For example, in a C shell, issuing setenv INF\_ROLE\_SEP is sufficient.

After the installation is complete, INF\_ROLE\_SEP has no effect. You can establish role separation manually by changing the group that owns the aaodir, dbssodir, or etc directories. You can disable role separation by resetting the group that owns these directories to **informix**. You can have role separation enabled for the AAO without having role separation enabled for the DBSSO.

Role separation control is through the following group memberships:

- Users who can perform the DBSA role are group members of the group that owns the directory \$ONEDB\_HOME/etc.
- Users who can perform the DBSSO role are group members of the group that owns the \$ONEDB\_HOME/dbssodir directory.
- Users who can perform the AAO role are group members of the group that owns the <code>\$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir</code> directory.



**Note:** For each of the groups, the default group is the group **onedb**.

The Is -lg UNIX™ command produces the following output showing role separation:

```
total 14

drwxrwx--- 2 informix ix_aao 512 Nov 21 09:56 aaodir/
drwxr-xr-x 2 informix informix 1536 Nov 30 18:35 bin/
drwxrwx--- 2 informix ix_dbsso 512 Nov 30 10:54 dbssodir/
drwxr-xr-x 10 informix informix 512 Nov 21 09:55 demo/
drwxrwxr-x 2 informix informix 1024 Nov 30 11:37 etc/
```

In the preceding example, the AAO belongs to the group **ix\_aao**, the DBSSO belongs to the group **ix\_dbsso**, and the DBSA belongs to the group **onedb**.

Users must belong to the correct group to access the database server. To find the group for database users, you must look at the contents of the \$ONEDB\_HOME/dbssodir/seccfg file. For example, the contents of a typical seccfg file might be IXUSERS=\*. This group setting means that all users can connect to the database server. If the file contains a specific name such as IXUSERS=engineer, then only members of the group **engineer** can gain access to the database server.

For Windows<sup>™</sup>, role separation control is through the **Role Separation** dialog box, which opens during installation, and through registry settings. If the **Enable Role Separation** check box is checked in the **Role Separation** dialog box, the DBSA can specify different roles.

For more information about environment variables, see the HCL  $OneDB^{m}$  Guide to SQL: Reference. For more information about configuring role separation, see your HCL  $OneDB^{m}$  Administrator's Guide.

# Auditing setup

Auditing does not start automatically when the database server is first installed. Before any user actions are audited, the DBSSO or AAO must perform the following tasks to configure the database server for auditing:

- Specify events to audit in the default, user, and global audit masks (DBSSO)
- Specify how the database server must behave if an auditing error occurs when an audit record is written (AAO)
- Determine the appropriate level of auditing (AAO)
- Turn on auditing (AAO)
- Specify the directory where audit files are located (AAO)

# Setting up the default and global masks

Before setting up default and global masks, the DBSSO must understand how the various masks work and what the implications are for different auditing instructions. Also, the DBSSO must understand which auditing events to place in which masks. For details, see Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB secure auditing facility on page 115.

Use the onaudit utility to add audit events to audit masks. Audit event codes and fields on page 175 lists the audit events and their codes. The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161 shows the complete syntax for onaudit.

The following command shows how the Update Audit Mask and Delete Audit Mask audit events are added to the \_default mask by their four-letter event codes:

```
onaudit -m -u _default -e +UPAM,DRAM
```

You can add audit events to the \_require and \_exclude masks in the same way. For specifics, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

All users who initiate a database session after this command is run (and auditing is turned on) are audited for the specified events.

# Specifying a directory for the audit trail (UNIX™)

The database server stores audit files in a file system directory. You can specify the directory with the onaudit utility. For example, the following command specifies /work/audit as the UNIX™ file system in which the database server is to store audit files:

onaudit -p /work/audit



**Note:** The <code>onaudit -p /work/audit</code> command works only if logging is enabled or if -1 N options are included in the command line.

You can change the audit directory at any time. You can also set up the type of auditing and specify the directory with the ADTCFG file, which is described in The ADTCFG file on page 199.

For more information about the onaudit utility, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Setting the error mode

As Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB secure auditing facility on page 115 describes, the database server has three actions that it can perform if an error occurs when writing to the audit trail: a continue-error mode, and two levels of severity of halt-error mode. Be sure that you understand the implications of each error mode before you select one.

Use the onaudit utility or the ADTCFG file to set the error mode. For the onaudit syntax, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161. For the ADTCFG file to set the error mode. For the onaudit syntax, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161. For the ADTCFG file to set the error mode. For the onaudit syntax, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

The following onaudit command sets the error mode to continue. The database server processes the thread and notes the error in the message log.

onaudit -e 0

The following command sets the error mode to the most severe level of halt, in which the database server shuts down:

onaudit -e 3

# Setting the audit level

The AAO or DBSSO configures the level of auditing in the system. The AAO monitors the audit trail and handles all auditrecord management.

The DBSSO has significant leeway regarding the auditing level of the database server. For example, a minimal audit configuration might involve auditing only DBSSO actions, database server utilities, and the start of each new database server user session. A maximal audit configuration involves auditing all security-relevant database server events for all users.

The AAO and DBSSO must coordinate efforts to determine the auditing level. For instance, to audit the DBSA actions, the DBSSO would use masks for the DBSA accounts, and the AAO would set the audit mode with the onaudit utility or the ADTCFG file.

To ensure that the appropriate database server activities are monitored, review the audit records that are stored in the operating-system audit trail, database server audit files, or Windows™ event log. You must configure the database server to monitor these events.

You can reconfigure auditing as usage changes and potential security threats are identified. For the onaudit syntax, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161. For information about the **ADTMODE** configuration parameter, see The ADTCFG file on page 199.



**Important:** Although database server audit-record generation might have a negative effect on database server performance and resources, you must perform more than the minimal database server audit. This additional audit improves the likelihood of detecting security violations and attempts to circumvent security mechanisms.

If you perform minimal or no auditing for database server users, it is virtually impossible to detect creative attempts to circumvent the database server security policy. If someone suspects a security violation or a particular user exhibits unusual behavior, you must enable full auditing of the suspect user to get a complete picture of the user's activities.

Balance the security requirements of your site and the performance and resource effect of different auditing levels. The auditing level at any given time has a direct effect on both the operating-system resources and the database server performance. The effect depends on the following factors:

- · Number of users or events audited, or both
- Processor configuration
- System load (number of processes and users)
- · Disk space
- Work load (types of processes performed)



**Tip:** To specify disk space, use the Windows™ Event Viewer administration tool.

For more information about database server performance considerations, see your HCL OneDB™ Performance Guide.

# Setting up selective row-level auditing

Auditing can be configured so that row-level events of only selected tables are recorded in the audit trail. Selective row-level auditing can compact audit records so that they are more manageable and potentially improve database server performance.

### Before you begin

You must be a DBSSO to complete this task.

#### About this task

- 1. Run the onaudit command with the -R option.
- 2. Designate the tables that you want to audit on the row level:
  - a. For each existing table that you want to audit at the row level, run the ALTER TABLE statement with the ADD AUDIT clause.
  - b. For each new table that you want to audit at the row level, run the CREATE TABLE statement with the WITH AUDIT clause.

### Example

The following code examples and descriptions illustrate how to enable selective row-level auditing.

The <code>onaudit -R 1</code> command enables selective row-level auditing, and the <code>onaudit -c</code> command displays the audit configuration for verification. The audit configuration information indicates that the **ADTROWS** parameter is correctly set to 1.

```
$ onaudit -R 1
$ onaudit -c
Onaudit -- Audit Subsystem Configuration Utility

Current audit system configuration:
   ADTMODE = 1
   ADTERR = 0
   ADTPATH = /usr2/support/chunks/IDS1170FC1B1
   ADTSIZE = 50000
   Audit file = 0
   ADTROWS = 1
```

The <code>onaudit -a -u \_default -e +DLRW,INRW,RDRW,UPRW</code> command creates the user audit mask <code>\_default</code> and sets the granularity to Delete Row, Insert Row, Read Row, and Update Row audit events. The <code>onaudit -o -y</code> command displays the audit mask for verification.

```
$ onaudit -a -u _default -e +DLRW,INRW,RDRW,UPRW
$ onaudit -o -y
Onaudit -- Audit Subsystem Configuration Utility
```

```
_default - DLRW,INRW,RDRW,UPRW
```

In the following part, the table state is flagged for selective row-level auditing and values are inserted to test whether the action is captured in the audit records.

```
$ dbaccess stores_demo -
Database selected.
> ALTER TABLE state ADD AUDIT;
Table altered.
> INSERT INTO state VALUES ('FR', 'France');
1 row(s) inserted.
```

Finally, the onshowaudit command is run to display the audit record. The results indicate that selective row-level auditing is functioning.

# Activating auditing

Auditing is turned off by default when you install the database server. Use the onaudit utility to turn on auditing at runtime or set the **ADTMODE** configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file. If you use the ADTCFG file, the setting takes effect when the database server is initialized.

The following onaudit command turns on auditing:

```
onaudit -l 1
```

After you turn on auditing, it takes effect immediately for all sessions.

The AAO can configure the database server to turn on auditing when the server starts when the **ADTMODE** configuration parameter is set to the numbers 1, 3, 5, or 7 in the ADTCFG file. For details on **ADTMODE** parameter values, see The onaudit utility: Configure auditing on page 165 and The ADTCFG file on page 199.

When the database server is initialized with auditing turned on, all user sessions generate audit records according to the individual, default, or global (\_require, \_exclude) mask in effect for each user.

To turn off auditing after it starts, see Turning off auditing on page 152.

## Audit mask maintenance

You might want to change the auditing instructions as your auditing requirements change. This section explains the following procedures, which you use to change audit masks:

- · Creating audit masks
- · Displaying audit masks
- · Modifying audit masks
- · Deleting audit masks

These tasks, which the DBSSO performs, apply whether the database server or your operating system administers the audit records.

# Creating audit masks

#### About this task

You can create masks that more closely match the types of activities that individual users perform than do default and global masks.

- To create individual user masks, specify user IDs as mask names.
- To create template masks, preface the name of a mask with an underscore (\_). Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB secure auditing facility on page 115 describes template masks and user masks.

### **Example**

You specify events in the mask when you create it by using the audit events from the alphabetic listing in the table Audit event codes and fields on page 175. You specify events for customized (template and user) audit masks the same way that you do for the \_default, \_require, and \_exclude audit masks.

For example, you might want to create three template masks with different levels of security: \_low, \_medium, and \_high. Alternatively, you might require just two templates for familiar and unfamiliar users that you copy to individual user masks: \_guest and \_trusted.

# Creating a template mask

## **About this task**

To create a template audit mask:

Use the onaudit utility.

## **Example**

The following example shows how to create a template mask called **\_guest** with the audit events Create Database, Grant Database Access, and Grant Table Access:

```
onaudit -a -u _guest -e +CRDB,GRDB,GRTB
```

# Creating a user mask from a template mask

#### About this task

A mask that is used as the foundation for one or more other masks is a base mask.

To create a user mask from a template mask:

Create the template mask. After you create a template mask for a given user category, you can use it as the basis of masks for individual users, adding or removing only the audit events that differ for each user.

#### Example

The following example creates a user mask for the user terry, based on the \_guest template mask:

```
onaudit -a -u terry -r _guest -e -CRDB
```

The terry mask has the same audit events as the \_guest mask, except for the CRDB (Create Database) audit event, which was removed.

Instead of template masks, you can also use existing user \_default, \_require, and \_exclude masks as base masks.



**Tip:** If you use a template or user mask as a base mask for another mask, the new mask inherits the events in the base mask. The new mask does not refer to the base mask dynamically. Future changes to the base mask are not reflected in other masks that might have been created or modified with that mask as a base.

# Creating a user mask without a template mask

#### About this task

To create user masks without a template mask:

Use events as the basis for the user mask.

#### Example

The following example creates a mask for the user **pat** with the Show Table Statistics event and the failed attempts of the Alter Table event:

```
onaudit -a -u pat -e +SSTB,FALTB
```

For the syntax for creating a user mask and another example, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Adding one or more masks using an input file

## **About this task**

To add one or more masks by using an input file:

Use the onaudit utility to add one or more masks to the mask table with instructions from a file that has the same format as the output of onaudit -o.

## **Example**

The following command reads a file in /work/audit\_up and adds audit masks to the mask table according to the instructions in that file:

```
onaudit -f /work/audit_up
```

The following code block shows an example of an input file. The syntax for the input file is explained in The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

```
kickt _secure1
jacks - +ADCK,SRDRW,GRDB,OPDB
pat _secure2 +ALTB -CRTB,CRIX,STSN
jaym -
johns akee -SALIX
```

The preceding example input file provides the following information:

- In the first line, the instructions specify auditing for user kickt in the new template \_secure1.
- The second line creates a new mask called jacks, which contains the events Add Chunk (ADCK), successful attempts at Read Row (SRDRW), and all attempts at Grant Database Access (GRDB) and Open Database (OPDB).
- In the third line, the user pat is audited for all events that are specified in the template \_secure2, and also for all attempts at Alter Table (ALTB), but not for attempts at Create Table (CRTB), Create Index (CRIX), and Start New Session (STEN).
- No template is specified for the target mask <code>jaym</code> in the fourth line, and no events are indicated; the mask is empty. (This prevents the \_default mask from being applied to <code>jaym</code>.)
- In the fifth line, the target mask johns audits the same events as the mask akee, minus all successful attempts at Alter Index (SALIX).



**Important:** Future changes to a base mask are not reflected in other masks that might have been created or modified with that mask as a base.

An example of an audit mask input file, adtmasks.std, is provided in the \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir UNIX™ directory or in the \$ONEDB\_HOME%\aaodir Windows™ directory. The adtmasks.std file is intended only to serve as a guide to the DBSSO for how to set up an audit mask.

Audit masks do not work the same way as audit configuration parameters during initialization of the database server. (See The ADTCFG file on page 125.) Specifically, audit masks are not automatically read from a file and initialized.

# Displaying audit masks

#### About this task

To display all the audit masks and the audit events that each mask contains:

Use the -o option of the onaudit utility.

#### Example

When you issue the onaudit -o -y command, the output (mask name, base mask, audit events) are displayed as follows:

```
_default - UPAM,DRAM
_require -
_exclude -
_guest - CRDB,GRDB,GRTB
terry - -CRDB
```

You can specify a mask as an argument to the -o option. The following example displays only the mask for user terry:

```
onaudit -o -u terry
```

A list of audit masks is helpful when you must modify them. You can use the modified output as an input file to modify a single mask or groups of masks in a single batch. For more information, see Modifying audit masks on page 149. For the complete syntax of the onaudit -o option and a description of the output, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.



7 Tip: If you use a base mask to create or modify a mask, the base mask itself is not displayed in the onaudit -o output for the new mask. If a mask is created or modified with a base mask, it does not refer to the base mask.

# Modifying audit masks

#### About this task

The DBSSO can modify masks individually from the command line.

To modify audit masks:

Use the -m option of the onaudit utility to modify a single mask. You can use this option to use another mask as a base to add or remove individual audit events.

To modify several masks at a time, you can create a new input file, change the appropriate masks, and reload them in the mask table.

## Example

The following example shows how to modify the user mask pat. The \_guest template mask forms a base from which a complete set of audit events is drawn. Settings for specific events from that file are then superseded by the events listed as arguments to the -e option.

```
onaudit -m -u pat -r _guest -e +ALTB,USTB
```

When you supply a base mask with the -r option, you replace all the audit events in the initial mask. When you change only a few events in a mask, you might not want to specify a base mask. For the syntax and another example of how to modify a mask, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Deleting audit masks

### About this task

To delete a single mask or all masks:

Use the -d option of the onaudit utility.

### Example

The following example deletes the individual user mask for user terry:

```
onaudit -d -u terry
```

For the syntax of the onaudit utility, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Audit configuration maintenance

### About this task

The AAO normally performs the following tasks to maintain the audit configuration:

- · Displaying the audit configuration
- Changing the audit mode (including auditing specific roles)
- · Changing the audit error mode
- Turning off auditing
- Starting a new audit file (including specifying a directory and maximum file size).

### What to do next

This section describes how to use onaudit to perform these tasks. For the syntax of the onaudit utility, see The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Displaying the audit configuration

### About this task

To display the current audit configuration use the -c option of the onaudit utility.

• On UNIX™, the following example shows output from the onaudit -c command.

## Example

```
onaudit -c

Onaudit -- Audit Subsystem Control Utility
Copyright (c) IBM Corp., 1998 - 2010

Current audit system configuration:
   ADTMODE = 1
   ADTERR = 0
   ADTPATH = /tmp
   ADTSIZE = 20000
   Audit file = 64
   ADTROWS = 0
```

In the preceding example, the current audit system is configured as follows:

- · ADTMODE is set to 1, which indicates that database server-managed auditing is on.
- ADTERR is set to 0, which indicates a continue error mode.
- · ADTPATH shows the default directory for audit files.
- · ADTSIZE, which represents the maximum size of the audit file, is specified as 20,000 bytes.
- The number of the current audit file in the current audit directory is 64.
- **ADTROWS** is set to 0, which indicates that selective row-level auditing is turned off.

If you are user **onedb**, you can also retrieve this information from the SMI **sysadtinfo** table in the **sysmaster** database. For details, see the HCL  $OneDB^{\text{TM}}$  Administrator's Reference.

• On Windows<sup>™</sup>, the example shows output from the onaudit -c command.

## **Example**

```
onaudit -c

Onaudit -- Audit Subsystem Control Utility

Current audit system configuration:
```

```
ADTMODE = 1
ADTERR = 0
ADTPATH = %ONEDB_HOME%/aaodir
ADTESIZE = 50000
Audit file = 0
ADTROWS = 0
```

In the preceding example, the current audit system is configured as follows:

- · ADTMODE is set to 1, which indicates that database server-managed auditing is on.
- ADTERR is set to 0, which indicates a continue error mode.
- ADTPATH shows the default directory for audit files.
- ADTSIZE, which represents the maximum size of the audit file, is specified as 50,000 bytes.
- The number of the current audit file in the current audit directory is 0, meaning that no other audit file exists in the current series.
- $\circ$  **ADTROWS** is set to  $\bar{\mathsf{o}},$  which indicates that selective row-level auditing is turned off.

# Starting a new audit file

### About this task

You use the onaudit command to start a new audit file. For the onaudit syntax to start a new audit file, change the audit-file size, or change the path name of the audit directory, see The onaudit utility on page 160.

You can use more than one flag at a time in an onaudit command.

You can start a new audit file in one of the following ways:

• Use onaudit -s to change the maximum size of an audit file.

If the audit file is already larger than the new size that you specify, the utility saves the current file and starts to write to a new one.

# Example

The following example changes the default size to 20,000 bytes:

```
onaudit -s 20000
```

• Use onaudit -n to start a new audit file without changing the maximum size.

### Example

This option, which the following example shows, saves the current audit log to another file whenever you run it:

```
onaudit -n
```

• Use onaudit -p to change the directory in which the database server writes audit files.

### **Example**

The following example specifies /work/audit as the UNIX™ file system where the audit files are to be kept:

```
onaudit -p /work/audit
```

The directory that you specify must exist.

 Start database-server- managed auditing. A new audit file starts every time that you start database-server- managed auditing.

# Changing audit levels

#### About this task

 Use the onaudit utility to change levels of auditing by the database server and to change the mandatory auditing of the DBSA.

## **Example**

For example, to start basic auditing, enter the following command:

```
onaudit -l 1
```

• To start auditing and automatically audit the actions of the DBSA, enter the following command:

## **Example**

onaudit -l 5

# Changing the audit error mode

## About this task

As Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB secure auditing facility on page 115 and Setting the error mode on page 142 explain, the database server behaves in one of three ways if it encounters an error when it writes to the current audit file.

To change the audit error mode:

Use the onaudit utility.

# **Example**

The following example directs the database server to suspend processing of the current thread and continue the write attempt until it succeeds:

```
onaudit -e 1
```

# Turning off auditing

## About this task

To turn off auditing:

Use the onaudit utility.

## Example

The following example shows the command that turns off auditing:

### onaudit -l 0



**Warning:** Although auditing might be properly configured to audit the execution of a particular utility by a particular user, audit records might not be generated if the utility fails to run for any of the following reasons:

- The user does not have the correct UNIX™ permissions or Windows™ access privileges to run the utility.
- The user incorrectly specifies the command syntax of the utility.
- The utility cannot connect to shared memory.

# Audit analysis

The audit analysis is extremely important. This chapter contains the following information:

- The format of audit records that the database server produces
- · How to perform audit analysis with or without SQL
- · How to extract audit information from the audit trail for quick viewing
- · How to load that data into a database for analysis with SQL
- · How best to perform audit analysis on the extracted audit information

This chapter applies whether you use the database server or your operating system to store and maintain the audit trail. An overview of the audit analysis process is in Overview of auditing with the HCL OneDB secure auditing facility on page 115.

## Audit-record format

The database server generates the second part of the audit record, with fields that depend on the audit event.

Table 13: Audit-record format on page 153 shows the format of the database server audit records.

Table 13. Audit-record format

ONLN	date and time	hostname or hostname. domain.ext	pid	database server name	user name	errno	event mnemonic	Additional Fields
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:00.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	CRDB	dbsch
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:18.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	АСТВ	dbsch:jazt:v1:103
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:19.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	CLDB	dbsh

Table 13. Audit-record format (continued)

ONLN	date and time	hostname or hostname. domain.ext	pid	database server name	user name	errno	event mnemonic	Additional Fields
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:21.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	ALFR	local:109:-:-:4:4: db1,db2,db3, rootdbs:0
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:28.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	ALFR	local:109:aa5x:-: 32:4: db1,db2 rootdbs:0
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:29.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	STDS	2:-
ONLN	2008-07-28 15:43:29.000	turk	4549	khan	jazt	0	STPR	100

## **ONLN**

A fixed field used to identify events

# date and time

Indicates when the audit event was recorded

### hostname

The name of the UNIX™ host computer of the client application that executes the audit event

### hostname.domain.ext

The name of the Windows™ host computer, domain, and extension of the client application that executes the audit event

### pid

The process ID of the client application that causes the database server to run the audit event

## database server name

The name of the database server on which the audit event is run

# user name

The login name of the user who requests the event

### errno

The event result that contains the error number that the event returns, indicating success (0) or failure

#### event mnemonic

Database server audit event that the database server ran, such as ALFR (Alter Fragment)

### additional fields

Any fields that identify databases, tables, and so on. These additional fields are audit-event fields that contain information captured in tabular form by the onshowaudit utility for audit analysis.

For operating-system-managed auditing on UNIX™, the database server audit record is an additional field for the operating-system audit record. Audit event codes and fields on page 175 lists the audit-event fields.

# Audit analysis without SQL

Use the onshowaudit utility to extract data for audit analysis. This utility can perform some basic filtering such as user or database server name. You can then send the extracted data to standard output (for example, your screen) and use UNIX™ utilities such as grep, sed, and awk or Windows™ utilities to analyze it. You can also put the data in a database and analyze it with SQL, as the next section describes.

Only the AAO can run onshowaudit. If role separation is not enabled, user **onedb** is the AAO. (Superuser **root** on UNIX<sup>™</sup> is always an AAO.) Because disclosure of audit records represents a security threat, only the AAO must read the extracted records.

For example, the following command extracts audit records for the user pat from an audit file named laurel.12, on UNIX™, and sends the audit records to standard output:

```
onshowaudit -I -f laurel.12 -u pat
```

The command-line syntax for how to extract information with onshowaudit is explained in The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Audit analysis with SQL

You can also use the onshowaudit utility to reformat the extracted data and redirect it to a data file and then use the dbload utility to load that data into a database table. This section explains this process.

# Planning for SQL audit analysis

When you plan audit analysis with the database server, consider that the audit-analysis process itself might generate audit records, depending on how the audit is configured. One way to avoid generating unwanted audit records as a result of audit analysis is to use a separate unaudited instance of the database server.

To perform audit analysis with SQL, you must use a program to access the database and table that you created. Use the DB-Access utility to construct and execute SQL statements or develop an application with HCL® OneDB® application development tools or an SQL API, such as .

Whether you perform analysis with DB-Access or build a customized application, remember the advice given for audit review in Audit analysis overview on page 130. To view audit events for specific objects, select rows based on their value in the dbname, tabid, or row\_num column.

If you discover suspicious activity based on initial analysis of the audit table in the database server, you might increase the scope of your collection of audit events to pinpoint the problem. If you feel certain you have a security problem, see DBMS security threats on page 133.

# Revoking and granting privileges to protect audit data

When you create a database as described in the following sections, make sure that the database is protected against unauthorized access.

By default, tables that you create in databases that are not ANSI-compliant have privileges that allow access to all users. Although the default database permissions or access privileges prevent access to the tables, correct security practice protects the audit-analysis table in a database that is not ANSI-compliant by revoking access from all other users as soon as that table is created.

You can use the following SQL statements to control access:

```
REVOKE ALL ON table FROM PUBLIC;
GRANT ALL ON table TO onedb;
```

After table privileges are revoked, generally with the REVOKE statement, you can grant individual users (for example, user **informix**) access to the tables with the GRANT statement. For information about SQL statements, see the HCL  $OneDB^{TM}$  Guide to SQL: Syntax.

Tables created in ANSI-compliant databases have privileges that allow access only by the owner, which is the appropriate security measure.

In a database that is not ANSI-compliant, you can also use the **NODEFDAC** environment variable to control access to tables and to UDRs. When set to  $_{Y^{\text{ES}}}$ , **NODEFDAC** prevents default table privileges (Select, Insert, Update, and Delete) from being granted to PUBLIC when a new table is created, and also prevents the Execute privilege from being granted by default to PUBLIC when a new UDR is created in Owner mode. For details, see the description of **NODEFDAC** in the *HCL OneDB*  $^{\text{TM}}$  *Guide to SQL: Reference*.

# Preparing audit analysis records for SQL access

#### About this task

Take the following steps to prepare audit records for SQL analysis:

- 1. Create a data file to use with dbload.
- 2. Create a database and table in which to store the audit data.
- 3. Create a command file to use with dbload.
- 4. Load the audit data into the table.

# Creating a data file for dbload

## About this task

The first step to prepare for SQL-based audit analysis is to use onshowaudit -I to extract selected audit records in dbload format and put them in an output file.

### Example

The following example extracts audit records for the user pat from the database server-managed audit file laurel.11 and directs the records to the records\_pat output file:

onshowaudit -I -f laurel.11 -u pat -l > records\_pat



**Important:** You must remove the six header lines that are in the output file before you use the file as input for the dbload utility because dbload cannot process the header lines.

The command-line syntax to extract information with onshowaudit is explained in The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks on page 161.

# Creating a database for audit data

#### About this task

To load data files into a database with dbload, a database to receive the data must already exist.

Create a database to hold copies of audit records with the CREATE DATABASE statement.

By default, the CREATE DATABASE statement creates the database with privileges that allow access only to the owner, which is the appropriate security measure. It is not necessary to use logging within a database created strictly for audit analysis because the data must not be modified.

# Example

The following statement creates a database called auditlogs97:

CREATE DATABASE auditlogs97

You can also create an ANSI-compliant database. Although an ANSI-compliant database has the additional overhead of logging, its treatment of table permissions or access privileges makes it attractive in a secure environment. For more information about UNIX™ permissions or Windows™ access privileges, see Revoking and granting privileges to protect audit data on page 156.

The following SQL statement creates an ANSI-compliant database:

CREATE DATABASE auditlogs97 WITH LOG MODE ANSI

# Creating a table for audit data

### About this task

To load data files into a database with dbload, a table to receive the data must already exist.

Create a table to hold audit data with the CREATE TABLE statement.

The order and data types of the columns is important.

### **Example**

Use the order shown in the example in the following example. The sample schema reflects the format of the dbload data file that onshowaudit created.

The sample CREATE TABLE statement in the following example creates an audit table with the name frag\_logs. For information about the contents of each column, see Interpreting data extracted from audit records on page 159.

The sample CREATE TABLE statement in the following example does not include the WITH CRCOLS option, which is for conflict resolution during database replication. To replicate the audit database, use WITH CRCOLS in the CREATE TABLE statement.

```
CREATE TABLE frag_logs
    adttag CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
    date_time DATETIME YEAR TO FRACTION(3) NOT NULL,
    hostname VARCHAR(128) NOT NULL,
    pid INTEGER NOT NULL,
    server VARCHAR(128) NOT NULL,
    username VARCHAR(32) NOT NULL,
    errno INTEGER NOT NULL.
    code CHAR(4) NOT NULL,
    dbname VARCHAR(128),
    tabid INTEGER,
    objname VARCHAR(128),
    extra_1 INTEGER,
    partno INTEGER,
    row_num INTEGER,
    login VARCHAR(32),
    flags INTEGER,
    extra_2 VARCHAR(160)
);
```

The table that the statement in the preceding example creates does not have any indexes. To improve audit-analysis performance, you can place indexes on columns within the table, depending on the type of analysis that you perform. For guidance on indexing columns, see your HCL  $OneDB^{m}$  Performance Guide.

# Creating a command file for dbload

### About this task

To load the audit information into the table that you created:

First create an ASCII command file for the dbload utility.

This command file must specify the number of columns and the field delimiter that are used in the data file that onshowaudit created. For a description of command files and their use with dbload, see the HCL  $OneDB^{\text{TM}}$  Migration Guide.

Include the following information when you create the command file for dbload:

#### **Delimiter**

I

### **Number of columns**

17

### Table name

Table you created to receive the data

### Data file name

Output file you create (to serve as input for dbload)

### **Example**

The following example uses the FILE statement to create a command file for dbload. The example includes the records\_pat data file created in Creating a data file for dbload on page 156 and the frag\_logs table created in Creating a table for audit data on page 157.

```
FILE records_pat DELIMITER '|' 17;
INSERT INTO frag_logs;
```

### What to do next

You now have the tools necessary to load a data file into the table that you created.

# Loading audit data into a database

### About this task

After you have the database, table, data, and command files for audit analysis:

Use the dbload command to load the audit data into the table.

#### Example

The following example runs the commands specified in the user\_records command file to load data into the auditlogs97 database created in Creating a database for audit data on page 157:

```
dbload -d auditlogs97 -c user_records
```

# What to do next

After the data is loaded, begin your audit analysis with SQL.

# Interpreting data extracted from audit records

When you create a database table to contain audit records that you extract from audit files, you provide a column for each field in the audit record. Table 14: Audit-event columns in database table for SQL access on page 160 lists recommended column names that are used in Creating a table for audit data on page 157 and describes the information that each column contains.

Table 14. Audit-event columns in database table for SQL access

Column Name	Description
adttag	ONLN
date_time	The date and time of the audited event
hostname	The database server name
pid	The process ID
server	The database server name
username	The username associated with the audited event
errno	The error number, if any
code	The error code, if any
dbname	The name of the database
tabid	The ID number of the affected table
objname	The index name and the table name, or similar identifier (Not in audit tables created with HCL OneDB™ database servers before Version 7.0)
extra_1	Information specific to the object and event, as shown in Audit event codes and fields on page 175
partno	Fragmentation information (Not in audit tables created with HCL OneDB™ database servers before Version 7.0)
row_num	The physical row number in the affected table, which combines the row ID and the old row ID and identifies each row for the events Read Row (RDRW), Insert Row (INRW), Update Current® Row (UPRW), and Delete Row (DLRW)
login	The user login name
flags	The flag set for the event, as shown in Audit event codes and fields on page 175
extra_2	Information determined by the flag.

# The onaudit utility

Use the onaudit utility to manage audit masks and auditing configuration.

The onaudit utility manages audit masks and auditing configuration. It performs the following operations:

- Displays audit masks
- Adds audit masks
- · Modifies audit masks
- Deletes audit masks

- · Shows the audit configuration
- · Enables and disables auditing

If you run the onaudit command without any options, it displays a usage summary.

If your system has role separation enabled, only the DBSSO or AAO have the authority to run onaudit commands. The DBSSO has the authority to run onaudit functions that involve audit masks, while the AAO has the authority to run onaudit commands that involve audit configuration parameters. Without role separation, the user **onedb** is the only user with the authority to update the adtcfg file or run onaudit commands.

Changes that the DBSSO makes to audit masks become effective immediately for user sessions.

# The onaudit utility: Configure audit masks

Use the onaudit utility to add, modify, delete and display audit masks.

# **Syntax**

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-a	Adds an audit mask.	None.
-f	Loads an input file containing a list of audit masks to be added to the audit trail.	The file must use the correct input-file format.
-d	Specifies that an audit mask will be deleted.	None.
-m	Modifies an existing audit mask.	None.
-0	Outputs a list of all the audit masks that have been configured in the database server.	None.
-r basemask	Specifies the name of an existing basemask from which you can derive events to apply to a new targetmask.	Subsequent changes to the basemask are not be reflected in the target audit masks. If no basemask is specified and no events are

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
		specified with the -e option an empty target mask is created.
-е	Indicates that audit events are to be added or removed from the specified <i>targetmask</i> .	Events specified as arguments to -e override events listed in any base mask specified with the -r option.
-u usermask	Names a specific mask.	_default, _require, and _exclude are keywords in the system, and can be one of these names for your template or user mask. The server processes the audit mask in the predefined order.  The usermask is limited to 32 or fewer bytes.
-у	Automatically responds yes to the confirmation prompt.	None.
event	Specifies an event to audit, whether the event execution succeeds or fails.	The event must be listed in Audit event codes and fields on page 175.
Fevent	Specifies that only failed event attempts are to be audited.	The event must be listed in Audit event codes and fields on page 175.
Sevent	Specifies that only successful event attempts are to be audited.	The event must be listed in Audit event codes and fields on page 175.

# Usage

Before you try to run the onaudit utility to manipulate audit masks, ensure that the server is running, and that you hold the DBSSO role.

All the options of this utility must be entered as shown because they are case-sensitive.

For a high-availability cluster, the audit mask must be created on the primary server. All of the servers in the cluster use the audit mask on the primary server.

Run the onaudit command with the -a option when you want to add one or more audit masks to an audit trail. Note that \_default, \_require, and \_exclude are keywords that the server understands and processes in a particular order.



**Attention:** Even though\_default, \_require, and \_exclude are stored as keywords in the system they are not automatically defined. You must explicitly create and add events to them before trying to use these audit masks.

Run the onaudit command with the -f option to load an existing input file that contains a listing of audit masks. The format of this input file's contents is:

```
<mask_name> <base_mask> <event_list>
```

A hyphen (-) is used in places where the base mask is unavailable.

Run the -d option of the onaudit command to delete a specified audit mask. When you select the -d option of the onaudit utility:

- The -y option is used to respond yes to all prompts.
- If the -u mask option is omitted, all masks are deleted, including the \_default, \_require, and \_exclude masks.
- If the -y or the -u options are omitted, the onaudit utility requests confirmation that this is intentional so that you do not accidentally delete all user masks.

Use the -m option of the onaudit command when you must modify an existing audit mask. Use a plus (+) sign to add an event to an audit mask or use the hyphen (-) sign to delete an event from a mask. Use a comma (,) to separate multiple events that are being added to the mask. Do not add any spaces between the comma and the event mnemonics.

If no sign is specified before an event mnemonic, the event is added to the mask.

The -o option of the onaudit command sends information about the mask to standard output. When you select the -o option of the onaudit utility:

- The -y option is used to respond yes to all prompts.
- If the -u mask option is omitted, all masks are displayed.
- If the -y or the -u options are omitted, onaudit requests confirmation before it displays all the masks because it can result in the display of large amounts of data.

The output file is displayed in the following format, which is identical to the format of input files:

```
<mask_name> <base_mask> <event_list>
```

A hyphen (-) is used in places where the base mask is unavailable.

Run the command with the -r option to copy all of the events associated with the specified base mask (which can be a system mask) to a new target mask.

The -u option of the onaudit command can be used in combination with the -a, -d, -m, and -o options.

## Example

# Example 1: Add an audit mask

The following example creates a template mask named pat with events CRTB (CREATE TABLE) and RVLB (REVOKE SECURITY LABEL) defined. The -a option is used to create the mask. The -u option is used to identify the mask name. The -e option is used to list the events defined in the mask.

```
onaudit -a -u pat -e +CRTB,RVLB
```

### **Example**

## Example 2: Load a file containing one or more audit masks

The following example loads the masks defined in the input file entitled, masks\_feb.

```
onaudit -f /work/masks_feb
```

## Example

## **Example 3: Delete an audit mask**

The following example shows how to delete the \_default audit mask:

```
onaudit -d -u _default
```

### Example

## **Example 4: Modify an audit mask**

The following example modifies the \_default audit mask by adding the GRAM (GRANT EXEMPTION) event and deleting the CRTB (CREATE TABLE) event:

```
onaudit -m -u _default -e +GXRM, -e -CRTB
```

### **Example**

# Example 5: Display an audit mask

The following example shows how to display the audit mask for the user pat, indicating that the individual user mask contains the audit events LKTB (LOCK TABLE), CRTB (CREATE TABLE), and failed attempts to ADCK (ADD CHUNK):

```
onaudit -o -u pat
```

The following example is the output of the sample command:

```
pat - LKTB,CRTB,FADCK
```

### **Example**

## **Example 6: Derive an audit mask**

The following example creates a new user mask named pat. The new mask derives the events specified in the \_secureL template mask, but excludes RDRW (READ ROW) and includes LKTB (LOCK TABLE), successful attempts to ADCK (ADD CHUNK), and all attempts to CRTB (CREATE TABLE):

```
onaudit -a -u pat -r _secureL -e -RDRW, -e +LKTB,SADCK,CRTB
```

# The onaudit utility: Configure auditing

Use the onaudit utility to start, stop, and configure auditing.

```
onaudit[ -1 audit_mode][ -e error_mode][ -p auditdir][ -R row_mode][ -s maxsize][ -E on_off][ -L on_off][ -A on_off][ -s on_off][ -P priority][ -F facility][ -I identifier][ -o options][ -c][ -n][ -q]
onaudit[ -h]
```

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-с	Shows the current audit configuration as the values of the auditing configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.	None.
-e error_mode	Specifies the error-handling method for auditing when a record cannot be written to the audit file or event log:  • • • Continue processing the thread and record the error in the message log. Errors for subsequent attempts to write to the audit file are also sent to the message log.  • • • Suspend processing a thread when the database server cannot write a record to the current audit file. The database server attempts to write the record until it succeeds.  • • • Shut down the server.	This option sets the <b>ADTERR</b> configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.  You can use this option only when auditing is enabled.
-h	Prints a help message — the command line summary and a brief explanation of the options.	None
-l audit_mode	Specifies the audit mode:  • 0 = Disable auditing  • 1 = Audit all sessions  • 3 = Audit DBSSO actions  • 5 = Audit database server administrator actions  • 7 = Audit DBSSO and database server administrator actions	This option sets the <b>ADTMODE</b> configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file. This parameter is deprecated; you should use the newer ADT_CLASSIC_ENABLED, ADT_DBSA, and ADT_DBSSO parameters instead.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-n	Starts a new audit file.	You can use this option only when auditing is enabled.
-p auditdir	Specifies a new directory in which the database server creates audit files. The change occurs with the next write attempt. The database server creates a new audit file in the new directory, beginning with the first available number that is equal to or greater than 0.	This option sets the <b>ADTPATH</b> configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.  You can use this option only when auditing is enabled.
-q	Suppresses the banner line which is written to standard error.	None
-s maxsize	Specifies the maximum size (in bytes) of an audit file. Can be any value between 10,240 bytes and approximately 2 gigabytes (the maximum value of a 32-bit integer). If you specify a size that is less than the minimum, the size is set automatically to the minimum value. When an audit file reaches or exceeds the maximum size, the database server closes the current file and starts a new audit file.	This option sets the <b>ADTSIZE</b> configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.  You can use this option only when auditing is enabled.
-A flag	<ul> <li>Option for classic and ASL auditing.</li> <li>Enables or disables the mandatory auditing for the DBSA group.</li> <li>• 0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Disable mandatory auditing for the DBSA group</li> <li>• 1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Enable mandatory auditing for the DBSA group</li> </ul>	This option sets the ADT_DBSA configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
-E flag	Option for ASL auditing.  Enables or disables the Audit to Syslog (ASL) functionality.  • 0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Turns ASL off  • 1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Turns ASL on	This option sets the ADT_SYSLOG_ENABLED configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
-F facility	Option for ASL auditing.	This option sets the ADT_SYSLOG_FACILITY configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
	Helps with filtering messages in the syslog	
	configuration.	
	• LOG_USER (the default)	
	• LOG_LOCALOLOG_LOCAL7	
	<ul> <li>LOG_AUTH or LOG_AUTHPRIV</li> </ul>	
	Other named facilities are for other subsystems	
	and should not be used.	
	The facility can be written with or without the	
	LOG_prefix and in upper or lower-case or mixed	
	case. The LOG_prefix and all upper-case is used	
	when options are written to the ADTCFG file.	
-l identifier	Option for ASL auditing.	This option sets the ADT_SYSLOG_IDENTIFIER
	Helps to choose the identifier name to be used in	configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
	syslog messages. The maximum allowed length	
	is 128 characters; the recommended maximum	
	length is 32 characters.	
	The default is the DBSERVERNAME from	
	ONCONFIG file.	
-L flag	Option for classic auditing.	This option sets the ADT_CLASSIC_ENABLED
		configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
	Enables or disables classical (as opposed to	
	syslog auditing) auditing.	
	• 0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Turn classic	
	auditing off	
	• 1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Turn classic	
	auditing on	
-O options	Option for ASL auditing.	This option sets the ADT_SYSLOG_OPTIONS
		configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
	Specifies options to openlog().	

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
	• LOG_NDELAY, LOG_NOWAIT = the default	
	option	
	<ul> <li>LOG_NDELAY, LOG_ODELAY = mutually</li> </ul>	
	exclusive options	
	• LOG_PERROR, LOG_CONS, LOG_PID	
	The options can be written with or without the	
	LOG_prefix and in upper or lower-case or mixed	
	case. The LOG_prefix and all upper-case is used	
	when options are written to the ADTCFG file.	
-P priority	Option for ASL auditing.	This option sets the ADT_SYSLOG_PRIORITY
	Specify a priority while filtering messages in the	configuration parameter in the ADTCFG file.
	syslog daemon.	
	systog daemon.	
	• LOG_INFO	
	• LOG_NOTICE	
	• LOG_WARNING	
	• LOG_DEBUG	
	• LOG_ALERT	
	• LOG_EMERG -should not be used.	
	The <i>priority</i> can be written with or without the	
	LOG_prefix and in upper or lower-case or mixed	
	case. The LOG_prefix and all upper-case is used	
	when options are written to the ADTCFG file.	
-R row_ mode	Controls selective row-level auditing:	This option sets the <b>ADTROWS</b> configuration
		parameter in the ADTCFG file.
	• 0 = Selective row-level auditing is	
	disabled.	
	• 1 = Selective row-level auditing is enabled	
	for tables that are set with the AUDIT flag.	
	• 2 = Selective row-level auditing is enabled	
	for tables that are set with the AUDIT flag.	
	The primary key, if it is an integer data	
	type, is included in the audit records.	
-S flag	Option for ASL auditing.	
	-	This option sets the ADT_DBSSO configuration
		parameter in the ADTCFG file.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
	Enables or disables the mandatory auditing for	
	the DBSSO group.	
	• 0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Disable	
	mandatory auditing for the DBSSO group	
	• 1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Enable	
	mandatory auditing for the DBSSO group	

# Usage

Before you try to run the onaudit utility, ensure that the server is running, that an audit mask with defined audit events has been added, and that you hold the AAO role.

All the option letters of this utility must be entered as shown because they are case-sensitive.

The onaudit command takes effect immediately for all new user sessions.

To enable auditing for a high-availability cluster, you must enable auditing on the primary server and on every secondary server in the cluster. The audit mask must be created on the primary server. All of the servers in the cluster use the audit mask set on the primary server. Audit records for insert, update, and delete operations are created only on the primary server.

## onaudit -h output:

```
onaudit <action> [-q] [-f file] [-u name] [-r bmsk] [-e eset] [-y]
onaudit [-h] [-q] [-c] [-n] [-l lev] [-e err] [-p path] [-s size] \
              [-R fga] [-E {on|off}] [-F facility] [-I identifier] \
              [-O options] [-P priority] [-L level] [-A {on|off}] \
              [-S {on|off}]
-h
            -- print help message and exit
 -q
            -- quiet mode
DBSSO options:
action: one of
   -a
          -- add a mask
   -d
           -- delete a mask
           -- modify a mask
   -m
   -0
           -- output a mask
            -- event set added to (+) or removed from (-) mask
 -e eset
 -f file
           -- include instruction file
            -- name of basemask
 -r bmsk
 -u mask
            -- name of target/mask
            -- respond yes to all prompts
 -у
DBSA options:
-c
           -- print audit configuration
            -- set ADTERR
 -e err
-l lev
           -- set ADTMODE (obsolescent: use -A, -L, -S)
-n
            -- start new log file
-p path -- set ADTPATH
```

```
-- set ADTSIZE
 -s size
 -A flag -- enable/disable mandatory auditing of DBSA
-L flag -- enable/disable classic audit
-R flag
            -- set ADTROWS for Fine-Grained Auditing (0,1,2)
            -- enable/disable mandatory auditing of DBSSO
 -S flag
               (NB: The -A, -L, -S options supersede obsolescent -l option.)
ASL (Audit-to-Syslog) options:
-E flag -- Enable/disable Audit-to-Syslog (ASL) (0,1, true, false, on, off)
-F facility -- Set ASL facility (default: LOG_USER):
               (suggested: LOG_USER, LOG_LOCALO..LOG_LOCAL7, LOG_AUTH,
                LOG_AUTHPRIV;
                not recommended: LOG_CRON, LOG_DAEMON, LOG_FTP, LOG_KERN,
                LOG_LPR, LOG_MAIL, LOG_NEWS, LOG_SYSLOG, LOG_UUCP)
 -I identity -- Set ASL identity (default: DBSERVERNAME)
 -O options -- Set ASL options (default: LOG_NDELAY, LOG_NOWAIT):
               (LOG_CONS, LOG_NDELAY, LOG_ODELAY, LOG_NOWAIT, LOG_PERROR,
 -P priority -- Set ASL priority (aka level; default: LOG_INFO):
               (LOG_EMERG, LOG_ALERT, LOG_CRIT, LOG_ERR, LOG_WARNING,
                LOG_NOTICE, LOG_INFO, LOG_DEBUG)
```

The distributed adtcfg and adtcfg.std template files contain ADT\_ENABLED, ADT\_DBSA, ADT\_DBSSO settings, and only mention ADTMODE in comments.

## Example

## Example 1: Start auditing

The following command starts classic auditing all sessions specified by audit masks (without mandatory auditing for DBSA or DBSSO users):

```
onaudit -L 1
```

### Example

## **Example 2: Stop auditing**

The following command stops classic auditing for sessions started after the command is:

```
onaudit -L 0
```

# Example

# **Example 3: Change the audit configuration**

The following command changes the error mode to 3 (shut down the server), the auditing mode to 3 (shut down the server if an error occurs while writing audit log records), enables classic auditing, sets the mandatory DBSSO auditing mode on, and starts a new audit file:

```
onaudit -e 3 -n -L 1 -S 1
```

## **Example**

# **Example 4: Audit selected tables**

The following command continues auditing all tables that have the AUDIT flag and stops auditing all other tables:

onaudit -R 1

## Example

# **Example 5: Enable Audit to Syslog**

The following command enables ASL auditing and enables both, the mandatory DBSSO auditing mode and the mandatory DBSA auditing mode, without changing whether classic auditing is enabled. Note that the mandatory auditing affects both classic and ASL auditing.

onaudit -E on -S on -A on

# The onshowaudit utility

Use the onshowaudit utility to view the audit information from an existing audit trail. You can use this command to extract information for a particular user, database server, or both, making it possible to isolate a particular subset of data from a potentially large audit trail.

# **Syntax**

### UNIX™:

```
onshowaudit[{-d}][{-q}]{[-n servernumber]}[-f path][-u username][{-s servername}][-1 [loadfile]]
onshowaudit[{-h}]
```

## Windows™:

onshowaudit {[ -n servernumber]}[ -f path][{ -ts | -tf}][{ -u username -s servername | -d}][ -1 loadfile]

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
-d	The output is not double-spaced when this option is used on POSIX systems. By default, there is a blank line after each audit record; the -d option omits that line.	On POSIX, it is used to avoid double-spacing in the output.
-f path	Specifies an audit trail to examine, only for database server-managed auditing.	The path can be a full path or just a file name.  If this option is omitted, or if <i>path</i> is only a file name, see the notes that immediately follow this table.
-h	Prints a help message, the command line summary and an explanation of the options.	None
-1	Indicates that the specified audit trail is for the database server.	This option is case-sensitive.

Element	Purpose	Key Considerations
	Note: This option is a holdover from a time when operating system (OS) auditing was supported. The -I must be included for compatibility.	The UNIX™ operating system uses the HCL OneDB™ database server audit trail
-1	Directs onshowaudit to extract information with delimiters so that it can be redirected to a file or pipe and loaded into a database table or other application that accepts delimited data.	When using the Windows <sup>™</sup> operating system you must remove the six header lines that are in the output file before you use that file as input for dbload or for an external file.  On the Windows <sup>™</sup> operating system, you must enter a load file name argument for the -l option.
		On theUNIX operating system this file name argument is optional.  On the UNIX™ operating system, if you do not specify a file name, the output is routed to standard output.
-n servernumber	Extracts audit records from the ADTPATH location specified in the adtcfg.servernumber file.	If the adtcfg.servernumber file does not exist, the contents of the ADTCFG file are used for audit configuration.
-q	Suppresses the banner line and the 'program over' message when the program completes.	None
-tf	Displays only failure audit records	This option is only available on the Windows™ operating system.
-ts	Displays only success audit records	This option is only available on the Windows™ operating system.
-s servername	Specifies which database server must have audit information extracted.	None.
-u username	Specifies the login name of a user for extraction of audit information.	None.





-d option, when used on windows, indicates that the onshowaudit utility must use default values for the user (current user) and database server (ONEDB\_SERVER) fields.

## Usage

The onshowaudit utility performs the following operations:

- · Extracts audit information from an audit trail
- Prepares extracted audit data for the dbload utility

The onshowaudit command extracts data from an audit trail but does not process the records or delete them from the audit trail. You must only access the audit trail with the onshowaudit command because it includes certain protections.

- With role separation off, only user onedb (and user root on UNIX™ operating systems) can run the onshowaudit utility.
- With role separation on, only the AAO can run the onshowaudit utility.

By default, the onshowaudit command is displayed to the standard output (your screen). You can redirect the formatted output to a file or pipe and can specify that the onshowaudit command reformat the output so that you can load it into the HCL OneDB™ database table.

If you modify the audit configuration with the onaudit utility, the adtcfg. servernumber file stores the changed configuration. If the server audit configuration is modified, use the -n option to specify the server number for onshowaudit. Using the -n option allows onshowaudit to read the right **ADTPATH** stored in adtcfg. servernumber file. The onshowaudit utility extracts data from all the audit files it finds that are in sequence, starting with the lowest integer.

If only a file name is specified, the utility searches the ADTPATH directory for that file and extracts audit data from it.

If a complete path name is specified, the utility extracts audit data from the named file.

The database server does not audit the onshowaudit utility's execution.

Any command-line options that you specify determine which part of the audit trail the onshowaudit utility uses

If -f is omitted, onshowaudit searches for audit files in the ADTPATH directory specified in the default ADTCFG file. The -f path option specifies the directory and file name of the audit files. The audit directory and file name must conform to minimum security levels. The directory must be owned by user **onedb**, belong to the AAO group, and must not allow public access (0770 permission). The files must have comparable permissions (0660 permission). The files must not be symbolic links to other locations. The directory can be a symbolic link. If the audit directory and files are not secure, the onshowaudit utility returns an error message and does not display the audit results.



**Note:** If you are using Windows<sup>™</sup> and you include the **-I** option in your onshowaudit command, you must remove the six header lines that are in the output file before you use that file as input for dbload or for an external file.





The onshowaudit utility can be used to filter the audit data reported to the syslog daemon using ASL, but there are two issues: one, the syslog daemon adds information at the start of a line compared to classic audit logs; and two, the locations and names of the files recorded by the syslog daemon are not known to OneDB and may not even be on the current machine.

Example 1 — Classic log (1 line):

```
ONLN|2021-01-12 18:59:21.512|njdc-ldev04|31055|njdc_ldev04_11|someone|0:ACTB:stores:someone:stock:110
```

Example 2 – syslog log (1 line):

```
Jan 12 11:59:21 njdc-ldev04 njdc_ldev04_11: ONLN|2021-01-12
18:59:21.512|njdc-ldev04|31055|njdc_ldev04_11|someone|0:ACTB:stores:someone:stock:110
```

The data in example 2 has 5 fields before the normal start of the OneDB record (which begins at "ONLN|"). (The machine/host name is njdc-ldev04; the OneDB server name is njdc\_ldev04\_11. The default identifier is used here.)

However, because there are no pipe symbols in the prefixed information, you can use:

```
onshowaudit -f /var/log/onedb.audit
```

(possibly with filters such as '-u someone') to select data from the file. The output will include the data prefixed by the syslog daemon. (You might note that the syslog daemon above is running in time zone UTC-07:00, but the server is running in time zone UTC0 — hence the difference of 7 hours between the timestamp from the syslog daemon and the auditing code. Actually, one can't tell which time zones are in use, but can tell that they are 7 hours apart.)

## **Example**

## Example 1: Reading a specific audit log file

The following command shows the audit log file /work/aaodir/ol\_lx\_rama.7:

```
onshowaudit -I -f /work/aaodir/ol_lx_rama.7
```

## Example

## Example 2: Filtering audit records by user

The following command shows only the records that pertain to usr1 in the audit log file /work/aaodir/ol\_lx\_rama.7:

```
onshowaudit -I -f /work/aaodir/ol_lx_rama.7 -u usr1
```

## Example

# Example 3: Filtering audit records by server name

The following command shows only the records that pertain to usr1 on the ol\_lx\_rama server in the audit log file /work/aaodir/ol\_lx\_rama.7:

```
onshowaudit -I -f /work/aaodir/ol_lx_rama.7 -u usr1 -s ol_lx_rama
```

# Audit event codes and fields

The secure-auditing facility audits certain database server events.

If you are using the onshowaudit utility, auditable events on each database server generate event codes. These codes represent actions on the server that can indicate possibly illegitimate usage or tampering.



**Important:** The HCL OneDB™ secure-auditing facility audits only the events that the following table lists. You might encounter additional SQL statements that the secure-auditing facility does not audit.

Table 15: Audit events listed by event code on page 175 shows the audit-event information in alphabetic order by event code:

- The Event Code column has the acronym that database server utilities use to identify audit events.
- · The Event column shows the event name.
- The Variable Contents column has other categories of onshowaudit information that are displayed for the event on that row. The categories of information are:
  - ∘ tabid
  - ∘ dbname
  - objname
  - ∘ extra\_1
  - ∘ partno
  - row\_num
  - ∘ login
  - flags
  - ∘ extra\_2

For some events, the onshowaudit utility puts two different pieces of information in the **extra\_2** field. In this case, the two parts are separated by a semicolon.

 The Notes on page 194 section after the table provides more information about some of the entries in the Variable Contents column.



**Tip:** Granted lists can be long for statements such as GRANT and REVOKE. If the list for an event to be audited does not fit into a single record, the database server creates several audit records to carry the complete information.

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
АСТВ	Access Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: owner_name, table_id
ADCK	Add Chunk	dbname: dbspace, name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		extra_1: offset
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
		extra_2: path and size
ADLG	Add Transaction Log	dbname: dbspace, name
		extra_1: log_size
ALFR	Alter Fragement	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: index_name
		extra_1: operation_type <sup>18</sup>
		login: owner
		flags: frag_flags <sup>15</sup>
		extra_2: dbspaces
		alter_type: 0 = normal, 1 = forced alter
ALIX	Alter Index	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		login: owner <sup>14</sup>
		flags: cluster_flag <sup>9,14</sup>
		extra_2: index_name <sup>14</sup>
ALLC	Alter Security Label Component	dbname: database_name
		objname: component_name
		extra_2: component_type
ALME	Alter Access Method	dbname: database_name
		tabid: access, method_ID
		objname: access_method, name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
		login: access_method, owner
ALOC	Alter Operator Class	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: cluster_size
		login: owner
		extra_2: cluster_name
ALOP	Alter Optical Cluster	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: cluster_size
		login: owner
		extra_2: cluster_name
ALSQ	Alter Sequence	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
ALTB	Alter Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: old_table_id
		extra_1: new_table_id <sup>14</sup>
		partno: frag_id
		extra_2: new_part_number_list <sup>14</sup>
ALTX	Alter trusted context	dbname: database_name
		objname: context_name
		login: system_authid
ALUR	Alter User	objname: user_name
BGTX	Begin Transaction	none
CLDB	Close Database	dbname: database_name
CMTX	Commit Transaction	none
CRAG	Create Aggregate	dbname: database_name
		objname: aggregate_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
		login: owner
CRAM	Create Audit Mask	login: user_id
CRBS	Create Storage Space	dbname: storage_name, space_name
		login: owner
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
		extra_2: media
CRBT	Create Opaque Type	dbname: database_name
		objname: opaque_type_name
		login: opaque_type, owner
CRCT	Create Cast	dbname: database_name
		tabid: from_type_ID
		objname: function_name or "-"
		extra_1: from_type_xid
		partno: to_type_ID
		row_num: to_type_xid
		login: function_owner or "-"
CRDB	Create Database	dbname: dbspace
		extra_2: database_name
CRDS	Create Dbspace	dbname: dbspace, name
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
CRDT	Create Distinct Type	dbname: database_name
		objname: distinct_type_name
		login: distinct_type, owner
CRIX	Create Index	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		objname: index_name
		login: owner
		flags: frag_flags <sup>15</sup>
		extra_2: dbspace_list
CRLB	Create Security Label	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy.label_name
CRLC	Create Security Label	dbname: database_name
	Component	objname: component_name
CRME	Create Access Method	dbname: database_name
		tabid: access_method_ID
		objname: access_method_name
		login: access_method_owner
CROC	Create Operator Class	dbname: database_name
		tabid: operator_class_ID
		objname: operator_class_name
		login: owner
CROP	Create Optical Cluster	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: cluster_size
		login: owner
		extra_2: cluster_name
CRPL	Create Security Policy	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy_name
CRPT	Decryption Failure or Attempt	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		objname: statement
CRRL	Create Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: rolename
CRRT	Create Named Row Type	dbname: database_name
		tabid: row_type_xid
		objname: named_row_type_name
		login: named_row_type_owner
CRSN	Create Synonym	dbname: database_name
		tabid: synonym_table_id
		extra_1: base_table_id
		login: owner
		flags: synonym_type <sup>7</sup>
		extra_2: synonym_name
CRSP	Create SPL Routine	dbname: database_name
		tabid: proc_id
		login: owner
		extra_2: procedure_name
CRSQ	Create Sequence	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: owner
CRTB	Create Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: owner
		login: table_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
		flags: frag_flags <sup>15</sup>
		extra_2: dbspace_list
CRTR	Create Trigger	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		row_num: trigger_id <sup>14</sup>
		login: owner <sup>14</sup>
		extra_2: trigger_name <sup>14</sup>
CRTX	Create trusted context	dbname: database_name
		objname: context_name
		login: system_authorization_id
CRUR	Create User	objname: user_name
CRVW	Create View	dbname: database_name
		tabid: view_table_id
		login: owner
		extra_2: view_name
CRXD	Create XADatasource	dbname: database_name
		objname: owner
		objname: XA_data_source_name
CRXT	Create XADatasource	dbname: database_name
	Туре	objname: owner
		objname: XA_data_source_type_name
DLRW	Delete Row	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: part_number
		partno: frag_id

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		row_num: row_number <sup>14</sup>
DNCK	Bring Chunk Offline	extra_1: chunk_number
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
DNDM	Disable Disk Mirroring	extra_1: dbspace_number
DRAG	Drop Aggregate	dbname: database_name
		objname: aggregate_name
		login: owner
DRAM	Delete Audit Mask	login: user_id
DRBS	Drop Storage Space	dbname: storage_space_name
DRCK	Drop Chunk	dbname: dbspace_name
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
		extra_2: path
DRCT	Drop Cast	dbname: database_name
		tabid: from_type_ID
		extra_1: from_type_xid
		partno: to_type_ID
		row_num: to_type_xid
DRDB	Drop Database	dbname: database_name
DRDS	Drop Dbspace	dbname: dbspace_name
DRIX	Drop Index	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		login: owner
		extra_2: index_name
DRLB	Drop Security Label	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy.label_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
DRLC	Drop Security Label Component	dbname: database_name
		objname: component_name
DRLG	Drop Transaction Log	extra_1: log_number
DRME	Drop Access Method	dbname: database_name
		tabid: access_method_ID
		objname: access_method_name
		login: access_method_owner
DROC	Drop Operator Class	dbname: database_name
		objname: operator_class_name
		login: owner
DROP	Drop Optical Cluster	dbname: database_name
		login: owner
		extra_2: cluster_name
DRPL	Drop Security Policy	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy_name
DRRL	Drop Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: role_name
DRRT	Drop Named Row Type	dbname: database_name
		tabid: dropped_type_xid
DRSN	Drop Synonym	dbname: database_name
		tabid: synonym_table_id
		login: owner
		extra_2: synonym_name
DRSP	Drop SPL Routine	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		login: owner
		extra_2: spname
DRSQ	Drop Sequence	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
DRTB	Drop Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: table_name
		login: owner
		flags: drop_flags <sup>21</sup>
		extra_2: part_number_list
DRTR	Drop Trigger	dbname: database_name
		row_num: trigger_id
		login: owner
		extra_2: trigger_name
DRUR	Drop User	objname: user_name
DRTX	Drop trusted context	objname: context_name
DRTY	Drop Type	dbname: database_name
		objname: type_name
		login: type_owner
DRVW	Drop View	dbname: database_name
		tabid: view_table_id
		flags: drop_flags <sup>21</sup>
DRXD	Drop XADatasource	dbname: database_name
		objname: owner

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		objname: XA_data_source_name
DRXT	Drop XADatasource Type	dbname: database_name
		objname: owner
		objname: XA_data_source_type_name
EXSP	Execute SPL Routine	dbname: database_name
		tabid: proc_id
GRDB	Grant Database Access	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: privilege <sup>5</sup>
		extra_2: grantees <sup>4</sup>
GRDR	Grant Default Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: role_name
		login:grantor
		extra_2: grantees <sup>4</sup>
GRFR	Grant Fragment Access	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: fragment
		extra_1: privilege <sup>5, 14</sup>
		login: grantor
		extra_2: grantees <sup>4, 14</sup>
GRLB	Grant Security Label	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy.label_name
		login: grantee <sup>4</sup>
		extra_2: access_type
GRRL	Grant Role	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		objname: role_name
		login: grantor
		extra_2: grantees <sup>4</sup>
GRSA	Grant DBSECADM	login: grantee
GRSS	Grant	dbname: database_name
	SETSESSIONAUTH	login: grantee
		extra_2: surrogate_user_list
GRTB	Grant Table Access	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: privilege <sup>5, 14</sup>
		login: grantor
		extra_2: grantee <sup>4, 14</sup> , update_columns, select_columns <sup>4, 14</sup>
GRXM	Grant Exemption	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy_name
		login: grantee
		extra_2: rule
INRW	Insert Row	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		partno: frag_id
		row_num: row_id
LGDB	Change Database Log	dbname: database_name
	Mode	flags: log_status <sup>6</sup>
LKTB	Lock Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
		flags: lock_mode <sup>8</sup>
LSAM	List Audit Masks	none
LSDB	List Databases	none
MDLG	Modify Transaction Logging	flags: buffered_log_flags <sup>2</sup>
ONAU	onaudit	extra_2: command_line
ONBR	onbar	extra_2: command_line
ONCH	oncheck	extra_2: command_line
ONIN	oninit	extra_2: command_line
ONLG	onlog	extra_2: command_line
ONMN	onmonitor	extra_2: command_line
ONMO	onmode	extra_2: command_line
ONPA	onparams	extra_2: command_line
ONPL	onpload	extra_2: command_line
ONSP	onspaces	extra_2: command_line
ONST	onstat	extra_2: command_line
OPDB	Open Database	dbname: database_name
		flags: exclusive_flag
		extra_2: database_password
OPST	Optimize Storage	fragment <parameters>: part_numbers</parameters>
		table <parameters>: table_name:database_name:owner_name</parameters>
		compression purge_dictionary: date
PWUR	Set User Password	objname: user_name
RBSV	Rollback to Savepoint	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: transaction_id
		objname: savepoint_name
RDRW	Read Row	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

Event Code	Event	Variable Contents
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: part_number
		partno: frag_id
		row_num: row_id <sup>14</sup>
RLOP	Release Optical Cluster	dbname: family_name
		row_num: volume_number
RLSV	Release Savepoint	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: transaction_id
		objname: savepoint_name
RLTX	Rollback Transaction	none
RMCK	Clear Mirrored Chunks	extra_1: dbspace_number
RNUR	Rename User	objname: old_user_name
		extra_2: new_user_name
RNDB	Rename Database	dbname: database_name
		objname: new_dbname
		login: user_id
RNDS	Rename dbspace	dbname: dbspace_name
		objname: new_dbspace_name
RNIX	Rename Index	dbname: index_name
		objname: new_index_name
RNLB	Rename Security Label	dbname: database_name
		objname: old_policy.label_name
		extra_2: new_policy.label_name
RNLC	Rename Security Label	dbname: database_name
	Component	objname: old_component_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		extra_2: new_component_name
RNPL	Rename Security Policy	dbname: database_name
		objname: old_policy_name
		extra_2: new_policy_name
RNSQ	Rename Sequence	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
RNTC	Rename Table/Column	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: new_table/column_name
		extra_1: colno(*)
		login: owner
		extra_2: table_name(**)
RNTX	Rename trusted context	objname: context_name
		extra_2: new_context name
RSOP	Reserve Optical Cluster	dbname: family_name
		row_num: volume_number
RVDB	Revoke Database	dbname: database_name
	Access	extra_1: privilege <sup>5</sup>
		extra_2: revokees <sup>4</sup>
RVDR	Revoke Default Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: role_name
		login: revoker
		extra_2: revokees <sup>4</sup>
RVFR	Revoke Fragment Access	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		tabid: table_id
		objname: fragment
		extra_1: <i>privilege</i> <sup>5, 14</sup>
		login: revoker
		extra_2: revokees <sup>4,14</sup>
RVLB	Revoke Security Label	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy.label_name
		login: grantee
		extra_2: access_type
RVRL	Revoke Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: role_name
		login: revoker
		extra_2: revokees <sup>4</sup>
RVSA	Revoke DBSECADM	login: grantee
RVSS	Revoke	dbname: database_name
	SETSESSIONAUTH	login: grantee
		extra_2: surrogate_user_list
RVTB	Revoke Table Access	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: <i>privilege</i> <sup>5, 14</sup>
		login: revoker
		flags: drop_flags <sup>21</sup>
		extra_2: revokees <sup>4, 14</sup>
RVXM	Revoke Exemption	dbname: database_name
		objname: policy_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		login: grantee
		extra_2: rule
SCSP	System Command, SPL Routine	extra_2: command_string
STC0	Set Collation	dbname: database_name
		objname: locale_name
STCN	Set Constraint	dbname: database_name
		flags: constraint_mode <sup>11</sup>
		extra_2: constraint_names
STDF	Set Debug File	dbname: database_name
		extra_2: file_path
STDP	Set Database Password	dbname: database_name
		login: user_id
STDS	Set Dataskip	flags: skip flags <sup>16</sup>
		extra_2: dbspace_list
STEP	Set Encryption Password	dbname: database_name
STEV	Set Environment	objname: environment_variable_and_value
STEX	Set Explain	flags: explain_flags <sup>12</sup>
STIL	Set Isolation Level	extra_1: isolation_level <sup>3</sup>
STLM	Set Lock Mode	flags: wait_flags <sup>13</sup>
STNC	Set No Collation	dbname: database_name
		objname: locale_name
STOM	Set Object Mode	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: command_mode_flag <sup>22</sup>

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		flags: object_type_flag <sup>23</sup>
		extra_2: object_names
STOP	Stop Violations	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
STPR	Set Pdqpriority	flags: priority_level <sup>17</sup>
STRL	Set Role	dbname: database_name
		objname: role_name
STRS	Set Resident	dbname: database_name
		objname: fragment_list
		extra_1: fragment_information
STRT	Start Violations	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: Vio_tid
		flags: Dia_tid
STSA	Set Session	dbname: database_name
	Authorization	login: new_user_name
STSC	Set Statement Cache	objname: statement_name
STSN	Start New Session	none
STSV	Set Savepoint	dbname: database_name
		extra_1: transaction_id
		objname: savepoint_name
STTX	Set Transaction Mode	extra_1: operation <sup>20</sup>
		flags: mode_flags <sup>19</sup>
		extra_2:
SVXD	Save External Directives	dbname: database_name

Table 15. Audit events listed by event code (continued)

<b>Event Code</b>	Event	Variable Contents
		objname: active/inactive/test
		objname: directive_text
ТСТВ	Truncate Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		objname: table_name
ТМОР	Time Optical Cluster	flags: time flag <sup>13</sup>
ULTB	Unlock Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
UPAM	Update Audit Mask	login: user id
UPCK	Bring Chunk Online	extra_1: chunk_number
		flags: mirror_status <sup>1</sup>
UPDM	Enable Disk Mirroring	extra_1: dbspace_number
UPRW	Update Current® Row	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id
		extra_1: old_part_number
		row_num: old_row_id <sup>14</sup>
		flags: new_row_id
		extra_2: new_part_number
USSP	Update Statistics, SPL Routine	dbname: database_name
		tabid: proc_id
USTB	Update Statistics, Table	dbname: database_name
		tabid: table_id

# $\text{Notes} \\ \mathbb{B}$

or Status:
Not mirrored
Mirrored
ered Log Flag:
Buffering turned off
Buffering turned on
tion Level:
No transactions
Dirty Read
Committed Read
Cursor Stability
Repeatable Read
tees, Revokees, Select Columns, Update Columns:
e can be lists of comma-separated names. If longer than 166 bytes, the audit processing described in Audit rsis with SQL on page 155 truncates the lists to 166 bytes.
base Privileges:
e-Level Privileges:
Select
Insert

```
Delete
    8
        Update
    16
        Alter
    32
        Index
    64
        Reference
    4096
        Execute Procedure (When Grant privilege is executed. tabid is the procedure ID.)
  Database-Level Privileges:
    256
        Connect
    512
        DBA
    1024
        Resource
6. Log Status:
    1
        Logging on
    2
        Buffered logging
        ANSI-compliant
7. Synonym Type:
    0
        Private
    1
        Public
8. Lock Mode:
```

0 Exclusive Shared 9. Cluster Flag: 0 Not cluster 1 Cluster 10. Chunk Flag: 0 Check root reserve size 1 Check entire chunk <0 Check silently 11. Constraint Mode: 0 Deferred 1 Immediate 12. Explain Flag: 0 Explain turned off 1 Explain turned on 13. Wait Flag: -1 Wait forever 0 Do not wait

>0 Waiting period (in seconds) 14. If the user request is turned down because of the authorization, those fields are either 0 or blank, depending on the data type. 15. Fragmentation (frag) Flag: 0 Not fragmented 1 In dbspace 2 Fragment by round robin 4 Fragment by expression 8 Fragment same as table 16. Skip Flag: 0 DATASKIP for all the dbspaces is turned OFF 1 DATASKIP for the following dbspaces is turned ON 2 DATASKIP for all the dbspaces is turned ON 3 DATASKIP is set to the default 17. Priority Level: -1 PDQPRIORITY is set to the default 0 PDQPRIORITY is turned OFF 1 PDQPRIORITY is LOW

```
100
          PDQPRIORITY is HIGH
      n
          any other positive integer less than 100 that the user entered in the SET PDQPRIORITY statement
18. Operation Type:
      4
          Add a new fragment
      8
          Modify fragmentation
      16
          Drop a fragment
      32
          Initialize fragmentation
      64
          Attach table(s)
      128
          Detach fragment
19. Mode Flag:
      0
          Read/Write if operation is Set Access Mode; Dirty Read if operation is Set Isolation Level
      1
          Read-only if operation is Set Access Mode; Committed Read if operation is Set Isolation Level
      2
          Cursor Stability
      3
          Repeatable Read
20. Operation:
      0
          Set Access Mode
      1
          Set Isolation Level
21. Dropflags:
```

0 Cascade Restrict 22. Command Mode Flag: 1 Disabled 2 Filtering without error 4 Filtering with error 8 Enabled 23. Object Type Flag: 1 Constraint 2 Index 3 Constraints and indexes Trigger 5 Triggers and constraints 6 Triggers and indexes 7 ΑII

# The ADTCFG file

This chapter contains a list of the configuration parameters in the ADTCFG file and a short explanation of each configuration parameter.



**Note:** When any changes are made to the audit configuration, the server stores the changed configuration settings to the adtcfg. servernumber file. The server then reads the parameters in the adtcfg. servernumber file instead of the ADTCFG file.

Each configuration parameter has one or more of the following attributes (depending on their relevance):

#### default value

Default value that is in the adtcfg.std file

### if not present

Value that is supplied if the parameter is missing from your ADTCFG file

#### units

Units in which the parameter is expressed

#### separators

Separators that can be used when the parameter value has several parts. Do not use white space within a parameter value

#### range of values

Valid values for this parameter

#### takes effect

Time at which a change to the value of the parameter actually affects the operation of the database server

### utility

Name of the command-line utility that you can use to change the value of the parameter

# ADTCFG file conventions

The UNIX™ file \$ONEDB\_HOME/aaodir/adtcfg or the Windows™ file \$ONEDB\_HOME\$\aaodir\adtcfg is called the ADTCFG configuration file or the ADTCFG file. In the ADTCFG file, each parameter is on a separate line. The file can also contain blank lines and comment lines that start with a pound (#) symbol. The syntax of a parameter line is as follows:

PARAMETER\_NAME parameter\_value # comment

Parameters and their values in the ADTCFG file are case sensitive. The parameter names are always in uppercase letters. You must put white space (tabs, spaces, or both) between the parameter name, parameter value, and optional comment. Do not use any tabs or spaces within a parameter value.

For information about additional HCL OneDB™ configuration parameters, see the HCL OneDB™ Administrator's Reference.

# ADTERR configuration parameter

ADTERR specifies how the database server behaves when it encounters an error while it writes an audit record.

### default value

0

### range of values

0, 1, 3

0 = continue error mode

When it encounters an error as it writes an audit record, the database server writes a message of the failure into the message log. It continues to process the thread.

1 = halt error mode: suspend thread processing

When the database server encounters an error as it writes an audit record, the database server suspends processing of the thread until it successfully writes a record.

3 = halt error mode: shut down system

When the database server encounters an error as it writes an audit record, the database server shuts down.

#### takes effect

When onaudit is run to change the value or after shared memory is initialized. **ADTMODE** must be nonzero (auditing is on).

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -e errormode)

# ADTMODE configuration parameter

Use **ADTMODE** to control the level of auditing. The **ADTMODE** parameter is now deprecated; you should use the new **ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED**, **ADT\_DBSA**, and **ADT\_DBSSO** parameters instead.

#### default value

0

### range of values

0, 1, 3, 5, 7

0 = auditing disabled

1 = auditing on; starts auditing for all sessions

3 = auditing on; audits DBSSO actions

5 = auditing on; audits database server administrator actions

7 = auditing on; audits DBSSO and database server administrator actions

#### takes effect

When onaudit is run to change the value or after the server is started

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -l auditmode)

The -I option still exists but is obsolescent as it bundles three separate controls in one value. The new -L, -S, and -A options provide separate options for the three controls. The valid arguments for -I are still 0, 1, 3, 5, 7. The value 0 turns classic audit logging off (and also turns mandatory auditing for the DBSA and DBSSO off); the non-zero values all turn classic audit logging on. The value 1 turns classic audit logging on, without enabling mandatory auditing for DBSA or DBSSO users. The value 3 turns on mandatory DBSSO auditing but turns off mandatory DBSA auditing. Level 5 turns on mandatory DBSA auditing but turns off mandatory DBSSO auditing. Level 7 turns on mandatory auditing for both DBSA and DBSSO users. On the command line, the value for -I (ADTMODE) is processed before the values for -L (ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED), -S (ADT\_DBSSO), or -A (ADT\_DBSA) are processed. The explicit options always override the values inferred from ADTMODE. The -I option corresponds to the ADTMODE parameter, but ADTMODE is no longer written to the configuration file. If the configuration file contains the ADTMODE parameter at start up, it will be recognized and acted on, but its settings will be overridden by appearances of ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED, ADT\_DBSSO or ADT\_DBSA in the configuration file. The order in which these parameters appear is not material; the processing is as if the ADTMODE setting precedes the ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED, ADT\_DBSSO and ADT\_DBSA settings.

The distributed adtcfg and adtcfg.std template files only contain ADT\_ENABLED, ADT\_DBSA, ADT\_DBSSO settings, and only mention ADTMODE in comments.

# ADTPATH configuration parameter

ADTPATH specifies the directory in which the database server saves audit files.

Make sure that the directory that you specify has appropriate access privileges to prevent unauthorized use of audit records. To change the **ADTPATH** value with onaudit, database server-managed auditing must be on.

#### The ADTPATH values are:

### default value

/usr/onedb/aaodir (on UNIX™), %onedb%\aaodir (on Windows™)

### range of values

Any valid directory path

### takes effect

When onaudit is run to change the value or after shared memory is initialized

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -p auditdir)

# ADTROWS configuration parameter

Use the ADTROWS configuration parameter to control selective row-level auditing of tables.

#### default value

0

### range of values

0, 1, 2

### takes effect

When onaudit is run to change the value or after the database server is restarted.

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -R row mode)

Where row mode is set to:

- 0 for auditing row-level events on all tables
- 1 to allow control of which tables are audited. Row-level events DLRW, INRW, RDRW, and UPRW are audited only on tables for which the AUDIT flag is set.
- 2 to turn on selective row-level auditing and also to include the primary key in audit records (the primary key is only recorded if it is an integer)

see

CREATE TABLE and ALTER TABLE in the HCL OneDB™ Guide to SQL: Syntax

# ADTSIZE configuration parameter

Use the ADTSIZE configuration parameter to specify the maximum size of an audit file.

When a file reaches the maximum size, the database server saves the audit file and creates a new one. This parameter applies only to database server-managed auditing.

#### default value

10, 240

### units

**Bytes** 

### range of values

Between 10,240 bytes and approximately 2 gigabytes (the maximum value of a 32-bit integer)

#### takes effect

When onaudit is run to change the value or after shared memory is initialized

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -s maxsize)

# ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to enable or disable classical (as opposed to syslog) auditing.

### default value

0

### range of values

```
0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Turn classic auditing off
```

1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Turn classic auditing on

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -L option, it sets the ADT\_CLASSIC\_ENABLED parameter in the audit configuration file.

### utility

```
onaudit (onaudit -L on/off flag)
```

This configuration parameter is preferred over ADTMODE.

# ADT\_DBSA configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to enable or disable the mandatory auditing for the DBSA group.

### default value

0

### range of values

```
0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Disable mandatory auditing for the DBSA group
```

1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Enable mandatory auditing for the DBSA group

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -A option, it sets the ADT\_DBSA parameter in the audit configuration file.

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -A on/off flag)

# ADT\_DBSSO configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to enable or disable the mandatory auditing for the DBSSO group.

# default value

0

### range of values

0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Disable mandatory auditing for the DBSSO group

1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Enable mandatory auditing for the DBSSO group

#### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -S option, it sets the ADT\_DBSSO parameter in the audit configuration file.

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -S on/off flag)

# ADT\_SYSLOG\_ENABLED configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to enable or disable the Audit to Syslog (ASL) functionality.

#### default value

0

### range of values

```
0, OFF, FALSE, DISABLE, NO = Turn ASL off
```

1, ON, TRUE, ENABLE, YES = Turn ASL on

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -E option, it sets the ADT\_SYSLOG\_ENABLED parameter in the audit configuration file.

# utility

onaudit (onaudit -E on/off flag)

# ADT\_SYSLOG\_FACILITY configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to help with filtering messages in the syslog configuration. The parameter is written in the configuration file and on the command line with commas separating separate options and no spaces.

### default value

LOG\_USER

### range of values

LOG\_USER (the default), LOG\_LOCAL0..LOG\_LOCAL7, LOG\_AUTH, or LOG\_AUTHPRIV, or LOG\_AUDIT (if available).

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -F option, it sets the ADT\_SYSLOG\_FACILITY parameter in the audit configuration file.

### utility

onaudit (onaudit -F facility)

The *facility* can be written with or without the LOG\_ prefix and in upper-case or lower-case or mixed case. The LOG\_ prefix and all upper-case is used when options are written to the audit configuration file.

# ADT\_SYSLOG\_IDENTIFIER configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to choose the identifier name to be used in syslog messages.

#### default value

DBSERVERNAME from the ONCONFIG file

### takes effect

When **onaudit** is run with -I option, it sets the ADT\_SYSLOG\_IDENTIFIER parameter in the audit configuration file. The maximum length allowed is 128 characters. The recommended maximum length is 32 characters.

### utility

onaudit (onaudit - I Identifier)

# ADT\_SYSLOG\_OPTIONS configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to specify options to openlog(). The parameter is written in the configuration file and on the command line with commas separating separate options and no spaces.

#### default value

LOG\_NDELAY and LOG\_NOWAIT

### range of values

LOG\_NDELAY, LOG\_NOWAIT(the default)

LOG\_NDELAY, LOG\_ODELAY(mutually exclusive)

LOG\_PERROR, LOG\_CONS, LOG\_PID

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -O option, it sets the ADT\_SYSLOG\_OPTIONS parameter in the audit configuration file.

# utility

onaudit (onaudit -O options)

The *options* can be written with or without the LOG\_ prefix and in upper-case or lower-case or mixed case. The LOG\_ prefix and all upper-case is used when options are written to the audit configuration file.

# ADT\_SYSLOG\_PRIORITY configuration parameter

Use this configuration parameter to specify a priority while filtering messages in the syslog daemon. The parameter is written in the configuration file and on the command line with commas separating separate options and no spaces.

### default value

LOG\_INFO

### range of values

 ${\tt LOG\_INFO(the\ default), LOG\_EMERG, LOG\_ALERT, LOG\_CRIT, LOG\_ERR, LOG\_WARNING, LOG\_NOTICE, LOG\_DEBUG}$ 

### takes effect

When onaudit is run with -P option, it sets the ADT\_SYSLOG\_PRIORITY parameter in the audit configuration file.

### utility

### onaudit (onaudit -P priority)

Use of more urgent priority such as LOG\_EMERG is not recommended.

The *priority* can be written with or without the LOG\_ prefix and in upper-case or lower-case or mixed case. The LOG\_ prefix and all upper-case is used when options are written to the audit configuration file.

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